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Diversity in Recruitment: The Role of Realistic Website Job Previews for Racial and Ethnic Minority Applicants

Jennifer Saucedo
Portland State University

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Diversity in Recruitment: The Role of Realistic Website Job Previews for Racial and
Ethnic Minority Applicants

by

Jennifer Saucedo

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

Master of Science
in
Psychology

Thesis Committee:
Tori Crain, Chair
Larry Martinez
Tessa Dover

Portland State University
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Abstract

Prior research has examined the effects of diversity-related recruitment on racial and ethnic minority applicants, but less research has focused on how objective and realistic information about diversity influences applicant outcomes. Drawing from previous literature on realistic job previews (RJPs) and social identity theory (SIT), the current study investigates how recruitment material with objective racial demographic information (i.e., percentage of racial minorities employed) and leader diversity testimonials (i.e., positive or realistic) on diversity recruitment webpages affect racial and ethnic minority applicant outcomes (i.e., organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust) using a 3x2 between-person experimental design. Finally, the study examines how diversity centrality, or the extent to which diversity is valued by an individual, moderates the effects of recruitment material on applicant outcomes. Overall, I hypothesized that applicants would rate higher levels of attraction, sense of fit, and trust towards organizations that provided racial demographic information and a realistic diversity testimonial on their fictitious website. Furthermore, I hypothesized that these effects would be stronger for applicants with higher levels of diversity centrality. Results from multiple regressions indicated that no hypotheses were supported. Various explanations for these non-significant findings and limitations of this work are discussed that may be beneficial for future research on diversity recruitment.

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Introduction

In early 2020, the murders of George Floyd, Breonna Taylor, Tamir Rice, Nina Pop, and other Black individuals sparked a call for racial justice and racial equity across the United States. Almost 1,200 people were killed by the police in 2020, with Black people being three times more likely to be killed than white people (Mapping Police Violence, 2020). The events over the past two years have drawn attention to the Black Lives Matter (BLM) movement, where an unprecedented number of individuals showed up to protest and speak out against police brutality. The protests in the United States brought together a total of 15 to 26 million people to denounce police brutality against Black Americans, making it the largest movement to date in the U.S. (Buchanan et al., 2020). This movement and focus on racial justice emphasize a shift in society towards acknowledging the experiences of individuals with marginalized identities, including Black, Indigenous, and people of color (BIPOC).

At the same time, organizations have showcased their support for the movement by speaking out against police brutality and white supremacy. For example, Brian Cornell, Target CEO, released a statement following the closures of several Target locations during the BLM protests that caused backlash from individuals opposing the BLM movement. To push back, Brian Cornell ensured investment back into the community, writing, “we’ve vowed to face pain with purpose” (2020). In addition to this, the New York Times recently released their diversity and inclusion report that outlined a problem with the climate, specifically for racial minorities (2021). To take action against this, the company set forth a plan to help address the issues faced by their racial and ethnic minority employees. Furthermore, nearly one-third of Fortune 1,000 companies

released a diversity statement and have committed almost 200 billion dollars towards racial justice initiatives (Fitzhugh et al., 2020). These are just a couple of examples of small steps that companies have taken to make diversity and inclusion a priority.

Within organizations, a *diverse* workplace is characterized by individuals who are different, unique, and belong in the space (Patrick & Kumar, 2012; Shore et al., 2011). Diversity represents a variety of individual differences such as race, ethnicity, gender identity, sexual orientation, or age, for example, with the possibility of people holding more than one of these identities (e.g., Anthias, 2011; Crenshaw, 1991). Workplaces with increased diversity in the workforce lead to a variety of positive outcomes for the organization and its employees, such as increases in job satisfaction, group creativity, organizational innovation, and higher profitability (Cox & Blake, 1991; Cox, 1994; Hunt et al., 2020; Mamman et al., 2013). Though organizations have begun to demonstrate their commitment to diversity, this may not reflect the actual progress being made, especially for Black workers (Ruggs & Avery, 2021). In the workplace, racial and ethnic minorities are more likely to experience racial discrimination (Diboye & Colella, 2005; Lloyd, 2021), receive lower ratings in promotion decisions (Landau, 1995), less managerial support (Huang et al., 2019), and have higher turnover intentions when compared to white employees (McKay et al., 2007; Shurn-Hannah, 2000). Research consistently finds that these negative experiences of discrimination have been linked to various adverse outcomes, such as negative employee job attitudes, lower psychological health, and lower organizational citizenship behaviors (Triana et al., 2015). With a prioritization of racial justice for BIPOC and the projected increase of racial minorities within workplaces through 2024 (Toossi, 2015), this study will focus specifically on the

aspects of diversity that encompass both race and ethnicity versus other identities. *Race* may be based on shared physical traits between people or include “different life experiences, social practices, and behaviors” among a group of individuals (Ross et al., 2020, p. 318). On the other hand, *ethnicity* is defined as “shared cultural traditions, beliefs, history, celebrations, and language” (Ross et al., 2020, p. 318). For the current study, I will refer to participants as racial and ethnic minority applicants.

To help recruit a more racially and ethnically diverse pool of applicants, organizations have implemented various diversity-related initiatives and goals. This includes diversity training, mentorship programs, and increasing racial minority representation through diversity recruitment (e.g., Dover et al., 2019; Fitzhugh et al., 2020; Hansen, 2003). A recent study found that 52% of people of color reported that they would not work with an organization that did not speak out against issues surrounding racial equity (Edelman, 2020). The recruitment phase provides multiple signals to minority applicants about how much the organization values diversity. Thus, it is essential to consider because there are differences between racial and ethnic minority applicants and white applicants during the recruitment process. When organizations depict racial diversity in recruitment material, racial minorities have been found to spend a longer time viewing the organizational website (Walker et al., 2012), are more attracted to the organizations (Avery et al., 2004), and are more likely to apply to those jobs (Avery, 2003; McKay & Avery, 2005). Thus, I focus on organizational websites instead of other forms of recruitment material (e.g., job advertisements) because the website is considered a starting point in the recruitment process (Iqbal, 2020). As racial and ethnic

minorities begin applying for jobs, the material on organizational websites provides cues to help shape their perceptions of the organizational culture (Braddy et al., 2006).

However, organizations must move beyond lip service to diversity in recruitment materials and provide applicants with realistic previews about the environment, as diversity recruitment efforts may backfire when minorities believe they are being misled (McKay & Avery, 2005). Organizations can implement realistic job previews (RJPs) through websites to communicate realistic expectations about diversity-related matters. The RJP is a common way for organizations to recruit and retain qualified candidates (Wanous, 1989), as they provide candidates with realistic and accurate expectations about the job. The RJPs can be supplied through various avenues such as job webpages, job advertisements, interviews, and other aspects of the selection process. During recruitment, candidates will get a sense of the job-related tasks and preview the “organizational reality” (Popovich & Wanous, 1982, p. 571). For example, applicants may learn that the organization requires employees to work weekends, and the applicant may decide not to continue forward with the job. In addition, past literature has linked RJPs to high levels of job performance (Phillips, 1998), higher job satisfaction (Susko & Breugh, 1986; Wanous, 1980), and reductions in employee turnover (Earnest et al., 2011; Phillips, 1998; Wanous, 1980). Although past research indicates that racial minority applicants are more likely to apply to jobs with diversity-related material, it is important to explore diversity messages in the context of RJPs. Prior research has primarily focused on providing employees with realistic expectations about job-related tasks (e.g., Meglino et al., 1993; Premack et al., 1985). Still, it has been suggested that RJP theory and research should be extended to include other organizational matters, such

as different organizational policies (Wanous, 1977). In this study, I explore how organizations can provide a diversity-related RJP within the context of organizational websites for racial and ethnic minority applicants.

Thus, one crucial future avenue, motivated by recent events within the BLM movement, is to ensure that racial and ethnic minorities are given the information needed to anticipate their future experience as an employee through an RJP. Notably, the RJP should highlight both positive and negative information about the job so that the applicant can make an informed decision (Earnest et al., 2011; Phillips, 1998). In the same way it is important to provide candidates with realistic expectations about job-related tasks, it is equally important to provide racial and ethnic minorities with accurate expectations about their everyday experiences at work. During recruitment, organizations generally tend to overemphasize positive attributes of the setting and underemphasize negative attributes (Buckley et al., 1997), leading to unrealistic RJPs for the applicant. This overemphasis may result in various negative organizational outcomes, such as increased turnover, because an individual's prior expectations about the job are not met when they enter the organization (Earnest et al., 2011). If organizations provide a more honest picture with both negative and positive attributes of the organizational context, applicants can make an informed decision depending on what organizational attributes they are looking for (McKay & Avery, 2005). One prior study by Wilton and colleagues (2020) found that perceptions of a disconnect between what organizations are communicating about their diversity and the actual organizational diversity (i.e., diversity dishonesty; Wilton et al., 2020) are negatively related to perceptions of fit, authenticity, and job performance among racial minorities. While the link between RJPs and turnover

intentions has been consistent across a multitude of studies and reviews (e.g., Popovich & Wanous, 1982), the literature has yet to further explore RJPs in the context of diversity-related content, and little research has examined the underlying mechanisms of these higher turnover intentions for racial minorities. Thus, I propose that the RJP literature can be extended to explain the effects of diversity-related recruitment material with key applicant outcomes (i.e., organizational attraction, sense of fit, organizational trust in the recruitment process).

The Present Study

Organizations often overemphasize the positive attributes of their organizational diversity to mask reality, while downplaying negative information regarding their organizational diversity (McKay & Avery, 2005), leading to unrealistic job previews for minority applicants. The present study integrates the diversity recruitment and RJP literature to examine how negative, but realistic information on websites influences racial and ethnic applicant outcomes. This study makes use of a between-person experimental design, which is common in the diversity recruitment literature (see Avery, 2003; Flory et al., 2021; Kaiser et al., 2013; Walker et al., 2012; Wilton et al., 2020) and allows for high levels of control, a sense of realism, external validity, and internal validity (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Racial and ethnic minority participants were randomly assigned to one of six vignettes of a hypothetical organizational webpage and asked to envision themselves as potential job applicants. The webpage previews included two manipulated independent variables, including the racial demographic information of the workplace (i.e., graphs of moderate levels or low levels of racial diversity or no graphs) and a leader diversity testimonial (i.e., positive diversity testimonial or realistic diversity testimonial) to serve

as a diversity-related RJP for racial and ethnic minority applicants. After examining the webpage, participants were asked about their perceptions of organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust (i.e., the dependent variables). In the present study, I examine how the diversity-related content on organizational websites influence racial and ethnic minority applicant attitudes. Furthermore, I explore whether diversity centrality (i.e., the extent to which diversity is intrinsically valued by the individual; Wilton et al., 2020) moderate the effect of the independent variables, racial demographic information, and a leader diversity testimonial, on the dependent variables of applicant attitude outcomes.

Anticipated Contributions

The study provides four theoretical contributions to the current literature on diversity recruitment. First, this is one of the first studies to integrate the well-established RJP literature with the more nascent diversity literature. Organizations often implement the use of more general RJP to showcase a realistic preview of job-related tasks, but this work has ignored the more social aspects of work and workplace cultures that are likely more important for minority applicants. Little research has evaluated the social factors of RJP, with an exception being research on realistic previews of organizational work-life balance (see Bachman, 2011; Clayton, 2015; O'Brien & Hebl, 2015; Roberson et al., 2005). Still, the RJP literature has remained separated from the diversity space. Past research suggests that implementing a RJP during recruitment may lead to various positive outcomes, such as increases in future job satisfaction and reduced levels of turnover (Wanous, 1980). As organizations increasingly prioritize their minority recruitment (Doverspike et al., 2000; McKay & Avery, 2006), especially now in the wake

of the BLM movement, diversity messaging is becoming more commonplace on organizational websites (Dobbin, 2009). Though a variety of papers have called to expand diversity recruitment to include realistic previews about diversity through the RJP (see Avery et al., 2004; Breugh, 2008; Buttner et al., 2010; McKay & Avery, 2005), only one study, to my knowledge, has empirically examined the mechanisms of RJP in the context of diversity recruitment (Tsao, 2018). The study found that applicants' perceptions of diversity climate during recruitment were positively related to recruitment outcomes (Tsao, 2018). To extend the literature, this study will examine how realistic and objective recruitment material (i.e., graphs of racial demographics and a leader diversity testimonial) will alter applicant perceptions during the recruitment process.

Second, this study will incorporate a relatively new independent variable within diversity recruitment. Prior experimental research on diversity recruitment has implemented photos depicting racial diversity, organizational diversity statements, diversity initiatives, and employee and leader testimonials (e.g., Avery, 2001; Avery, 2003; Dover et al., 2016, 2021; Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008; Walker et al., 2012; Wilton et al., 2020). Yet, what is still unexplored empirically is whether a visual depiction of objective and numerical demographic information on the breakdown of races and ethnicities of the existing workforce is an approach worth implementing. Prior research examining the concept of demographic representation has primarily involved photographs depicting racial diversity (Avery, 2003; Baum et al., 2016; Perkins et al., 2000; Wilton et al., 2020) and employee diversity testimonials (Walker et al., 2009; Wilton et al., 2020) to showcase different compositions of diversity. Only a few studies have explored similar variables, such as providing applicants with the evidence-based

racial composition of leaders through a series of leadership photographs (Wilton et al., 2020) and percentages of new women and ethnic minority hires (Flory et al., 2021).

Expanding on these past studies, I implement a numerical breakdown of the racial composition of an organization through a graph showcasing the percentage of white and racial minority employees of the entire organization. Furthermore, I manipulate the percentages across the experimental vignettes to showcase a moderate amount of racial minority employees, a low amount of racial minority employees, or provide no demographic information. The use of percentages of demographic information is something that organizations have begun implementing within their organizational websites. For example, it was found that 87% of Fortune 500 companies had a diversity-related webpage detailing commitments to diversity (Jones & Donnelley, 2017), and 3% of these companies shared their employment distribution using numerical and graphical information (Jones & Donnelley, 2017). On diversity websites, companies often have relied on racial diversity through subjective material to signal to potential candidates that they value diversity (Avery & McKay, 2006). Providing an objective percentage of the demographic composition of the organization allows participants to make better inferences about the organizational composition of racial minorities rather than interpreting ambiguous cues within photographs. Based on the analysis of the demographic makeup from the 3% of Fortune 500 companies (Jones & Donnelly, 2017), companies had reported approximately 39% of ethnic minorities as part of their workforce. Though this number is low, more and more organizations are beginning to implement a report of employee demographics on their websites, including Amazon, Target, and Walmart (Amazon, 2020; Target, 2020; Walmart, 2020). Thus, it is essential

to understand how the distribution of racial minorities within an organization affects recruitment outcomes for racial and ethnic minority applicants. As such, this will be one of the few studies that manipulate and explores the new strategy (i.e., graphs of racial demographics) being used by a variety of companies.

Third, this study only analyzes and prioritizes the perspective of racial and ethnic minority participants. Prior research on diversity recruitment has focused on differences between racial and ethnic minority groups, and white applicants on recruitment material (e.g., Avery, 2003; Goldberg & Allen, 2008; Perkins et al., 2000; Walker et al., 2012). According to the American Psychological Association (APA), comparisons within psychological research often produce bias. Specifically, the APA highlights that research focused on racial minorities is often seen as a rigorous study only when white samples are included (2019). Yet, research focused on white populations is still seen as rigorous when the samples do not contain racial minorities (APA, 2019). Furthermore, the assumption is often held that all-white samples will be generalizable to the entire population, including racial and ethnic minorities, when an abundance of studies highlights differences lived experiences between racial minorities and white samples (APA, 2019). Racial minorities are projected to make up almost 43% of the workforce by 2024 (Toosi, 2015). Hence, recruitment research needs to begin shifting its focus towards the prioritization of perspectives of racial and ethnic minority applicants when considering diversity recruitment for racial and ethnic minorities. Furthermore, this contribution will shift the research question from “what will attract racial and ethnic minorities?”, to instead, “what information can organizations give to minorities to help them make informed decisions about their future job prospects?”

Finally, the present study contributes to the diversity recruitment literature by examining racial and ethnic minorities' diversity centrality as a moderating variable. The variable of diversity centrality encompasses general beliefs regarding racial and ethnic diversity (Wilton et al., 2020). If an individual has higher diversity centrality, the individual holds racial and ethnic diversity as a more central part of their identity. Previous literature has examined similar variables, including diversity beliefs (van Dick et al., 2008; van Knippenberg et al., 2007), but these past conceptualizations have focused this on the context of group identification, group composition, and group functioning (Homan et al., 2010; van Dick et al., 2008), rather than individual-level beliefs, as I do in this study. Past research found that diversity beliefs moderate the relationship between subjective diversity (i.e., perception that group is diverse; Harrison & Klein, 2007) and group identification (Henschel et al., 2013; van Dick et al., 2008), such that positive diversity beliefs strengthened the relationship between subjective diversity and group identification. However, research has often used this measure of diversity beliefs within a group setting (van Dick et al., 2008), and I will implement a newer scale that captures general attitudes about racial and ethnic diversity (Wilton et al., 2020). This new scale will better capture the beliefs and attitudes from the perspective of a racial and ethnic minority applicant that may play a role in the examination of diversity recruitment material (Wilton et al., 2020). To extend the current literature, the present study will examine how diversity centrality moderates the effects of the manipulated independent variables (i.e., racial demographic information and a leader diversity testimonial) on applicant outcomes (i.e., organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust) to better understand how individual beliefs play a role for racial and

ethnic minorities when examining recruitment material. As organizations continue to implement diversity-related initiatives, it will be important for organizations to understand how this spectrum of beliefs may play a role in their recruitment of new employees. For example, some organizations may hope to recruit new leadership into their organization who prioritize and consider diversity-related issues for the good of the organization. Additionally, this study highlights and captures a spectrum of racial and ethnic minority perspectives, given that some racial minorities consider diversity-related issues (e.g., representation) at their organizations more than others, while others may focus on job-related issues (e.g., salary, benefits, work hours) more than others. This spectrum of perspectives is important to explore as organizations cannot hold the assumption that all racial and ethnic minority applicants will be influenced by diversity-related issues.

In the following sections, I introduce prior theory on RJPs and Social Identity Theory (SIT; Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel & Turner, 1985) to provide a framework that links the effects of recruitment information to recruitment outcomes, in addition to the moderating variable of diversity centrality. Finally, I give an overview of prior literature that motivate the proposed hypotheses.

Realistic Job Previews

In the following section, I provide background on realistic job previews (RJPs) to present the reader with a foundation of the RJP literature to help integrate diversity-related literature. As candidates begin looking for a job, they may look at the organizational website as a starting point (Iqbal, 2020) because of how easily accessible it is. According to signaling theory (Spence, 1973), applicants rely on the cues or “signals”

to understand the organization. These signals provided through the material on the website can help shape perceptions of the organization and its culture (Braddy et al., 2006; Herdman & McMillian-Capehart, 2010). The information provided during the RJP will have an influence on employees' perceptions of the organization in the future (Dugoni & Ilgen, 1981; Meglino et al., 1993). However, the material provided during the RJP is often incomplete, so individuals often make inferences based on the provided information (Chen, 2012). Providing RJP to candidates is related to a variety of positive outcomes such as increases in job acceptance, perceptions of honesty and role clarity (Earnest et al., 2011), job satisfaction (Susko & Breugh, 1986; Wanous, 1980), job performance (Phillips, 1988), reduced turnover (Phillips, 1998; Wanous, 1980), organizational attraction, initial expectations, and met expectations (Earnest et al., 2011).

The relationship between RJP and turnover, more specifically, can be explained through various psychological mediators, such as the concept of met expectations (Earnest et al., 2011). The met expectations hypothesis (Irving & Meyer, 1994; Porter & Steers, 1973) describes the relationship between recruitment and retention, suggesting that individuals who are prompted with realistic expectations about a job will have higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment if their prior expectations are met after hire (Wanous, 1980; Wanous et al., 1992). In addition to the concept of met expectations, providing an RJP may provide perceptions of honesty about the company, allow applicants to self-select into the organization, and increase levels of organizational attraction. As stated earlier, the RJP should highlight both negative and positive aspects of the job (Phillips, 1998). Providing this balanced information allows applicants to remove themselves from the process if the information provided by the organization does

not showcase a good fit. Additionally, applicants who are provided with negative and positive information will perceive the organization as more honest and trustworthy (Wanous, 1977). As such, it is recommended that organizations provide a moderate level of negative information to provide applicants with balanced information about the organization (Popovich & Wanous, 1982). Incomplete information may lead individuals to make inaccurate inferences about the organization based on perceptions from the information on the website (Chen, 2012).

As we continue to integrate diversity and RJP literature, I propose that organizations must provide applicants with realistic previews of diversity during recruitment to signal realistic expectations of organizational diversity. As such, these signals should provide individuals with a balanced perception of both negative and positive information regarding organizational diversity. Past literature on RJP explain the effects of manipulated recruitment material on a fictitious webpage on applicant perceptions of this material. Specifically, I anticipate that participants will rate higher levels of organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust when organizations provide applicants with more realistic and holistic information about the organization.

Theoretical Rationale

In the following section, I provide theoretical background on SIT (Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel & Turner, 1985) to motivate the hypothesized effects of diversity recruitment information on applicant outcomes. SIT is often used to explain a variety of psychological processes between groups and inter-group behaviors (Tajfel, 1974). According to SIT, individuals categorize themselves into different groups based on

various social categories (Tajfel & Turner, 1985), such as race, ethnicity, age, gender, or religious identification. According to SIT, individuals are motivated to create a positive sense of self, which will inadvertently boost individual self-esteem (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Brown, 2000). Furthermore, individuals will obtain this positive sense of self after comparing their group to other groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1985; Turner & Oakes, 1986). As I describe next, there are three essential processes within SIT, including social categorization, social identity, and social comparison (Tajfel, 1974). These processes within SIT play an important role in motivating human behavior to increase individual self-esteem and create a positive view of social identity (Hog & Terry, 2000; Scheepers & Ellemers, 2019).

First, individuals classify themselves based on various social categories, described as self-categorization. This categorization occurs because individuals will attempt to “segment, classify, and order the social environment” (Tajfel, 1978, p. 283), to better simplify their surroundings. Once this categorization occurs, individuals will obtain a sense of their social identity (Hogg, 2001; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Second, according to Tajfel (1974), one’s social identity is obtained through the awareness of belonging to a one or multiple groups. In addition to this, individuals should hold a level of “emotional significance” (Tajfel, 1974, p. 69) toward the group and internalize this social category as part of their identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). SIT contends that individuals will categorize themselves with these social groups to uphold their sense of self-esteem (Hogg & Turner, 1985; Tajfel, 1978). As such, individuals will continuously be motivated to create a positive view of themselves with their social identity. Third, individuals compare themselves to individuals who are similar to them and individuals who are not similar to

them, which draws from prior social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954). Within SIT, this involves individuals making comparisons between themselves and their own social group, which can be described as an in-group, with other groups being described as out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This comparison of an in-group to out-groups allows individuals to increase self-esteem and strengthen their positive sense of identity by examining their in-group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Furthermore, SIT can be and has been applied to the workplace (e.g., Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg & Terry, 2014; Scheepers & Ellemers, 2019). Individuals who work at an organization will categorize other individuals based on salient social characteristics (Schneider & Northcraft, 1999), such as race and/or ethnicity. Drawing on the concepts in SIT, I hypothesize that information provided on the webpage, such as racial demographic information and a leader diversity testimonial, will affect racial and ethnic minority perceptions of organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust. The processes represented in SIT can help explain how racial and ethnic minority applicants perceive an organization from information on their recruitment webpage, such as the valuing of racial and ethnic identity. According to SIT, racial minority applicants are likely to seek out organizations with groups that share similar social characteristics. The following section outlines my rationale for my selection of independent variables (i.e., racial demographic information, leader diversity testimonial).

Demographic Information and Leader Diversity Testimonials as RJPs

Recruitment is crucial for organizations to consider because it allows for the staffing of qualified candidates that directly influence the overall effectiveness of the organization (Sinh & Finn, 2010). Often, the content on organizational websites

influences various applicant outcomes (Cober et al., 2003). In the present study, I examine how racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonials affect essential applicant outcomes (i.e., organizational attraction, sense of fit, organizational trust). As such, these outcomes are important to consider in relation to diversity recruitment because we need to understand current organizational strategies being used on recruitment websites.

The first independent variable, racial demographic information, provides applicants with objective information and realistic expectations about the workforce composition. This ultimately provides the applicants with a sense of the people they will be surrounded with if they choose to pursue a job at the organization. Additionally, the leader diversity testimonial presents applicants with insight into the organizations' commitment to diversity from top leadership. In addition to this, the manipulation of the testimonial can alter applicant perceptions of the organizations based on the type of information provided regarding organizational diversity (i.e., positive or realistic). In the following sections, I introduce my anticipated hypotheses with my desired outcomes of interest, including organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust. See Figure 1 for the hypothesized model.

Hypotheses Development

Organizational Attraction as an Outcome

As an outcome, organizational attraction represents an applicant's positive perception of an organization (Catanzaro et al., 2010; Highhouse et al., 2003).

Organizational attraction is considered foundational in the recruitment literature, especially considering its close relationship with important applicant outcomes, such as intentions to pursue or apply to an organization (Highhouse et al., 2003; Roberson et al., 2005). As such, it is important for organizations to consider the material provided on the organizational website because it will provide racial and ethnic minority applicants with insight into the organizational diversity climate (McKay & Avery, 2006). Past diversity recruitment research has linked these perceptions of the organization during recruitment to organizational attraction (Tsao, 2018). More specifically, racial minority applicants report higher levels of organizational attraction when examining diversity-related information, such as diversity-related policies (Highhouse et al., 1999; Williams & Bauer, 1994), investments in diversity management (Madera et al., 2018), and racial diversity in recruitment material (Avery 2003; Perkins & Thomas, 2000; Walker et al., 2012). In prior RJP literature, applicants have reported lower levels of attraction when negative information is presented to them during the recruitment process (Bourgeois, 2003; Bretz & Judge, 1998), but applicants report higher levels of attraction when negative information is presented in a compassionate manner (Bretz & Judge, 1998). Thus, I anticipate that individuals will seek out environments that affirm their social identity (Tajfel, 1974) and provide applicants with balanced information about the organizational diversity. As such, SIT and prior RJP literature can be extended to

investigate how diversity recruitment material may influence perceptions of organizational attraction.

The racial demographic information on the webpage (i.e., percentage of white versus racial minority employees) provides applicants with realistic information of the organizational racial diversity. Racial and ethnic minority applicants are likely to hold their race or ethnicity as central to their identity and seek out other individuals who are similar to them. When an individual views an organizational webpage that demonstrates moderate or low levels of racial diversity, this will affirm the identity of the racial and ethnic minority applicant. This should lead individuals to believe that they will have a group of similar social identities (i.e., racial or ethnic minorities) within the organization. I expect that moderate and low diversity percentages will lead to similar outcomes because both conditions will provide individuals with objective information about the organization. When an organization does not provide applicants with racial demographic information, an individual will not have a clear idea about the racial and ethnic composition and be unsure if individuals at the organization will share similar identities. Thus, based on SIT and prior research on diversity recruitment, I anticipate that racial and ethnic minority participants presented with moderate or low demographic percentages will report higher levels of organizational attraction than applicants presented with no demographic information.

Hypothesis 1a: Racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the condition of moderate demographics will report stronger levels of organizational attraction than minority participants randomized to the condition of no demographics.

Hypothesis 1b: Racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the condition of low demographics will report stronger levels of organizational attraction than minority participants randomized to the condition of no demographics.

In addition to this, the leader diversity testimonial provides applicants with a preview of the organizations' commitment to racial diversity coming from leadership. When applicants read the diversity testimonial, this should affirm their racial and ethnic identity, according to SIT and prior research, which suggests that racial and ethnic minority applicants are more attracted to organizations that present diversity cues on recruitment websites (Walker et al., 2012). When an applicant is presented with a positive diversity testimonial, the webpage only displays idealistic information about organizational diversity. Applicants will be attracted to the organization, regardless of if whether the testimonial is truthful about their organizational diversity. When presented with a realistic diversity testimonial, the applicant is provided with a more balanced view of the organizational diversity because the testimonial offers both positive and negative information about the diversity of the organization. In the realistic testimonial, the organization acknowledges that its diversity may not be the best but is hoping to improve where they are. Providing this balanced information will be attractive to the applicant because they are honest about their current state and ongoing efforts regarding the organizational diversity, compared to an idealized testimonial that does not acknowledge their current shortcomings. Thus, based on SIT and prior research on RJPs, I anticipate that racial and ethnic minorities will report higher levels of organizational attraction when

presented with a realistic leader diversity testimonial rather than a positive diversity testimonial.

Hypothesis 2: Racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the condition of a realistic diversity testimonial will report stronger levels of organizational attraction than minority participants randomized to the condition of a positive diversity testimonial.

Sense of Fit as an Outcome

The second outcome of interest, sense of fit, is defined as the perception that one feels that they are connected to others socially (Walton & Cohen, 2007). When racial minorities experience a sense of fit within the organization, they will feel a sense of acceptance or belonging. This need to belong and be accepted by others is a core human motive (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Past research finds that sense of fit is related to various positive outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors, job commitment, job performance, and employee retention (Chung, 2017; Verquer et al., 2003; Youngs et al., 2015). Research has found that Black individuals perceive higher levels of fit when recruitment material provides evidence-based diversity cues, such as diversity testimonials from employees or information about leadership demographics (Wilton et al., 2020). Sense of fit is essential to explore for racial minorities to understand the role of belonging in applicant decisions to pursue an organization. During recruitment, racial minority applicants may be attracted to an organization, but not perceive a sense of fit. When an organization provides diversity-related information on its website, this may provide a preview of “fit” between the applicant and the organization.

If applicants perceive a poor fit between themselves and the organization, it is unlikely that they will continue in the application process (Phillips, 1998).

The racial demographic information provides applicants with a preview of the employees that the applicant would be working with at the organization, allowing the applicant to anticipate their level of “fit” between what they expect from the job and the anticipated organizational reality (Phillips, 1998). Drawing on SIT, when applicants view a moderate level of diversity on the webpage, the applicant anticipates that the organization has individuals who share a similar social identity and are a part of the in-group. When applicants view low levels of diversity may anticipate that the organization will have more individuals in the out-group rather than the in-group. Applicants may not feel a strong sense of belonging but will have a more realistic expectation about being surrounded by people like them. When an applicant is not provided with demographic information, they will not have a clear idea of individuals who share similar identities to them, which may lead to false expectations about feelings of belonging with workers at the organization. Thus, I expect that racial and ethnic minority participants will feel a high sense of fit when they view moderate or low demographics compared to applicants who view no demographics based on SIT and prior research on diversity recruitment.

Hypothesis 3a: Racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the condition of moderate demographics will report stronger levels of sense of fit than minority participants randomized to the condition of no demographics.

Hypothesis 3b: Racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the condition of low demographics will report stronger levels of sense of fit than minority participants randomized to the condition of no demographics.

The leader diversity testimonial gives valuable insight to applicants, such as a sense of anticipated belonging at an organization based on the value of diversity in organizational leadership. When presented with a positive diversity testimonial, the applicant will expect to fit in at the organization as the testimonial provides an idealistic perception of the organizational diversity. The positive information in the testimonial will signal to applicants that the organization values their racial and ethnic identity. On the other hand, the realistic diversity testimonial will provide a more truthful preview of the organizational diversity that addresses that there are shortcomings regarding their organizational diversity. Providing this balanced perception of organizational diversity allows applicants to better anticipate a more realistic level of belonging to the organization. Thus, based on SIT and RJP research, I expect that racial and ethnic minorities will report a higher sense of fit when presented with a realistic diversity testimonial compared to a positive diversity testimonial.

Hypothesis 4: Racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the condition of a realistic diversity testimonial will report stronger levels of sense of fit than minority participants randomized to the condition of a positive diversity testimonial.

Organizational Trust as an Outcome

The third outcome explored, organizational trust, describes the individual perception that an organization will engage in helpful behaviors during uncertainty that will benefit the employee (Matthai, 1989; Nyhan & Marlowe Jr., 1997). The information provided during recruitment allows applicants to consider “the extent to which a person will trust and feel comfortable in a given setting” (Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008, p. 615).

Past research has found that feelings of trust can be linked to various employee outcomes, including job commitment and turnover intentions (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Applicants who perceive an organization as trustworthy during recruitment anticipate that the organization will interact with them in a similar manner after entering the organization (Dugoni & Ilgen, 1981). Past research has found that Black and Latino participants trusted organizations that had higher minority representation (Pietri et al., 2019; Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008). As such, racial and ethnic minority participants are more trusting of organizations that depict information that demonstrates a shared racial and ethnic identity to the participant. Trust is an important outcome to consider in the recruitment literature because some individuals should be more willing to work at an organization that they trust will treat them fairly, rather than an organization they are simply attracted to. Furthermore, I propose that some applicants prioritize trusting an organization to be fair toward them, rather than belonging with employees of an organization.

According to SIT, the racial demographic information on the organizational webpage should influence applicant perceptions of trust towards an organization. When an individual views an organizational webpage that demonstrates moderate levels of racial diversity, racial and ethnic minority applicants will anticipate having groups at the organization that share similar social identities and who are treated fairly. When an individual views a webpage with low levels of diversity, racial and ethnic minority applicants should perceive the organization as more trustworthy because the organization provides the applicant with a “balanced” perception of the organization, in that the organization is providing applicants with the low percentage even though this can be considered negative information. When no demographic information is provided, the

applicant is likely to not have a clear or “balanced” idea about the racial composition because of the lack of information. This incomplete information can leave the applicant unsure about trusting the organization because of inferences the applicant makes with the provided information. Thus, I anticipate that racial and ethnic minority participants presented with moderate or low demographics will report higher levels of organizational trust compared to applicants who view no demographics based on SIT and past research on diversity recruitment.

Hypothesis 5a: Racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the condition of moderate demographics will report stronger levels of organizational trust than minority participants randomized to the condition of no demographics.

Hypothesis 5b: Racial and ethnic minority applicants randomized to the condition of low demographics will report stronger levels of organizational trust than minority applicants randomized to the condition of no demographics.

When applicants view a webpage that provides a diversity testimonial, applicants can make different judgments based on the type of information in the testimonial (i.e., positive or realistic). When shown a positive diversity testimonial, the applicant will perceive that they will be valued at the organization based on the affirmation of their identity. When provided with a realistic diversity testimonial, the applicant may consider these testimonials more genuine because the organization acknowledges their current weaknesses regarding diversity. As the applicant is given a more balanced perception of the organizational diversity, the applicant may anticipate that the organization will continue to be genuine and trustworthy at the organization. On the other hand, only providing positive information about the organizational diversity may lead to inaccurate

inferences from the applicant. Thus, I anticipate that racial and ethnic minority applicants will report higher levels of organizational trust when presented with a realistic diversity testimonial rather than a positive testimonial based on SIT.

Hypothesis 6: Racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the condition of a realistic diversity testimonial will report stronger levels of organizational trust than minority participants randomized to the condition of a positive diversity testimonial.

Interaction between Demographic Information and Leader Diversity Testimonial

An aim of the current study is to examine how racial demographic information and a leader diversity testimonial interact with one another to influence applicant perceptions of organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust. These two independent variables provide applicants with important insight for organizations altering their diversity recruitment material, as the material offers applicants a preview of what workers *and* leadership look like. If an organization continues to provide racial and ethnic demographic information on its website, it is also important to consider additional signals sent from leadership through various diversity testimonials provided by leaders as these testimonials may provide signals of an idealistic or realistic preview of what the organizational diversity may look like.

First, I expect to find an interaction effect between the independent variables on applicants' perception of organizational attraction. In line with SIT, racial and ethnic minority applicants will be given insight into the racial composition of the workplace and leadership, allowing the applicant to categorize the in-group and out-group. If applicants are shown that there is racial diversity among the workers and leadership, applicants

should be more attracted to the organization because there are workers in the applicants' in-group. Prior research has found that Black applicants are attracted to diversity recruitment material, but only when the material demonstrates diversity in organizational leadership (Avery, 2003). This highlights that racial and ethnic minority applicants are not only looking for diversity in the workforce, but cues about the diversity from leadership. I propose that this can be extended as applicants may hope to see cues from leadership regarding the importance of organizational diversity. As the diversity testimonial is provided from a leader at an organization, this sends a cue to applicants that diversity is valued within leadership. The positive diversity testimonial may provide an idealized perception of the organizational diversity and the applicant may realize that these statements may be inaccurate, while the realistic diversity testimonial will provide applicants with a more truthful and balanced perception of the current state of diversity at the organization. The racial demographic information combined with the diversity testimonial will provide multiple signals to the applicant that may alter their level of attraction to the organization. The combination of information provides objective evidence of the current state of organizational diversity and insight into the truthfulness behind a diversity testimonial. Thus, I expect that racial and ethnic minority applicants will rate the strongest levels of organizational attraction when presented with moderate demographics or low demographics and a realistic diversity testimonial compared to conditions of low demographics and a positive diversity testimonial.

Hypothesis 7a: There will be an interaction effect of racial demographic information and the diversity testimonial on organizational attraction, such that the racial and ethnic minority participants in the condition of moderate

demographics and the realistic diversity testimonial (versus no demographics and a positive diversity testimonial) will result in the strongest levels of organizational attraction.

Hypothesis 8a: There will be an interaction effect of racial demographic information and the diversity testimonial on organizational attraction, such that the racial and ethnic minority participants in the condition of low demographics and the realistic diversity testimonial (versus no demographics and a positive diversity testimonial) will result in the strongest levels of organizational attraction.

Next, I expect to find an interactive effect of the independent variables on perceptions of sense of fit with the organization. Information that provides a balanced preview of the organizations' diversity on the organizational webpage will allow participants to better consider aspects of fit and belonging because they gain insight into the organizational culture (Gardner et al., 2009). In line with SIT, racial and ethnic minority applicants should feel a higher sense of belonging with individuals who share their racial and ethnic identity and are categorized in their in-group, as shown through the racial demographic information. Furthermore, the leader diversity testimonial will provide further insight into how diversity may be valued by leadership. For example, the realistic diversity testimonial addresses current shortcomings regarding organizational diversity. The applicant may anticipate that the organization knows there may be issues but are willing to acknowledge and listen to the applicant regarding these issues to improve their feelings of belonging. The diversity testimonial in the presence of racial demographic information may elicit feelings of fit because the applicant can assess their

feelings of belonging at the organization among workers and leadership. These signals offer evidence about the percentage of individuals in the applicants' in-group. Thus, I expect that racial and ethnic minority applicants will rate the strongest levels of sense of fit when presented with moderate demographics or low demographics and a realistic diversity testimonial compared to conditions of low demographics and a positive diversity testimonial.

Hypothesis 7b: There will be an interaction effect of racial demographic information and the diversity testimonial on sense of fit, such that the racial and ethnic minority participants in the moderate demographics and the realistic diversity testimonial condition (versus no demographics and a positive diversity testimonial) will result in the strongest levels of sense of fit.

Hypothesis 8b: There will be an interaction effect of racial demographic information and the diversity testimonial on sense of fit, such that the racial and ethnic minority participants in the low demographics and the realistic diversity testimonial condition (versus no demographics and a positive diversity testimonial) will result in the strongest levels of sense of fit.

Finally, I anticipate an interactive effect between the independent variables on perceptions of organizational trust. Racial and ethnic minority applicants should trust organizations that affirm their racial and ethnic identity and provide diversity-related information regarding their in-group. Past research has found an interactive effect between racial minority representation and an organizational diversity approach, such as a colorblind approach (i.e., the belief that differences between people should be minimized; Schofield, 1986) or valuing diversity approach (i.e., diversity is valued in

organizations; Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008), on perceptions of trust and comfort towards an organization (Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008). More specifically, Black participants trusted organizations more when there were high levels of minority representation, regardless of whether organizations implemented a colorblind approach to diversity or a value-diversity approach (Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008). Black participants were more distrustful of organizations with low minority representation and a colorblind approach to diversity (Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008). This finding demonstrates that racial and ethnic minority applicants place importance on representation and how organizations present their value for diversity. As a realistic diversity testimonial highlights both positive and negative information regarding the current organizational diversity and steps to improve their diversity, this may signal to applicants that diversity is more valued at this organization because of their ongoing efforts to improve the diversity climate. Alongside the diversity testimonial, applicants provided with racial demographic information are provided with an honest and transparent view of the current organizational diversity. The combination of these signals should alter levels of trust towards the organization. Thus, I expect that racial and ethnic minority applicants will rate the strongest levels of organizational trust when presented with moderate demographics or low demographics and a realistic diversity testimonial compared to conditions of low demographics and a positive diversity testimonial.

Hypothesis 7c: There will be an interaction effect of racial demographic information and the diversity testimonial on organizational trust, such that the racial and ethnic minority participants in the moderate demographics and realistic

diversity testimonial condition (versus no demographics and a positive diversity testimonial) will result in the strongest levels of organizational trust.

Hypothesis 8c: There will be an interaction effect of racial demographic information and the diversity testimonial on organizational trust, such that the racial and ethnic minority participants in the low demographics and realistic diversity testimonial condition (versus no demographics and a positive diversity testimonial) will result in the strongest levels of organizational trust.

Diversity Centrality as a Moderator

This study also evaluates the role of diversity centrality as a moderator between the effects of diversity recruitment material (i.e., racial demographic information, leader diversity testimonial) on applicant outcomes (i.e., organizational attraction, sense of fit, organizational trust). Diversity centrality represents the belief that racial and ethnic diversity is important to an individual, based on previous literature that examines individual beliefs about diversity (Wilton et al., 2020). A variety of similar variables in the diversity recruitment literature have been discussed as moderators, such as other-group orientation (i.e., attitudes towards individuals from ethnic groups different than their own; Phinney, 1992) (Avery, 2001; Avery, 2003; Avery et al., 2013; McKay & Avery, 2006) and identity affirmation (i.e., perception about the extent to which diverse identities are accepted) (Avery et al., 2013). Research finds that other-group orientation moderates the relationship between perceptions of diversity during recruitment and applicants' job pursuit intentions (Avery, 2003; Avery et al., 2013; McKay & Avery, 2006), and other-group orientation mediates the relationship between perceptions of the organizational value of diversity and applicants' job pursuit intentions (Avery et al.,

2013). These two moderating variables represent personal attitudes towards individuals from *different* racial and ethnic groups distinct from their own. On the other hand, diversity centrality captures a more general attitude that racial and ethnic diversity is important to the individual.

When viewing organizational websites, an individual's diversity centrality may influence how they perceive diversity-related information on webpages (Wilton et al., 2020). As described in SIT, racial and ethnic minority applicants are likely to hold their racial and ethnic identity central to their self-concept. During recruitment, racial and ethnic minority applicants with stronger diversity centrality should find diversity-related information about racial and ethnic diversity as more salient. If organizations do not provide enough diversity-related information, racial and ethnic minority applicants will likely not see the organization as an ideal organization to consider for employment, given that the applicant believes that diversity is important to them.

The diversity-related information on organizational websites signals to applicants that the organization is taking steps to improve their organizational diversity, such as through the racial demographic information or the leader diversity testimonial. When racial and ethnic minority applicant have stronger diversity centrality, the applicant should view an organization more positively regardless of the percentage of diverse employees, when the webpage provides the applicant with the racial demographics of the organization. When an organization does not provide demographic information, individuals with stronger diversity centrality will see the organization more negatively because there is no signal to the applicant that diversity is valued at the organization. Thus, I anticipate that diversity centrality will moderate the effect of demographic

information on organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust. More specifically, the effect of racial demographic information and the outcomes of interest will be strengthened under conditions of higher diversity centrality, as opposed to lower diversity centrality. Under conditions of high diversity centrality, the conditions of moderate and low demographics should be more salient to the applicant and more strongly related to attraction, sense of fit, and trust. Under conditions of low diversity centrality, the condition of no demographics should be less salient to the applicant and less strongly related to attraction, fit, and trust.

Hypothesis 9: Diversity centrality will moderate the effect of demographic information on (a) organizational attraction, (b) sense of fit, and (c) organizational trust, such that racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the condition of moderate demographics (compared to no demographics) will report more beneficial outcomes when diversity centrality is higher rather than lower.

Hypothesis 10: Diversity centrality will moderate the effect of demographic information on (a) organizational attraction, (b) sense of fit, and (c) organizational trust, such that racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the condition of low demographics (compared to no demographics) will report more beneficial outcomes when diversity centrality is higher rather than lower.

Furthermore, applicants with stronger diversity centrality will interpret the testimonial about the importance of diversity as more salient. When a racial and ethnic minority applicant places more value on diversity, the applicant should view an organization more positively, compared to individuals with lower diversity centrality, when presented with a testimonial about diversity because this signals that the

organization prioritizes racial diversity, regardless of whether the testimonial is positive or realistic. When shown a realistic diversity testimonial, applicants with higher diversity centrality, should perceive higher levels of attraction, fit, and trust. The realistic diversity testimonial acknowledges their current shortcomings in an honest and trustworthy manner. This may send a signal to the applicant that the organization is actively and continuously working to improve their organizational diversity, rather than believe that their organizational diversity does not need any improvement in the idealized and positive testimonial. When applicants perceive that the organization values diversity through its realistic diversity testimonial, applicants will perceive higher levels of attraction, fit, and trust. Overall, I anticipate that diversity centrality will moderate the effect of the leader diversity testimonial on organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust, such that the effects of the leader diversity testimonial is strengthened under conditions when the applicant places stronger importance on diversity, as opposed to lower importance on diversity. Under conditions of high diversity centrality, the realistic diversity testimonial should be more salient to the applicant and be more strongly related to attraction, fit, and trust toward the organization. Under conditions of low diversity centrality, the positive diversity testimonial may be less salient to the applicant and related to lower levels of attraction, fit, and trust to the organization.

Hypothesis 11: Diversity centrality will moderate the effect of the leader diversity testimonial on (a) organizational attraction, (b) sense of fit, and (c) organizational trust, such that racial and ethnic minority participants randomized to the realistic diversity testimonial condition (compared to the positive diversity

testimonial) will report more beneficial outcomes when diversity centrality is higher rather than lower.

Method

Participants

The present study used a 3x2 between-person experimental design embedded within a larger cross-sectional survey assessing racial and ethnic minority perceptions of workplace recruitment and current workplace experiences. Participants were recruited via a Qualtrics® research panel to reach a larger population of racial and ethnic minority participants in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, where more common recruitment methods are not feasible (Hlatshwako et al., 2021). All data collection occurred in September 2022. After given a unique URL by Qualtrics, participants filled out three screener questions to ensure they fit the participant inclusion criteria (i.e., currently over the age of 18, currently working in the US, and identify as a racial and ethnic minority) to take part in the study. There were no minimum work hours required to participate in the study based on recent statistics showcasing a record-breaking number of Americans leaving their jobs (Rosalsky, 2021) and reduced work hours due to the ongoing pandemic (Shelton, 2021), to allow for a broader range of participants based on extenuating circumstances. Participants accessed the survey with a link provided by the online service. Upon completion of the survey, participants were compensated \$7.50 according to standard Qualtrics incentive procedures. The survey took approximately 25 minutes to complete ($M = 25.28$, $SD = 19.39$).

Qualtrics excluded participants who did not finish the survey, failed the attention checks, and completed less than 75% of the survey. In total, Qualtrics collected a total of 2,467 responses. From these responses, 1,515 did not complete the survey because they did not fit the inclusion criteria after completing the screener questions, 127 failed the

attention check, 234 did not finish the survey, and 165 were complete responses that came after the sample size target was met that were not included in the final sample. In total, there were 426 possible participants. After Qualtrics filled the sample quota, I examined the completed responses to ensure all participants fit the inclusion criteria (i.e., over the age of 18, currently working in the US, and identify as a racial/ethnic minority) as participants provided more detailed information about their age, current job status, and racial and ethnic identity. Participants that did not report they were currently employed or self-employed were dropped from the final analyses ($n = 76$). Additionally, participants were able to identify as more than one race or ethnicity. Participants that chose more than one race or ethnicity, including white, were coded as multiracial. Participants that only identified as white were dropped from the analyses ($n = 22$). Furthermore, few participants identified as genderqueer, nonbinary, or genderfluid and were dropped from the analyses ($n = 3$). The final sample size for the present study was 325. Evidence suggests that this sample size is sufficient to detect effects, as 300 participants is the recommended sample size for sufficient power to detect a medium-sized effect in a moderated multiple regression (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997).

Participants in the final sample identified as Hispanic or Latino/a/é (34.50%), Black or African American (27.40%), Asian (12.30%), American Indian or Alaskan Native (3.40%), Middle Eastern (0.30%), Native Hawaiian (0.60%), and multiracial (21.50%). In the sample, 69.80% identified as women and 30.20% identified as men. Participants were on average 40 years old ($M = 39.89$, $SD = 12.56$) and reported an average of 16 years of work experience ($M = 16.08$, $SD = 12.06$). Participants, on average, reported working 35 hours per week at their current organization ($M = 35.06$, SD

= 16.06). The majority of the sample reported a household income category in the past year between \$10,000 and \$60,000 (63.70%). Regarding highest level of education, 29.20% of participants were high school graduates, 54.40% were currently attending or completed college, and 16.10% obtained a master's or doctoral degree. Regarding family characteristics, 59.70% participants reported being married or in a relationship, 31.70% identified as single, 8.60% identified as divorced or widowed and 46.80% had no children living at home. Participants identified as heterosexual (81.80%), gay or lesbian (4.00%), bisexual or pansexual (9.50%), and asexual (2.10%).

Procedure

After consenting to take part in the study and before answering survey questions, participants were shown a vignette that presented a hypothetical situation in which they were asked to envision themselves as potential job applicants for a fictitious consulting firm that was hiring for a variety of positions with a range of required experience (i.e., from high school education to graduate-level education) so that participants from different backgrounds would be able to see the firm as a potential place to work. The fictitious organization in the manipulation represented a new consulting firm in line with previous recruitment experiments (e.g., Avery, 2003; Avery et al., 2004; Avery et al., 2013; Madera et al., 2019). See Appendix A for participant instructions and cover letter.

Participants were randomly assigned to one of six experimental vignette webpage conditions representing realistic diversity previews. Previews on the fictitious webpage showcased the manipulation of two independent variables, including information about the racial composition of the workplace (i.e., racial demographic information) and leader testimonials of diversity (i.e., realistic or positive diversity testimonial). The webpage

laid out a general description of a fictional organization and various diversity-related material to participants. The webpage did not have specific organization information (e.g., job title, job description, job location, job salary), similar to past experimental studies (e.g., Avery et al., 2004), to reduce the number of confounds that may arise when participants examine the fictitious organization. After viewing the fictitious webpage, all participants received the survey measures assessing the moderator, outcome, and demographic variables. At the end of the larger survey, participants were debriefed about the purpose of the study.

Materials

Participants were shown a cover letter outlining background on the fictitious company and instructions for participation (see Appendix A). Participants were then randomized to one of six different webpage conditions and viewed a screenshot of the fictitious webpage. The webpage design, general layout, and most of the content was held constant for all participants, except for the manipulated content that is described in more detail below.

Participants were randomly assigned to a total of six webpages that were created based on current organizational diversity webpages from Fortune 500 companies. When creating these webpages, I examined a variety of Fortune 500 websites to see the diversity-related information provided on the webpages (e.g., Amazon, Target, Walmart). The Fortune 500 webpages provided a wide range of information, including the racial composition of the workplace, diversity and inclusion reports, current diversity initiatives, and diversity organizational values statements. For the present study, fictitious webpages were created to mirror the diversity-related information that applicants can find

specifically on organizational diversity tabs on organizational webpages to ensure participants focus on the diversity-related material for each condition. For each condition, racial demographic information and the diversity testimonial was manipulated. See Figure 2 for the six experimental conditions that each fictitious webpage will represent.

For the condition of racial demographic information, participants were presented with a pie chart that depicted the percentages of “white” and “racial minority” employees from all positions in the fictitious organization. The independent variable of racial demographic information had three levels: moderate levels of racial diversity, low levels of racial diversity, or no demographic information. Only two categories of racial demographics (i.e., white and racial minorities) were depicted in the pie chart to better control the number of racial and ethnic identities among the participants. Introducing a more comprehensive range of racial or ethnic categories could present an overload of stimuli for participants to attend to on the webpage. Furthermore, participants may not see themselves represented if certain racial or ethnic categories were excluded. For moderate and low levels of racial diversity, 52% and 13%, respectively, were depicted as racial minority employees. To choose these percentages, I examined organizational demographic data from 2017 provided by the Fortune 500 uploaded to Github, an online repository for data sets and code (Jones & Donnelly, 2017). After examining the data, the percentages of racial and ethnic minorities in the organization ranged from 6% to 79% with an average of approximately 39% (Beckwith, 2017; Jones & Donnelly, 2017). I examined the companies with extreme percentages of racial and ethnic minorities to rule out percentages that could influence the average. For moderate levels, 52% was chosen because it was halfway between the average and maximum percentage of racial and

ethnic demographics. For low levels, 13% was chosen because it was between the minimum and average but would balance ecological reality with a strong manipulation effect. For example, I did not want to use 20% because some participants would interpret this as more moderate levels of diversity. Furthermore, there was no condition of high levels of demographic information because the average percentage of racial minority workers is relatively low, approximately 39%, based on Fortune 500 companies' demographic reports (Beckwith, 2017; Jones & Donnelly, 2017), and so a condition of high racial diversity does not seem realistic given the current environment. Finally, some participants received no demographic information regarding the racial diversity at the organization.

For the condition of the leader diversity testimonial, participants were presented with a quoted diversity testimonial given by the vice president of the fictitious consulting firm. All the diversity testimonial conditions were beside a general corporate photo to make sure participants perceived that the webpage was filled with enough information and stimuli. The testimonials were manipulated, with two levels present: a positive diversity testimonial and a realistic diversity testimonial. The positive diversity testimonial focused on the organization's mission to foster a diverse and inclusive environment, with an idealistic description of the organizational diversity. The realistic diversity testimonial provided a more authentic description of the organization's mission to foster a racially diverse and inclusive environment, while acknowledging current faults regarding racial and ethnic diversity.

Given that there are two independent variables, there were a total of six conditions that participants were randomized to. In addition to this, all participants, regardless of the

condition, were provided with the fictitious organizations' diversity values statement, which included general information about the organization's mission and commitment to diversity. This is a common tactic used by Fortune 500 companies on their websites and the content of the testimonial was held constant throughout all conditions. Including this statement allowed participants in all conditions receive enough diversity-related information to alter their perceptions of the organization. For example, condition one depicted moderate levels of diversity with a positive diversity testimonial, and condition four depicted moderate levels of diversity with a realistic diversity testimonial. See Appendix B for the webpages of the six manipulated conditions.

Measures

For each scale, mean scale scores were computed using listwise deletion to account for item-level missingness. The focal variables with bipolar response scales were adapted to have unipolar response options. Higher scores on the measures indicate stronger level of agreement and lower scores indicate lower level of agreement. See Appendix C for the complete set of adapted measures.

Organizational Attraction

Participants were asked about their attraction towards the fictitious organization using an adapted five-item general attraction scale (Highhouse et al., 2003) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all agree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). An example item is, "I am interested in learning more about this company" (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.81$).

Sense of Social Fit

Participants were asked about their perceptions of social fit with the fictitious

organization using an adapted 12-item sense of social fit scale (Walton & Cohen, 2007)

on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all agree*; 5 = *strongly agree*). An example item is

“People at this organization would accept me” (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.94$).

Organizational Trust

Participants were asked about their levels of trust towards the fictitious organization using an adapted four-item scale from the Organizational Trust Inventory (OTI; Nyhan & Mawlowe, 1997) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all agree*; 5 = *strongly agree*). An example item is “I have confidence that this organization will treat me fairly” (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.91$).

Diversity Centrality

Participants were asked about their diversity centrality using an adapted four-item beliefs about diversity scale (Wilton et al., 2020) on a 5-point scale (1 = *not at all agree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). An example item is “Racial and ethnic diversity is important to me” (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.88$).

Manipulation Check

Participants were asked a manipulation check question in line with prior experimental studies that are similar in nature (e.g., Avery et al., 2004; Avery et al., 2007; Walker et al., 2012). Participants were asked about their perception that the fictitious company values racial diversity using an adapted two-item perceived organizational value of diversity scale (Avery et al., 2004; Avery et al., 2007; Walker et al., 2012). This manipulation check ensured that participants perceived the organization to value diversity through the organizational webpage, and that this varied depending on experimental condition. The original three items did not demonstrate adequate reliability (Cronbach’s

$\alpha = 0.40$). After examining the original items' content, there was one item that focused on the negative aspects of diversity while the other two items were more neutral and focused on how the organization provides this information. The one item was dropped which improved the reliability of the measure. The final two items were "This company does a good job at advertising their efforts to increase workplace diversity on their website" and "I am aware of this company's efforts to create diversity in this workplace" (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.73$). A mean scale score was computed for each participant with the two items using listwise deletion.

Control Variables

Various control variables, as described below, were explored based on empirical and theoretical rationale related to the predictors and outcomes (Becker, 2005; Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016; Spector & Brannick, 2011; Spector, 2020). All hypothesized analyses were conducted with and without the demographic and work-related control variables to determine if control variables impacted results (Becker, 2005; Spector & Brannick, 2011; Spector, 2020). See Appendix C for the full measures of all demographic and work-related control variables.

Demographic controls. Past research has demonstrated that certain individual characteristics may influence applicant perceptions of organizations, including gender and economic status. There have been mixed results regarding gender differences in recruitment outcomes (e.g., Chapman et al., 2005; Madera et al., 2019; Thomas & Wise, 1990; Tsao, 2018; Williams & Bauer, 1994; Wilton et al., 2020). Some studies found that men and women differ in the examination of diversity recruitment material, such that women are more attracted to an organization with more minority representation (Madera

et al., 2019). On the other hand, a meta-analysis concluded that there was little evidence of gender playing a moderating role in the examinations of recruitment material with applicant attraction (Chapman et al., 2005). As gender inequities are still prevalent in the workplace for women (Gibelman, 2003) and other underrepresented gender identities, this may continue to alter their interpretation of various diversity-related recruitment material. Thus, gender identify was included as a control variable in the analyses.

Furthermore, economic status has been included as a control variable in past diversity recruitment literature using a measure of annual income (Avery, 2003; Avery et al., 2004). As such, people with lower incomes may be pressured to select jobs for financial security (Doran et al., 1991), but these measures of annual income may not consider the circumstances that may affect an individual's consideration of a new job (e.g., location, number of children, multiple jobs). To better capture the different circumstances of individuals that may affect future job choices, I controlled for financial worry using a 4-point financial worry scale (Meuris & Leana, 2018) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never*, 5 = *always*). An example item is "How often have you been worried about your financial situation?" (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.77$).

Work-Related Controls. Work-related variables were controlled for in the analyses, including years of work experience and subjective underemployment. Past researchers conducting diversity recruitment studies have included work experience as a control variable (Avery, 2003; Avery et al., 2004), and past literature on RJPs has found that applicants with past job experience influence the interpretation of recruitment material, such that individuals with no previous exposure to a job have a higher rate of

job acceptance than individuals with prior exposure to a position (Meglino et al., 1993).

For this reason, I included years of work experience in the analyses.

Additionally, I controlled for participant underemployment using an adapted 5-item subjective underemployment scale (SUS; Allan et al., 2017) measuring discrepancy of hours (i.e., discrepancy between ideal work hours and actual work hours) and involuntary temporary work. With the pandemic, some employees have had to work fewer hours involuntarily because of the pandemic's negative impact on businesses and the economy (Koeze, 2021). As such, individuals facing underemployment may be pressured to seek new employment regardless of recruitment material provided.

Participants were asked to consider these questions in regard to their primary job where a majority of their hours are spent. Three items of the measure reflect the dimension of discrepancy of work hours. An example item is "I do not work enough hours" (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.80$). The next two items reflect the dimension of involuntary temporary work. An example item is "I work in a temporary position, because I cannot find a permanent job" (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.87$). All items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). Higher scores on the measure reflect perceptions of underemployment (Allan et al., 2017). As racial minorities were the most impacted by the involuntary loss of hours and jobs (Koeze, 2021), I controlled for subjective underemployment in the analyses.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Before primary analyses, the data were inspected for data errors, missing values, and outliers. Past research has found that Qualtrics panel participants spend more time answering questions and fail fewer attention checks than similar online panels (e.g., MTurk; Smith et al., 2016). Qualtrics excluded unfinished surveys and surveys completed more quickly in the final sample provided, so there was little missingness in the data. Specifically, there was less than 5% of data missing for each participant at the item-level. After examining the data, mean scale scores were computed for all variables of interest using listwise deletion. To check for univariate outliers, I examined mean scale responses to ensure that no extreme values fell outside the expected range. There was no evidence of univariate outliers. To check for multivariate outliers, I examined residual plots, Mahalanobis distance, and Cook's distance. All variables fell within the approximate cutoff for Mahalanobis distance ($>X^2 = 13.82$) and Cook's Distance ($4/n = 0.12$). Thus, no multivariate outliers were identified in the residual plot. Overall, there was no evidence of univariate or multivariate outliers.

Next, I examined my variables of interest to ensure that multiple regression assumptions (i.e., linearity, normality, homoscedasticity, absence of multicollinearity) were met. First, I checked for linearity by obtaining scatterplots for each variable, which demonstrated evidence of a linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Next, I checked for normality of the data to ensure that variables had a normal distribution by examining histograms, Q-Q plots, and obtaining the kurtosis and skewness statistics of the data. Nearly all focal variables were approximately symmetric

and within acceptable kurtotic limits. One focal variable of interest, organizational attraction, had a moderately negative skew. To address this skew, I computed a square root transformation on this variable. The transformation for this variable did not improve the skew of the variable. However, I ran the proposed analyses with the transformed and untransformed variable and the results did not substantially differ. For these reasons, I report the untransformed variable of organizational attraction in the results. To examine homoscedasticity across the six conditions, I examined a Levene's test of homogeneity of variances (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) as homoscedasticity provides evidence that the variability of residuals is constant. Group sizes for each experimental condition were roughly equal and ranged between 51 participants and 60 participants. Obtaining results from Levene's test helped provide evidence that the variances were not equal for the focal variables of interest including organizational attraction ($F(5, 315) = 0.46, p = .81$), sense of fit ($F(5, 315) = 1.87, p = .10$), organizational trust ($F(5, 315) = 2.11, p = .07$), and diversity centrality ($F(5, 315) = 1.58, p = .29$). From these analyses, as the p-values were not significant which provides evidence that the variances among the variables are not equal. To examine issues of highly correlated independent variables (i.e., multicollinearity), I examined the correlation between racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonial. The correlation between the two independent variables were both low and non-significant ($r(325) = -.03, p = .65$) which provided evidence that the variables were mutually independent of one another. Furthermore, diversity centrality was not significantly correlated with racial demographic information ($r(324) = -.05, p = .41$) nor leader diversity testimonial ($r(324) = .06, p = .32$).

Finally, I ran various psychometric tests to examine reliability and validity of the variables of interest. I obtained Cronbach's alpha for all measures of interest and ran confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) on my outcome and moderator variables to ensure all items loaded properly onto a single factor. Items with factor loadings above 0.40, with content that represented the theoretical construct were retained for the final measures (Hinkin, 1998). To examine model fit, I used the proposed cutoff recommendations by Hu and Bentler (1999) (i.e., a non-significant p -value for X^2 , CFI > 0.95, RMSEA < 0.06, SRMR < 0.08). For the one-factor model of sense of fit, the original 17 items did not load properly onto the factor and did not demonstrate adequate fit to the model ($X^2 = 4018.69$, $p < .001$, CFI = 0.75, RMSEA = 0.16, SRMR = 0.14). Several items of the measure were below a 0.40 factor loading. I examined the individual items' content to ensure it made theoretical sense they were included in the measure. Upon examination, I concluded that five items did not truly reflect the construct of interest in terms of the examination of recruitment information, and subsequently dropped these items. The five items were: "I would feel like an outsider at this organization", "Other people understand more than I do about what is going on at this organization", "It is a mystery to me how this organization works", "I would feel alienated at this organization", and "I do not know what I would need to do to make the organizational leaders like me". Specifically, these items focused on a negative reaction to the diversity information, but no information included in the experimental condition would elicit a negative response. After dropping the items, the one-factor model of sense of fit demonstrated an improvement in fit to the data with 12 items ($X^2 = 269.55$, $p < .001$, CFI = 0.93, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = 0.04) and the reliability of the measure improved (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.94$). Factor loadings for the final

sense of fit scale were above 0.60. Furthermore, all other focal variables of interest had factors loadings above 0.70 and demonstrated adequate fit based on model fit cutoff values and were not altered (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations among all study variables, including the demographic and work-related control variables. The bivariate correlations provide insight into the relationship between various focal variables. Organizational attraction was significantly correlated with sense of fit ($r = .78, p < .001$), organizational trust ($r = .77, p < .001$), and diversity centrality ($r = .18, p < .001$). Sense of fit was significantly related to organizational trust ($r = .87, p < .001$) and diversity centrality ($r = .22, p < .001$). Organizational trust was significantly related to diversity centrality ($r = .19, p < .001$). Perceived organizational value of diversity, was significantly related to organizational attraction ($r = .59, p < .001$), sense of fit ($r = .39, p < .001$), organizational trust ($r = .42, p < .001$), and diversity centrality ($r = .18, p < .001$). See Table 1 for descriptive statistics and correlations of all study variables.

Racial Demographic Information

Although hypotheses are tested with a multiple regression approach with control variables, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if differences exist between conditions of racial demographic information on organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust. See Table 2 for the unadjusted means for the outcomes of interest across the three conditions of racial demographic information.

Organizational Attraction. A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference in ratings of organizational attraction between conditions of racial

demographic information ($F(2, 319) = 1.96, p = .14$). On average, participants reported higher levels of organizational attraction to the recruitment material when randomized to conditions of no demographics ($M = 3.51, SD = 0.85$) or moderate demographics ($M = 3.50, SD = 0.92$) than when examining conditions of low demographics ($M = 3.29, SD = 0.98$).

Sense of Fit. A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference in ratings of sense of fit between conditions of racial demographic information ($F(2, 317) = 2.79, p = .06$). On average, participants rated higher sense of fit when randomized to conditions of no demographics ($M = 3.52, SD = 0.82$) or moderate demographics ($M = 3.37, SD = 0.91$) than when examining conditions of low demographics ($M = 3.22, SD = 0.99$).

Organizational Trust. A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference in ratings of organizational trust between conditions of racial demographic information ($F(2, 318) = 1.62, p = .19$). Participants reported higher levels of organizational trust to the recruitment material on average when shown conditions of no demographics ($M = 3.49, SD = 0.95$) and moderate demographics ($M = 3.34, SD = 1.05$) than conditions of low demographics ($M = 3.24, SD = 1.11$).

Leader Diversity Testimonial

Although hypotheses are tested with a multiple regression approach with control variables, a t-test was conducted to determine if differences exist between conditions of the leader diversity testimonial on organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust. See Table 2 for the unadjusted means for the outcomes of interest across the two conditions of the leader diversity testimonial.

Organizational Attraction. A t-test revealed that there was no significant difference in ratings of organizational attraction between conditions of a leader diversity testimonial ($t(323) = 0.23, p = .12$). On average, participants rated higher levels of organizational attraction when shown the condition of a realistic diversity testimonial ($M = 3.51, SD = 0.94$) rather than a positive testimonial ($M = 3.36, SD = 0.91$).

Sense of Fit. A t-test revealed that there was a significant difference in ratings of sense of fit between conditions of a leader diversity testimonial ($t(321) = 2.08, p = .01$). Participants, on average, rated higher levels of fit when shown the condition of a realistic testimonial ($M = 3.50, SD = 0.94$) rather than a positive testimonial ($M = 3.25, SD = 0.88$). See Table 2 for the unadjusted means for sense of fit across the two conditions of leader diversity testimonial.

Organizational Trust. A t-test revealed that there was a significant difference in ratings of organizational attraction between conditions of a leader diversity testimonial ($t(322) = 4.79, p = .02$). On average, participants rated higher levels of organizational trust when shown the condition of a realistic diversity testimonial ($M = 3.48, SD = 1.10$) than the positive testimonial ($M = 3.23, SD = 0.97$).

Manipulation Check

To evaluate the efficacy of the experimental manipulations, participants were asked about their perceptions of the fictitious organizations' value regarding diversity using an adapted 2-item perceived organizational value of diversity scale (Avery et al., 2004; Avery et al., 2007; Walker et al., 2012). I conducted a 3x2 factorial ANOVA to determine whether perceptions of organizational value of diversity significantly differed depending on experimental condition. However, results did not indicate a significant

main effect of racial demographic information on perceived organizational value of diversity ($F(2, 324) = 2.48, p = .09$). Results also indicated a non-significant effect of leader diversity testimonial on perceived organizational value of diversity ($F(2, 324) = 3.74, p = .05$). The interaction effect was non-significant ($F(2, 324) = 0.94, p = .39$). Overall, these results suggest that the manipulation check variable, perceived organizational value of diversity, was not significantly different when comparing experimental conditions. See Table 3 for the descriptive statistics of perceived organizational value of diversity across the six experimental conditions.

Use of Control Variables

The present study implemented an experimental design which helps isolate the effects between the independent variable and dependent variable from extraneous factors through random assignment among participants (Wilson et al., 2010; York, 2018). However, I included various work and demographic control variables based on prior research and theoretical rationale for diversity recruitment, to ensure no confounding factors influenced the relationship between diversity recruitment information and the outcomes of interest as a conservative approach in line with prior similar experimental studies (e.g., Avery, 2003; Avery et al., 2004; Wilton et al., 2020). Before including control variables in my hypothesis tests, I examined the mean differences between the independent variables on the various control variables, with a chi-square test and several 3x2 factorial ANOVAs. Conducting these initial analyses allowed me to ensure that the randomization of participants' characteristics (i.e., control variables) that may influence study results did not differ significantly across the six experimental conditions.

Gender. A chi-square test of independence was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between the proportion of women and men being randomly assigned to each of the experimental conditions. In condition one, approximately 69% of participants identified as women. In condition two, approximately 63% of participants identified as women. In condition three, approximately 71% of participants identified as women. In condition four, approximately 71% of participants identified as women. In condition five, approximately 77% participants identified as women. In condition six, approximately 69% of participants identified as women. The difference was not significant, $X^2(5) = 2.94, p = .71$. Thus, there was not a significant difference in the proportion of women and men randomly assigned to one of the six experimental conditions.

Financial Worry. Results signified that the main effect of racial demographic information on financial worry was not significant, $F(2, 318) = 1.56, p = .21$. Results signified that the main effect of leader diversity testimonial on financial worry was not significant, $F(1, 318) = 0.20, p = .65$. Results further indicated that the interaction between the two variables were not qualified, $F(2, 318) = 0.25, p = .78$. Thus, there was not statistically significant mean differences in financial worry between conditions of racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonial.

Years of Work Experience. Results signified that the main effect of racial demographic information on years of work experience was not significant, $F(2, 283) = 0.21, p = .81$. Results signified that the main effect of leader diversity testimonial on years of work was not significant, $F(1, 283) = 0.04, p = .84$. Results further indicated that the interaction between the two variables were not qualified, $F(2, 283) = 0.53, p = .59$.

Thus, there was no statistically significant mean differences in years of work experience between conditions of racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonial.

Hour Discrepancy. Results signified that there was no main effect of racial demographic information on hour discrepancy, $F(2, 310) = 0.63, p = .54$. Results signified that there was no main effect of leader diversity testimonial on hours discrepancy, $F(1, 310) = 3.51, p = .06$. Finally, results did not indicate a qualified interaction between the two variables, $F(2, 310) = 0.25, p = .78$. Thus, there was no statistically significant mean differences in hours discrepancy between conditions of racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonial.

Temporary Work Hours. Results signified that there was no main effect of racial demographic information on hour discrepancy, $F(2, 319) = 0.32, p = .73$. Results signified that there was no main effect of leader diversity testimonial on hours discrepancy, $F(1, 319) = 0.08, p = .98$. Finally, results did not indicate a qualified interaction between the two variables, $F(2, 283) = 0.04, p = .96$. Thus, there was no statistically significant mean difference in temporary work hours between conditions of racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonial.

Based on the additional analyses, I obtained evidence that the relationship between the independent and dependent variable were not due to extraneous factors that were not accounted for in the research design. Through the experimental randomization, individual differences that may influence the results were randomly distributed throughout the six conditions. Still, I provide models in my results section below with control variables as a conservative approach in line with my initial proposal for my analyses. See Appendix D for all model results without the inclusion of control variables.

If results without control variables deviated from the primary analyses, footnotes are included in the results sections to note these deviations.

Primary Analyses

For the primary analyses, a hierarchical moderated multiple regression was used to explore the effect of recruitment material (i.e., racial demographic information, leader diversity testimonial) on applicant outcomes (i.e., organizational attraction, sense of fit, organizational trust), moderated by diversity centrality. All analyses were performed in SPSS version 28. Various models were obtained to examine the effects on each dependent variable (i.e., organizational attraction, sense of fit, organizational trust), as well as the moderation effect of diversity centrality.

Hypothesis Testing

Direct Effects of Demographic Information and Diversity Testimonials. The independent variables, racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonial were dummy coded to be used in the multiple regression framework. Racial demographic information was manipulated to showcase three conditions: moderate demographics, low demographics, and no demographics. A total of two dummy codes were created for the three levels, with the condition of no demographics as the reference group. The first dummy code (i.e., Moderate Demographics) compared the conditions of moderate demographics and no demographics. The second dummy code (i.e., Low Demographics) compared the conditions of low demographics and no demographics. Next, leader diversity testimonial was manipulated to showcase two conditions: positive diversity testimonial and realistic diversity testimonial. One dummy code (i.e., Realistic

Testimonial) was created for the two levels, with the condition of positive diversity testimonial as the reference group.

To examine the interaction between the two independent variables, two additional dummy codes were created. First, a dummy code was created to examine the interaction of racial demographic information and the leader diversity testimonial, with a focus on the conditions of moderate versus no demographics and the realistic versus positive testimonial (i.e., Moderate Demographics*Realistic Testimonial). Next, an additional dummy code was created to examine the interaction of racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonial, with a focus on the conditions of low versus no demographics and the realistic versus positive testimonial conditions (Low Demographics*Realistic Testimonial). The direct and interactive effects of racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonial on organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust was examined to test *hypotheses 1-8*. In Step 1, the demographic and work-related control variables were entered. In Step 2, the dummy-coded independent variables were entered. In Step 3, the interaction terms were entered.

Hypothesis 1a proposed that racial and ethnic minorities would report stronger levels of attraction in the condition of moderate demographics compared to no demographics. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, there was not a significant difference in organizational attraction ratings for participants randomized to the condition of moderate demographics and no demographics ($\beta = 0.03, p = .76, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.32, 0.44]$). *Hypothesis 1b* proposed that racial and ethnic minorities would report stronger levels of organizational attraction in the condition of low demographics compared to no

demographics. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, there was not a significant difference in organizational attraction ratings for participants randomized to the condition of low demographics and no demographics ($\beta = -0.12, p = .23, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.61, 0.15]$). Thus, *hypotheses 1a* and *1b* were not supported. See Table 4 for a summary of direct effects on organizational attraction.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that racial and ethnic minorities would report higher levels of attraction when randomized to the realistic diversity testimonial than the positive diversity testimonial. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that there was not a significant difference in organizational attraction ratings between conditions of the realistic and positive diversity testimonial ($\beta = 0.08, p = .42, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.24, 0.58]$). Thus, *hypothesis 2* was not supported. See Table 4 for a summary of direct effects on organizational attraction.

Hypothesis 3a proposed that racial and ethnic minorities would report stronger levels of sense of fit in the condition of moderate demographics compared to no demographics. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, there was not a significant difference in sense of fit ratings for participants randomized to the condition of moderate demographics and no demographics ($\beta = -0.03, p = .77, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.41, 0.35]$).

Hypothesis 3b proposed that racial and ethnic minorities would report stronger levels of sense of fit when in the condition of low demographics compared to no demographics. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work

hours, and involuntary temporary work, there was not a significant difference in sense of fit ratings for participants randomized to the condition of low demographics and no demographics ($\beta = -0.15, p = .12, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.64, 0.07]$). Thus, *hypotheses 3a* and *3b* were not supported. See Table 5 for a summary of direct effects on sense of fit.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that racial and ethnic minorities would report higher levels of sense of fit when randomized to the realistic diversity testimonial rather than the positive diversity testimonial. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that there was not a significant difference in sense of fit ratings between conditions of the realistic and positive diversity testimonial of fit ($\beta = 0.13, p = .19, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.13, 0.62]$). Thus, *hypothesis 4* was not supported. See Table 5 for a summary of direct effects on sense of fit.

Hypothesis 5a proposed that racial and ethnic minorities would report stronger levels of organizational trust when in the condition of moderate demographics compared to no demographics. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, there was not a significant difference in organizational trust ratings for participants randomized to the condition of moderate demographics and no demographics ($\beta = 0.02, p = .86, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.37, 0.45]$).

Hypothesis 5b proposed that racial and ethnic minorities would report stronger levels of organizational trust when in the condition of low demographics compared to the no demographics. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, there was not a significant difference in organizational trust ratings for participants randomized to the condition of

low demographics and no demographics ($\beta = -0.07, p = .46, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.57, 0.26]$). Thus, *hypotheses 5a and 5b* were not supported. See Table 6 for a summary of direct effects on organizational trust.

Hypothesis 6 proposed that racial and ethnic minorities randomized to the realistic diversity testimonial would report stronger levels of organizational trust than the positive diversity testimonial. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that there was not a significant difference in organizational trust ratings between conditions of the realistic and positive diversity testimonial ($\beta = 0.17, p = .10, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.07, 0.79]$). Thus, *hypothesis 6* was not supported.¹ See Table 6 for a summary of direct effects on organizational trust.

Interaction Between Independent Variables. *Hypothesis 7a-c* proposed that there would be an interactive effect of racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonial on (a) organizational attraction, (b) sense of fit, and (c) organizational trust when examining conditions of moderate demographics versus no demographics. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that there was not a significant interactive effect between racial demographic information and the leader diversity testimonial on organizational attraction when comparing conditions of

¹ Without the inclusion of control variables, leader diversity testimonial had a significant direct effect on organizational trust ($\beta = 0.21, p = .04$), indicating participants randomized to the realistic diversity testimonial condition reported higher levels of organizational trust in comparison to the positive diversity testimonial condition. See Appendix D for summary of direct effects on organizational trust without control variables.

moderate demographics versus no demographics alongside the leader diversity

testimonial ($\beta = -0.01, p = .91, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.58, 0.52]$). Thus, *hypothesis 7a* was not

supported. See Table 4 for summary of interactive effects on organizational attraction.

Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that there was not a significant interactive effect between racial demographic information and leader diversity

testimonial on sense of fit when comparing conditions of moderate versus no

demographics alongside the leader diversity testimonial ($\beta = -0.03, p = .77, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.41, 0.30]$). Thus, *hypothesis 7b* was not supported. See Table 5 for summary of

interactive effects on sense of fit. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that there was not a significant interactive effect between racial demographic information

and the diversity testimonial on organizational trust when comparing conditions of

moderate versus no demographics alongside the leader diversity testimonial ($\beta = -0.09, p = .79, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.86, 0.34]$). Thus, *hypotheses 7c* was not supported. See Table 6 for a

summary of interactive effects on organizational trust.

Hypothesis 8a-c proposed that there would be an interactive effect of racial demographic information and the leader diversity testimonial on (a) organizational attraction, (b) sense of fit, and (c) organizational trust when comparing conditions of low demographics versus no demographics. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that there was not a significant interactive effect between racial demographic information and the diversity testimonial on organizational attraction when comparing

conditions of low demographics versus no demographics alongside the leader diversity

testimonial ($\beta = 0.02, p = .83, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.48, 0.61]$). Thus, *hypothesis 8a* was not

supported. See Table 4 for summary of interactive effects of organizational attraction.

Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work

hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that there was not a significant

interactive effect between racial demographic information and the diversity testimonial

on sense of fit when comparing conditions of low versus no demographics alongside the

leader diversity testimonial ($\beta = 0.02, p = .88, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.48, 0.56]$). Thus, *hypothesis 8b*

was not supported. See Table 5 for summary of interactive effects on sense of fit.

Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work

hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that there was not a significant

interactive effect between racial demographic information and the diversity testimonial

on organizational trust when comparing conditions of low versus no demographics

alongside the leader diversity testimonial ($\beta = -0.04, p = .74, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.71, 0.50]$). Thus,

hypotheses 8c was not supported. See Table 6 for a summary of interactive effects on

organizational trust.

Diversity Centrality as a Moderator. To examine the interaction between racial demographic information and diversity centrality, two interaction terms were created.

The two dummy codes for racial demographic information were used to create an

interaction term with the centered variable of diversity centrality (DC). The first dummy

code (i.e., Moderate Demographics*DC) represented the conditions of moderate versus

no demographics by diversity centrality. The second dummy code (i.e., Low

Demographics*DC) represented the conditions of low demographics versus no

demographics by diversity centrality. Following this, an additional interaction term

(Realistic Testimonial*DC) was created using the dummy code of leader diversity

testimonial, with realistic versus positive testimonial conditions, by diversity centrality.

The direct and interactive effects of racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonial with diversity centrality on organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust was examined to test *hypotheses 9-11*. In Step 1, demographic and work-related control variables were entered. In Step 2, the dummy coded independent variables were entered. In Step 3, I entered diversity centrality and the new interaction terms.

Hypothesis 9a-c proposed diversity centrality would moderate the effect of racial demographic information on (a) organizational attraction, (b) sense of fit, and (c) organizational trust, such that racial and ethnic minorities randomized to condition of moderate demographics (compared to no demographics) would report more beneficial outcomes when diversity centrality is higher rather than lower. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that diversity centrality did not significantly moderate the effect of racial demographic information on organizational attraction when comparing conditions of moderate versus no demographics ($\beta = 0.08, p = .34, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.14, 0.41]$). Thus, *hypothesis 9a* was not supported. See Table 7 for a summary of moderation effects on organizational attraction. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that diversity centrality did not significantly moderate the effect of racial demographic information on sense of fit when comparing conditions of moderate versus no

demographics ($\beta = 0.04, p = .62, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.19, 0.32]$). Thus, *hypothesis 9b* was not supported. See Table 8 for a summary of moderation effects on sense of fit. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that diversity centrality did not significantly moderate the effect of racial demographic information on organizational trust when comparing conditions of moderate versus no demographics ($\beta = 0.14, p = .08, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.04, 0.57]$). Thus, *hypothesis 9c* was not supported. See Table 9 for a summary of moderation effects on organizational trust.

Hypothesis 10a-c proposed diversity centrality would moderate the effect of racial demographic information on (a) organizational attraction, (b) sense of fit, and (c) organizational trust, such that racial and ethnic minorities randomized to condition of low demographics (compared to no demographics) would report more beneficial outcomes when diversity centrality is higher rather than lower. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that diversity centrality did not significantly moderate the effect of racial demographic information when comparing conditions of low versus no demographics on organizational attraction ($\beta = 0.04, p = .69, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.21, 0.32]$). Thus, *hypothesis 10a* was not supported. See Table 7 for a summary of moderation effects on organizational attraction. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that diversity centrality did not significantly moderate the effect of racial demographic information when comparing conditions of low versus no demographics on sense of fit ($\beta = 0.06, p = .48, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.16, 0.34]$). Thus, *hypothesis 10b* was not

supported. See Table 8 for a summary of moderation effects on sense of fit. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that diversity centrality did not significantly moderate the effect of racial demographic information when comparing conditions of low versus no demographics on organizational trust ($\beta = 0.09, p = .28, 95\%$ CI [-0.13, 0.44]). Thus, *hypothesis 10c* was not supported. See Table 9 for a summary of moderation effects on organizational trust.

Hypothesis 11a-c proposed that diversity centrality would moderate the effect of leader diversity testimonial on (a) organizational attraction, (b) sense of fit, and (c) organizational trust. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that diversity centrality did not significantly moderate the effect of the diversity testimonial on organizational attraction ($\beta = 0.01, p = .97, 95\%$ CI [-0.21, 0.22]). Thus, *hypothesis 11a* was not supported. See Table 7 for a summary of moderation effects on organizational attraction. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that diversity centrality did not significantly moderate the effect of the diversity testimonial on sense of fit ($\beta = -0.07, p = .36, 95\%$ CI [-0.29, 0.11]). Thus, *hypothesis 11b* was not supported. See Table 8 for a summary of moderation effects on sense of fit. Controlling for gender, financial worry, years of work experience, discrepancy of work hours, and involuntary temporary work, results indicated that diversity centrality did not significantly moderate the effect of the diversity testimonial on organizational trust ($\beta = -$

0.03, $p = .75$, 95% CI [-0.27, 0.19]). Thus, *hypothesis 11c* was not supported. See Table 9

for a summary of moderation effects on organizational trust.

Discussion

In the present experimental study, I aimed to understand how organizations could alter diversity recruitment material through the inclusion of racial demographic information and a leader diversity testimonial to provide realistic job previews to racial and ethnic minority applicants about the organizational diversity. Specifically, I explored how diversity recruitment material impacts important applicant outcomes such as organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust. Furthermore, I explored how applicant perception of the importance of diversity (i.e., diversity centrality) plays a moderating role in this relationship. Results revealed that the manipulation of racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonials did not significantly predict racial and ethnic minority applicants' perception of organizational attraction, sense of fit, and organizational trust. Additionally, diversity centrality was not found to be a significant moderator of the effects of the diversity recruitment material on applicant outcomes.

Although hypotheses were unsupported, inspection of mean levels of the outcome variables in each condition revealed interesting and notable patterns that provide supplemental information about this experiment (see Table 2). More specifically, participants randomized to the conditions of moderate and no demographics rated on average higher levels of attraction, fit, and trust toward the organization, while participants randomized to the condition of low demographics rated on average the lowest levels of attraction, fit, and trust towards the organization. This is contrary to hypotheses based on RJP literature and SIT, which suggests that providing negative but realistic information may lead to more positive applicant outcomes. In line with the

proposed hypotheses regarding the leader diversity testimonial, on average, participants shown the realistic diversity testimonial rated higher levels of attraction, fit and trust towards the organization.

In addition to this, it is worth noting that some hypothesized effects were approaching significance in the moderated multiple regression. For example, racial demographic information had a significant direct effect on sense of fit before including the interaction term of the independent variables (see Table 6). Similar to this, the leader diversity testimonial was approaching significance when examining organizational trust before including the interaction between the independent variables (see Table 7). This lack of significance may be due to the relatively small sample and the non-significant manipulation check of perceived organizational value of diversity. The experimental manipulation may not have been strong enough for participants to distinguish the perceived organizational value of diversity across the six experimental manipulations. However, results also changed when control variables were not included, as referenced in footnotes throughout the results section. All models were run with and without control variables as a conservative approach, yet initial and supplemental analyses revealed that randomization of participants into conditions was effective in that no differences in the control variables were found across the different conditions. Including the demographic and work-related control variables reduced the sample size of the models, which may have affected the overall statistical power of the study. See Appendix D for results without control variables. In the following sections, I outline additional potential alternative explanations that provide insight to the lack of significance in the hypothesized relationships.

Considerations for Diversity Recruitment Material Stimuli

Results revealed that there was no effect of racial demographic information and the leader diversity testimonial on the outcomes of interest. A potential explanation for this lack of findings may be due to the information provided about the organization in the experimental manipulation. Namely, the manipulation check included in the study was non-significant which signifies that ratings of organizational value of diversity did not significantly differ among the six experimental conditions. In the present study, a simple and concise webpage manipulation was used, as opposed to a more complex manipulation, because this would allow for more control over extraneous factors that may influence perceptions of organizational webpage material. Specifically, the experimental manipulation only included information about the racial diversity that could be typically found on a single diversity webpage within the larger website.

Previous RJP studies have often included a manipulation of additional job-related information about the organizations, including job characteristics such as information regarding time pressure, support from supervisors, interactions with others, salary, and promotional opportunities (e.g., Bretz Jr et al., 1998; Rynes et al., 1983), in comparison to this study which only included racial diversity-related information. Furthermore, previous diversity recruitment studies have included a larger array of information regarding the organization by including both diversity-related and job-related information. Some recruitment studies provide participants with additional job information, such as salary or career development (e.g., Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Walker et al., 2012; Thoms & Wise, 1999), which was not included in the manipulation of the present study. On the other hand, some studies provide participants with only diversity-related information (e.g.,

Avery, 2003; Avery et al., 2004) and still found that minority participants were more attracted to recruitment material with racial minority representation. Both studies provide diversity-related information through photographs in website recruitment. For example, Avery (2003) provides participants with an ad showcasing white and/or Black employees to provide balanced or skewed levels of racial diversity at the organization. For racial demographic information, participants in the current study were provided with a pie chart showcasing racial minority and white employee percentages at the fictitious organization. The depiction of racial demographics may have resulted in a less strong effect because the percentage of racial minority employees aggregates all employees who identified as a racial minority. This may have provided an ambiguous signal to applicants. Still, I opted for this option because this is what many Fortune 500 companies are currently including on their diversity webpages (e.g., Amazon, 2020; Target, 2020; Walmart, 2020). Participants in the present study may not have been provided with enough stimuli to alter their perceptions in a positive manner, such as also providing photographic evidence of minority representation at the organization. Thus, the lack of experimental stimuli may have contributed to the lack of findings.

An additional explanation for these non-significant results may be the lack of hierarchical racial representation within the recruitment material, such as providing evidence of racial diversity at both employee and leadership positions. In previous research, minority applicants have perceived an organization as more diverse when there is numerical and hierarchical representation at the organization, such as having a large amount of minority representation in multiple levels of the organization (Unzueta & Binning, 2012). This is further highlighted in the diversity recruitment literature, as Black

applicants are more attracted to an organization and rate higher levels of fit when diversity recruitment material depicts diversity in leadership positions (Avery, 2003; Wilton et al., 2020), in comparison to this study that only includes information of racial diversity through percentages depicting all levels within the organization. Previous studies have included manipulations of the racial composition of a fictitious organization through photographs in recruitment websites (Avery, 2003; Wilton et al., 2020). Through this manipulation of racial diversity in leadership, participants may have obtained signals about potential advancement opportunities within the organization (Avery, 2003). The present study only provides demographic information regarding racial minority employees at a fictitious organization without mention of representation in leadership positions. Thus, this lack of representation in different hierarchical positions may contribute to the lack of findings.

An additional explanation for the lack of significant findings may be due to the source of information provided to participants. More specifically, the present study only utilized one aspect of the recruitment process relatively early in the recruitment process (i.e., content from the organizational webpage). A previous study by Liu and colleagues (2016) found that negative information about a potential job provided through informal and strong relationships (e.g., family and friends) was positively related to an applicant's willingness to join a company. Specifically, participants were given additional information regarding an organizational marketing a job vacancy from different information sources (Liu et al., 2016), with findings suggesting that the source of positive or negative information may alter applicant outcomes, such as willingness to join a company. In the present study, information was provided on the webpage of an

organization which may have affected the way participants interpreted the information.

For example, participants may have reacted differently to the diversity-related information if provided from a trusted source. Similar to this, recent studies have begun to utilize the manipulation of information through online organization review services that is outside of the organizational entity (e.g., Wilton et al., 2020). For example, Wilton and colleagues (2020) utilized GlassDoor, where previous employees of organizations can provide an honest review of the workplace culture after leaving an organization. These studies provide examples that highlight the importance of obtaining additional information from sources outside of the organization, which may be seen as more trustworthy from applicants. As the present study only manipulated information on the organizational webpage without considering how the source of information may influence applicant perceptions, the source of diversity information may have impacted the significance of the results.

Alternative Explanations for Diversity Centrality

Results revealed a non-significant moderation effect of diversity centrality on the relationship between the diversity recruitment material (i.e., racial demographic information, leader diversity testimonial) on the outcomes of interest. This lack of findings may be explained by the focus of racial diversity in the recruitment material. For example, past research highlights that strong identification with one's racial group may affect the way Black participants perceive how diverse an organization is from recruitment material (Unzueta & Binning, 2012). Specifically, Black participants with high racial identity centrality perceive organizations as diverse when shown levels of Black representation at employee and leader levels (Unzueta & Binning, 2012). Yet,

these results do not translate when Black participants with high racial identity centrality are shown recruitment material that depict levels of Asian representation (Unzueta & Binning, 2012). Thus, these findings highlight that racial minority applicants with high levels of racial identity centrality will see an organization as more diverse when their own racial identity is showcased in recruitment material. As the conditions of racial demographic information and leader diversity testimonials did not specify racial and ethnic minority groups, participants in the study may not have seen their racial identity accurately reflected in the recruitment material which may contribute to the non-significant findings.

An additional alternative explanation for this lack of findings may be due to the utilized measure of diversity centrality (Wilton et al., 2020). Specifically, prior findings by Unzueta and Binning (2012) utilized a racial identity centrality measure, which focuses on the centrality of one's racial identity in one's social relationships of self-image (Seller et al., 1997). On the other hand, the present study utilized a more general measure where one is asked about the relative importance of racial and ethnic diversity (Wilton et al., 2020). For example, participants were asked about the general importance of racial and ethnic diversity in their environment, professional settings, and within society. Still, the utilized measure may not have fully captured the centrality of one's racial identity. Furthermore, Wilton and colleagues (2020) included this scale as a control variable when examining perceptions of diversity dishonesty and employee outcomes but found that results did not change with or without the inclusion of this variable in the model. This highlights that beliefs about diversity may not play a large role in the examination of recruitment material on applicant outcomes. In addition to this, participants may have

been considering other diverse identities that they hold more salient to them that were not reflected in the experimental manipulation. For example, participants may have held their gender identity as more salient than their racial identity. The experimental manipulation did not include any information regarding the gender diversity of the fictitious organization, which may have affected their perception of the organization. Thus, the use of this general measure of beliefs about diversity may not have directly captured the salience of one's racial identity in the examination of racial diversity recruitment material.

Another alternative explanation for the lack of moderation findings may be the levels of diversity centrality among the sample of racial and ethnic minorities. Specifically, participants in the present study rated relatively high levels of diversity centrality on the 5-point scale (Wilton et al., 2020) with a moderate amount of variance ($M = 3.81, SD = 1.01$). This may have contributed to the lack of findings because there may not have been enough participants with lower levels of diversity centrality. Inspection of the data descriptively indicated that approximately 26% of participants fell into the lower quartile. Furthermore, around 62% participants were equal to or above the mean. As such, insufficient distribution of ratings may have allowed the present study to uncover and explore the effects of weaker or stronger levels of diversity centrality on the outcomes of interest.

Limitations

The present study has several limitations to consider. These limitations include considerations regarding study design and validity concerns

Study Design Considerations

Power. An important limitation of the present study is statistical power and sample size. As mentioned earlier in this discussion section, after including the various demographic and work-related control variables in the models, the sample size for each regression model ranged from approximately 281 and 283 participants. For a moderated multiple regression, an approximate sample of 300 participants is recommended for sufficient power to detect a medium moderation effect (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997). Thus, the present study may have suffered from insufficient power due to the total sample size after including the various control variables. Without the inclusion of control variables, the sample size for each regression model ranged from approximately 322 to 324 participants. Additionally, several regression models reached conventional levels of significance, which may be due to the higher sample size in the model (See Appendix D for results without control variables). Thus, the lack of statistical power may have contributed to the discrepancies between the hypothesized relationships and results.

Validity Considerations

Ecological validity. Another limitation of the present study involves the ecological validity of the experimental design. Although the experimental design, in general, has various benefits regarding control and validity (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014) and has been often used in the diversity recruitment literature (e.g., Avery et al., 2004; Walker et al., 2012), the present study only acted as a simulation of a recruitment webpage targeted to racial and ethnic minority participants. This simulation regarding the fictitious organization may not accurately reflect the attitudes and behaviors that an applicant may engage in towards a real organization. For example, a participant in a simulation may react differently to organizational recruitment material compared to an

applicant looking for a job at a real organization. Furthermore, the information included in the experimental manipulation exclusively focused on one component of the organization, racial diversity. As such, the manipulated webpage may not have provided sufficient information to participants regarding the organization.

Additionally, the experimental manipulation may not have accurately tested a RJP during organizational recruitment. The present study implemented the use of the organizational webpage to depict positive and negative information about the organizational diversity, as the organizational website may serve as a starting point for recruitment of applicants. Research has often focused on the effects on the RJP and turnover intentions for applicants, although not necessarily minority applicants, and has often sampled participants who are newly hired at organizations (Earnest et al., 2011; Hom et al., 1998; Hom et al., 1999; Popovich & Wanous, 1982; Wanous, 1973). As the theoretical framework of RJP's seek to link recruitment and turnover intention among employees, the current cross-sectional study was unable to examine how these perceptions of an organizational recruitment may impact employee and organizational outcomes over a longer time.

External validity. An additional limitation of the present study is the overall generalizability of the results. A present aim of the study was to prioritize the perspectives of racial and ethnic minority groups in organizational recruitment, but I examined these effects of diversity recruitment on racial and ethnic minority outcomes by grouping participants into a larger category of BIPOC applicants. It is important to highlight that these racial and ethnic minority groups are not homogeneous and may interpret the diversity recruitment information differently. Previous research has found

differences in the conceptualization of a diverse organization for racial and ethnic minority groups (e.g., Unzueta & Binning, 2010; Unzueta & Binning, 2012). Individuals are likely to perceive an organization as more diverse when presented with information about their own racial group (Unzueta & Binning, 2012). As such, this categorization of BIPOC applicants into a larger group overlooks the differences in the examination of recruitment material. BIPOC applicants should not be treated as a monolith when considering the analysis of diversity recruitment material. Finally, the present study did not examine the effects of multiple identities that lead to different outcomes based on the intersectionality of these identities (Crenshaw, 1991; Weaver et al., 2016). The webpage in the current experiment *only* provided information regarding racial and ethnic diversity, which may not be salient to the individual examining the recruitment information. The present approach overlooks the multiple identities that an applicant can hold, and furthermore hold central to their identity.

Future Directions

In the following sections, I outline avenues for future research on diversity recruitment. First, future research should consider different research methods to explore the information that racial and ethnic minority groups want to be provided during the recruitment process. Researchers can consider incorporating more qualitative methods into recruitment studies which are often underutilized in the I-O Psychology literature (Pratt & Bonaccio, 2016). For example, researchers could conduct qualitative interviews with racial and ethnic minority applicants looking for a job and applicants who are currently working. Conducting interviews with participants would allow applicants to express what kind of information they are looking for during the application process.

Through this, researchers would gain an understanding of what type of job-related and diversity-related information racial and ethnic minority applicants are hoping to obtain on the organizational website. Additionally, researchers could consider conducting focus groups. By having a group of individuals share their experiences, individuals within the group may provide additional information beyond provided with an individual interview. Past research has shown that individuals within a group may disclose different information than an individual interview (e.g., Coenen et al., 2012; Guest et al., 2017). By incorporating a qualitative component to recruitment studies, applicants will be able to have a more holistic and person-centered understanding of what information minorities want to make educated decisions regarding their future employment.

Furthermore, future research should continue to prioritize the perspectives of marginalized identities to ensure between- and within-group differences are properly being accounted for in the examination of diversity recruitment and RJPs. Previous experimental studies on RJPs have provided little information regarding the demographic composition of participants (e.g., Buckley et al., 2010; Dugoni & Ilgen, 1981; Susko & Breugh, 1986), primarily highlighting information regarding gender, prior job exposure, and previous type of job. Additionally, these experimental studies have often used relatively small sample sizes and often provide RJPs to newly hired employees (Meglino et al., 2000). Still, the present study utilized a Qualtrics research panel to reach a large sample of racial and ethnic minority participants. Previous research has found that Qualtrics may be less representative of the United States (US) population when considering demographic variables such as race, age, educational attainment, and marital status (Heen et al., 2014). To address previous gaps in the literature and the present study,

it will be important to continue to examine the effects of RJP among various minority groups by collecting a larger and more representative sample outside of the Qualtrics platform.

In addition, future research should continue to explore the experiences of individuals who are multiracial. A recent survey highlights that multiracial adults are often pressured to identify as a single race by society, family, and friends (Parker et al., 2015). Similar to the present study, researchers should allow participants to choose multiple racial or ethnic categories, rather than having participants identify as multiracial in research surveys (e.g., Binning et al., 2009). Interestingly, individuals who identified as multiracial in the present study, on average, rated the highest levels of diversity centrality among the participants ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 0.83$) which may warrant future examination. Taking a step further from the present study, researchers could consider asking participants if one of these racial categories is held more salient to the individual. This will allow researchers to gain an understanding of how the salience of multiple versus a single racial or ethnic identity may play a role on various applicant outcomes. As such, future research should continue to examine the influence of multiple racial identities on various recruitment outcomes.

Next, future research on diversity recruitment should further examine the effects of realistic previews using multiple time points to track multiple diversity-related signals during the recruitment process. For example, a recent study by Tsao (2018) examined perceptions of diversity climate before and after accepting a job offer. The measures included in the study suggest that participants were able to distinguish perceptions of diversity climate during recruitment and the met expectations of these perceptions after

accepting the job offer (Tsao, 2018). This previous study by Tsao (2018) found null results regarding the met expectations of diversity climate on organizational attraction in a cross-sectional design. As the present study only examined pre-hire outcomes, researchers could implement more time points to examine the effects of realistic information on applicant outcomes among various aspects of the recruitment process where applicants are given RJPs (e.g., jobsite visit, job interviews) on employee outcomes (i.e., turnover intentions, met expectations of diversity climate). With more time points to analyze, researchers could utilize different methodology, such as survival analysis. Namely, this would provide an avenue to predict the probability of an organizational event occurring over time, such as leaving the organization. Furthermore, the starting point would be during the recruitment period to examine how recruitment information influences the probability of this event. By doing so, researchers would be able to understand how recruitment information may influence the probability of a new employee leaving an organization if expectations are not met from the recruitment period.

Moreover, future research should continue to investigate the benefits and consequences of adapting bipolar scales to unipolar scales on attitudinal measurements. In the present study, all measures were adapted to utilize unipolar scaling, which only include positive values in the measurement. For example, the original measure of organizational attraction was constructed and validated on a 5-point bipolar scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” (Highhouse et al., 2003). For the present study, I altered the scale to have a 5-point unipolar scale ranging from “not at all agree” to “extremely agree”. Adapting the measure with a unipolar scale allowed the participants to rate levels of agreement regarding perceptions of attraction to the organization.

Research has shown that unipolar scales may provide more evidence of reliability when examining attitudinal measures (Maitland, 2009). Still, research highlights that are differences between these two methods of measurement when examining the distribution of responses and should not be considered interchangeable (Höhne et al., 2022). The present study demonstrated adequate reliability of the measures of interest (i.e., organizational attraction, sense of fit, organizational trust), but these results may have potentially differed from past studies because of the change from x to unipolar scaling. As highlighted in the RJP literature, providing balanced information regarding organizational diversity allows individuals to self-select out of the recruitment process (e.g., Phillips, 1998; Wanous, 1977). If participants did not find the fictitious organization attractive, participants can express disagreement regarding their attraction towards the organization with a bipolar measurement. With a unipolar measurement, participants cannot necessarily insinuate strong disagreement regarding their attraction towards an organization. Thus, future research should continue to explore the use of unipolar scaling for attitudinal measures and examine the differences between these forms of measure.

Additionally, future research should consider collecting a wider array of recruitment variables. In the present study, perceived organizational value of diversity did not significantly differ between the six experimental conditions. To address this, it may be important for researchers to examine how perceptions of credibility and trustworthiness influence the perceptions of potential applicants (e.g., Frasca & Edwards, 2017). Relatedly, researchers should examine how perceptions of diversity dishonesty from an organization may affect the way applicants react towards diversity recruitment material (Fisher, 2022; Wilton et al., 2020). Furthermore, the focal variables (i.e.,

organizational attraction, sense of fit, organizational trust) had a relatively high correlation with one another (see Table 2), suggesting that there may be alternative and distinct constructs that are important to capture in relation to RJPs. As such, future research should consider collecting additional outcomes regarding applicant recruitment. For example, studies should continue to collect variables about applicant intentions, such as intentions to pursue an organization (Highhouse et al., 2003).

Finally, future research should incorporate the organizational impression management literature with RJPs and diversity recruitment to better understand the effects of diversity recruitment on applicant outcomes. Organizations often provide diversity-related testimonials from an organizational leader, but primarily focus on positive aspects of the diversity, which has been briefly discussed in prior organizational impression management integration with diversity recruitment (e.g., Avery et al., 2006; Avery & McKay, 2006). Contrary to this, previous literature on RJPs have highlighted that both negative and positive information should be provided during recruitment. According to organizational impression management, organizations are aware of their organizational reputation and want to ensure that they are viewed positively as this can influence their overall recruitment and organizational profitability (Highhouse et al., 2009). To do so, organizations may give applicants an idealized impression that diversity is highly valued at their organization. Still, as highlighted in the RJP literature, these overinflated expectations may be related to various negative employee outcomes after accepting a job offer (e.g., Phillips, 1998; Susko & Breugh, 1986; Wanous, 1980). By integrating these two streams of literature, this could help tease apart the effects of providing balanced information to impact the organizational recruitment of racial and

ethnic minorities. In addition to this, researchers have noted that there is a relative lack of theory to help guide the diversity recruitment literature (e.g., Avery et al., 2006; Avery et al., 2012; McKay & Avery, 2006), so the integration of these streams of literature could provide direction to develop theoretical frameworks (Avery et al., 2006) to further guide practitioners and researchers to better improve current implementation of diversity recruitment.

Practical Implications

Although this study did not have significant results, the hypothesized non-significant findings still may hold valuable practical implications for racial and ethnic minority applicants applying to jobs, and practitioners and organizations hoping to alter their diversity recruitment. First, racial and ethnic minority applicants should continue to examine the recruitment information provided by different organizations when making job-related decisions. The diversity-related information provided during recruitment will provide insight into current organizational diversity practices at potential organizations of employment. This information can give the applicant a glimpse into what the organizational values are. Furthermore, potential applicants may choose to self-select out of the application process or continue forward based on this information. As organizations work towards improving their diversity recruitment to increase their organizational diversity, it is important for potential applicants to continue thinking about what they expect from potential organizations in terms of racial and ethnic diversity.

Next, organizations should continue to be mindful about the diversity-related information that is being offered on organizational websites. As an ethical imperative, organizations should be honest about diversity-related information being presented on

organizational websites. Still, additional information beyond the racial demographic information and diversity testimonial may be needed to provide applicants with a holistic and honest preview about the organization. As highlighted before, this is a tactic that is being used by a small percentage of organizations to provide insight into the diversity, often regarding gender and race (e.g., Jones & Donnelley, 2017). This will allow racial and ethnic minority applicants to self-select themselves to various organizations that align to their own personal values regarding diversity. Moreover, this will allow organizations to utilize recruitment resources on individuals that already have already found that their personal values that align with the values of the organization.

Next, organizations may still consider altering current diversity testimonials from organizational leaders to be more reflective and honest of the organizational diversity. To do so, organizations may provide a realistic testimonial, as done in this experimental study, by addressing the shortcomings regarding the organizational diversity while highlighting organizational effort to improve the diversity. These practical recommendations are parallel to previous suggestions by McKay and Avery (2005), that advise organizations to not misstate the current reality of their organizational diversity using an RJP. As examined in this study, organizations should consider providing a more realistic, rather than an idealized, leader testimonial by addressing the current shortcomings of the organizational diversity. Still, it may be important to ensure organizations carefully consider the implications of including diversity-related testimonials from lower-level employees. For example, employees may feel that they need to provide a positive testimonial in fear of getting punished. On the other hand, getting testimonials from lower-level employees may still provide employees with a

voice regarding current practices at the organization. Having negative information provided by current employees may potentially highlight areas of mistrust from applicants because current employees may not necessarily speak out regarding negative experiences at the organization. Applicants may utilize sources outside the organization that provide realistic testimonials from employees. In line with this, organizations may shift their efforts to provide a positive environment for current minority employees. The current organizational reality should be reflected in the recruitment process, so organizations should ensure that this reality aligns with the image they are hoping to portray to potential applicants. By doing so, this may play a role in the impressions created by potential applicants and allow applicants to self-select into the organization.

Finally, given the non-significant findings regarding the effects of diversity-related RJP on applicant outcomes, organizations may consider improving various aspects of their diversity-related recruitment process to improve job previews for racial and ethnic minority applicants. To do this, organizations can shift their focus in infusing more diversity-related information throughout different portions of the recruitment process, such as the jobsite visit or job interviews. For example, Tsao (2018) found that perceptions of diversity climate during an on-campus visit for faculty members was positively related to intentions to pursue an organization (Tsao, 2018). During an on-site visit, potential applicants can speak with employees at various levels of the organizational structure and obtain a holistic sense of what the organizational culture may be like. Furthermore, a qualitative study by Hughes and colleagues (2012) found that on-site campus visits gave racial and ethnic applicants insight into the cultural norms and structures regarding diversity which allowed applicants to anticipate perceptions of fit

with the institution. As such, organizations must improve current diversity-related

practices and structures through various aspects of the employee life cycle (e.g.,

socialization). If organizations exclusively focus efforts to signal and highlight an

idealized diversity climate on recruitment webpages, this idealized perception of diversity

may come to light at later stages of recruitment.

Conclusion

By drawing on prior RJP and diversity recruitment literature, the present study investigates the effects of realistic diversity material (i.e., racial demographic information, leader diversity testimonial) on applicant outcomes for racial and ethnic minority applicants. Additionally, I examine the effect of diversity centrality as a moderator between diversity recruitment material and applicant outcomes. Results demonstrated that hypothesized relationships were non-significant. Although the proposed hypotheses were unsupported, future studies should continue to examine the effects of diversity recruitment material on marginalized groups to ensure practitioners and organizations provide racial and ethnic minority applicants with holistic information regarding organizational diversity to make informed job decisions. As applicants place value on organizations speaking out regarding racial justice issues, organizations must ensure that they are not overstating their current diversity-related initiatives, while also being able to acknowledge present shortcomings pertaining to diversity.

Tables

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables

Variable	N	M (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender	325	0.30 (0.46)	-									
2. Years of Work Experience	289	16.10 (12.02)	0.09	-								
3. Financial Worry	324	3.27 (0.90)	-0.08	-0.03	0.78							
4. Discrepancy of Work Hours	316	3.77 (1.73)	0.02	-0.14*	0.33**	0.80						
5. Involuntary Temporary Work	325	2.27 (1.93)	0.15**	-0.19**	0.05	0.44**	0.87					
6. Perceived Value of Diversity	324	5.04 (1.09)	-0.04	0.02	0.04	-0.04	-0.15**	-				
7. Organizational Attraction	325	3.43 (0.93)	0.07	-0.03	-0.06	0.04	-0.06	0.59**	0.91			
8. Sense of Fit	324	3.37 (0.91)	0.09	-0.05	-0.03	0.15**	0.12*	0.39**	0.78**	0.90		
9. Organizational Trust	324	3.35 (1.04)	0.11*	0.00	-0.07	-0.16*	0.15*	0.09	0.77**	0.87**	0.91	
10. Diversity Centrality	324	3.80 (1.01)	-0.14*	-0.01	0.02	-0.03	0.16**	0.02	0.18**	0.23**	0.19**	0.88

Note. Gender is dummy coded (0 = Women, 1 = Men). Cronbach's alpha reliability values are on the diagonal.

*p < .05, ** p < .01

Table 2
Overall Means and Standard Deviations for Focal Variables by Study Conditions

	Racial Demographic Information			Overall Means by Leader Diversity Testimonial	
	Moderate Levels	Low Levels	No Demographics		
Leader Diversity Testimonial	Positive Testimonial	Condition 1 Attraction: 3.44 (0.93) Fit: 3.29 (3.10) Trust: 3.28 (0.98)	Condition 2 Attraction: 3.21 (0.97) Fit: 3.10 (0.98) Trust: 3.14 (1.09)	Condition 3 Attraction: 3.43 (0.80) Fit: 3.39 (0.76) Trust: 3.29 (0.82)	Attraction: 3.36 (0.91) Fit: 3.25 (0.88) Trust: 3.23 (0.97)
	Realistic Testimonial	Condition 4 Attraction: 3.57 (0.92) Fit: 3.50 (0.92) Trust: 3.41 (1.12)	Condition 5 Attraction: 3.38 (1.00) Fit: 3.36 (1.00) Trust: 3.35 (1.13)	Condition 6 Attraction: 3.59 (0.90) Fit: 3.65 (0.86) Trust: 3.70 (1.03)	Attraction: 3.51 (0.94) Fit: 3.52 (0.82) Trust: 3.48 (1.10)
Overall Means by Racial Demographic Information	Attraction: 3.50 (0.92) Fit: 3.37 (0.91) Trust: 3.34 (1.05)	Attraction: 3.29 (0.98) Fit: 3.22 (0.99) Trust: 3.24 (1.11)	Attraction: 3.51 (0.85) Fit: 3.52 (0.82) Trust: 3.49 (0.95)		

Note. The table provides the unadjusted means by the six experimental conditions.

Table 3

Overall Means and Standard Deviations for Manipulation Variable by Study Conditions

		Racial Demographic Information		
		Moderate Levels	Low Levels	No Demographics
Leader Diversity Testimonial	Positive Testimonial	Condition 1 4.97 (0.95)	Condition 2 4.85 (1.10)	Condition 3 4.97 (1.08)
	Realistic Testimonial	Condition 4 5.18 (1.02)	Condition 5 4.89 (1.22)	Condition 6 5.32 (1.14)

Note. The table provides the unadjusted means for the perceived organizational value of diversity by the six experimental conditions.

Table 4
Direct Effects of Racial Demographic Information and Leader Diversity Testimonial on Organizational Attraction

Predictors	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Intercept	3.56 (0.24)	3.59 (0.26)	3.60 (0.27)
Gender	0.13 (0.13)	0.12 (0.13)	0.13 (0.13)
Financial Worry	-0.13 (0.07)*	-0.15 (0.07)*	-0.15 (0.07)*
Hours Discrepancy	0.05 (0.04)	0.05 (0.04)	0.05 (0.04)
Years of Work Experience	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
Temporary Work	-0.02 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.04)
Moderate Demographics		-0.02 (0.14)	0.06 (0.19)
Low Demographics		0.05 (0.14)	-0.23 (0.19)
Realistic Testimonial		-0.20 (0.11)	0.15 (0.20)
Moderate Demographics*Realistic Testimonial			-0.03 (0.28)
Low Demographics* Realistic Testimonial			0.06 (0.38)
ΔR^2	0.02	0.02	0.00
Model R^2	0.02	0.04	0.04

Note. $N = 282$. $B =$ Unstandardized Direct Effect. $SE =$ Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial).

Table 5
Direct Effects of Racial Demographic Information and Leader Diversity Testimonial on Sense of Fit

Predictors	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Intercept	3.25 (0.23)	3.32 (0.25)	3.32 (0.26)
Gender	0.11 (0.12)	0.11 (0.13)	0.13 (0.12)
Financial Worry	-0.11 (0.06) [†]	-0.12 (0.06)	-0.15 (0.06) [†]
Hours Discrepancy	0.08 (0.04) [*]	0.08 (0.04) [*]	0.05 (0.04) [*]
Years of Work Experience	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
Temporary Work	0.05 (0.03)	0.05 (0.03)	-0.02 (0.03)
Moderate Demographics		-0.07 (0.13)	0.06 (0.18)
Low Demographics		-0.27 (0.13) [*]	-0.23 (0.18)
Realistic Testimonial		0.24 (0.11)	0.15 (0.19)
Moderate Demographics*Realistic Testimonial			-0.03 (0.26)
Low Demographics*Realistic Testimonial			0.06 (0.26)
ΔR^2	0.05	0.04	0.00
Model R^2	0.05	0.09	0.09

Note. $N = 281$. $B =$ Unstandardized Direct Effect. $SE =$ Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial).

[†] $p < .10$, ^{*} $p < .05$, ^{**} $p < .01$

Table 6
Direct Effects of Racial Demographic Information and Leader Diversity Testimonial on Organizational Trust

Predictors	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Intercept	3.33 (0.26)	3.38 (0.29)	3.32 (0.29)
Gender	0.22 (0.14)	0.22 (0.13)	0.22 (0.12)
Financial Worry	-0.19 (0.07)*	-0.19 (0.06)*	-0.19 (0.06)*
Hours Discrepancy	0.11 (0.04)*	0.10 (0.04)*	0.10 (0.04)*
Years of Work Experience	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
Temporary Work	0.04 (0.04)	0.04 (0.03)	-0.02 (0.04)
Moderate Demographics		-0.09 (0.13)	0.04 (0.21)
Low Demographics		-0.21 (0.13)	-0.16 (0.21)
Realistic Testimonial		0.24 (0.11)†	0.36 (0.22)
Moderate Demographics*Realistic Testimonial			-0.26 (0.31)
Low Demographics*Realistic Testimonial			-0.10 (0.31)
ΔR^2	0.06	0.02	0.01
Model R^2	0.06	0.08	0.09

Note. $N = 281$. B = Unstandardized Direct Effect. SE = Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial).

Table 7
Diversity Centrality as a Moderator on Organizational Attraction

Predictors	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Intercept	3.58 (0.24)	3.38 (0.29)	3.59 (0.26)
Gender	0.13 (0.13)	0.22 (0.13)	0.19 (0.13)
Financial Worry	-0.13 (0.07)*	-0.19 (0.06)*	-0.16 (0.07)*
Hours Discrepancy	0.05 (0.04)	0.10 (0.04)	0.05 (0.04)
Years of Work Experience	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
Temporary Work	-0.02 (0.04)	0.04 (0.03)	-0.01 (0.04)
Moderate Demographics		-0.09 (0.13)	0.07 (0.14)
Low Demographics		-0.21 (0.13)	-0.18 (0.14)
Realistic Testimonial		0.24 (0.11)†	0.15 (0.11)
Diversity Centrality (DC)			0.13 (0.12)
Moderate Demographics*DC			0.14 (0.14)
Low Demographics*DC			0.05 (0.14)
Realistic Testimonial*DC			0.01 (0.11)
ΔR^2	0.02	0.02	0.05*
Model R^2	0.02	0.04	0.09

Note. $N = 281$. B = Unstandardized Direct Effect. SE = Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial). Diversity centrality is centered. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 8
Diversity Centrality as a Moderator on Sense of Fit

Predictors	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Intercept	3.28 (0.23)	3.23 (0.25)	2.33 (0.49)
Gender	0.11 (0.12)	0.11 (0.12)	0.20 (0.12) [†]
Financial Worry	-0.11 (0.06)	-0.12 (0.06)	-0.13 (0.06)*
Hours Discrepancy	0.08 (0.04)	0.10 (0.04)	0.07 (0.04) [†]
Years of Work Experience	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.00)
Temporary Work	0.04 (0.03)	0.05 (0.03)	0.06 (0.03)*
Moderate Demographics		-0.07 (0.13)	-0.05 (0.13)
Low Demographics		-0.25 (0.13)	-0.22 (0.13)
Realistic Testimonial		0.25 (0.11)	0.25 (0.10)*
Diversity Centrality (DC)			0.26 (0.11) [†]
Moderate Demographics*DC			0.06 (0.13)
Low Demographics*DC			0.09 (0.13)
Realistic Testimonial*DC			-0.09 (0.10)
ΔR^2	0.05	0.04	0.09*
Model R^2	0.05	0.09	0.17

Note. $N = 280$. $B =$ Unstandardized Direct Effect. $SE =$ Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial). Diversity centrality is centered. [†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 9
Diversity Centrality as a Moderator on Organizational Trust

Predictors	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Intercept	3.35 (0.26)	3.39 (0.29)	3.37 (0.28)
Gender	0.22 (0.14)	0.22 (0.14)	0.32 (0.14)*
Financial Worry	-0.19 (0.07)*	-0.19 (0.07)*	-0.21 (0.07)*
Hours Discrepancy	0.10 (0.04)*	0.09 (0.04)*	0.09 (0.04)*
Years of Work Experience	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
Temporary Work	0.04 (0.04)	0.03 (0.04)	0.05 (0.04)
Moderate Demographics		-0.09 (0.15)	-0.06 (0.15)
Low Demographics		-0.19 (0.15)	-0.18 (0.15)
Realistic Testimonial		0.25 (0.12)*	0.24 (0.12)*
Diversity Centrality (DC)			0.15 (0.12)
Moderate*DC			0.27 (0.14)†
Low*DC			0.16 (0.15)
Testimonial*DC			-0.04 (0.12)
ΔR^2	0.06	0.02	0.08*
Model R^2	0.06	0.08	0.16

Note. $N = 280$. B = Unstandardized Direct Effect. SE = Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial). Diversity centrality is centered.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Figures

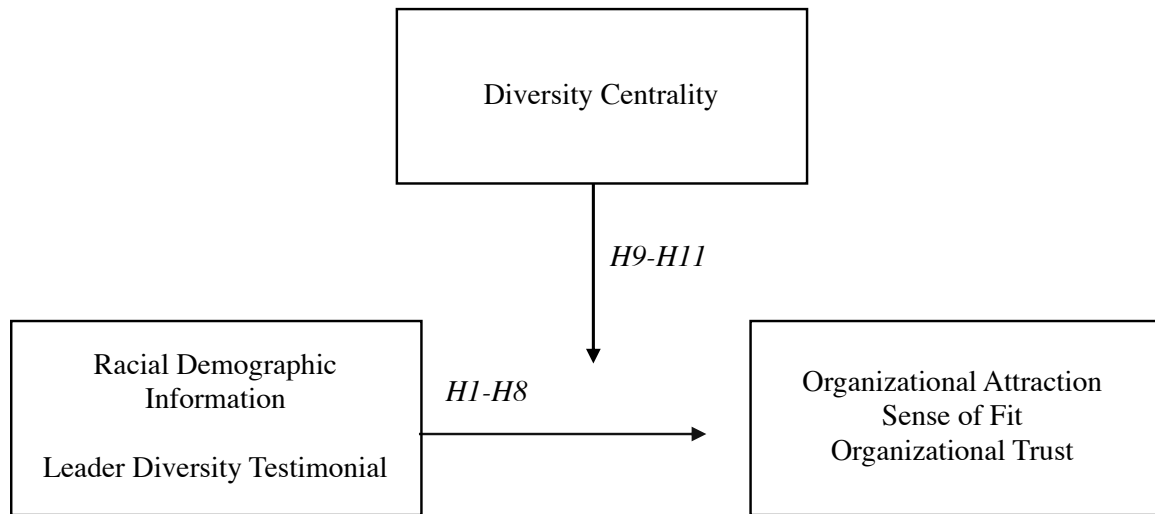


Figure 1. Hypothesized moderated model of recruitment material on recruitment outcomes.

3x2 Between-Subjects Experimental Vignette

		Racial Demographic Information		
		<i>Moderate Levels of Diversity (13% racial minorities)</i>	<i>Low Levels of Diversity (13% racial minorities)</i>	<i>No Demographics</i>
Leader Diversity Testimonial	<i>Positive Diversity Testimonial</i>	<p>Condition 1</p> <p>Moderate Levels (52%)</p> <p>Positive Diversity Testimonial</p>	<p>Condition 2</p> <p>Low Levels (13%)</p> <p>Positive Diversity Testimonial</p>	<p>Condition 3</p> <p>No Demographics</p> <p>Positive Diversity Testimonial</p>
	<i>Realistic Diversity Testimonial</i>	<p>Condition 4</p> <p>Moderate Levels (52%)</p> <p>Realistic Diversity Testimonial</p>	<p>Condition 5</p> <p>Low Levels (13%)</p> <p>Realistic Diversity Testimonial</p>	<p>Condition 6</p> <p>No Demographics</p> <p>Realistic Diversity Testimonial</p>

Figure 2. Six experimental conditions.

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Appendix A: Cover Letter and Instructions

A new, but growing consulting firm is preparing to hire for a variety of positions. The consulting firm is looking for feedback from you on the material provided on their website, in order to better recruit potential applicants. On the following screen, you will be provided with a preview of one new page on the website. As you look through the content on this webpage, envision that you are a job applicant looking for a job.

We will then ask you a series of questions after viewing this website material to get your feedback. As you are looking through the webpage, please take some time to read the text on the page closely and inspect any figures or pictures. Note that there is no time limit as to how long you can look at the page, but most people should take at least a few minutes. Think about whether you would be interested in working for this company, and why, based on the material.

Appendix B: Manipulated Stimuli

Total Consultation, LLC HOME PRACTICES ABOUT CONTACT

At Total Consultation, LLC we provide innovative services to our clients. With over 500 employees across the United States, we offer excellent products and solutions to an array of different companies looking to address organizational issues. We have a variety of job listings and job locations to best suit your career needs!

Here at Total Consultation...
 We value diversity and inclusion. We believe it is essential to respect, appreciate, and empower individuals from diverse backgrounds. We will continue to encourage, support, and celebrate diverse voices.

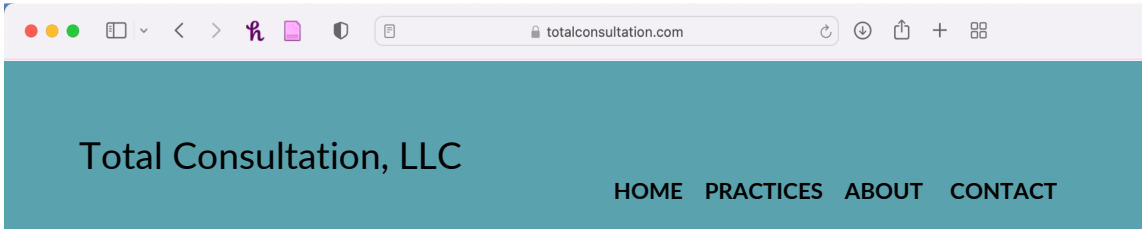


“At this company, we value diversity. We work to ensure that everyone here feels heard by fostering an inclusive environment for individuals from all backgrounds. We have worked to create a space free from discrimination.”
-John Hart, Vice President

Workforce Data
 We believe that representation is important. Our firm monitors the demographic makeup of our workforce because we know diversity builds better teams. Over the years, we have made progress in improving the diversity of our teams, specifically with racial minority groups. Here is the most recent demographic information from data collected in 2021 reflecting our employees and management.

Demographic Group	Percentage
Racial Minority	52%
White	48%

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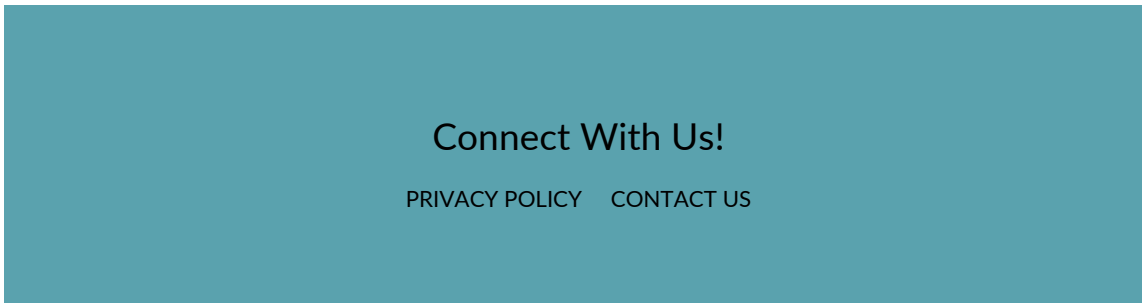
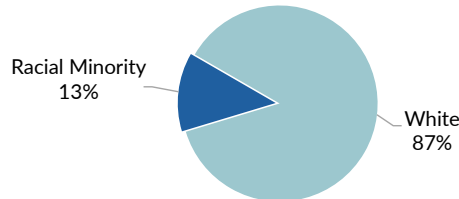


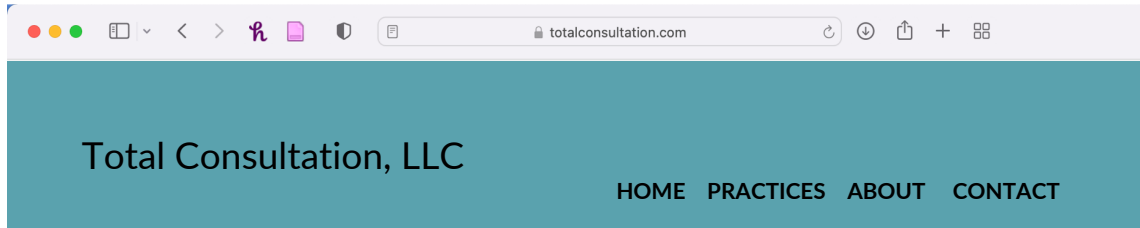
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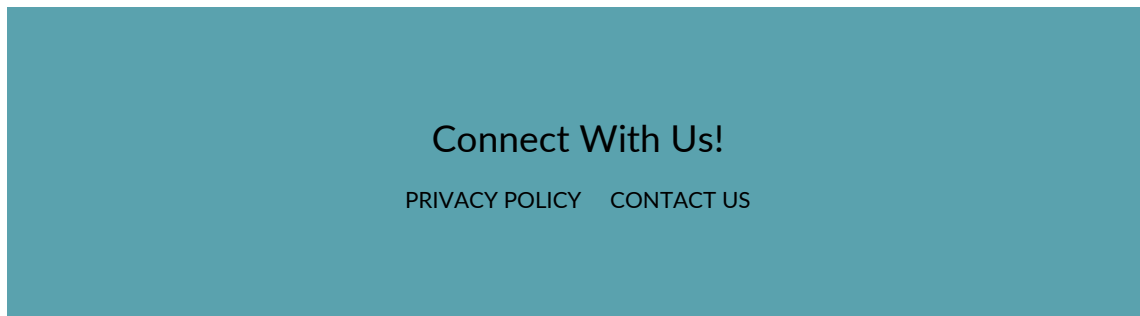
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-John Hart, Vice President



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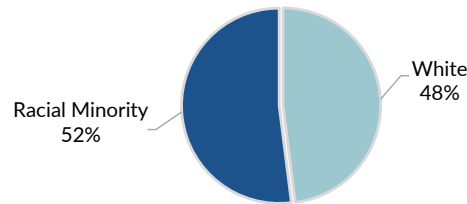


"At this company, we value diversity. We realize that the current numbers of diverse individuals in our workforce, and our ongoing initiatives, do not fully reflect our diversity values. We are working on a variety of steps to ensure that everyone here feels heard. As a company, we want to build and foster an inclusive environment for individuals from all backgrounds, and we realize this is not yet the current reality for our workers."

-John Hart, Vice President

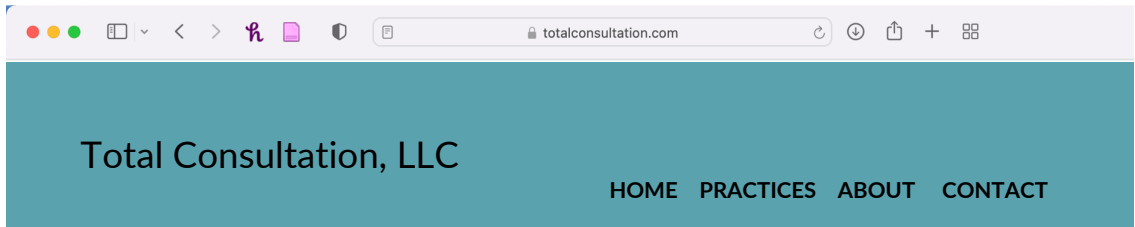
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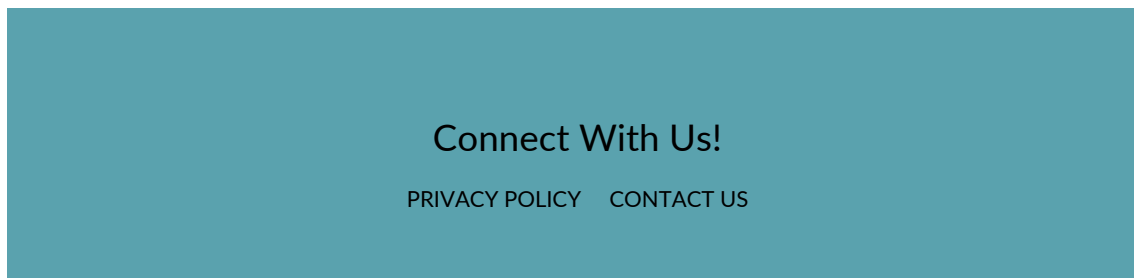
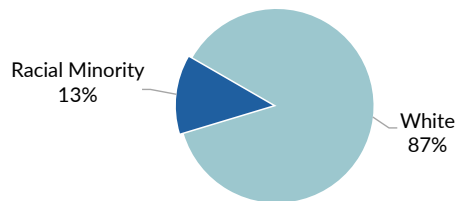


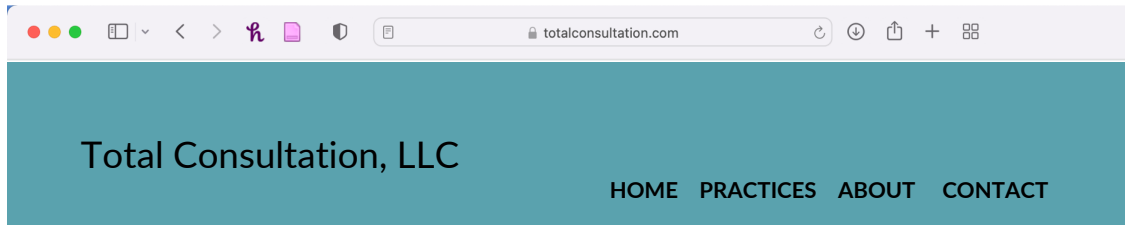
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Appendix C: Survey Measures

Organizational Attraction (Highhouse et al., 2003)

1 = not at all agree, 2 = slightly agree, 3 = moderately agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree
General Attractiveness

1. For me, this company would be a good place to work.
2. I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort. (R)
3. This company is attractive to me as a place for employment.
4. I am interested in learning more about this company.
5. A job at this company is very appealing to me.

Sense of Social Fit Scale (Walton & Cohen, 2007)

1 = not at all agree, 2 = slightly agree, 3 = moderately agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. People at this organization would accept me.
2. I think in the same way as people at this organization do.
3. I would fit in well at this organization.
4. I am like the kind of people who would succeed at this organization.
5. I know what kind of people would succeed at this organization.
6. I know what kind of people the leaders are.
7. I would belong at this organization.
8. I would know how to do well at this organization.
9. I would feel comfortable at this organization.
10. People at this organization are like me.
11. If I wanted to, I could do well at this organization.
12. People at this organization are a lot like me.
13. **REMOVED:** I would feel like an outsider at this organization.
14. **REMOVED:** Other people understand more than I do about what is going on at this organization.
15. **REMOVED:** It is a mystery to me how this organization works.
16. **REMOVED:** I would feel alienated at this organization.
17. **REMOVED:** I do not know what I would need to do to the make the organizational leaders like me.

Organizational Trust Inventory (OTI; Nyhan & Marlowe, 1997)

1 = not at all agree, 2 = slightly agree, 3 = moderately agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. I am confident that this organization would treat me fairly.
2. There is a high level of trust between the supervisors and the workers at this organization.
3. There is a high level of trust between the people who work together on a regular basis.
4. I believe that people can depend on each other at this organization.

Diversity Centrality (Wilton et al., 2020)

1 = not at all agree, 2 = slightly agree, 3 = moderately agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. Racial and ethnic diversity is important to me.
2. Issues related to racial and ethnic diversity are relevant to me professionally.
3. It's important to me that I live in an environment that has racial and ethnic diversity.
4. I believe that racial and ethnic diversity should be valued in society.

Perceived Organizational Value of Diversity (Avery et al., 2004)

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neither disagree or agree, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

1. This company does a good job at advertising their efforts to increase workplace diversity on their website.
2. I am aware of this company's efforts to create diversity in the workplace.
3. **REMOVED:** Clearly, diversity is not important to this company.

Demographic and Work-Related Control Measures

Gender Identity (Wiernik et al., 2021)

Which of the following best defines your current gender identity? Select all that apply.

1. Male
2. Female
3. Genderqueer, nonbinary, or genderfluid
4. Prefer to self-describe ____
5. Prefer not to respond

Racial and Ethnic Identity (Wiernik et al., 2021)

How would you describe your race? Select all that apply.

1. American Indian or Alaska Native
2. Asian
3. Black
4. Hispanic or Latino/a/é
5. Middle Eastern or North African
6. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
7. White
8. Prefer to self-describe _

Economic Status

What is your total household income from all sources in your past year?

- 1 = \$10,000 – \$19,999
 2 = \$20,000 - \$29,999
 3 = \$30,000 - \$39,999
 3 = \$40,000 - \$49,999
 4 = \$50,000 - \$59,999
 5 = \$60,000 – \$69,999
 6 = \$70,000 - \$79,999

DIVERSITY IN RECRUITMENT

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7 = \$80,000 - \$89,999

8 = \$90,000 - \$99,999

9 = \$100,000 - \$109,999

10 = \$110,000 - \$119,999

11 = \$120,000 - \$129,999

12 = \$130,000 - \$139,999

13 = \$140,000 - \$149,999

14 = \$150,000 - \$159,999

15 = \$160,000 - \$169,999

16 = \$170,000 - \$179,999

17 = \$180,000 - \$189,999

18 = \$190,000 - \$199,999

19 = \$200,000 or more

Financial Worry (Meuris & Leana, 2018)

1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Very Often; 5 = Always

1. How often have you been worried about your financial situation?
2. How often have you felt satisfied with your financial situation? (R)
3. How often have you felt overwhelmed by your financial obligations?
4. How often do you feel that you do not have enough money?

Years of Work Experience: How many years have you been working? ___

Subjective Underemployment Scale (SUS; Allan et al., 2017)

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neither disagree or agree, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Hour discrepancy

1. I do not work enough hours.
2. I would work more hours if I could.
3. The number of hours I work is not enough.

Involuntary temporary work

1. I work in temporary positions, but I would prefer not to.
2. I work in a temporary position because I cannot find a permanent job.

Appendix D: Primary Results without Control Variables

Table 10

Direct Effects of Racial Demographic Information and Leader Diversity Testimonial on Organizational Attraction

Without Controls

Predictors	Step 1		Step 2	
	B	(SE)	B	(SE)
Intercept	3.43	(0.10)	3.43	(0.13)
Moderate Demographics	-0.12	(0.13)	0.01	(0.18)
Low Demographics	-0.22	(0.13) [†]	-0.22	(0.18)
Realistic Testimonial	0.16	(0.10)	0.16	(0.18)
Moderate Demographics*Realistic Testimonial			-0.03	(0.29)
Low Demographics*Realistic Testimonial			-0.01	(0.25)
ΔR^2	0.02		0.00	
Model R^2	0.02		0.02	

Note. $N = 325$. B = Unstandardized Direct Effect. SE = Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial).

Table 11
Direct Effects of Racial Demographic Information and Leader Diversity Testimonial on Sense of Fit Without Controls

Predictors	Step 1	Step 2
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Intercept		3.43 (0.13)
Moderate Demographics	3.39 (0.10)	0.01 (0.17)
Low Demographics	-0.12 (0.12)	-0.22 (0.17) [†]
Realistic Testimonial	-0.29 (0.12)*	0.16 (0.18)
Moderate Demographics*Realistic Testimonial	0.24 (0.10)*	-0.03 (0.25)
Low Demographics*Realistic Testimonial		-0.01 (0.25)
ΔR^2	0.04	0.00
Model R^2	0.04	0.04

Note. $N = 323$. B = Unstandardized Direct Effect. SE = Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial).

[†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 12
Direct Effects of Racial Demographic Information and Leader Diversity Testimonial on Organizational Trust Without Controls

Predictors	Step 1	Step 2
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Intercept	3.37 (0.12)	3.29 (0.14)
Moderate Demographics	0.02 (0.14)	-0.02 (0.19)
Low Demographics	-0.25 (0.14) [†]	-0.16 (0.19)
Realistic Testimonial	0.25 (0.12) [*]	0.41 (0.21) [*]
Moderate Demographics*Realistic Testimonial		-0.28 (0.29)
Low Demographics*Realistic Testimonial		-0.19 (0.28)
ΔR^2	0.02	0.01
Model R^2	0.02	0.03

Note. $N = 324$. B = Unstandardized Direct Effect. SE = Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial). Diversity centrality is centered.

Table 13
Diversity Centrality as a Moderator on Organizational Attraction Without Controls

Predictors	Step 1		Step 2	
	B (SE)		B (SE)	
Intercept	3.43	(0.10)	3.43	(0.10)
Moderate Demographics	-0.01	(0.13)	0.01	(0.13)
Low Demographics	-0.21	(0.13) [†]	-0.19	(0.13)
Realistic Testimonial	0.12	(0.10)	0.14	(0.10)
Diversity Centrality (DC)			0.12	(0.11)
Moderate Demographics*DC			0.05	(0.28)
Low Demographics*DC			0.02	(0.13)
Realistic Testimonial*DC			0.03	(0.10)
ΔR^2	0.02		0.03*	
Model R^2	0.02		0.05	

Note. N = 324. B = Unstandardized Direct Effect. SE = Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial). Diversity centrality is centered. [†]p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01

Table 14

Diversity Centrality as a Moderator on Sense of Fit Without Controls

Predictors	Step 1	Step 2
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Intercept	3.39 (0.10)	3.29 (0.10)
Moderate Demographics	-0.12 (0.12)	-0.01 (0.12)
Low Demographics	-0.28 (0.12)*	-0.25 (0.12)
Realistic Testimonial	0.25 (0.10)*	0.23 (0.09)
Diversity Centrality (DC)		0.18 (0.10)
Moderate Demographics*DC		-0.01 (0.12)
Low Demographics*DC		0.06 (0.12)
Realistic Testimonial*DC		-0.02 (0.09)
ΔR^2	0.04	0.04*
Model R^2	0.04	0.08

Note. $N = 322$. B = Unstandardized Direct Effect. SE = Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial). Diversity centrality is centered. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 15
Diversity Centrality as a Moderator on Organizational Trust Without Controls

Predictors	Step 1		Step 2	
	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)		<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	
Intercept	3.37	(0.12)	3.37	(0.12)
Moderate Demographics	-0.15	(0.14)	-0.14	(0.14)
Low Demographics	-0.24	(0.14) [†]	-0.22	(0.14)
Realistic Testimonial	0.26	(0.12) [*]	-0.22	(0.11) [*]
Diversity Centrality (DC)			0.24	(0.12)
Moderate Demographics*DC			0.10	(0.14)
Low Demographics*DC			0.08	(0.14)
Realistic Testimonial*DC			0.07	(0.11)
ΔR^2		0.04		0.04 [*]
Model R^2		0.04		0.08

Note. $N = 322$. *B* = Unstandardized Direct Effect. *SE* = Standard Error. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male). Two dummy codes were created for racial demographic information with no demographics as the reference group (0 = no demographics, 1 = low demographics, 1 = moderate demographics). One dummy code was created for leader with positive diversity testimonial as the reference group (0 = positive diversity testimonial, 1 = realistic diversity testimonial). Diversity centrality is centered.