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DEI support structures: Relationships between organizational diversity, equity, and inclusion policies and employee experience

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DEI support structures:

Relationships between organizational diversity, equity, and inclusion policies and
employee experience.

By

Laura J. Brooks Dueland

A DISSERTATION

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DEI support structures:

Organizational Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion policies' effects on employee reported experience.

Laura J. Brooks Dueland, PhD

University of Nebraska, 2023

Advisor: Dr. Carey S. Ryan

In recent years, civil rights movements, such as the Black Lives Matter (BLM) movement have called out organizations for treating diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) as a marketing ploy to attract employees and customers. However, each year organizations spend billions of dollars on DEI efforts such as training, recruitment, strategy consultants, and more. Perhaps the misalignment of such large investments and tangible outcomes stems from the lack of evidence regarding which organizational systems (i.e., policies and practices) contribute to DEI goal attainment. The current study utilized data from 36 organizations across the Omaha metropolitan area. Data included both organizational variables, that is, the number of company policies across seven workplace functions (e.g., handbook policies), and employee experience data across two dimensions of employee experience; namely, belonging and justice. Multilevel analyses assessed the relationships of policies and practices to employees' organizational experiences and whether employee identity (i.e., race/ethnicity, gender, and management status) moderated the relationships. Results indicated that organizations that had more DEI policies were more racially/ethnically, but not more gender, diverse. There was no evidence of a relationship between the number of DEI policies and employee experiences of belonging, although employees in organizations that had more vision, mission, values policies perceived greater justice. Further, none of the relationships between DEI policies and employee experiences were moderated by employee identity. These results suggest that having a

greater number of DEI supportive policies are not sufficient to promote cultures of belonging and justice within organizations.

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Introduction

Since the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, organizations have grappled with the needs to increase diversity and reduce discrimination (King et al., 2013). Although initially organizations engaged in diversity efforts primarily for compliance reasons, by the beginning of the 1990s, researchers were arguing a business case for diversity. Diversity management was beginning to be viewed as a competitive advantage based on a belief that increased diversity would improve creative problem solving, access untapped markets, and thus improve organizational performance (Cox & Blake, 1991; McLeod et al., 1996; Robinson & Dechant, 1997). Although still often presented as a business imperative by both researchers and organizations alike (Herring, 2009; 2017; Gurchiek, 2020), social justice movements, such as Black Lives Matter (BLM) that quickly gained spotlight following the death of George Floyd and Brianna Taylor, have incited calls to action for the systematic restructuring of not only United States policing, government, and social structures as a whole (Black Lives Matter, 2020), but also of organizations. Organizations have been called out for using empty words of support for Black Lives Matter—through media campaigns—without living up to these values themselves (Murphy, 2021). Such “callouts” have deemed it no longer acceptable to use diversity and inclusion as window dressing and demands for change have motivated many organizations to make statements, formalize action steps, and sign accountability initiatives (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2020).

Although many organizations are quick to make diversity announcements and pledges, which signal an inclusive workplace to external audiences (Celani & Singh, 2011), many may not know where to begin implementing the most effective diversity,

equity, and inclusion (DEI) policies and initiatives. Much of the research has focused on employee and organizational outcomes of productivity and success (e.g., Homan et al., 2008; McKay & McDaniel, 2006; McKay et al., 2008). Although perceived equity and inclusion may serve mediating or moderating roles in the relationship between diversity and organizational success, they are rarely, if ever, considered important outcomes themselves, suggesting that employee perceptions and experiences only matter to the extent that they affect productivity. Further, most research focuses on employees' perceptions of organizations' diversity climates or discrimination, not the policies that lead to such perceptions themselves (e.g., Foley et al., 2002; Shore et al., 2011; Triana et al., 2010). That is not to say that perceptions are not important; indeed, organizations can make every effort to implement DEI supportive policies but if these efforts do not improve employees' perceptions, they are likely to fall flat (Nishii & Wright, 2008). What appears to be lacking in the literature is an understanding of the type of DEI policies and practices that contribute to positive employee experience including employees' perceptions of belonging, exclusion, justice, and psychological safety.

The purpose of the current study is to examine the relationships of DEI policies and practices—ranging from high level DEI mission and vision statements to inclusive language in employee directed policies such as dress codes—with employee perceptions of inclusion. Utilizing data from two assessments distributed to 38 Midwest organizations in a 2020 city-wide initiative, multilevel analyses will assess the relationships between organization-reported implementation of each policy and the three dimensions of an employee experience: belonging/exclusion, psychological safety, and justice.

Chapter 1: Macro-level Diversity Initiative Perspectives

Organizations often struggle to identify a starting point for their DEI programs due to the numerous approaches and ideologies—sometimes called diversity models or perspectives—on which to base their initiatives (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Rattan & Ambady, 2013). These ideologies and perspectives are the beliefs people hold that frame their practices regarding diversity. Two often discussed individual ideologies are colorblind ideology and multiculturalism (e.g., Plaut, 2010; Rattan & Ambady, 2013; Ryan et al., 2007; Ryan et al., 2010; Rosenthal & Levy, 2010). Ely and Thomas (2001) identified three additional, yet adjacent diversity perspectives focused more directly on the organization level: the integration-and-learning perspective, the access-and-legitimacy perspective, and the discrimination-and-fairness perspective. Each of these perspectives approaches the challenge of improving intergroup relations and equality between races differently.

Stemming from the Civil Rights movement of the 1960s, colorblindness attempts to create equality by focusing on the individual and disregarding—even ignoring—racial group membership (Apfelbaum et al., 2012; Rattan & Ambady, 2013; Ryan et al., 2007; Ryan et al., 2010; Rosenthal & Levy, 2010). In contrast, according to multiculturalism, not only is group membership impossible to ignore, but acknowledging and valuing group membership can help attain equality (Apfelbaum et al., 2012; Plaut, 2010; Rattan & Ambady, 2013; Ryan et al., 2007; Ryan et al., 2010; Rosenthal & Levy, 2010). More recently, multiculturalism has begun to gain popularity as colorblindness was coopted to suggest that the unique histories, values, and experiences of racially and culturally

diverse groups and discrimination against people of color in the U.S. should be ignored (Ryan et al., 2007; Ryan et al., 2010).

Indeed, when race is not relevant to the task, Whites endorsing colorblindness have been found to appear less prejudiced (Apfelbaum et al., 2008). However, when race is relevant—such as in a photo identification activity—and a White person engages in strategic colorblindness to appear less biased, the White person is perceived as more biased, that is, as nonverbally less friendly, by Black participants. This relationship was mediated by White participants' level of executive functioning interference as measured by a Stroop task. Apfelbaum and colleagues' findings provide evidence that when Whites attempt to appear less biased by avoiding race in a race-relevant task, they become cognitively overloaded and end up engaging in more prejudiced behavior (see also, Hausmann & Ryan, 2004).

Similarly, research has shown that Whites who were primed with colorblindness (vs. multiculturalism) were perceived by their ethnic minority interaction partners as exhibiting greater verbal and nonverbal prejudice (Holoien & Shelton, 2012). Such perceived prejudice resulted in cognitive depletion for the target of the prejudice (i.e., the ethnic minority interaction partner), as measured by a Stroop task. Further, colorblind ideology has been used to justify lack of awareness and leads to an inability to recognize prejudice and discrimination when it is happening (Barrett & George, 2005; Flagg, 1993). Even children, who were primed with a story that taught a colorblind (vs. multicultural) ideology, were less likely to perceive both ambiguous and blatant racially biased events as biased (Apfelbaum et al., 2010). Further, their recounts of the discriminatory event

were less likely to elicit an interventive reaction from teachers when the student was primed with colorblindness (vs. multiculturalism).

Many of the previous studies target general perceptions of groups or one-on-one interactions; however, group leaders' interethnic ideologies appear to affect their group members' interactions as well. For instance, in a study of classroom workgroup leaders, Meeussen and team (2014) found that the more group leaders endorsed multiculturalism, the more group members reported feeling accepted in the group. However, this relationship depended on the cultural background (measure by country of origin) of the group member. That is when leaders endorsed a colorblind ideology, group members not of Belgium descent perceived themselves as more distant from the group, yet majority (those of Belgium descent) group members perceived less distance. Additionally, minority group members reported greater relationship conflict when the leader endorsed colorblindness. Responses by workgroup members align with Rios (2022), who argued that the salience of each type of ideology may trigger threat in certain groups; salient multiculturalism incites threat within dominant group members and salient colorblindness incites threat within racial or cultural minority group members.

Organizational efforts to structure the workplace are similarly guided by ideologies. Ely and Thomas (2001) qualitatively examined three organizations with three different perspectives: the integration-and-learning perspective, the access-and-legitimacy perspective, and the discrimination-and-fairness perspective. The authors examined distal outcomes of success in diverse workgroups such as the nature of race relationships and conflict/resolution, feelings of being valued and respected by

coworkers, and perceptions of the ability to be authentic to one's racial identity group at work.

Like multiculturalism, organizations that adopt an integration-and-learning perspective value the perspective, experiences, viewpoints, and skills associated with varying cultural and ethnic/racial identities when considering approaches to tasks, markets, products, strategies, and business practices. This approach frames diversity as a source from which to learn and adapt to what has been learned. The focus is not on assimilation; rather, the onus is on the traditional group to change based on the culturally "new" group. Ely and Thomas (2001) found that the firm adopting this diversity perspective maintained a consistent mission, but significantly shifted its strategy and definition of its mission as it became more diverse. Specifically, although the mission of the firm was to provide legal aid to women facing discrimination in the workplace, the firm's perspective shifted from a White feminist perspective to a more fully intersectional understanding of workplace discrimination. For instance, the types of industries that were primarily considered expanded from advocating for women within male dominated industries to industries where the majority of workers were already women, but primarily women of color. Further, the entire structure of case responsibility changed such that rather than a single lawyer taking each case, cases were led by two-person teams to ensure a cross cultural perspective to every single case. Although the firm initially started their initiative to expand their market, their efforts resulted in a fully integrated office, in which differing perspectives were necessary for each and every case.

Employees in the organization that endorsed an integration-and-learning perspective reported feeling valued and respected by their colleagues, increasing cultural

appreciation and the ability to be one's authentic self (Ely & Thomas, 2001). Such affective results align with those of Plaut and colleagues (2009), who found that White employees' endorsement of a multicultural (vs. colorblind) ideology was associated with greater engagement among racial/ethnic minority employees, which was mediated by perceptions of lower bias in the workplace. The focus of the actor (i.e., self-focused vs. other-focused) during intergroup interactions also appears to be an important factor in the treatment of outgroup members, as those who endorse a colorblind ideology are more self-focused and concerned about being perceived as biased, whereas those who endorse multiculturalism tend to be more other-focused (Vorauer et al., 2009). Vorauer and colleagues found that this shift in focus resulted in White Canadians' more positive comments (e.g., "sounds like we have similar values" in this case) toward outgroup members (i.e., Aboriginal Canadian target) than did colorblind messaging.

In contrast, organizations that adopt an access-and-legitimacy perspective view cultural identity as valuable to the extent that it matches the customer base resulting in market access (Ely & Thomas, 2001). Company diversity is therefore increased at the margins of the organization alone. Diversity is framed in terms of the "business case", such that cultural knowledge is used at the borders between clients and the organization, but the cultural competencies are not integrated into the core of the organization. Although there may be less direct conflict, it generally creates segregation based on business function, or customer base. Due to the segregation, this diversity management perspective has been found to create discriminatory practices within organizations (Bendick et al., 2010). For instance, Ely and Thomas (2001) observed that the department handling customers and accounts with less money was a more diverse employee

population with less flexibility and autonomy. The employees at this organization reported feeling appreciated and cared for; however, there seemed to be a contradiction in employees' belief that race had no effects as individuals often mentioned specific moments when race mattered. Race was often described as an asset, but also as a barrier to other departments in the organization. The access-and-legitimacy perspective resulted in ostensibly two cultures and sets of expectations based on the segregated departments.

Finally, Ely and Thomas (2001) noted that some organizations adopt a discrimination-and-fairness perspective, viewing workplace diversity as a moral imperative that upholds justice and equity for all members of society. Often an affirmative action plan is used to enact this perspective, but it comes with a conflict-avoidant approach from majority group members. The approach focuses on including individuals regardless of race because it is "the nice thing to do" rather than because of the value their unique perspectives and assets contribute. Akin to a colorblind approach, in which race/ethnicity is "not seen", the discrimination-and-fairness perspective can be damaging to underrepresented employees. Although colorblindness is often used by Whites to appear unbiased, it does not always succeed. In the firm that used the discrimination-and-fairness perspective, Ely and Thomas observed that the topic of race was avoided, and people of color tended to feel like they could not be their authentic selves.

Although organizations may adopt many perspectives towards diversity management with good intentions, some are less likely to result in fully inclusive and sustainable initiatives. In fact, Ely and Thomas (2001) found that all three approaches to diversity management were likely to promote and develop team diversity, but the

integration-and-learning perspective provided the rationale and guidance to ensure that efforts were sustained. That said, examining organization perspective provides only high-level information regarding belief systems of the employees, but does not indicate the type of policies that promote and support each of the perspectives.

Chapter 2: Diversity Management in Practice

Many organizations have adopted diversity programs in a belief that greater workforce diversity improves organizational outcomes, such as corporate image, sales, market share and share values, as well as creativity and problem-solving ability (Cook & Glass, 2014; Cox, 1994; Herring, 2009; 2017; Joshi et al., 2006). However, research has yielded mixed results as to whether workplace diversity “works” in terms of these positive performance outcomes (Guillaume et al., 2015). In fact, a great deal of research indicates that diversity can lead to reduced psychological attachment (Tsui et al., 1992), increased conflict (Jehn et al., 1999), and even reduced performance (McKay & McDaniel, 2006; Subasi et al, 2020). Further, DEI may lose support when the business case is unsuccessful in improving organizational outcomes. For instance, Birnbaum and colleagues (2019) found that when a business case was described as the basis for a diversity initiative, the initiative was perceived to be less successful when goals of equity were met and more successful when financial goals were met. Further, participants were more likely to suggest a reduction in funding for the diversity program, even when equity increased. Therefore, downturns in business cycles caused by issues, such as recession, replacement products in the market, or simply poor management, may be attributed to the newly funded diversity initiative, rather than to the business context overall.

The mixed results and the often-cited gap in performance is likely due to an oversimplification of the relationship between DEI efforts and outcomes and as such, many researchers have turned to moderators such as diversity management and diversity climate—sometimes called inclusion climate—to provide more context (e.g., Downey et al., 2015; Guillaume, 2015; McKay et al., 2008). However, management and climate are

abstract and can therefore be conceptualized in many ways making it difficult to develop consistent and effective initiatives. Kopelman and associates (1990) theorized that organizational climate comprises five dimensions that indicate the extent to which: 1) goals are emphasized, 2) procedures for goal attainment are emphasized, 3) goal rewards are distributed based on performance, 4) employees believe they have the support they need to achieve their goals, and 5) socioemotional support is provided to employees by management. Therefore, a diversity climate refers to a climate in which the “goal” is increased diversity and employees perceive that individual diversity is valued, integrated into organization life, and supported through fair employment practices (Kaplan et al., 2011; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; McKay et al., 2007; Mor Barak et al., 1998). Diversity management involves the specific policies, practices, and programs that help increase recruitment, retention, promotion, and inclusion of employees who are not members of the majority group, all of which interact to create the diversity climate (Mor Barak et al., 2016).

Lists and suggestions for best practices in diversity management are numerous; some come from the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, n.d) and the Society for Human Resource Management (Gurchiek, 2020). Best practices are said to include representation at job fairs sponsored by diverse associations, temporary fulfillment of open positions with less qualified employees who can then gain new knowledge and skills, and mandatory diversity and inclusion training for senior management. Common diversity management practices often fall into five groups: 1) structures that focus on accountability for hiring and promotions by using non-biased, objective measures, 2) Affirmative Action (AA)

programs aimed at proactively increasing diversity numbers, 3) trainings focused on employer bias reduction, 4) provision of leadership or committees focused directly on diversity actions, and finally, 5) programs aimed at reducing exclusion and social isolation for underrepresented employees, for example, mentoring and employee resource groups (Dobbin et al., 2011; Kalev et al., 2006). Indeed, there is some evidence that practices such as diversity taskforces, implementation of a diversity manager, and mentoring programs increase management diversity for groups including Asian, Hispanic and White women, as well as Asian, Black, and Hispanic men (Dobbin & Kalev, 2017). However, as Kalev and colleagues argue, many programs on these lists fall closer to ‘best guesses’ that are loosely based on scientific theory than on proven methods.

Unfortunately, there is very little research on the majority of diversity programs, although two programs that have been studied more extensively, namely Affirmative Action plans and diversity training, are described below.

Affirmative Action Plans. Affirmative Action was created by President Lyndon Johnson’s 1965 Executive Order 11246 (Skrentny, 1996). Affirmative Action plans (AAPs) are a collection of organizational programs aimed at increasing diversity through practices such as targeted recruitment, preferential selection, training, and retention of protected class members (Cropanzano et al., 2005a; Crosby, 1994; Turner & Pratkanis, 1994). Unlike Equal Employment Opportunity, which aims to stop discrimination once detected, AAPs proactively allocate resources (e.g., time and money) to diversity efforts (Crosby et al., 2006).

Cropanzano and colleagues (2005a) distinguished among six types of AAP: control, eliminate discrimination, recruiting, training, tiebreak, and preferential treatment.

Control plans aim to reduce hiring discrimination by focusing only on experience and test scores. Eliminate discrimination plans rely on the threat of termination for any manager found to be discriminating in their hiring decisions. Recruitment plans aim to recruit underrepresented applicants and may include efforts such as job advertisement in more diverse neighborhoods or job fair attendance at Historically Black Universities. As it sounds, the goal of training plans is to increase internal training opportunities for underrepresented employees, thus improving their chances of promotion. The tie break plan states that in the case of two equally qualified candidates, the “historically oppressed” candidate would be selected, which differs from preferential treatment in which the candidate is selected over a more qualified White candidate. Cropanzano and colleagues considered the control, eliminate discrimination, and recruiting plans to be race-blind plans in that race could not be used in decision-making. Race conscious decisions included training, tiebreak, and preferential treatment plans. The researchers asked Black engineering students to evaluate descriptions of one of the six types of AAPs. Results indicated that race-conscious plans were perceived as less just than did race-blind plans. The results align with Turner and colleagues’ (1991) findings that race-blind plans were perceived as more just, as the race-conscious plans elicited threat to Black applicants’ self-image.

As illustrated by Cropanzano and colleagues (2005a), AAPs can have negative consequences for the target beneficiary’s self-evaluation. For instance, Turner and colleagues (1991) told male and female college students they were being evaluated for either a masculine (decision-maker) or feminine (counselor) position. After engaging in a qualification assessment, participants were told they were chosen for one of the positions

based on either their performance or the fact that there was a shortage of individuals of their sex in that position. The researchers found that when males and females were told that they had been selected for the role based on sex, females more harshly evaluated themselves in terms of ability and performance compared to males. Males who were told they were selected based on sex versus merit were only slightly harsher in evaluating their own ability and performance.

However, more recent research indicates that African Americans (vs. Whites) have more positive reactions to descriptions of affirmative action programs that target hiring, promotion, training, and layoffs (Levi & Fried, 2008). Levi and Fried manipulated the strength of AAPs within a description of a theoretical company (Hawthorne, Inc.) and its policies concerning hiring, promotion, training, and layoffs. In the weak AAP condition, participants were told that the organization was making “extra efforts to include more minorities in employment outcomes by emphasizing outreach and communication but did not rely on race or ethnicity in the final employment decision (p. 1121).” The moderate AAP indicated that in the case of a tiebreaker, candidate race or ethnicity would be considered in the employment decision and the ethnic/racial minority candidate would be given preference. Finally, in the strongest AAP condition, participants were told that a specific numerical goal for representation was set and that racial/ethnic minorities would be given preference in hiring decisions. Results indicated that stronger plans elicited increasingly negative reactions from White participants, whereas African American participants had the most positive reaction to moderately strong plans and appeared to view weak and strong plans approximately the same.

Although clearly AAPs elicit different reactions and perceptions of fairness depending on the perceiver's race/ethnicity and gender, much of the psychological research has focused solely on reactions and less so on effectiveness. So how effective are AAPs at improving the odds of obtaining management positions for underrepresented groups? Although there appear to be some positive impacts, AAPs do not have consistent positive impacts across all groups. For instance, Kalev and colleagues (2006) found that the presence of AAPs increased the odds for White women in managerial positions by 9%, but only 4% for Black men. Further, there was no significant difference in increased managerial diversity for Black women in organizations that used AAPs compared to organizations that did not. Additionally, the intentional college recruitment of women has been shown to increase management diversity for White, Hispanic, and Asian women, as well as Asian and Black men, but not for Black women (Dobbin & Kalev, 2017). That said, intentional college recruitment of racial/ethnic minorities was associated with greater numbers of Black women in management positions. The difference in positive impact could be for various reasons not examined by the researchers, for instance, the type and strength of the AAP plan.

Yet another measure of diversity initiative effectiveness is the number of Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) complaints. An EEO complaint is a clear and costly issue that can arise if diversity is not managed well. In their study of 84 hospitals, Hirsh and Kmec (2009) examined which of three HR structures (AAP, manager diversity training, and employee awareness training) led to the most EEO complaints. The researchers found that having an AAP was not related to the number of complaints. However, the complexity of reactions to the type and strength of AAPs, along with

effectiveness ratings, and potential legal ramifications that come with more EEO complaints may be some of the reasons organizations have been slow to implement such plans and it is murky at best as to the most effective route.

Whether a drop in self-esteem due to being told selection was based on identity (Cropanzano et al., 2005a) or perceptions of unfairness from majority group members (Levi & Fried, 2008), negative reactions often accompany AAPs. In fact, even the U.S. government has recently deemed use of AAPs in college admissions as unconstitutional (Supreme Court of the United States, 2023). Although AAPs are often the target of controversy and may even elicit negative reactions for those who they are designed to support, such plans do appear effective in improving management diversity for some identity groups. Such results indicate that examining perceptions of diversity initiatives alone does not fully indicate effectiveness.

Diversity and Inclusion Training. Often part of AAPs, but also used as a stand-alone practice, diversity and inclusion trainings are another method for reducing discrimination in the workplace. As with all diversity efforts, diversity training comes in many forms and approaches, including type of information provided, diversity definition breadth, attendance mandate, target audience, and length (Bezrukova et al., 2016; Dobbin et al., 2011). For instance, the goal of diversity training may range from awareness training, that is, training focused on increased knowledge of discrimination—to behavioral training, in which skills to reduce discriminatory behavior are taught and practiced (Roberson et al., 2003). It appears that the most effective method of diversity training, includes a combination of awareness training and behavioral training (Raelin, 1997), as awareness training alone may lead to feelings of helplessness, and behavioral

training alone may lack the historical information that motivates employees to implement newly trained skills. Likewise, attendance mandates can have differing effects on employee outcomes. For example, voluntary diversity training has been found to elicit the most positive reactions from employees (Kulik et al., 2007). Yet Kulik and associates found that those who voluntarily attended diversity training were more culturally competent to start. Although voluntary training is still likely beneficial to those who have more cultural knowledge, the people for whom the training is most needed often do not participate. Further, implementation of mandatory trainings may help reduce cynicism toward diversity initiatives, as the organization is seen as truly investing in the efforts, rather than potentially saving face, or using it as window dressing (Paluck, 2006; Simmons et al., under review).

Paluck and colleagues (2021) meta-analytically reviewed prejudice reduction training studies, which generally yielded evidence that prejudice reduction training worked. However, when the authors restricted the analyses to studies within the top quartile of sample sizes (e.g., higher than $N = 78$), the average d generally dropped significantly. For instance, when examining studies that identified as “diversity, sensitivity, or competence training”, the d dropped from 0.3 with all studies included down to 0.07. Overall, the experimental literature reviewed indicates a significant reduction in prejudice following prejudice reduction training. Unfortunately, many such studies are plagued by very small sample sizes; studies with larger sample sizes yield much smaller effect sizes.

Although diversity training may increase employee awareness and knowledge, Kalev and colleagues (2006) also examined whether diversity trainings improve the odds

of success for women and people of color within organizations. They found that the presence of training was related to increased management opportunities for White women, but to decreased management opportunities for Black men and women. Interestingly, it was also the case that the more White women managers in an organization, the more likely the organization was to provide diversity training to managers (Dobbin et al., 2011). However, again, diversity training comes in widely varying forms, and the types of training utilized in the study remain unclear. Further, Hirsh and Kmec (2009) found that management bias training was related to a reduction in EEO complaints, but employee training on employee rights and discrimination was related to an increase in complaints. Again, the increase in complaints may make it tempting to reduce access to discrimination training for employees, yet awareness of discrimination may empower employees with the knowledge and language to act against such discrimination. Therefore, organizations that are truly attempting to reduce discrimination, likely need these resources in place to do so.

It is also important to reiterate that diversity initiatives and programs are often motivated by a desire to increase business opportunities for the organization (e.g., Cook & Glass, 2014; Herring, 2009; 2017). However, utilizing the business case as the foundation for such initiatives may not only be unfruitful, but could sabotage equity gains within organizations and lead to an abandonment of programs that are effective in terms of DEI goals (Birnbaum et al., 2019). Further, although many best practices have been suggested by numerous organizations, some evidence shows that equity gains may not occur as expected for all targeted groups (Kalev et al., 2006). Adding to the complexity, Nishii and colleagues (2008) have argued that intended HR practices and actual HR

practices, as well as employee perceptions of and reactions to those HR practices often differ. Such perceptions may be one source of incongruence between suggested best practices and actual effectiveness of best practices.

Employee Perceptions of Diversity Practices. Even with implementation of positive HR practices, employee perceptions play a large role in how effective those practices are. For instance, Nishii and colleagues (2008) found that HR practices can be perceived quite differently by employees, and attributions to department level HR practices are associated with department level satisfaction, commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Employees' perceptions of HR systems depend on employees' values, personalities, goals, needs, social roles and identities, past experiences, competencies, and expectations. Further, employee perceptions of HR practices and the reasons that managers implement particular policies affect employees' well-being and motivation.

More specifically, Nishii and associates (2008) examined internal and external attributes for decisions, such as whether decisions were created to comply with unions. Data were collected from a supermarket chain in which employees rated each of five HR practice areas (staffing, training, benefits, pay, and scheduling) on seven dimensions assessing the extent to which the practice was designed to 1) enhance service quality, 2) minimize cost, 3) promote employee well-being, 4) get the most out of employees, 5) comply with union standards, 6) keep up with other companies, and 7) create a positive image. Quality and employee enhancement HR attributes were positively related to employee attitudes, that is employee commitment to and satisfaction with the organization; in contrast, cost and employee exploitation were negatively related to

attitudes. As expected, perceptions of union compliance were not related to attitudes, as unions were viewed as an external force and therefore such practices were not attributed to HR. Further, employee attitudes were positively related to both OCB helping and OCB conscientiousness which led to OCB helping and customer satisfaction. Such results indicate that positive OCB helping creates positive experiences for customers as well. Thus, the same HR practice may have a totally different effect on employee attitudes and performance depending on employees' attributions about the reason for the practice.

In a similar sample, McKay and McDaniel (2006) used diversity climate to explain the difference in job performance between Whites and Black/Hispanics. The gap in performance is often attributed to individual differences, such as ability (Ford et al., 1986; Roth et al., 2003). However, McKay and colleagues (2008) examined these relationships from an organizational context model, suggesting that diversity climate accounts for differences in performance based on race. The researchers conducted multilevel analyses of survey data provided by 6,130 sales employees from a large, national retail organization. White and Black employees did not differ in overall sales. However, White (vs. Black) employees sold more in stores with lower perceived pro-diversity climates—measured by questions that targeted how diversity focused the company was and how well the company treated employees. In contrast, Black associates' sales exceeded Whites associates in perceived higher pro-diversity climates. Similarly, White/Hispanic sales disparities were larger in stores with lower pro-diversity climates. However, this gap disappeared in stores with high pro-diversity climates. These findings support the social-exchange perspective suggesting that when individuals feel valued, they are more likely to provide positive outcomes for their organization as

reciprocity. In a follow-up study, McKay and colleagues found that a welcoming diversity climate had a positive impact on customer satisfaction, especially for stores in which racial/ethnic diversity was high.

Yet again, the research often drifts into the realm of performance based on organization diversity management. However, according to Gould-Williams (2007), employees may not have enough power to reciprocate negative organizational actions and may thus internalize negativity leading to negative well-being. Gould-Williams examined such exchanges in local government departments and found that although positive exchanges had positive effects on motivation, discretionary effort, and intention to quit, negative exchanges were not related to discretionary effort. These findings suggest that the relationship between negative actions on the part of the organization and negative employee behaviors is more complex than a simple social exchange theory explanation would suggest. Indeed, there are less obvious consequences to negative organizations actions, such as increased turnover intentions and lower motivation, which although not examined by Gould-Williams seems likely to reduce positive employee behaviors. However, the organization may be unaware of the negative consequences until employees have left—if it becomes aware at all.

Kaplan and associates (2011) proposed that employee turnover is lower in better diversity climates because employees calculate the benefits of remaining in the organization, rather than the warm fuzzy feelings that diversity climates potentially provide. Calculative attachment places primary importance on the future tangible benefits and opportunities connected to remaining with an organization (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). Maertz and colleagues examined their theory using mail in survey responses ($N =$

4,184). The results indicated that positive perceptions of diversity climate were related to decreased turnover intentions. Calculative attachment mediated the relationship between diversity climate and turnover, suggesting that positive diversity climates increase perceptions of future opportunities and therefore increase the likelihood that employees will stay. Further, positive perceptions of diversity climate appeared to have positive effects for all employees, including White men. These results suggest that positive diversity climates are neither exclusionary to the majority group nor necessarily seen in zero-sum terms as some research indicates (e.g., Dover et al., 2016; Eibach & Keegan, 2006). These differences in results are likely due to the method of research, as much of the diversity research is based on hypothetical organizations and how attracted Whites are to potentially applying (Dover et al., 2016). Maertz and colleagues, however, examined employees' perceptions within an established organization with a pro-diversity climate.

Yet another way to frame and examine perceptions of an inclusive climate is that of diversity promise fulfillment—a specific type of psychological contract, in which employees expect their employers to fulfill diversity obligations of a representative workforce, valuing underrepresented group member input, and supporting issues important to all employee identities (Chrobot-Mason, 2003). Indeed, Li and colleagues (2019) examined the extent to which diversity promise fulfillment influenced affective commitment of employees through an inclusion climate. Specifically, they examined the relationship between an identity-conscious (vs. identity-blind) approach to inclusion climate and employee perceptions and commitment. In a large study of Australian organizations, researchers found that women, older employees, and racial/ethnic minorities perceived lower diversity promise fulfillment in their organizations. Further,

organizations that implemented more identity conscious programs were perceived to have a more inclusive climate. Diversity promise fulfillment was positively related to affective commitment at both the individual and organization level analyses.

Whether an organization is looking to advanced underrepresented groups, improve performance, or create a culture that fosters positive well-being and employee engagement, increased diversity is not enough (e.g., Chrobot-Mason, 2003; McKay et al., 2008). A critical examination of diversity supportive policies, practices, and programs may help an organization understand how a truly inclusive diversity climate can be created and implemented (e.g., Downey et al., 2015; Guillaume, 2015). Additionally, organizations may consider assessing employee perceptions to ensure their policies and practices have their intended outcomes (Nishii et al., 2008). Further, output factors, such as performance—whether at the organization or individual level—may not be the best measure of success for these policies, as underlying issues like turnover intentions and lowered motivation may not be apparent until too late (Gould-Williams, 2007).

Chapter 3: Inclusion and Exclusion

According to Baumeister and Leary (1995), people have a fundamental or innate need to belong, which is characterized by a need for personal interactions free from conflict and negative affect on a frequent basis, and a need to perceive stable interpersonal bonds with interactive partners. Baumeister and Leary argued that the need to belong is fundamental as it meets nine criteria: 1) under adverse conditions it produces negative effects, 2) it results in affective changes, 3) it impacts cognitive processing, 4) it has negative effects on health or adjustment when there are barriers to it, 5) individuals are motivated to achieve it, 6) it is universal, 7) it is not based on other motives, 8) it affects multiple behaviors, and 9) it goes beyond immediate psychological functioning. This innate need helps to explain why inclusion can lead to greater satisfaction and general well-being, yet exclusion from groups can have significant negative consequences such as reduce cognitive functioning (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Mor Barak & Levin, 2002; Findler et al., 2007; Shore et al., 2011).

From a workplace perspective, Pelled and colleagues (1999) defined inclusion as the degree to which an employee is accepted and treated as an insider by others in the work system. Inclusion refers to acceptance of different values, perspectives, and styles to accomplishing goals in the same system (Ferdman, 2017). Mor Barak defined inclusion as an “individual’s sense of being a part of the organizational system in both the formal processes, such as access to information and decision-making channels, and the informal processes like ‘water cooler’ and lunch meetings where information and decisions informally take place.” Mor Barak and Cherin (1998) suggested that the degree to which employees feel included/excluded in decision-making processes and

information networks impacts whether they feel as though they are key contributors to their work and organizations. Greater inclusion can help employees feel as though they are a part of a team with the same shared goals and interests (Mor Barak, 2015).

One can also consider inclusion from the perspective of Brewer's (1991) optimal distinctiveness theory, which posits that humans have both a need to be like others and a need for individuation from the group. Shore and colleagues (2011) similarly define inclusion as the extent to which an employee believes they are a respected member of a team or organization through a sense of belongingness and a second sense of uniqueness in which individuals feel valued for their opinions and unique contributions. The researchers proposed an inclusion framework of four states (exclusion, assimilation, differentiation, and inclusion) that fall along high-to-low continuums of value in uniqueness and belongingness. For instance, employees who have a strong sense of belonging to the group yet a low level of uniqueness risk assimilation, based on Shore and colleagues' inclusion framework, However, a rating within the inclusion category would indicate a high level of belonging and a high level of uniqueness (considered optimal). For instance, consider a person who is the only team member with caregiver status. If team members perceive the status as a hinderance for the individual, they are likely to feel a sense of exclusion, but if the individual is still viewed as a member of the team and their caregiver status is valued for the additional perspective it provides, the individual is likely to feel a sense of inclusion.

When people's unique characteristics are appreciated and they feel like an integral part of the organization or team, they experience greater satisfaction and organizational commitment and are more likely to be retained (Shore et al., 2011). Further, inclusion has

been found to have many positive outcomes related to employee well-being (Mor Barak & Levin, 2002). In fact, in a sample from a high-tech firm in the United States, Mor Barak and Levin found that White employees and men reported greater inclusion which was associated with greater job satisfaction and well-being. Additionally, perceived inclusion, justice, social support, and lower stress all predicted greater well-being. Finally, Mor Barak and Levin examined the mediating effects of inclusion and found that White employees' and men's greater job satisfaction and well-being were explained by their perceptions of greater inclusion. In a similar study, Israeli women reported higher levels of exclusion from the decision-making process and information networks (Findler et al., 2007). In both studies, greater exclusion was associated with lower job satisfaction and well-being.

Social exclusion has also been linked to greater conflict (Findler et al., 2007), increased negative workplace behaviors (Twenge et al., 2001), and reduced effectiveness (Baumeister et al., 2002; Twenge et al., 2002). Unfortunately, members of underrepresented groups often lack close interpersonal workplace relationships and experience greater isolation (Chrobot-mason, 2004; Findler et al., 2007; Jones & Schaubroek, 2004; Mor Barak & Levin, 2004). In fact, employees from underrepresented groups, such as employees of color and White women, have reported more negative job attitudes, less organizational fairness, less integration within the organization, and lower camaraderie than their White male counterparts (Dickerson et al., 2010; Mor Barak, 1998), even in organizations from the "100 Best Companies to Work For" (Carberry & Meyers, 2017).

Further, in a sample of employees from state agencies (including health and welfare, environment, transportation, and education personnel), Bae and Colleagues (2016) found that people who were dissimilar in gender and age to those in their organization experienced less organizational inclusion. Interestingly, the negative effect of gender dissimilarity was more pronounced for men than women. Further, in a study conducted with biomedical company employees, Nishii (2013) found that a climate for inclusion moderated the relationship between gender diversity and conflict, such that in units with low inclusion climates, gender diversity was associated with higher relationship conflict. In contrast, in units with high inclusion climates, gender diversity was negatively related to relationship conflict. The same pattern was found for task conflict. Further, in low (but not in high) inclusion climates, relationship conflict was negatively associated with satisfaction.

Exclusion may also have detrimental effects on employee performance. For example, in an examination of three organizations, Black (vs. White) managers felt less accepted, perceived that they had less power in making decisions, and received worse performance reviews (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Greenhaus and colleagues suggested that feeling excluded may contribute to reduced opportunities for employees, reducing effectiveness. It also appears that social exclusion can have detrimental cognitive impairments. Baumeister and colleagues (2002) conducted three experiments in which undergraduate students were told that based on their personality test results they were likely to be alone, be socially active, or suffer medical and physical challenges (control condition) in the future. The researchers then assessed participants' cognitive ability through intelligence testing (Study 1), GRE analytical/reading comprehension (Study 2),

or recall of random words and GRE analytic test (Study 3). Not only did those in the future alone condition make more mistakes than those in the future belonging condition, but they made significantly fewer attempts than did those in both the future belonging and misfortune conditions. Together, the results indicate that although social exclusion does not appear to affect encoding and recalling of information, it does affect executive functioning and the extent to which individuals can engage in active reasoning—perhaps due to the focus of resources on self-regulating to reduce emotional distress. In a similar study, Twenge and colleagues (2002) found that when individuals were told they would spend their futures alone, they engaged in more self-defeating behaviors such as procrastination and choosing pleasurable activities rather than focusing on the task at hand.

Additionally, workplace exclusion can lead to counterproductive work behaviors—or behaviors that are intended to cause harm to an individual's organization, co-workers, or customers (Hitlan & Noel, 2009; Spector et al., 2006). Hitlan and Noel examined the effects of workplace exclusion on work behaviors, distinguishing between exclusion by co-workers and exclusion by supervisors. The researchers found that supervisor exclusion (e.g., supervisor neglect to respond to requests in a reasonable timeframe, supervisor neglect to invite employees to work-related activities) was significantly related to employee counterproductive work behavior such as attending to personal matters rather than work, gossiping, and using organizational property for unauthorized reasons. In contrast, employees who experienced greater co-worker exclusion reported engaging in more interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors such as teasing a co-worker, giving a co-worker the silent treatment, and swearing at a

coworker. Thus, exclusive behaviors appear to be perceived differently based on the exclusionary actor, and thus employees engaged in different destructive workplace behaviors based on the actor. If an organization identifies negative workplace behaviors from employees regularly, identifying the target of the behaviors may provide a clue into the type of intervention needed and at what level.

In other work that utilized the *future alone* and *future belonging* personality manipulation, Twenge and colleagues (2001) manipulated exclusion by providing both personality test feedback indicating future social life, as well as bogus feedback from an experimental partner on a writing assignment in which the individual argued for or against an abortion issue. Participants in the ego threat condition received negative feedback with poor ratings and comments such as “worst essay I have ever read.” Participants were then provided the opportunity to act aggressively by filling out an evaluation of their experimental partner for a potential job. Participants in the future alone condition more negatively evaluated their experimental partner than did participants in any other condition. In a follow-up study, participants who received positive feedback provided positive evaluations, even in the future alone condition. In the fourth and fifth studies, participants first engaged in a get to know you task and then were either told that everyone or no one had chosen them for a group. The results indicated that when individuals were told no one had chosen them, they were more likely to engage in “violent” behavior by assigning louder and longer white noise blasts (a more direct and behavioral form of aggression) to a neutral party—even though that individual was not the one who excluded the participant. In sum, individuals become less effective and even engage in damaging behavior—impacting themselves or others—when they experience

exclusion. In contrast experiencing inclusion may be protective to one's ego when experiencing negative work experiences, providing resilience on difficult days or experiences at work.

In inclusive environments where employees feel like they belong and feel valued for their unique characteristics (optimal distinctiveness), managers create norms that integrate knowledge, skills, and abilities of all workers while removing barriers such as conflict (Carberry & Meyers, 2017; Chatman, 2010; Ely & Thomas, 2001). Creating a climate for inclusion and implementing inclusive systems that target attitudes, norms, leadership, and policies can help employees enact their authentic, whole selves, preventing tension between identities (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Mor Barak, 2008; Mor Barak et al., 2016). Shore and colleagues (2011) suggested that contextual antecedents to consider when examining workplace inclusion include perceived fairness in systems, opportunity for all, inclusive leadership and HR practices that promote both belongingness needs and uniqueness needs. Nishii (2013) noted that an inclusive climate is characterized by norms that invite greater openness and acculturation, such that nondominant groups can retain their cultural identities and values, in contrast to assimilation in which employees are expected to adopt the culture of the dominant group. In addition, inclusion in decision-making ensures diverse perspectives are heard even if they go against the status quo, improving well-being, performance, and employees' interpersonal interactions (e.g., Findler et al., 2007; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Hitlan & Noel, 2009).

Chapter 4: Psychological Safety

Trust, that is, the expectation that others' future actions will be favorable to one's interests, and as such one is willing to be vulnerable to others and take interpersonal risks, is a key component of psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999; Mayer et al., 1995). Psychological safety takes trust one step further and includes a mutual respect allowing individuals to feel safe to be themselves (Edmondson, 1999). Trust and psychological safety are perhaps especially important as workforces become more diverse (Mayer et al., 1995) because similarity, which is lower in diverse groups, often serves to facilitate attraction and a willingness to work together (Byrne, 1997).

Psychological safety occurs at the team and organizational levels. Team psychological safety refers to a group-level shared belief held by members of a team that the team is safe for interpersonal risk taking (Edmondson, 1999). Psychologically safe work environments are characterized by employees who are free to express their concerns/doubts/disagreements to influence individual action (Edmondson, 1999; Hirak et al., 2012). Psychological safety is evident when workgroups value each member's skills and capabilities, are comfortable in taking risks, are safe to point out mistakes, and share information (Edmondson, 1999). Psychological safety alleviates concern that others will react negatively and cause embarrassment or threat. It is easier to make risky comments or generate risky ideas when individuals feel a sense of respect and trust within their relationships and feel assured that they will be given the benefit of the doubt if mistakes occur (Kahn, 1990). With the long-held assumption that increased diversity leads to increased creativity and problem-solving behavior (Cox & Blake, 1991),

psychological safety is likely a facilitator of the relationship, as the ability to provide risky ideas is a primary component of creativity and problem-solving.

Knowledge Sharing. Psychological safety appears to be an important factor in facilitating organizational improvements (Liang et al., 2012), development of new products and services (Baer & Frese, 2003), and improved performance (Singh et al., 2013). Psychological safety is particularly important to the success of learning-oriented knowledge-based work as individuals are more likely to share information and knowledge in a psychologically safe environment (Collins & Smith, 2006; Siemsen et al., 2009). More specifically, psychological safety is important when individuals are unsure of their knowledge, or how others will react to their knowledge and opinions. For instance, Siemsen and colleagues (2009) utilized survey data from four organizations to examine the relationship between psychological safety and knowledge sharing among coworkers. They found that the relationship between psychological safety and knowledge sharing was weaker when individuals were more confident about the knowledge they were sharing. Thus, although psychological safety is not necessary for knowledge sharing to occur, it increases the chances of knowledge sharing when individuals are insecure about their knowledge of the shared information.

Of course, some individuals may disagree with the shared knowledge or approach, resulting in conflict. Recall that poor diversity management may result in conflict avoidance (Ely & Thomas, 2001) or negative stereotypes after conflict (Correll et al., 2008), and that positive inclusion environments decrease conflict (Nishii, 2013). However, Chen and colleagues (2011) have argued that task conflict can have positive effects on psychological states such as safety. The researchers argued that task conflict

increases perceived safety as it opens the lines of communication to express differing viewpoints, which signals to employees that it is safe to express their thoughts as well. Chen and associates focused on three predictors of work engagement: meaningfulness, experienced safety, and experienced availability—identified by Kahn (1990). *Experienced meaningfulness* refers to how valuable employees believe their jobs to be. *Experienced safety* refers to the ability to question the status quo and admit one's mistakes without repercussions. Finally, *experience availability* is defined as employees' belief that they have the resources needed to complete their work. Indeed, Chen and colleagues conducted a SEM analysis with survey data from two Chinese software firms, which revealed that unlike relationship conflict—which was negatively related to all three psychological states—task conflict was positively related to both experienced availability and experienced safety. All psychological states were positively related to work engagement, and task conflict was indirectly related to work engagement through experienced availability and safety. Finally, work engagement was positively related to knowledge sharing. Thus, although relationship conflict generally has negative outcomes, task conflict may increase psychological safety as employees are more engaged with their work and in turn share more knowledge with their colleagues.

In addition to sharing knowledge with coworkers, employees may have knowledge they need to share with those above them in rank/level. For example, when employees notice opportunities for improvement in their organization, they may wish to express those opportunities or concerns. Speaking up in a productive way and challenging the status quo, a phenomenon often called voice, provides additional important information to the organization (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003; Van Dyne &

LePine, 1998). Liang and colleagues (2012) have argued that there are two types of voice: promotive and prohibitive. Promotive voice refers to speaking up in terms of work practice and process improvement (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) and focuses on additive positives to the organization. In contrast, prohibitive voice focuses on concern regarding negative existing practices or events in which the organization may engage.

Although voice can bring about positive outcomes for employees, such as positive performance evaluations (Thompson, 2005), challenging the current practices of the organization can also be risky, as that opinion may need to be voiced to those who created the program or policy, are responsible for it, or feel attached to the status quo (Detert & Burris, 2002; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Therefore, to take such a risk, employees may examine whether it is safe to do so and whether the net benefit outweighs the potential cost (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Unfortunately, speaking up that results in silencing means that organizations are less likely to benefit from the diverse values, beliefs, and perspectives of their employees. Psychological safety lessens the fear that expressing one's opinions will lead to career detriments, such as restricted growth or loss of support (Detert & Burris, 2002; Van Dyne et al., 2003). In fact, in a sample of supervisors and subordinate survey responses from a two-wave study design, Liang and associates (2012) found that employees who perceived greater psychological safety were more likely to engage in both types of voice. Unfortunately, psychological safety and voice behaviors have also been found to be strongly related to status (role-based or demographic-based status), such that the higher status one has, the less they need to engage in "facework"—also referred to as saving face (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). In fact, in survey data from neonatal intensive care unit (NICU) healthcare workers,

status was positively associated with psychological safety. That is, those with higher status (e.g., doctors) felt much safer to express their opinion than did those of lower status (e.g., physical therapists). Again, if ability to engage in voice activities is exclusive to those with either role-based or demographic-based status, diverse viewpoints are unlikely to be expressed to the organization or leadership, thus losing one of the greatest benefits of organizational diversity.

The fear of speaking up may stem from employees' implicit theories of voice, that is, assumptions employees have about speaking up at work. Detert and Edmondson's (2011) interviews of employees from a large organization revealed five themes suggesting that employees hold back opinions due to 1) fear that the target of the opinion would take the feedback personally, 2) perceptions that any opinion should have solid data to back it, 3) fear that the speaker may accidentally bypass their boss 4) or embarrass their boss when speaking-up in front of others, and 5) fear of retaliation resulting in career repercussions. Although some interviewees admitted that their bosses had attempted to reduce these fears, they nevertheless believed speaking up could result in these negative consequences. In a follow-up qualitative study, students were asked to write open-ended responses indicating what may make speaking up feel risky or inappropriate. Raters were trained on the five implicit theories that emerged from the first study and were asked to code the open-ended data based on these themes. Along with the five original themes, the students identified seven additional theories (e.g., need for expertise, too new to the organization, age). In a final sample of MBA students, the researchers examined the additive effects of self-protective implicit voice theory's five latent factors and found that they accounted for an additional 12% of the variance in

silence, controlling for factors such as demographics, affect, proactive personality, and contextual variables. These results suggest that indeed employees hold back opinions due to fears that providing input in the wrong way or going above their boss's head would result in negative consequences to their career. Thus together, these three studies indicate that assumptions of negative consequences are highly related to employee hesitancy to engage in voice behaviors, whether there is evidence that such negative consequences are likely to occur or not.

Employee/leadership relationships have been identified as a leading antecedent to perceptions of psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999; Kahn, 1990). Employees can glean information regarding support consistency, trust, and competence based on a leader's actions (Kahn, 1990). Leader behaviors like being accessible, being vulnerable in failure, openness, and inviting input, which accumulate to create inclusive leadership, have been shown to improve follower psychological safety perceptions (Edmondson, 2004; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). In a study of NICU health care professionals, Nembhard and Edmondson showed that physicians' inclusive leadership, including encouragement of nurse initiative, collection of input, and valuing of others' opinions, was positively related to psychological safety. Status was also positively associated with psychological safety. Further, inclusive leadership was found to moderate the relationship between status and psychological safety, such that for those with low status, leadership inclusiveness predicted much higher psychological safety. Finally, psychological safety mediated the relationship between leader inclusiveness and team engagement in quality improvement work.

Hirak and colleagues (2012) similarly examined the relationship between inclusive leadership and psychological safety among employees of 55 hospital work units. Utilizing a three-wave longitudinal design, leader inclusiveness was used as a predictor of psychological safety at Time 1, and Time 1 psychological safety was used as a predictor of learning from failures at Time 2—four months later. Leader inclusiveness was positively related to psychological safety, and psychological safety was positively related to learning from failures at Time 2. Further, in a qualitative study, Edmondson and colleagues (2001) observed and interviewed 16 hospital cardiac teams transitioning from a traditional cardiac bypass procedure to a new technology. The new procedure, which included precise placement of a balloon, required others on the team to have greater responsibility for communicating about the placement of the balloon throughout the procedure, requiring much greater interdependence in terms of communication and coordination. Results indicated that members of the teams in which the surgeon did not initially have a teamwork mentality had a harder time speaking up when something was going wrong during surgery.

Yet another leadership style that has been found to significantly impact employee perceptions of psychological safety and voice behaviors is ethical leadership, which refers to the notion that followers' trust in leaders depends on their views of the leader's ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995). In a two-wave (five weeks apart) survey study of 894 employees and 222 supervisors, Walumbwa and Schaubroek (2009) asked supervisors to rate themselves on three personality traits (i.e., conscientiousness, agreeableness, and neuroticism), and employees to rate their supervisors' ethical leadership, which included fairness and ethical means to work completion. In the second

wave, employees rated their perceptions of psychological safety, and the supervisors rated their employees' level of engagement in voice behaviors. Overall, leaders' self-reported traits were positively related to ethical leadership behavior as reported by subordinates, and indirectly positively related to psychological safety. Further, ethical leadership predicted higher psychological safety, which partially mediated the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice.

Although multiple factors, such as personal status within the organization or society (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006) and assumptions that leaders will react negatively (Detert & Edmondson, 2011), may initially prevent employees from engaging in voice activities, the above studies of leadership behavior provide evidence that leader actions (e.g., openness, fairness, accessibility, etc.) can help to reduce fears concerning voice behaviors (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Hirak et al., 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroek, 2009). Organizations who are interested in gaining insights from lower status employees may need to select leaders based on such behaviors and/or provide trainings to develop such skills in their leadership.

Organizational Cues About Psychological Safety. Organizations provide other cues that suggest they are inclusive or exclusive (Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008). For instance, HR practices that signal commitment (Collins & Smith, 2006). Commitment HR practices include the use of internal labor markets, selection based on fit, group-based (vs. individual-based) incentives, and long-term growth focused performance appraisals. Such practices are meant to facilitate group trust, cooperation, communication, and help to align employees' actions with that of the organizational goals.

Collins and Smith examined the effects of commitment-based HR practices on social climate for trust, collaboration, and shared codes and language. Social climate was defined by the researchers as “the collective set of norms, values, and beliefs that express employees’ views of how they interact with one another while carrying out tasks for their firm” (p. 547). Regression results indicated that commitment-based HR practices were related to knowledge exchange among workers, and this relationship was partially mediated by social climate for trust, cooperation, and shared codes and language. Further, HR commitments significantly predicted firm performance through both social climate and knowledge exchange. A key piece of missing information in this study was the demographic makeup of the employees. The climate may have been perceived positively due to the similarity among workers and, as such, whether such commitment HR practices have positive effects in more demographically diverse workgroups is unclear.

Indeed, Singh and colleagues (2013) examined perceptions of a diversity climate—utilizing McKay and colleagues (2008) scale—on performance among matched pairs of supervisors and employees in a Midwestern US mid-sized production company. They found a partial mediational effect of psychological safety between diversity climate and both in-role work performance and OCB related behaviors. These relationships were stronger for employees from underrepresented groups than for White employees, indicating that psychological safety may be even more important to diverse organizations.

In sum, psychological safety has a large impact on coworker relationships as well as supervisor/employee relationships (Edmondson, 1999; Detert & Burris, 2002; Hirak et al., 2012; Rousseau et al., 1995) and performance. Whether employees are nervous about coworker reactions to creative ideas or worried that their suggestions for workplace

improvement will have negative repercussions, there are cost and benefits to voicing opinions and dissent (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003; Liang et al., 2012; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Fortunately, inclusive leadership behaviors such as accessibility, vulnerability, openness, and active feedback-seeking behaviors can improve psychological safety and thus reduce the risk of speaking up (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). Additionally, organizations can implement systems and processes to help improve psychological safety for their employees. In fact, increased racial/ethnic representation and a positive diversity climate have been found to increase trust and perceived psychological safety for potential and current employees (Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008; Singh et al., 2013). It is important to note that employees make initial assumptions regarding opportunities for voice, and leaders and organizations that actively engage in inclusive behaviors and systems can help reduce the fear of voicing one's opinion (Detert & Edmondson, 2011).

Chapter 5: Justice

Perceptions of justice have a basis in social exchange theory as many social relationships are based on *quid pro quo* terms, in which one party provides benefits in a fair exchange for benefits from the other party (Blau, 1964). Benefits within a social exchange are often intangible, for example, assistance, advice, and service work. Justice is also an intangible benefit that an organization can provide to increase positive employee actions in the form of motivation or OCBs (Organ, 1990). The ability to identify a just social exchange is evolutionarily important (van den Bos et al., 2008), as fairness expectations in new or unknown circumstances reduces uncertainty (Lind & van den Bos, 2002).

Although often considered interchangeable, Colquitt and Zipay (2015) defined fairness and justice as two separate concepts, such that fairness is a global and consequential outcome of justice (Cropanzano et al., 2015; Colquitt et al., 2022). That is, people perceive that an overall scenario, person, or organization is fair when the decisions of that target entity were made justly (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015). Justice is more specifically defined by Colquitt and Rodell (2015) as perceptions of how rules are followed in decision contexts—often categorized as types of justice. It is widely agreed that four common decision contexts exist: distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Leventhal, 1976). Distributive justice refers to decision rules that are intended to result in equity, equality, and need fulfillment (Cropanzano et al., 2015). In other words, the reward matches the contribution (Leventhal, 1980). Procedural justice focuses are based on six rules detailed by Leventhal: consistency, bias-suppression, accuracy, correctability, representativeness,

and ethicality. Interpersonal justice refers to how well individuals are treated in terms of respect and propriety (Cropanzano et al., 2015). Finally, informational justice refers to the transparency of decisions, including explanation adequacy, honesty, and justification. Together, informational and interpersonal justice makeup interactional justice as both relate to how individuals are treated during decision-making processes, although they have been shown to have independent effects and are therefore generally considered separate dimensions (Bies et al., 1988; Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1990).

Reactions to justness are often strong due to its entanglement with morality. For instance, deonance theory suggests that enactments of justice indicate observance of moral norms and, as such, violations of justice principles send the message that violators believe themselves to be above moral authority (Folger et al., 2005). Folger and colleagues argued that the sense of fairness stems from moral and ethical assumptions that everyone should be treated in a normative way. When someone violates that assumption, individuals respond with strong emotion and behaviors and often may even act in ways that are counter to their own economic interests (Kahneman et al., 1986).

Folger and colleagues (2005) outlined five attributes of responses to violations in which responders act counter to their own interests, which they called deontic responses. First, reaction to others' behaviors—especially perceived unjust behavior—is often rapid and automatic. Second, the emotional response to injustice can at times be “irrational”, as people may go out of their way to punish someone, even if the end results stay the same (e.g., stopping someone from suicide to sentence them to death). Similarly, Pinker (2003) has suggested that for social life to run smoothly, people over-extend economically to make a point about the violation to moral norms in the name of deterrence. For instance,

U.S. courts often expend thousands of dollars to convict someone of stealing a small amount of money. The third attribute of the deontic response is the indication that retribution itself is often the desired result (Folger et al., 2005); yet the fourth attribute is the potential for reconciliation. Folger and colleagues argued that nature installed a braking system to stop societies from completely breaking down when a violation occurs; theoretically, reconciliation limits the response to injustice while allowing for rapprochement. The fifth and final attribute of the deontic response, as outlined by Folger and colleagues is that emotion drives the behavior. For instance, many refer to responses to moral violations as “moral outrage” because anger is often the driver of the need for retribution (Bies, 1987). However, it does seem that the extent of the anger and the target of the anger vary based on perceptions of the violation source and context.

Perceived Justice in the Workplace. It is generally important that any social exchange relationship be accompanied by perceptions of justice, including workplace social exchange relationships (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Konovsky, 2000; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). In fact, in their meta-analytic review of 55 studies, Organ and Ryan (1995) found that perceived fairness correlated with OCBs at the same level as job satisfaction. Not only does overall fairness predict positive workplace behaviors, but targeted levels of justice have been found to predict different attitudes and behaviors in context specific scenarios.

For instance, Colquitt and colleagues (2002) examined the effects of workplace justice climate and strength in functional manufacturing teams. Procedural justice was assessed with respect to voice during procedures, influence over outcomes, consistency, bias perceptions, and accuracy. Team performance was reported by team leaders in terms

of productivity, timeliness, safety, accuracy, efficiency, quality, and overall performance. Each plant contact reported absenteeism. The team size, demographic diversity—in age, ethnicity, and gender—and team collectivism were controlled. Results indicated that procedural justice climate level was positively related to team performance and negatively related to absenteeism. Although ethnic and gender team diversity was not related to procedural justice climate, older team members perceived the justice climate more negatively than did younger team members, indicate that not all employees perceive justice the same across organizational teams.

Perceived justice also appears to depend on the target (e.g., one's direct supervisor vs. the organization overall; Malatesta & Bryne, 1997; Masterson & Taylor, 1996). For instance, distributive justice generally results in stronger reactions to specific outcomes, not necessarily to the organization or the supervisor overall (Cropanzano et al., 2002). In contrast, procedural justice is often a better predictor of whether the organization, upper management, or human resources system is perceived as fair, as procedures are generally developed and established by higher level actors (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Konovsky, 2000; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Similarly, when perceptions of interpersonal justice are high, employees perceive better exchange relationships with their supervisors as those are the individuals with whom they interact on a day-to-day basis (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Masterson et al., 2000). In a field study of manufacturing employees, Folger and Konovsky (1989) demonstrated that greater distributive justice was more strongly and positively correlated with employee reactions to pay raises. In contrast, greater procedural justice was more highly related to greater trust in upper management and commitment to the organization.

Further, perceptions of the different types of justice also seem to have targeted behavioral effects (Malatesta & Bryne, 1997; Masterson & Taylor, 1996). In a study of university staff members, Masterson and Taylor found that both interactional justice and procedural justice predicted job satisfaction. However, interactional justice predicted performance and supervisor-directed OCBs; leader-member exchange fully mediated the relationship between interactional justice and job satisfaction as well as supervisor-directed OCBs. In contrast, procedural justice predicted organization-directed OCBs and organizational commitment and was negatively related to intentions to quit; perceived organizational support fully mediated the relationship between perceived procedural justice and job satisfaction as well as intentions to quit. Perceived organizational support also partially mediated the relationship between procedural justice and organization-directed OCBs and organizational commitment. Thus, the reaction to injustice appears to be based on the source and type of injustice.

Colquitt and colleagues (2006) asked participants to complete a proofreading exercise and were then given a pass/fail grade with an explanation of how the grade was decided; the explanation varied with respect to high versus low justice and type of justice (i.e., procedural vs. interpersonal vs. distributive). For instance, participants in the low procedural justice condition were told “in the past, I’ve always graded the whole proofreading task in order to be as accurate and consistent as possible. I didn’t do that here though. I finished grading everyone else’s but ran out of time on yours, so I just graded the last paragraph.” The experimenter had initially indicated that participants could take one of the expensive looking pens on the desk afterwards. However, following the task, the experimenter announced that they were running low and asked participants

to please leave the pen, thus providing an opportunity to engage in counterproductive work behavior. The results indicated that participants in the high (vs. low) procedural justice and distributive justice conditions took fewer pens.

Each factor and target of justice are clearly important to explore, as there may be different responses both from an attitude perspective and a behavioral perspective. Understanding where perceived injustices may exist can help organizations identify breakdowns in justice processes and improve outcomes, such as turnover (or intentions to turnover), counterproductive workplace behaviors, and positive citizenship behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2002; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Masterson & Taylor, 1996).

Psychological Contracts. Importantly, justice perceptions are partially formed prior to experiences through justice expectations (Lind & van den Bos, 2002; Rodell & Colquitt, 2009; van den Bos & Lind, 2002). For instance, new employees often take shortcuts to determine whether to fully participate in the organization or engage in self-protective behaviors (Lind, 2001). They may rely on fairness heuristics, or broad assumptions of fairness based on personal experience with previous events to develop anticipatory justice perceptions, which influence later perceptions of the justice of events (Jordan et al., 2021). Such expectations form the psychological contract, that is, perceptions of the way the expected social exchange should take place (Tekleab et al., 2005). In organizational contexts, psychological contracts refer to employees' perceived agreements or expectations about reciprocity between their employer and themselves (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1989).

Turnley and Feldman (1999) posited that psychological contract expectations develop based on three sources of information: direct promises made by the organization,

employees' perceptions of organizational culture, and employees' expectations of the organization's operations which is generally idealized. Direct promises can come from any representative of the organization including recruiters, human resource individuals, supervisors, and top leadership. Promises can also come from an employee manual or handbook. In their review of human resources use of contracts, Rousseau and Greller (1994) concluded that contracts—formal or informal—come from multiple sources in an organization such as through interactions with recruiters, managers, coworkers, through observation of managers and coworkers, or through administration structural signals. Additionally, employees utilize their perceptions of the organization's culture and standard practices to help shape their psychological contract. History of the organization's actions—provided through the socialization of new employees—help to provide guidance for employees in understanding how the organization will likely treat them now and in the future (Feldman 1976; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). Whether employees are told by supervisors that they will receive a raise after one year, or the organizational handbook suggests that pay raises occur after one year, employees are likely to view the raise as a promise made by the organization. Finally, employees generally perceive psychological contracts in ways that benefit them, such as assuming their own increased performance in one area will make up for their lacking in another area. Even though they do not directly discuss this exchange with their supervisor or organization, it is still embedded in their perceived psychological contract (Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

A psychological contract breach occurs when an individual believes that an organization has not fulfilled one or more of the obligations within the psychological

contract. A violation of the contract goes a step further in that it involves intense emotions of betrayal and deeper psychological distress leading to disappointment and frustration (Ortony et al., 1988; Robinson & Morrison, 1995). In fact, Robinson and Dechant (1997) defined psychological contract violations as the emotional and affective state—identifiable by disappointment and anger—resulting from a failure on the part of the organization to maintain the psychological contract. This level of emotion only occurs when employees believe the organization has betrayed them. Psychological contract breaches and violations can have damaging effects on employee outcomes, including organizational commitment and turnover (Turnley & Feldman, 1999), and result in extreme behavior, such as engaging in anti-citizenship behavior (Kickul et al., 2002a; 2002b), that is, actions that reduce organizational effectiveness, such as coworker interference, disrespect of supervisors, and avoidance of work (Ball et al., 1994).

To test the full chain of relationships between justice, perceived organizational support, psychological contract breaches, and job satisfaction, Tekleab and colleagues (2005) recruited non-faculty employees at a public university for a longitudinal study. In the first wave, 651 employees completed measures of justice and perceived organizational support. Three years later, 200 of those employees completed measures of job satisfaction, and perceptions of psychological contract breaches by the university (e.g., “the university has repeatedly failed to meet its obligations to me.”). After another three years, turnover data were collected from the 200 participants who completed Waves 1 and 2. The researchers found that procedural justice was strongly associated with perceived organizational support. Organizational support was negatively related to psychological contract violations at Wave 2 and psychological contract violations were

negatively related to job satisfaction. In fact, psychological contract breaches fully mediated the relationship between perceived organizational support and job satisfaction. Finally, greater job satisfaction predicted lower turnover intentions at Wave 2, which positively predicted actual turnover at Wave 3.

Thompson and Heron (2005) examined the interactional effects of justice and psychological contract breaches among scientists and engineers from six major high-technology firms. Participants indicated the extent to which psychological contract fulfillment had occurred along 21 dimensions of organizational promises (e.g., development opportunities, responsibility and rewards, autonomy). Judgments of interactional and procedural justice were also collected, along with affective commitment to the organization. As expected, psychological contract fulfillment was positively related to affective commitment. Further, a three-way interaction between interactional justice, procedural justice, and psychological contract breach indicated that even when psychological contracts were not fulfilled, when there was otherwise high procedural justice and interactional justice, employees felt a strong affective commitment to the firm, suggesting that perceived justice can make up for organizational failings.

To better understand employee reactions to psychological contract breaches during large changes, Kickul and colleagues (2002a) surveyed part-time MBA students who were employed at organizations that had undergone a major organizational change in the previous 12 months. Organizational changes included operation restructuring, major layoffs, and mergers/acquisitions. Results revealed that occurrences of psychological contract breaches were associated with lower job satisfaction. Further, lower procedural justice was associated with employees' intentions to leave the job. Finally, psychological

contract breaches were associated with lower self-reported OCBs and poorer performance when procedural justice was low (vs. high). Thus, not only did employees stop engaging in important citizenship behaviors but they also decreased their expected contributions to the organization when psychological contract breaches occurred, especially when the breaches were done in ways that were not perceived as procedurally just.

Taking the work a step further, Kickul and colleagues (2002b) examined supervisors' reports of anti-citizenship behaviors following psychological contract breaches and employees' perceptions of procedural and interactional justice. Kickul and colleagues found that employees who perceived both procedural justice and interactional justice as low (vs. high) reported higher levels of psychological contract breaches and their supervisors rated their anti-citizenship behaviors to be higher. However, employees who perceived both procedural and interactional justice as high (vs. low), the presence of psychological contract breaches did not seem to matter.

Overall, then, when employee expectations of their organization are not met, and the lack of contract fulfillment is done in a way that is perceived as unjust, employees act to ensure equity of efforts between themselves and their employers. Employees may ensure equity by reducing their own effectiveness or preventing others from being effective as well (Ball et al., 1994; Kickul et al., 2002a; 2002b). The likely consequences are reductions in organizational effectiveness.

Justice and Diversity Management. One type of psychological contract is the diversity promise (Chrobot-Mason, 2003). Diversity promises are established when the company's mission statement or other policies and procedures lead employees to believe that diversity is important to the organization. If employees perceive that the organization

climate does not match the organizational mission, they may perceive a psychological contract violation. Further, changing organizational human resource practices to create more inclusion can evoke uncertainty, resulting in employees developing anticipatory justice expectations (Lind & van den Bos, 2002; Rodell & Colquitt, 2009; van den Bos & Lind, 2002).

Jordan and colleagues (2019) developed a model addressing anticipatory justice in terms of perceptions of human resource inclusion practices. According to the proposed model, when new human resource practices are announced, employees cognitively process their most recent and most negative biases. They then process their prior experiences with HR D&I. These information processing events result in anticipatory justice, depending on individual-level factors such as temporal orientation and trust in HR D&I. Finally, depending on the organization's inclusion climate, employees judge the justness of the new practices. Although not empirically evaluated, this model helps to conceptualize how anticipatory justice and previous experiences with D&I practices can potentially impact ultimate perceptions of justice.

Magoshi and Chang (2009) examined diversity management policies in Japan and Korea where such policies are relatively new and rare, focusing on the connection between diversity management, procedural justice, and organizational commitment. They found that procedural justice mediated the relationship between diversity management practices and organizational commitment. Further, Buttner and colleagues (2010) examined the relationship between diversity climate, and perceptions of psychological contract breaches within a sample of business school faculty of color. Results indicated that perceptions of a fair organizational diversity climate related to higher organizational

commitment and lower turnover intentions. Interactional justice partially mediated the relationship between diversity climate and organizational commitment, as well as the relationship between diversity climate and turnover intentions.

However, leaders often do not recognize the misalignment between their messaging and their actions. In fact, Efstratiou and Marcinko (2020) examined the effects of leader oversight bias in which leaders may underestimate the amount of misalignment between organizational claims of value for diversity and actual practices. The authors defined organizational hypocrisy as “the degree of perceived work-action misalignment with an element of intent to deceive” (p. 2). Perceptions of organizational hypocrisy can negatively affect employees and potential candidates alike. For instance, empirical evidence indicates that organizations that claim they value diversity, yet their entire board is male—or they only have one woman on the board—are viewed as lacking behavioral integrity (Windscheid et al., 2016). In turn the organization is perceived as less attractive to candidates. Oftentimes when organizations engage in behaviors that misalign with their statements, they are viewed as treating D&I as window-dressing in an inauthentic and deceitful way.

The impact of word/action misalignment is not the same for those at all levels. Employees at lower levels who are in more precarious positions may more readily perceive a gap between intended diversity practices and actual diversity practices (Nishii & Wright, 2008). In contrast, leaders may easily overlook misalignment, or even rely on diversity structures to create an illusion of fairness, even when the outcomes are ineffective (Kaiser et al., 2013). In fact, Efstratiou and Marcinko (2020) randomly assigned participants recruited from Prolific Academic to either a senior leader role or a

junior employee role in a fictional organization—although randomly assigned, participants were led to believe that their answers on four personality questions would dictate how they were assigned to the role. Participants were then provided with marketing material from the fictional organization, which included a diversity pledge, and asked about their anticipatory justice perceptions. Next, participants read about five separate incidents of ambiguous gender discrimination and again completed measures of perceived justice and rated how hypocritical they perceived the organization to be. As expected, leaders perceived the organization as less hypocritical and more just than non-leaders. Both anticipated and perceived justice significantly predicted hypocrisy. Finally, both anticipated justice and perceived justice mediated the relationship between leadership role and perceived hypocrisy.

It appears, then, that as people engage in social interactions through it is evolutionarily important that they can assess whether their social exchanges are fair or not (Blau, 1964; Lind & van den Bos, 2002; van den Bos et al., 2008). This likely applies to multiple contexts, but the workplace is often examined as an important social exchange environment, as employers expect employees to respond to their exchange of money with that of labor. However, when employees perceive that an exchange is not fair or that a promise is broken, they will likely develop negative attitudes and engage in harmful behavior (Kickul et al., 2002a; 2002b; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). The results appear to be the case in the overall workplace context as well as in specific arenas such as a diversity promise (Jordan et al., 2019; Magoshi & Chang, 2009). Therefore, it is highly important that organization messaging align with that of their actions—whether those

actions stem from top levels of management or direct supervisors (Windscheid et al., 2016).

Chapter 6: Overview of the Research

In all, the DEI literature primarily focuses on employees' perceptions of their experiences, employee attitudes, and employee behavior. Less attention has focused on DEI management, policies, and policy effectiveness. Utilizing multi-level data from 36 organizations, the current study examined the relationship between the overall number of policies designed to promote DEI and employees' perceptions of their experiences. Additionally, subsections of DEI policies that focus on specific business functions (i.e., communications, representation efforts, employee lifecycle, inclusive job requirements, handbook policies, resources, and vision/mission/values) were analyzed as unique predictors of employee experience. Finally, the effects of self-identified demographic characteristics, that is, race/ethnicity, gender, and management status were examined as both control variables and moderators. Defined below are the constructs of interest and proposed hypotheses.

Construct	Definition
Diversity, equity, and inclusion promotive policies	Number of policies and/or resources established by organizations that aim to diversify the workforce, promote equity in decision-making, and include individuals of different identities.
Organization diversity	The extent to which an organization employs employees of color and women.
Belonging	The sense that one feels like part of the organization, as though they have an opportunity to meaningfully

contribute to the work and can authentically show up to work without being judged.

Psychological Safety	The feeling of being valued for one's opinion to the extent that one can speak up and disagree without fear of ramifications.
Justice	The perception that decisions are made fairly, such that outcomes are allocated fairly, processes are fair, information regarding decisions is transparent and clear, and one is treated well throughout the decision-making process.

Hypothesis 1: A greater number of policies designed to promote DEI will be related to greater employee diversity in race/ethnicity and gender.¹

Hypothesis 2: White employees and men will have better employee experiences (i.e., greater belonging, greater psychological safety, and greater fairness) than will employees of color, women, and gender diverse employees (i.e., non-binary, transgender, other).

Hypothesis 3: Employees in organizations that have more policies that promote DEI will perceive greater belonging.¹

¹ This relationship will be examined based on overall number of policies, but also separately based on subsections (i.e., communications, representation efforts, employee lifecycle, inclusive job requirements, handbook policies, resources, and vision/mission/values).

Hypothesis 4: Race/ethnicity will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived belonging, such that the relationship will be stronger for employees of color compared to White employees.

Hypothesis 5: Gender will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived belonging, such that the relationship will be stronger for women and gender diverse employees (i.e., non-binary, transgender, other) compared to men.

Hypothesis 6: Employees in organizations that have more policies that promote DEI will report greater psychological safety.¹

Hypothesis 7: Race/ethnicity will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived psychological safety, such that the relationship will be stronger for employees of color compared to White employees.

Hypothesis 8: Gender will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived psychological safety, such that the relationship will be stronger for women and gender diverse employees (i.e., non-binary, transgender, other) compared to men.

Hypothesis 9: Management status will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived psychological safety, such that the relationship will be stronger for employees who are lower in management status compared to those higher in status.

Hypothesis 10: Employees in organizations that have more policies that promote DEI will perceive greater justice.¹

Hypothesis 11: Race/ethnicity will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived justice, such that the relationship will be stronger for employees of color compared to White employees.

Hypothesis 12: Gender will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived justice, such that the relationship will be stronger for women and gender diverse employees (i.e., non-binary, transgender, other) compared to men.

Chapter 7: Method

Setting

In 2015, the Greater Omaha Chamber launched a survey of young professionals in the Omaha metro area. The results indicated that Black young professionals were five to six times less likely than White young professionals to recommend Omaha as a place to work, live, or play (Greater Omaha Chamber, 2015). In a follow-up survey, Black young professionals cited lack of diversity, isolation, and racism as reasons they did not want to stay in the Omaha area (Greater Omaha Chamber, 2017). As a result of these findings, the Chamber launched a city-wide initiative called Commitment to Opportunity, Diversity, and Equity or CODE (<https://www.omahachamber.org/resources/talent-workforce/code/#code-about>).

A primary component of CODE was the Employer Coalition. Participating employers were requested to create and implement a D&I strategy, hire or appoint a D&I leader, and measure their organization's D&I efforts. We developed (Adams, 2023), with input from a team of consultants and inhouse D&I practitioners, a two-level (organization level and employee level) assessment. Although coalition members could use any measurement tool, ours was made available to coalition members for free.

The organization level assessment, which was completed by one contact at the organization, assessed approximately 40 policies/practices organizations may deploy to create more diverse, inclusive environments. The policies and practices were identified from academic research (e.g., Dobbin et al., 2011; Downey et al., 2015; Kalev et al., 2006) as well as from focus groups of local D&I consultants and inhouse D&I practitioners from select organizations. Questions assessed seven areas of human

resources practices including communications, representation efforts, employee lifecycle, inclusive job requirements, handbook policies, resources, and vision/mission/values.

Employee demographics were assessed by level, for example, organizations identified the number of men, women, and gender diverse employees at each level of the organization: manager of managers (identified as “top leaders” in the remainder of the paper), manager, individual contributor. The same management level data were collected for race/ethnicity and age. An employee assessment—distributed to all employees at each organization—assessed the visibility of current organization practices, as well as employee experience in the areas of belonging, psychological safety, and justice (Adams, 2023).

Participants

Thirty-eight organizations were recruited to participate in the city-wide initiative. One large organization’s employees did not participate in the assessment, and one organization only employed one individual (who responded three times); therefore, both were removed from analyses. The remaining 36 organizations ($N = 7184$) were first categorized by size; nine classified as small (less than 20 employees), 12 as emerging (20-99 employees), 10 as mid-sized (100-499 employees), and the remaining five organizations were classified as large (500 or more employees). Approximately, 50% of the organizations were for-profit organizations ($n = 18$), 17 organizations were non-profit, and one organization qualified as a public entity. Finally, according to the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS codes; <https://www.census.gov/naics/?58967?yearbck=2022>), organizations represented 11 unique sectors including, sector 54: professional, scientific, and technical services ($n = 9$); sector 62: healthcare and social assistance ($n = 6$); sector 52: finance and insurance (n

= 4); sector 56: administrative and support and waste management and remediation services ($n = 4$); sector 71: arts, entertainment, and recreation ($n = 4$); sector 81: other services (except public administration; $n = 4$); sector 11: agriculture, forestry, fishing, and hunting ($n = 1$); sector 22: utilities ($n = 1$); sector 31-33: manufacturing ($n = 1$); sector 44-45: retail trade ($n = 1$); and finally, sector 53: real estate and rental and leasing ($n = 1$). As expected, a number of organizations did not provide basic gender and race/ethnicity data. Of the 36 organizations, 26 reported the gender of their workforce and 23 reported the race/ethnicity of their workforce (see Tables 1 and 2 for gender by organization and race/ethnicity by organization, respectively). Additionally, three organizations reported gender numbers that were very different from the overall number of employees in their organization, and two reported race/ethnicity numbers that were very different from the overall total employees in their organization.

Participants who did not respond to the employee experience questions (the outcome variables of interest), or the demographic section were dropped ($n = 1501$). Employee participants were also dropped if they selected an organization that did not participate in the organization assessment ($n = 27$) or did not indicate an organization at all ($n = 14$). Finally, employee participants were dropped based on Curran's (2016) guidelines for detecting inattentive responding; specifically, one participant was dropped as their total time to complete was less than two seconds per item, and four participants were dropped for having zero variance. Of the 46 participants with demographic data who were dropped, 82.61% were full-time employees (10.87% part-time), 63.04% were individual contributors (26.09% managers, 4.35% top leaders), 58.70% identified as White (13.04% Black or African American, 8.70% Hispanic or Latino(a), 8.70% two or

more races, and 2.17% Asian,), 54.35% identified as women (32.61% men, 2.17% gender diverse), 82.61% identified as heterosexual (2.17% gay or lesbian, 6.52% other/unsure).

Of the final sample ($N = 5635$) the average age was 45.39 years old ($SD = 13.4$), 73.33% ($n = 4130$) identified as individual contributors, 18.10% ($n = 1080$) as managers, and 6.48% ($n = 365$) as top leaders. Gender was split fairly evenly, as 44.40% ($n = 2500$) of participants identified as men, 50.20% ($n = 2826$) identified as women, 0.27% ($n = 15$) identified as non-binary, 0.07% ($n = 4$) identified as transgender, and 0.91% ($n = 51$) identified as another gender (see Table 3 for employee reported gender percentages by organization). Of the final sample 0.20% ($n = 11$) of participants identified as American Indian or Alaska Native, 1.99% ($n = 112$) as Asian, 5.15% ($n = 290$) as Black or African American, 3.71% ($n = 209$) as Hispanic/Latino(a), 0.05% ($n = 3$) as Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, and 78.60% ($n = 4427$) as White; 2.13% ($n = 120$) identified as other, and 3.98% ($n = 224$) identified as two or more races (see Table 4 for employee reported race/ethnicity percentages by organization). The majority of individuals identified as straight/heterosexual (85.40%, $n = 4810$), 3.50% ($n = 197$) identified as asexual, 2.43% ($n = 137$) identified as bisexual, and 1.51% ($n = 85$) identified as gay or lesbian. The majority of participants indicated that they were full-time employees (89.30%, $n = 5032$), 7.54% ($n = 425$) indicated they were part-time employees, and 0.98% ($n = 55$) indicated “other” for employment status.

For each demographic question, employees were asked to select all that apply and were provided with an “Other (please specify)” option. Fifty-one individuals (0.01% of the sample) provided angry comments regarding race/ethnicity (e.g., “American”, “MYOB”, “Green”, “SHOULDN’T MATTER”, etc.). Similarly, 26 individuals (<0.00%

of the sample) provided comments in response to the gender identity question (e.g., “I currently identify as a horse”, “Attack helicopter”, “there only two genders. ask the right question and I will answer!”, etc.). Those who provided a race/ethnicity and/or gender along with their angry comments were included in analyses. Those who only provided an angry “other (please specify)” were removed from analyses including race/ethnicity or gender.

Procedure

In July of 2020, 68 organizations were asked to nominate a person or team of people to complete the CODE organizational assessment. The contact person for each organization was provided with a Qualtrics link to complete the assessment.

Organizations were notified that data were being collected by researchers at UNO and were given a period of one month to complete the questionnaire.

For each organization that completed the organizational assessment, a link to the CODE employee assessment was provided to the contact person to be distributed to their employees in the Omaha metropolitan area. Again, participants were notified that data was being collected by researchers at UNO and were provided with a month for data collection. Weekly, the UNO researchers updated each organization on the number of employees who had participated to that point to allow for the opportunity to send reminders and advocate participation. The employee assessment consisted of two primary components: 1) perceptions of the organization diversity practices that were targeted in the organization assessment and 2) employees’ experience.

Organizational Measures

Organizational representatives answered 41 yes/no/other questions targeting seven policy and practices categories including: communications, representation efforts, employee lifecycle, inclusive job requirements, handbook policies, resources, and vision/mission/values (See Appendix A; Adams, 2023). The number of “yes” responses were calculated for each category and will be referred to as total DEI policies. Two questions had multiple sub-questions and the total number of possible policies points was 56. Organizations that responded “other” without providing open-ended data were coded as “no”; otherwise, the open-ended response was qualitatively coded by two researchers and once appropriate interrater reliability ($K > 0.75$) was achieved, the remaining disagreements were decided by a third researcher.

Communications. Six items assessed the integration of DEI into the organization’s communication materials and processes (Appendix A). Items included, “Is a diversity and inclusion representative involved in the creation of public-facing materials?”, “Does the organization communicate to the public about the alignment of diversity and inclusion goals with organizational goals, strategies, etc.?” and “Are diversity and inclusion regularly mentioned in internal communications?”

Representation Efforts. Eleven items assessed how the organization tracked internal demographic data (Appendix A). Example items included, “During the last year, did your organization evaluate voluntary turnover by race/ethnicity?”, “Does your organization formally track gender?”, “Please indicate the number executive/top leaders, middle managers, and individual contributors who are in each of the racial/ethnic categories below (i.e., Hispanic/Latino/a, Non-Hispanic/Latino/a, American Indian or

Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, White/Caucasian, More than one race, Other race or ethnicity).”

Employee Lifecycle. Participating organizations completed three items targeting DEI integration in hiring, development, and exiting of the organization (Appendix A). Items included, “As part of the hiring process, are prospective employees asked about how they would promote inclusion in the organization?”, and “Do exit interviews/surveys contain questions concerning diversity and inclusion experiences?”

Inclusive Job Requirements. Ten items assessed organizational DEI expectations required of employees (Appendix A). Example items included, “Are diversity and inclusion competencies and/or behaviors included in the job descriptions of top leaders?”, “Are diversity and inclusion competencies and/or behaviors part of individual contributors’ performance evaluations?”, and “How frequently do middle managers participate in development opportunities in diversity and inclusion?”

Handbook Policies. Eight items assessed the presence versus absence of DEI policies and practices (Appendix A). Example items included, “Does the organization have written policies that encourage the use of minority-owned suppliers/vendors?”, “Does your organization have policies that allow employees to adhere to religious practices?”, and “Does your organization have policies and procedures in place to support non-traditional schedules?”

Resources. Three items assessed the types of resources that were provided to employees (Appendix A). Items included “Does your organization provide resources to support employees’ mental health?” and “Does your organization provide

employee/business resource groups (ERGs/BRGs); If so, please list the types of groups below.”

Vision/Mission/Values. Six items assessed the foundation of the DEI program, that is, whether the organization had a DEI vision, a DEI mission, and DEI values (Appendix A). Example items include “Are diversity and inclusion addressed in your organization’s vision, mission, and/or values statements?”, “Does your organization have a written vision statement for its diversity and inclusion initiative?”, and “Does your organization have written goals for diversity and inclusion?”

Employee Experience Measures

Participants responded on a 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) scale to nine items assessing employee perceptions of the organizational culture (see Appendix B). Three items were used to measure perceived belonging (i.e., “I feel like I can be my full self at work and others will accept me.”, “I feel like I belong in my organization.”, and “I am often talked over in meetings” (reverse scored). I averaged across responses to the three items to form a single index of belonging ($\alpha = .74$).

Of the remaining six items, I initially expected that three items would measure justice perceptions (e.g., “I believe my compensation is fair relative to similar roles at my organization.”) and three would measure psychological safety (e.g., “I can express disagreement in my organization without fearing negative consequences.”). However, upon closer examination, it appeared that the psychological safety questions mirrored questions often identified as interactional justice; for instance, both types of questions target being valued and treated with respect (e.g., Arries, 2009; Cropanzano et al., 2005b;

Flynn et al., 2003), and voice procedures are often included in measures of justice (Bies, 1987).

Further, exploratory structural equation models (ESEMs) using MPlus with full-information maximum likelihood estimation (FIML) and robust standard errors to accommodate missing data and non-normal distributions (Muthén & Muthén 2017) indicated that the six items assessed a single construct. More specifically, a one-factor model exhibited excellent fit ($n = 5635$), $\chi^2(5620) = 301.65$, CFI = .949, TLI = .914, RMSEA = .017, SRMR = .025. All items loaded strongly onto the single factor (see Table 5). In contrast, although a two-factor model also exhibited excellent fit, $\chi^2(5620) = 301.65$, CFI = .997, TLI = .988, RMSEA = .006, SRMR = .007, the factors were uninterpretable and the model less parsimonious. Additionally, the two separate factors were highly correlated ($r = .710$). I therefore averaged across the six items to form a composite measure called justice ($\alpha = .85$), which includes the four facets of justice: distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice. Although often presented as four separate factors, others have found that justice factors are highly correlated and do not result in distinct factors when factor analyzed (Folberg et al., 2023). All hypotheses involving psychological safety and/or justice (H6-H12) were therefore conducted using a single scale and are referred to here on out as Hypotheses 6 – 9 (See Appendix C for updated hypotheses).

Data Preparation

Organization Data. Open-ended coding was completed for those questions to which the organization responded “other”, and an open-ended response was provided. After one training session, two coders practiced coding responses to five questions (31

responses) resulting in excellent interrater reliability ($\kappa > .87$). Final agreement was determined through discussion. Coders then coded responses to 19 questions (86 responses), which again resulted in high interrater reliability ($\kappa = .88$). Coders then completed the remaining responses (18 questions; 106 responses) which resulted in poor interrater reliability of ($\kappa = .54$). The team discussed areas of confusion, and subsequently recoded questions that resulted in poor agreement. Final interrater reliability was excellent ($\kappa = .83$). I made final decisions on the remaining discrepancies (5% of the data).

A total DEI policy score was calculated by adding the total number of policies that were present at each organization. Additionally, a sub-total score for each organization was calculated for each of the seven assessment subsections (i.e., communications, representation efforts, employee lifecycle, inclusive job requirements, handbook policies, resources, and vision/mission/values). Organization policy scores (total DEI policies and sub-totals) were grand mean centered for analyses.

The diversity of each organization was calculated in three separate ways: percentage of women and gender diverse employees relative to men, percentage of non-White employees relative to White employees, and a racial/ethnic diversity index score, that is, the probability that any two employees chosen at random would be from two different racial/ethnic groups (Simpson, 1949). Table 1 contains percentages of women and gender diverse employees as reported by organization. Table 2 contains percentages of non-White employees and diversity index scores as reported by organization.

Employee Data. I examined skewness and kurtosis for each of the employee experience items as well as the belonging and justice composite measures. Skewness

ranged from -2.65 to 0.84 and was thus acceptable, as was kurtosis, which ranged from -1.01 to 7.99 (Kline, 2011). Additionally, I estimated Mahalanobis distance to assess multivariate skewness and kurtosis, which resulted in 187 observations that were potentially problematic. However, many of the identified outliers were grouped within the same organizations, indicating that the outliers may be due to organization specific experience differences. As full-information maximum likelihood estimation (FIML) and robust standard errors were used for the ESEM, outliers were left in the models (Muthén & Muthén 2017).

Chapter 8: Results

Correlations

Organization Variables. Means, standard deviations, minimums, maximums, and correlations among organization level variables are reported in Table 6.

Organizations that had established policies regarding vision/mission/values were significantly more likely to have policies related to inclusive job requirements, employee lifecycle, resources, and communication policies. Additionally, organizations that had inclusive job requirements were more likely to have the employee lifecycle and communication policies. Finally, organizations that had more employee resource policies were more likely to engage in representation efforts.

Organizations that had more DEI policies had greater percentages of employees of color. This pattern was also true for sub-totals of vision/mission/values policies, inclusive job requirements, and employee lifecycle policies. Total DEI policy scores were not significantly related to diversity index scores or percentages of women and gender diverse employees. However, sub-totals of inclusive job requirements and employee

lifecycle policies were positively related to diversity index scores; the more policies that provided employees with inclusive requirements (e.g., inclusion competencies within job descriptions) and the more policies designed to examine DEI at different stages of an employee lifecycle (e.g., exit interviews explore DEI concerns) the greater the diversity index score. In contrast, total DEI policies (and sub-totals) were unrelated to gender percentages, although both organization diversity index scores and the percentages of women and gender diverse employees were positively related to the percentages of employees of color.

Dependent Measures. Simple correlations among employee variables, which are reported in Table 7, were largely as expected although most relationships were weak. The exception was that employees who reported greater belonging were much more likely to perceive the organization as just.

Regressions

The Role of Organizational Policies in Organizational Diversity. To test whether a greater number of policies designed to promote DEI is related to greater employee diversity in race/ethnicity and gender (H1), the centered total DEI policies score and each centered policy sub-total were entered into separate multiple regressions controlling for centered organization size predicting employee diversity (i.e., percentage of employees of color, diversity index score, and percentage of women and gender diverse employees). Significant results are reported below. See Tables 8-10 for results of each analysis.

In support of Hypothesis 1, organizations with a greater total number of DEI policies had a greater percentage of employees of color, controlling for organization size.

In the model including sub-total of vision/mission/values policies centered, the sub-total was significantly related to the percentage of employees of color reported by the organization; that is, the more formal DEI vision, mission, and values statements an organization had the more employees of color the organization employed. Further, in the model including sub-total of inclusive job requirements centered, organizations that had more established policies that formalized inclusive behaviors through inclusive competencies in the job descriptions and performance evaluations had higher percentages of employees of color. Finally, the model including sub-total of employee lifecycle policies centered indicated that organizations with more methods of collecting employee perceptions of DEI at different points in the employee lifecycle had higher percentages of employees of color.

Although the model including total DEI policies did not predict diversity index score, both the model including inclusive job requirements and the model including employee lifecycle policies significantly predicted diversity index score. That is, organizations with formalized inclusive behaviors had greater diversity index scores, as well as organizations that collect employee DEI perceptions throughout their tenure.

The remainder of analyses using each policy sub-total predicting percentage of employees of color and diversity index were not significant, as were all models predicting percentages of women and gender diverse employees. Therefore Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

Multilevel Analyses

I first calculated intraclass correlations for belonging and justice scores to examine the amount of by-organization variance. The correlation of belonging scores

among employees in the same organization, $\hat{p}_b = .018$, indicated that 1.8% of the variance in belonging was due to differences between organizations. The correlation of justice scores among employees in the same organization, $\hat{p}_j = .030$, indicated that 3% of the variance in justice was due to differences between organizations. Although neither ICC was particularly large, the nested nature of the data required the use of multi-level analyses as even when ICCs are low, analyses that do not account for dependency may yield incorrect conclusions (Hoffman & Walters, 2022). Following recommendations from Brauer and Curtin (2018) I used restricted maximum likelihood estimation (ReML) with the Kenward-Roger (Kenward & Roger, 1997) method to estimate denominator degrees of freedom in the lme4 package in R.

To test Hypotheses 2, I estimated two models predicting belonging and three models predicting justice. In the first multi-level model, I regressed belonging on race/ethnicity (contrast-coded; White = -1, Employees of Color = + 1), in which I estimated by-organization random intercepts and by organization random slopes for the effects of race/ethnicity. I then estimated the same model but replaced race/ethnicity with contrast coded employee gender (-1 = men, 1 = women and gender diverse employees). I estimated the same two models predicting justice in addition to a model in which management status (-1 = individual contributors, 1 = managers, 1 = top leaders) replaced the demographic variables.

To test Hypotheses 3-5, two models were estimated. I first regressed belonging on race/ethnicity, organization size (grand-mean centered), and total DEI policies (grand-mean centered). Like the above models, I estimated by-organization random intercepts and by organization random slopes for the effects of race/ethnicity. Parallel analyses

tested employee gender. Each of these models was duplicated for each subsection score for a total of 16 analyses.

To test Hypotheses 6-9, I estimated the same two models to predict justice scores and a third model that replaced the demographic variable (race/ethnicity or gender) with a contrast coded variable testing the effects of management status. Each of these three analyses was duplicated for the seven subsection scores, for a total of 24 analyses. Findings for models including total DEI policies score and significant sub-total score models are reported below (see Tables 11-17).

Relationships of DEI Policies Score to Belonging. In support of Hypothesis 2, the model regressing belonging on race/ethnicity yielded a main effect of race/ethnicity, $R_{total}^{2(fvm)} = .03, p = .002$, indicating that employees of color perceived lower belonging ($M = 3.96, SD = .95$) than their White counterparts ($M = 4.17, SD = .86$). I next added organization size (grand mean centered), total DEI policies (grand mean centered), and the interaction between total DEI policies and race/ethnicity to the model. A significant effect of total DEI policies did not emerge, indicating a lack of support for Hypothesis 3 (see Table 11). Although the significant main effect of race/ethnicity remained, the interaction between total DEI policies and race/ethnicity was not significant. Thus Hypothesis 4 was not supported as the effects of race/ethnicity did not depend on total DEI policies. Additionally, in the models including policy sub-totals, the main effects of all policy sub-totals were not significantly related to belonging, $ps > .325$, nor were the Policy Sub-Total X Race/ethnicity interactions, $ps > .153$.

In further support of Hypothesis 2, the model regressing belonging on gender also yielded significant results, $R_{total}^{2(fvm)} = .03, p < .001$, such that women and gender

diverse employees perceived lower belonging ($M = 4.07$, $SD = .90$) than employees who identified as men ($M = 4.21$, $SD = .85$). In the model in which I added total DEI policies, organization size, and the interaction between total DEI policies and gender, the effect of total DEI policies was not significant, again indicating a lack of support for Hypothesis 3 (see Table 12). The main effect of gender remained, although the effect did not depend on total DEI policies, indicating a lack of support for Hypothesis 5. Additionally, in the models including policy sub-totals, the main effects of all policy sub-totals were not significantly related to belonging, $ps > .254$, nor were the Policy Sub-totals X Gender interactions, $ps > .206$.

Relationships of DEI Policies Score to Justice. In the multi-level model predicting justice in which race/ethnicity was the only predictor, a significant main effect emerged, $R_{total}^{2(fvm)} = .04$, $p = .012$, indicating that employees of color perceived lower levels of justice ($M = 4.04$, $SD = .88$) than their White colleagues ($M = 4.16$, $SD = .79$), supporting Hypothesis 2. In the model that included organization size (grand mean centered), total DEI policies (grand mean centered), race/ethnicity, and the Total DEI Policies X Race/ethnicity interaction, Hypothesis 6 was not supported; total DEI policies were not significantly related to perceptions of justice (see Table 13). Hypothesis 7 was also not supported, as the interaction of total DEI policies and race/ethnicity was not significantly related to perceptions of justice.

In further support of Hypothesis 2, the multilevel model that included gender as the only predictor revealed a significant main effect, $R_{total}^{2(fvm)} = .05$, $p < .001$. Results indicated that men ($M = 4.22$, $SD = .79$) were more likely to perceive justice than women and gender diverse employees ($M = 4.08$, $SD = .81$). In the model in which total DEI

policies, organization size, and the Total DEI Policies X Gender interaction were added, the main effect of gender remained, however, in contradiction to Hypothesis 6, there was no main effect of total DEI policies (see Table 14). Hypothesis 8 was also not supported, as the Total DEI Policies X Gender interaction was not significant.

Finally, the model that included management status as the only predictor yielded significant results, $R_{total}^{2(fvm)} = .05, p < .001$, such that individual contributors perceived lower justice ($M = 4.10, SD = .83$) than managers and top leaders ($M = 4.26, SD = .72$). Finally, in the model that included organization size (grand mean centered), total DEI policies (grand mean centered), management status, and the Total DEI Policies X Management Status interaction, the main effect of management status remained (see Table 15). However, there was no support for Hypothesis 6 or Hypothesis 9, as there was no main effect of total DEI policies or a significant Management Status X Total DEI Policies effect.

Significant Sub-Total Findings. Overall, the models examining policy sub-section totals followed the same pattern of results as above, $ps > .080$, with two exceptions. In the model predicting justice scores that included the centered organization size, centered vision/mission/values sub-total, race/ethnicity, and the Vision/Mission/Values Subtotal X Race/ethnicity interaction, there was not a significant main effect of vision/mission/values, but a significant interaction between vision/mission/values sub-total and race/ethnicity, emerged (see Table 16). I probed the interaction, and indeed within the model including only White employees, there was no main effect of vision/mission/values sub-total, $b = .00, p = .929$, but in the model including only employees of color the more policies regarding vision/mission/values the

more employees of color perceived justice, $b = .05$, $p = .040$. Thus Hypothesis 7 was partially supported (see Figure 1).

Finally, the model including centered organization size, centered handbook policies sub-total, management status (individual contributors vs. managers and above), and the Handbook Policies Sub-Total X Management Status interaction did not converge. The warning indicated that predictor variables were on very different scales. The handbook policies sub-total, management status, and justice scales were all within a range of eight. I therefore removed organization size, and the model converged. Although there was no significant main effect of handbook policy sub-total (see Table 17), there was a main effect of management status, indicating that managers and above (vs. individual contributors) perceived greater justice. Additionally, a Handbook Policies Sub-Total X Management Status interaction, emerged, indicating that the relationship between the number of handbook policies and perceived justice differed for individual contributors versus managers and above. However, simple effects tests by management status indicated that the relationship was not significant for either individual contributors, $p = .524$, or managers and above, $p = .321$.

Chapter 9: Discussion

Organizations implement DEI programs to fulfill goals of equity, provide access to opportunities, and build cultures that create positive employee experiences (American Psychological Association, 2021; Nwoga, 2023). Moreover, many believe diversity programs are beneficial to the bottom-line of the organization (e.g., Bendick et al., 2010; Cox & Blake, 1991; Herring, 2009; 2017), although evidence for such findings is mixed (e.g., Guillaume et al., 2015; McKay & McDaniel, 2006; Subasi et al., 2020). In addition

to the potentially positive outcomes of DEI programs, external pressures such as social justice movements stemming from the murders of Black Americans have led to an increase in organization DEI action, whether through public statements alone or the implementation of DEI initiatives (Black Lives Matter, 2020; CEO Action Pledge, 2020; Murphy, 2021). Considering the numerous motivations, organizations invest a great deal into DEI efforts. In 2020 it is estimated that \$7.5 billion was spent on organizational DEI efforts globally, which is expected to increase to \$15.4 billion by 2026 (Ellingrud et al., 2023). However, not all DEI programming has been found to be equally effective (Dobbin et al., 2011; Kalev et al., 2006), and are thus in continued need of evaluation considering multiple outcomes.

The purpose of the present study was to examine whether having established DEI promotive policies is related to positive organizational impacts. More specifically, I examined whether the number of DEI polices was related to greater racial/ethnic and gender diversity, greater perceived belonging, and greater perceived justice among employees—particularly among employees of color, women and gender diverse employees, and those at lower levels of the organizations. I utilized a sample of 36 organizations across the Omaha metropolitan area that participated in the 2020 Greater Omaha Chamber CODE Assessment (Adams, 2023; Greater Omaha Chamber, 2020). Participating organizations were requested to provide organization level data including established policies and practices and employee demographics, and employees' perceptions of those policies and practices, including employee experience of belonging, psychological safety, and justice.

Hypothesis Testing

During data preparation, it became apparent that the originally identified psychological safety questions aligned well with both psychological safety and interactional justice. For instance, psychological safety is characterized as mutual respect that allows individuals to feel safe expressing their concerns and dissents (Edmondson, 1999; Hirak et al., 2012). Interactional justice relates to being treated with respect and allowing for voice behaviors during decision-making (e.g., Arries, 2009; Bies, 1987; Cropanzano et al., 2005b; Flynn & Brockner., 2003). Further, ESEM analyses revealed no evidence that psychological safety and justice were distinct; I thus averaged across responses to the two sets of items to form a single measure, which was used as a single outcome variable (for updated hypotheses and whether they were supported, see Appendix C).

The overlap in the concepts of psychological safety and interactional justice is interesting theoretically and practically. It makes conceptual sense that the presence of interactional justice would lead to psychological safety, considering that interactional justice has been previously associated with perceptions of psychological contract breaches in which the organization has broken trust with the individual; trust is foundational in psychological safety (Thompson & Heron, 2005). Thus, the two concepts may be so strongly tied to each other that individuals do not perceive them as distinct. Practically, this indicates that organizations may be able to create psychologically safe environments through structures and processes that formalize voice seeking behaviors and respect (interactional justice). However, it is important to note that the current study was not designed to address the factor structure of the two concepts and the items were

necessarily limited. Further, common method bias should be considered as individuals completed the employee experience questions, using the same type of measures close in time and may have considered the same target as they completed the items (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Therefore, more research should be done to assess the validity of the two constructs.

Relationship of DEI Policies to Organization Diversity

Overall, organizations with a greater number of DEI policies employed more employees of color. More specifically organizations that formalized their DEI vision, mission, and values, along with formal definitions of diversity and inclusion employed more individuals of color. Moreover, organizations that had formalized inclusive behaviors in job descriptions and performance appraisals, employed more employees of color and had higher diversity index scores. Finally, organizations that formally asked employees about diversity and inclusion in hiring processes and exit interviews, and mandated DEI training employed a greater percentage of people of color and had higher diversity index scores.

Finally, percentages of women and gender diverse employees were not related to the total number of DEI policies nor any of the sub-totals. This finding is somewhat unsurprising as about 47% of the overall US labor force is women (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020). Additionally, non-profits were heavily represented in the sample (50%). Non-profits, which are most often focused on health, education, and social services industries generally have greater representation of women than men (American Association of University Women, 2018). Therefore, the present sample was slightly over-representative of women compared to the total workforce (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020).

The findings that support Hypothesis 1 build on the work of Kalev and colleagues (2006), which found that some DEI management practices relate to an increase in managerial diversity. More specifically, they found that practices that identified responsibility, accountability, and expertise (e.g., diversity taskforces, implementation of a diversity manager, and affirmative action plans) increased managerial diversity for several underrepresented groups (i.e., Asian men and women, Black men, Hispanic men and women, and White women). Although operationalized differently, I also found that policies focused on accountability through inclusive job requirements were related to greater racial/ethnic diversity. However, my findings also contradict that of Kalev and colleagues, in that the employee lifecycle sub-total, which included the presence (or absence) of mandatory diversity training, was also significantly related to greater racial/ethnic diversity. Although diversity training only accounted for a third of the employee lifecycle sub-total, I argue that the remaining policy questions—DEI is asked about during the interview and DEI is asked about during the exit interview—do not embed accountability, authority, or expertise. That said, I operationalized effectiveness differently than Kalev and colleagues (2006) in that I focused on overall diversity of the organization rather than managerial diversity. Therefore, it is possible that specific diversity initiatives are effective for different forms of equity (e.g., hiring and retention vs. management status) and should not be considered effective or ineffective based on one operationalization of an outcome. Further, I did not test managerial diversity, and thus do not know the potential relationship in the current sample.

Importantly, diversity scores were missing for some organizations. Specifically, 10 organizations did not report their employee count by gender, and 13 did not report

their employee count by race/ethnicity. Additionally, three organizations reported gender numbers that added up to a much larger number of employees than their reported total, and two organizations reported similarly suspicious race/ethnicity demographics. Due to such discrepancies, a total of 15 organizations were removed from analyses testing Hypothesis 1, leaving a small sample size – 21 organizations. Even with such a small sample size, the effect sizes indicated medium to large effects of the DEI policies when predicting percentage of employees of color, suggesting that number of DEI policies account for 46% of the variance (or more) in differences across race (employees of color vs. White employees).

Relationship of Employee Identity to Employee Experience.

In alignment with previous research on belonging and justice, Hypothesis 2 was fully supported. Much like Mor Barak and Levin's (2002) findings, I found that men and White employees were significantly more likely to indicate that they felt like they belonged in their organization and perceived greater justice. Such results are not surprising as they align with past research findings that employees of color (vs. White employees) and women (vs. men) tend to feel less integrated in their organization, have lower sense of camaraderie, perceive less organizational justice, and ultimately have more negative job attitudes (Carberry & Meyers, 2017; Dickerson et al., 2010; Mor Barak, 1998).

Indeed, the identified belonging questions not only examined employees' feelings of belonging at work, but the feeling that they can bring their full selves to work, as well as examined direct exclusion experiences of being spoken over in meetings. According to Shore and colleagues (2011), perceptions of inclusion stem from feeling respected as a

member of the team due to a sense of belonging and a felt sense of value for one's uniqueness. Unfortunately, underrepresented groups such as employees of color, women, and gender diverse employees are more likely to feel a sense of isolation and a lack of interpersonal connection (Findler et al., 2007; Mor Barak, 2008). That said, it has also been found that climate for inclusion, and workplace norms can facilitate belonging for underrepresented employees (e.g., Ely & Thomas, 2001; Mor Barak et al., 2016); still, the current study did not find such conclusions.

Additionally, men and White employees (compared to women and gender diverse employees and employees of color, respectively) perceived greater organizational justice, in that they perceived fairer pay, believed the same rules apply fairly across the organization, felt they could disagree without ramifications, and felt greater respect from their coworkers and supervisor. Again, such results align with that of Carberry and Meyers (2017), who found that even in Fortune's "Best Companies to Work For" list, underrepresented employees were less likely to perceive organizational fairness. It is also important to note that earlier in the year, many organizations had paused their DEI initiatives due to the COVID-19 pandemic (Zheng, 2020). According to Chrobot-Mason (2003), when a diversity promise established by DEI initiatives is not upheld as a true value of the organization, employees perceive a psychological contract breach. Such a breach has been shown to be more salient for employees of color (Buttner et al., 2010).

Further, calls from social justice movements (Black Lives Matter, 2020; Murphy, 2021) resulted in organizations scrambling to reinstate old initiatives and identify new HR and DEI actions; for instance, this assessment cycle was the first time organizations participated in an assessment of this type. Changes in organizational practices can result

in anticipatory justice, in which employees associate program announcements with their most recent or most negative experience of that program type (Lind & van den Bos, 2002; Rodell & Colquitt, 2009; van den Bos & Lind, 2002). Thus, many employees who were aware that DEI initiatives were the first cut in economically uncertain times, and then reinstated just a haphazardly post George Floyd's murder, would likely focus on that negative (and most recent) experience.

Finally, individual contributors (vs. managers and above) were less likely to perceive organizational justice. Such results align with leader oversight bias, in which it is more difficult for leaders to identify misalignment between claims of DEI values and DEI practices (Efstratiou & Marcinko, 2020). Those at lower levels of the organizations are often more aware of the disconnect between organization depiction of DEI and the practices employed (Nishii & Wright, 2008). Further, there is power asymmetry between leadership (managers and above) and individual contributors, in that leaders control the resources of the organization and are thus responsible for defining, establishing, and enacting policies (Fiske, 1993). Power has been theorized to increase sensitivity to internal information and decrease sensitivity to contextual information (Keltner et al., 2003). Thus, not only are leaders less aware of hypocrisy within organization policies and practices, but they are likely to create such policies based on their internal perception of the needs of the organization (Rus et al., 2010). As the majority of leaders in organizations across the country are White and men (Wilkie, 2021), they are more likely to create policies regarding their perceptions of needs, not the actual needs of underrepresented groups. Further, my findings align with the psychological safety and voice literature indicating that the greater status an employee has in terms of management

level, the safer they feel to voice their opinions, whether those opinions are new risky ideas or opposition to the status quo (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). In all, leaders are less likely to accurately perceive the fairness in an organization, and employees are less likely to feel comfortable speaking up about the disconnect.

Finally, it is important to recognize that the relationship between inclusion and justice, in that perceptions of justice often relate to perceptions of inclusion, as when someone is treated fairly, they are more likely to feel like they belong in the group (Cropanzano et al., 2015). Additionally, a reciprocal relationship between justice (at the peer level) and inclusion has been demonstrated such that not only is an event cueing justice followed by an increase in perceptions of inclusion, but an event that triggers a feeling of inclusion is followed by the perception that the group is more just. The pattern of my results supports such patterns, in that those experiencing greater levels of justice (White employees and men) also experienced greater levels of belonging. Although justice and belonging are theoretically and psychometrically different constructs, antecedents and consequences of each are not always distinct in applied settings.

Relationship of DEI Policies and Employee Identity to Employee Experiences

Based on previous literature and my findings, employees of color and women and gender diverse employees generally perceived less belonging and justice compared to their counterparts who identify as men and White. However, a positive diversity climate created through specific policies and practices aimed at recruiting and retaining underrepresented employees has been shown to increase positive outcomes more for underrepresented employees compared to White employees (Singh et al., 2013). That said, the multilevel analyses I conducted did not reveal evidence to support that the

number of DEI policies, nor the sub-totals, related to employees' experience of belonging (H3) or justice (H6). Additionally, the total number of DEI policies did not interact with employee identity (race/ethnicity or gender) to predict belonging (H4-H5) or justice (H7-H8). Finally, total DEI policies and their sub-totals did not interact with management level to predict justice (H9).

In partial support of Hypothesis 7, the interaction between vision/mission/values and race/ethnicity significantly predicted perceptions of justice, such that employees of color perceived organizations with greater number of DEI program vision, values, and mission policies as more just, but White employees' perceptions of justice were not related to number of vision/mission/values policies. These results may be explained by signaling theory (Celani & Singh, 2011; Spence, 1973). Signaling theory posits that when access to information differs between two parties—often in the context of an organization and individuals—one party can use signals to communicate that information (Connelly et al., 2011). The receiver of the signal then determines how that signal should be interpreted. Organizations often use signals to communicate their values through mission statements, public statements, and more.

For instance, diversity values signaling (DVS) has been shown to be effective in multiple contexts. Specifically, Cole and colleagues (2022) found that hospitals utilizing DVS through inclusive language in job advertisements performed better in terms of patient experience. Similarly, organizations that made public statements supporting the Black community after major race-related events have been found to be perceived as more supportive and inclusive by all employees (Corrington et al., 2022). In the current study, vision/mission/values policies can be conceptualized as the organization's signal to

employees and external partners that they value diversity, equity, and inclusion. Indeed, for employees of color, the more vision/mission/values policies the organization established, the greater the perceptions of justice. That said, of the 40 multilevel models tested, the model including vision/mission/values subtotal, organization size, race/ethnicity, and the Vision/Mission/Values Sub-Total X Race/ethnicity, was the only model that supported my research hypotheses. Thus, this finding may also be a Type I error.

Altogether, findings of the current study support the previous literature in that within organizational contexts, those who identify with underrepresented groups (employees of color, women, and gender diverse employees) perceive lower levels of belonging and justice. Additionally, signaling theory (Spence, 1973) may help explain why communications such as vision and mission statements, or specific DEI definitions may relate to employees of color perceptions that the organization is more just, as they perceive a greater value for DEI within the organization. Further, my findings indicate that purely establishing DEI promotive policies does not necessarily lead to greater perceptions of belonging and justice. These results could be due to a lack of quality in such policies or the lack of usage.

Further, the interethnic ideology utilized as the basis for organizational policies may be playing a role in their effectiveness. For instance, is the organization more inclined to utilize a colorblind ideology in which employee identity is generally ignored, or are they more focused on the value of differences through a multicultural lens (e.g., Plaut, 2010; Ryan et al., 2007; Ryan et al., 2010)? As demonstrated by Ely and Thomas (2001), not all approaches to DEI management have the same effect on employee

perceptions of belonging within the organization. For example, the organization who utilized a discrimination-and-fairness model to diversify their organization likely had many of the policies examined in this study (e.g., tracking demographic identity of employees). However, if the motivation of such policies is stemming from a sense of fairness within biased meritocracy, rather than a true value for other's perspectives, then individuals from underrepresented groups may still feel like they cannot bring their authentic selves to work, and rather feel pressure to assimilate. Further, it is unclear what individual ideologies employees are utilizing. Experiencing coworkers who are attempting to mask their perceptions through colorblindness may be noticed by employees of color leading to a less comfortable work environment, even when DEI policies are present (e.g., Holoiien & Shelton, 2012).

Limitations

Due to the applied nature of the assessment and the fact that the data were from the inaugural year of the initiative, there are multiple limitations to the study. The assessment was designed with three primary objectives in mind: benchmark the types of policies established at organizations for peer comparison, collect employee demographic information to identify barriers for specific demographic groups, and provide organizations with employee perceptions data to identify which policies were working, which were not, and which might be the next priority for implementation. Along with these objectives came multiple practical implications: the organizational assessment needed to be a direct indication of whether a policy existed or not—that is the organization's representative should have no need to bring a subjective opinion into the survey, the assessment needed to fit organizations of multiple sizes and industries, and

the employee assessment needed to be short enough for employees to be motivated to complete it.

A major limitation of the current study is the operationalization of DEI policy scores. When considering the organization level of the assessment, the goal was to identify types of best practices for benchmarking purposes. As such, organizational representatives were asked whether each type of policy was established; the content of the policy was not assessed. Thus, I had no information about the quality of the policy, or whether the policy was practiced. Without quality and usage information, it is unclear whether lack of impact stems from ineffectiveness of policy type, or if organizations are simply creating poor quality policies. Additionally, if policies are established and not followed, it may be perceived as a psychological contract breach, that is, employees may have expected equitable and inclusive practices to be implemented but they were not (Buttner et al., 2010; Magoshi & Chang, 2009).

A second limitation was the focus on practical measurement over research measurement. If the assessment had been developed primarily for research purposes, I would have included more employee experience questions to enable the formation of indices whose content and psychometric validity could be better supported. However, the employee assessment needed to stay within a practical length; the questions therefore focused on the most central component of each construct. Local DEI consultants and organization experts also provided information about DEI experiences they had witnessed. Ultimately, the employee experience questions did not neatly load onto their expected factors.

Another set of limitations stems from the timing of the assessment. As mentioned earlier, the pilot of the assessment was completed in the winter of 2019 and spring of 2020 prior to COVID-19 lockdowns (Centers for Disease Control, 2023) and the murder of George Floyd, which led to a social uprising and many public statements by organizations across the country (McCleary-Gaddy et al., 2022; Kraus et al., 2022). As a result, organizations were feeling pressure to act, and began scrambling to implement DEI programs. During the summer of 2020 the number of organizations that originally signed up for the CODE initiative doubled. The increase in external pressure to engage in DEI efforts may have caused employees to be skeptical of organizations' motives for engaging in data collection, resulting in a lack of true feelings of belonging and justice (Nishii et al., 2008). Further, Black people, in particular, were inundated with conversations about how to confront prejudice with White allies who recently recognized the systemic inequities in our country (Mashburn et al., 2021). Although well intended, such newly activated individuals may have required a heavy amount of education from their Black peers leading to additional fatigue.

Further, the quick decision to sign up for the CODE initiative and the assessment may have reflected a lack of commitment undermining the effectiveness of DEI efforts and resulting in a relatively high degree of missing data (Kraus et al., 2022). Further, it is unknown how long reported DEI policies had been established at each organization prior to data collection. Perhaps signing the pledge for the CODE initiative and the implementation of many of the DEI promotive policies occurred after the social unrest began. If so, the amount of time between social unrest and the assessment launch was

likely not enough time for policies to be effective, nor enough time for employees to have learned that policies exist and/or how to navigate them.

As mentioned previously, multiple organizations either did not report race/ethnicity and/or gender data at all or reported clearly inaccurate numbers. There are multiple potential reasons for this lack of reporting. Organizations may not have invested in infrastructure to collect the information if they preferred to take a “colorblind” approach and focus on individuals rather than examine the organization makeup and decisions based on group identities (Ryan et al., 2007; Ryan et al., 2010). Alternatively, demographic databases may be complicated to access, or the individual completing the assessment may not have access to the correct database. Some organizations may also have chosen to withhold the information from the researchers in fear that the information would be released to the public, making them vulnerable to scrutiny. It is not required by law to collect demographic information unless the organization employs 100 employees or more (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, n.d.), which accounts for 11 of the 15 organization that did not report demographic information. Therefore, these 11 organizations may not have considered gathering such data prior to the assessment launch. That said, when testing Hypothesis 1, the sample size of organizations dramatically dropped resulting in a sample of only 21 to 22 organizations and thus lower statistical power. It is possible that more relationships would have emerged if more organizations provided demographic information, especially considering the medium effect sizes that emerged (e.g., $b = .38$). Thus, the number of inclusive policies may be more related to the presence of diversity than indicated by the current results. All

organizations were included in the remaining analyses and thus the lack of significant findings supporting Hypotheses 3-9 are unlikely a result of a small sample size.

Finally, there was a lack of variability across organization as a function of race/ethnicity, gender, and management status (all $\sigma^2 = 0.00$), indicating that organizations had similar demographic makeups. A lack of variability may therefore explain the lack of significant interactions. Thus, examining similar hypotheses with a sample of organizations with greater variance in their employee population is an important next step.

Future Directions

Although the current research is a great first step in the utilization of the assessment, there is still room to explore the vast data as well as other potential approaches to the collection of this type of data. Examining discrepancies between the presence of policies and employees' perceptions of the policies would be one method for assessing policy quality. If, for example, organizational leaders believe they have an effective policy in place, but employees either do not know about it or perceive it to be ineffective, the policy would be considered of low quality. Discrepancies between organizational policies and employee perceptions could also be used to predict employees' experiences of belonging and justice.

Additionally, I examined whether the presence of DEI policies predicted diversity within the organization. Such an examination is the lowest threshold of equity to consider. For instance, the organization described by Ely & Thomas (2001) that utilized the access-and-legitimacy perspective had a diverse group of individuals, but they placed them in very specific segments of the organization to gain access to a specific customer

profile. Although it is important to ensure organizations are representative of their community and/or their customers, ensuring true equity also considers equity across organizational level, pay, and board membership. Future research could examine how the presence of DEI policies affects the representation of employees at each level as well as promotion decisions and efforts to develop employees who are members of underrepresented groups.

There are many other outcomes that would be quite interesting to examine based on these findings. For instance, does establishing more DEI promotive policies relate to turnover of individuals by demographic? It is possible that more promotive DEI policies curb bias decisions around discipline and resulting involuntary turnover. Further, within organizations in which there are more DEI promotive policies, employees may perceive greater calculative attachment in that although they do not necessarily feel like they belong, they do see opportunities for success based on the policies established (Maertz & Grifeth, 2004).

Additionally, there are numerous identities that experience lower levels of belonging and justice within organizations such as sexual orientation, disability identity, age, nationality, and so much more (e.g., DeSouza et al., 2017; Roberson, et al., 2006; Santuzzi et al., 2022). Further research should be conducted to understand how individuals who identify as a minority in one of the categories above experience the workplace and how greater DEI policies relate to such experiences. Very little research has been conducted utilizing intersectionality, yet individuals hold multiple identities that impact their day-to-day experiences and thus should be examined in the same context (Cho et al., 2002; Chrenshaw, 2017).

Practical Implications

The results of this study indicate positive evidence that the implementation of DEI promotive policies is related to racial/ethnic diversity within organizations – a common goal stated in public organization DEI reports (e.g., Apple, 2023; HubSpot, 2023). Specifically, organizations may consider establishing foundational language, definitions, and goals through DEI program visions, missions, and values to signal to employees that the organization values DEI (Cole et al., 2022; Corrington et al., 2022). Additionally, companies with inclusive job requirements such as inclusive competencies within job descriptions and performance appraisals have greater racial/ethnic diversity. Thus, building such competencies into the job descriptions creates a shared language that provides guidance regarding the DEI goals of the organization (not just the individual).

The assessment development benefitted from partnering with a metropolitan chamber of commerce, local organizations, local DEI consultants, and academics (Adams, 2023). The influence of the chamber of commerce helped the initiative gain traction and served as the connecting link for practitioners, academics, and businesses. Access to businesses and consultants gave the researchers insight into challenges facing businesses in the moment. Although most of the items at both the organization and employee level stemmed from the literature, the ability to hear about new initiatives employers were actively implementing provided additions to the assessment that would not have otherwise arisen. Finally, including consultants in the process provided the researchers with expertise that was invaluable to assessment development, in addition to ensuring the consultants had a deep understanding of the assessment prior to coaching organizations on the results. The present work combined with that of Adams (2023) thus

provides a blueprint for organizations in other cities that wish to develop DEI assessments that are tailored to their needs.

Finally, organizations of all different sizes and industries participated in the assessment to better understand their current practices and employee perceptions, and to compare their current practices to their peers. Such information may be imperative to moving DEI work forward, as Dobbin and colleagues (2011) found that adoption of DEI supportive policies within an organization's industry is one of the strongest predictors of adopting such policies at the organization. Therefore, being able to see the prevalence of policies within peer organizations may motivate all organizations to implement more DEI supportive policies. However, organizations should focus on the internal alignment of their DEI practices and employee perceptions, as well as their growth in areas such as representation of the community and/or customer, and a sense of belonging and justice among employees. Internal examination can provide organizations with the next steps to either target resources for specific employees or building their DEI program.

Conclusion

The current study provides a unique perspective on DEI management practices in that I was able to obtain a large sample of organizations throughout a single community during one timeframe, which was an inflection point of social tension within our country due to the impacts of COVID-19 and social unrest (Black Lives Matter, 2020; Centers for Disease Control Prevention, 2023; Murphy, 2021). Additionally, I was able to collect data on a wide range of DEI promotive policies, from large costly initiatives (e.g., employee resource groups) to small, easy to implement policies such as gender-neutral

dress codes. Having a breadth of policies and a breath of industry and size provides a rich dataset to examine multiple paths forward for organizations, no matter their resources.

Although systems enacted by organization policies through DEI initiatives have the potential to change the outcomes of success and experience for all employees (e.g., Downey et al., 2015; Guillaume, 2015; McKay et al., 2007), the current study did not find strong evidence that the number DEI promotive policies relate to employee experience. Overall findings of this research indicate that establishing DEI promotive policies may relate to some positive outcomes within an organization such as greater diversity, but policies establishment alone may not be enough to truly build a culture of belonging and fairness.

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Table 1*Number of employees by gender and organization (organization reported)*

Org ID	Total	Female	Male	Gender diverse	% Female and gender diverse
3	80	44	36	0	55.0
5	31	6	7	0	19.4
7	215	98	117	0	45.6
9	5	-	-	-	100.0
10	6	-	-	-	-
14	775	368	407	0	47.5
15	355	216	139	0	60.8
17	76	-	-	-	-
18	442	95	349	0	21.5
20	8	7	1	0	87.5
21	60	-	-	-	-
24	112	-	-	-	-
25	147	78	69	0	53.1
26	97	20	77	0	20.6
27	30	-	-	-	-
29	46	12	14	0	26.1
30	323	245	78	0	75.9
32	8983	7157	1853	0	79.7
33	7	6	1	0	85.7
34	249	6	4	0	2.4
35	32	-	-	-	-
36	5	15	-	-	300.0
37	1889	406	1485	1	21.5
39	4	1	3	0	25.0
41	341	263	78	0	77.1
42	82	44	56	0	53.7
43	13	-	-	-	-
44	23	11	12	0	47.8
45	4	-	-	-	-
47	48	6	41	0	12.5
52	104	55	48	0	52.9
53	5	-	-	-	-
56	915	314	60	0	34.3
57	121	331	38	0	273.6
60	573	403	150	0	70.3
61	49	34	15	0	69.4

Note. Organizations 34, 36, and 57 were removed from analyses that included organization reported gender due to incongruent reporting of total employees and number of employees in each gender category.

Table 2*Number of employees by race/ethnicity and organization (organization reported)*

Org ID	Total	American		Black or African American	Hispanic or Latino/a	Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	White/Caucasian	Two or more	Other race/ethnicity	% Non-White	Diversity Index
		Indian or Alaska Native	Asian								
3	80	0	4	1	0	0	74	0	1	7.5	14.2
5	31	0	0	1	0	0	12	0	0	3.2	84.9
7	215	1	7	2	6	1	185	2	11	14.0	25.5
9	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14	775	3	32	5	11	0	721	3	0	7.0	13.3
15	355	1	5	6	6	1	329	7	0	7.3	14.0
17	76	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
18	442	1	10	27	35	0	344	11	0	19.0	38.3
20	8	0	0	3	0	0	3	2	0	62.5	65.6
21	60	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
24	112	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
25	147	0	1	2	6	0	138	0	0	6.1	11.7
26	97	0	0	1	1	0	94	1	0	3.1	6.1
27	30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
29	46	0	0	3	9	0	14	0	2	30.4	86.3
30	323	0	9	39	12	0	250	11	0	22.0	38.3
32	8983	22	310	601	534	15	7286	215	0	18.9	33.2
37	1889	15	36	105	77	11	1648	0	0	12.9	23.4
33	7	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0.0	0.0
34	249	1	0	5	0	0	4	0	0	2.4	99.9
35	32	1	0	0	1	0	30	1	0	9.4	11.8
36	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
39	4	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0.0	0.0
41	341	1	14	64	28	2	216	16	0	36.7	55.3

42	82	0	3	3	3	0	66	4	0	15.9	34.6
43	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
44	23	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
45	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
47	48	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
52	104	0	4	0	6	0	92	1	0	10.6	21.3
53	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
56	915	1	35	12	24	1	827	7	5	9.3	18.1
57	121	0	5	17	10	0	329	5	0	30.6	642.3
60	573	3	20	74	37	1	482	37	0	30.0	26.6
61	49	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note. Organizations 34 and 57 were removed from analyses that included organization reported race/ethnicity due to incongruent reporting of total employees and number of employees in each race/ethnicity category.

Table 3*Percentage of participants by gender and organization (participant reported)*

Org ID	Total	Men	Non-Binary	Transgender	Women	Two or more	Other	Did not respond
3	71	42.3	0.0	0.0	53.5	0.0	0.0	4.2
5	26	34.6	0.0	0.0	61.5	0.0	0.0	3.8
7	178	43.3	0.0	1.1	52.8	0.0	0.0	2.8
9	5	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
10	5	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
14	628	47.0	0.0	0.0	48.4	0.0	0.5	4.1
15	290	35.9	0.3	0.0	61.7	0.0	0.7	1.4
17	75	28.0	1.3	0.0	66.7	0.0	0.0	4.0
18	299	68.6	0.3	0.3	25.1	0.3	0.7	4.7
20	7	14.3	0.0	0.0	85.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
21	57	59.6	0.0	0.0	36.8	0.0	1.8	1.8
24	97	56.7	0.0	0.0	42.3	0.0	1.0	0.0
25	119	40.3	0.0	0.0	58.0	0.0	0.0	1.7
26	81	76.5	0.0	0.0	18.5	0.0	0.0	4.9
27	20	30.0	0.0	0.0	65.0	5.0	0.0	0.0
29	35	51.4	0.0	0.0	34.3	2.9	0.0	11.4
30	211	19.9	0.0	0.0	75.4	0.0	0.5	4.3
33	9	0.0	0.0	0.0	88.9	0.0	11.1	0.0
34	149	19.5	0.7	0.0	74.5	1.3	0.7	3.4
35	30	36.7	0.0	0.0	63.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
36	4	25.0	0.0	0.0	75.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
37	1209	65.1	0.3	0.1	26.7	0.6	1.8	5.4
39	3	66.7	0.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
41	247	18.2	1.6	0.0	75.7	0.8	0.4	3.2
42	69	55.1	0.0	0.0	40.6	0.0	0.0	4.3
43	12	33.3	0.0	0.0	66.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
44	24	45.8	0.0	0.0	54.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
45	3	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
47	41	87.8	0.0	0.0	7.3	0.0	0.0	4.9
52	65	41.5	0.0	0.0	55.4	0.0	0.0	3.1
53	5	20.0	0.0	0.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	20.0
56	572	55.6	0.2	0.0	38.6	0.3	1.4	3.8
57	115	11.3	0.0	0.0	87.0	0.0	0.0	1.7
60	317	19.6	0.0	0.0	74.8	0.6	1.3	3.8
61	31	32.3	0.0	0.0	61.3	0.0	0.0	6.5

Note. N = 5635.

Table 4*Percentage of participants by race/ethnicity and organization (participant reported)*

Org ID	Total	American Indian or Alaska Native	Asian	Black or African American	Hispanic or Latino/a	Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	White/Caucasian	Two or more	Other race/ethnicity	Did not respond
3	71	0.0	1.4	1.4	0.0	0.0	88.7	2.8	1.4	4.2
5	26	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	92.3	3.8	0.0	3.8
7	178	1.7	1.7	1.1	2.2	0.0	87.1	1.7	1.1	3.4
9	5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
10	5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
14	628	0.0	4.0	1.3	1.1	0.0	85.2	2.5	0.8	5.1
15	290	0.0	0.7	1.7	1.0	0.0	86.6	5.9	1.4	2.8
17	75	0.0	1.3	5.3	5.3	0.0	81.3	1.3	1.3	4.0
18	299	0.0	2.0	4.3	6.4	0.0	77.3	4.7	1.7	3.7
20	7	0.0	0.0	42.9	0.0	0.0	42.9	14.3	0.0	0.0
21	57	0.0	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	94.7	1.8	1.8	0.0
24	97	0.0	4.1	4.1	2.1	0.0	86.6	0.0	2.1	1.0
25	119	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.8	0.0	89.9	1.7	1.7	5.0
26	81	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	0.0	90.1	0.0	3.7	4.9
27	20	0.0	0.0	0.0	70.0	0.0	20.0	10.0	0.0	0.0
29	35	0.0	0.0	11.4	25.7	0.0	40.0	2.9	2.9	17.1
30	211	0.5	2.4	4.7	2.8	0.0	81.5	2.8	1.4	3.8
32	526	0.0	2.1	7.8	2.5	0.0	77.8	4.9	1.3	3.6
33	9	0.0	0.0	11.1	11.1	0.0	66.7	0.0	11.1	0.0
34	149	0.0	0.7	49.7	10.1	0.0	25.5	7.4	2.7	4.0
35	30	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	90.0	10.0	0.0	0.0
36	4	0.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	75.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
37	1209	0.5	2.2	5.1	2.8	0.2	74.0	5.2	3.8	6.2
39	3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
41	247	0.0	2.0	7.7	4.5	0.4	74.1	5.7	2.0	3.6

42	69	0.0	4.3	1.4	2.9	0.0	84.1	2.9	0.0	4.3
43	12	0.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	66.7	8.3	0.0	0.0
44	24	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	95.8	4.2	0.0	0.0
45	3	0.0	0.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	66.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
47	41	0.0	0.0	4.9	39.0	0.0	48.8	7.3	0.0	0.0
52	65	0.0	1.5	0.0	4.6	0.0	90.8	0.0	0.0	3.1
53	5	0.0	0.0	0.0	20.0	0.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	20.0
56	572	0.2	2.3	0.9	4.4	0.0	83.6	2.3	2.6	3.8
57	115	0.0	1.7	3.5	4.3	0.0	82.6	4.3	2.6	0.9
60	317	0.0	0.3	7.3	3.5	0.0	78.2	4.4	2.8	3.5
61	31	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.0	90.3	3.2	0.0	3.2

Note. N = 5635.

Table 5

Standardized factor loadings for one- and two-factor ESEM measurement models for justice and psychological safety

Items	One-factor test	Two-factor test	
	Factor 1	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. I can express disagreement in my organization without fearing negative consequences.	.46	.49	
2. I feel respected and valued by my co-workers.	.69	.74	
3. I feel respected and valued by my supervisor.	.69	.34	.37
2. I believe my compensation is fair relative to similar roles at my organization.	.69	.63	
3. My organization allows me to balance my personal and work lives.	.74		.64
6. The same general rules of conduct apply to everyone at my organization.	.72		.79

Table 6*Correlations among organization level variables*

Variables	M	SD	Min	Max	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Total vision/mission/values policies	1.94	1.94	0	6										
2. Total inclusive job requirements	3.14	2.47	0	10	.50**									
3. Total employee lifecycle policies	0.78	0.87	0	3	.42*	.66**								
4. Total representation efforts policies	3.78	2.78	0	9	.12	.16	.04							
5. Total handbook policies	4.56	1.42	2	8	-.03	.19	.22	.13						
6. Total resources policies	5.11	3.39	0	13	.37*	.31	.17	.43*	.09					
7. Total communications policies	2.22	1.91	0	6	.55**	.37*	.19	-.03	-.06	.23				
8. Total DEI policies	21.53	9.04	8	51	.68**	.72**	.52**	.56**	.29	.75**	.52**			
9. Percentage employees of color	15.51	14.74	1	22	.45*	.66**	.72**	-.08	.04	.24	.37	.58 [‡]		
10. Diversity Index score	29.64	24.87	1	21	.16	.62*	.68**	-.25	.20	.07	.01	.33	.61**	
11. Percentage women & gender diverse employees	49.69	23.58	1	25	.10	-.01	-.01	.02	-.29	.12	.06	.03	.45*	-.05

Note. Sample sizes range from 21 to 36. For every variable 0 is the lowest possible value. Organizations 34 and 57 were removed from analyses that included organization reported race/ethnicity and gender due to incongruent reporting of total employees and number of employees in each race/ethnicity and gender category. Additionally, organization 36 was removed from analyses including organization reported gender for the same reason. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 7*Correlations among employee level variables*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. Race/ethnicity					
2. Gender	.04				
3. Individual contributors vs. managers and top leaders	-.07**	-.10**			
4. Managers vs. top leaders	.00	.00	-.42**		
5. Belonging	-.09**	-.08**	.11**	-.01	
6. Justice	-.06**	-.09**	.08**	.01	.74**

Note. Sample sizes range from 5292 to 2635. For race/ethnicity, 1 = non-White employees and -1 = White employees; for gender, 1 = women and employees of genders other than men and -1 = men; for level 1, 1 = managers and top leaders and -1 = individual contributor; for level 2, 1 = top leaders, -1 = managers, and 0 = individual contributors.

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

Table 8*Regressions of percentage of employees of color on DEI policy scores*

Models	<i>b</i>	SE for <i>b</i>	95% CI for <i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Total DEI policies							
Intercept	13.85***	2.83	[7.91, 19.78]	4.90		4.69	.34
Total DEI policies	1.09**	0.36	[0.34, 1.85]	3.05	.59		
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.00]	-0.12	-.02		
Total vision/mission/value policies							
Intercept	14.76***	3.06	[8.34, 21.19]	4.83		2.41	.21
Total vision/mission/value policies	3.37*	1.54	[0.13, 6.61]	2.19	.46		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.00]	0.53	.11		
Total inclusive job requirements							
Intercept	13.94***	2.51	[8.66, 19.22]	5.55		8.12	.47
Total inclusive job requirements	3.99***	0.99	[1.90, 6.07]	4.02	.70		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.00]	1.11	.19		
Total employee lifecycle policies							
Intercept	12.65***	2.26	[7.90, 17.41]	5.59		12.92	.59
Total employee lifecycle policies	12.86***	2.53	[7.53, 18.18]	5.07	.80		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.00]	1.81	.29		

Total representation efforts policies							
Intercept	15.77***	3.50	[8.41, 23.12]	4.50		0.11	.01
Total representation efforts policies	-0.72	1.67	[-4.22, 2.78]	-0.43	-.11		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.00]	0.34	.08		
Total handbook policies							
Intercept	15.53***	3.49	[8.20, 22.85]	4.45		0.03	.00
Total handbook policies	0.37	2.25	[-4.36, 5.10]	0.16	.04		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.00]	0.17	.04		
Total resources policies							
Intercept	14.79***	3.39	[7.67, 21.90]	4.37		0.54	.06
Total resources policies	0.99	0.97	[-1.05, 3.03]	1.02	.24		
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.00]	-0.03	.01		
Total communications policies							
Intercept	15.98***	3.20	[9.27, 22.69]	5.00		1.47	.14
Total communications policies	3.45	2.03	[-0.81, 7.70]	1.70	.38		
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.00]	-0.06	-.01		

Note. Sample sizes ranged from 20 to 22 organizations. Total DEI policies score, sub-totals, and organization size were centered for each analysis. Organizations with inconsistent responses to race/ethnicity were removed, resulting in two organizations being removed.

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

Table 9*Regressions of diversity index scores on DEI policy scores*

Models	<i>b</i>	SE for <i>b</i>	95% CI for <i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Total DEI policies							
Intercept	28.14***	5.55	[16.47, 39.81]	5.07		1.10	.11
Total DEI policies	1.04	0.70	[-0.44, 2.52]	1.48	.33		
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	[-0.01, 0.01]	-0.16	-.04		
Total vision/mission/value policies							
Intercept	29.24***	5.74	[17.20, 41.29]	5.10		0.25	.03
Total vision/mission/value policies	2.03	2.89	[-4.04, 8.10]	0.70	.17		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.01, 0.01]	0.11	.03		
Total inclusive job requirements							
Intercept	27.34***	4.52	[17.83, 36.85]	6.04		6.03	.40
Total inclusive job requirements	6.20**	1.79	[2.45, 9.95]	3.47	.65		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.00]	0.74	.14		
Total employee lifecycle policies							
Intercept	25.27***	4.15	[16.54, 34.00]	6.08		9.53	.51
Total employee lifecycle policies	20.31***	4.65	[10.54, 30.08]	4.37	.75		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.01]	1.32	.23		

Total representation efforts policies						
Intercept	31.22***	5.72	[19.20, 43.24]	5.46	0.72	.07
Total representation efforts policies	-3.26	2.72	[-8.98, 2.45]	-1.20	-.29	
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.01, 0.01]	0.44	.11	
Total handbook policies						
Intercept	30.63***	5.77	[18.50, 42.76]	5.31	0.39	.04
Total handbook policies	3.31	3.73	[-4.52, 11.14]	0.89	.21	
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	[-0.01, 0.01]	-0.11	-.03	
Total resources policies						
Intercept	29.30***	5.87	[16.97, 41.63]	4.99	0.05	.01
Total resources policies	0.53	1.68	[-3.01, 4.07]	0.32	.08	
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	[-0.01, 0.01]	-0.06	-.01	
Total communications policies						
Intercept	29.66***	5.82	[17.44, 41.88]	5.10	0.00	.00
Total communications policies	0.15	3.69	[-7.60, 7.89]	0.04	.01	
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	[-0.01, 0.01]	-0.00	.00	

Note. Sample sizes ranged from 20 to 22 organizations. Total DEI policies score, sub-totals, and organization size were centered for each analysis. Organizations with inconsistent responses to race/ethnicity were removed, resulting in two organizations being removed. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 10*Regressions of percentage of women and gender diverse employees on DEI policy scores*

Models	<i>b</i>	SE for <i>b</i>	95% CI for <i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Total DEI policies							
Intercept	49.02***	5.17	[38.24, 59.80]	9.48		0.53	.05
Total DEI policies	0.02	0.69	[-1.42, 1.47]	0.04	.01		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.01]	1.02	.22		
Total vision/mission/value policies							
Intercept	48.84***	5.03	[38.35, 59.33]	9.72		0.73	.07
Total vision/mission/value policies	1.63	2.64	[-3.89, 7.15]	0.62	.13		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.01]	1.12	.24		
Total inclusive job requirements							
Intercept	48.95***	5.10	[38.31, 59.59]	9.60		0.55	.05
Total inclusive job requirements	0.32	2.08	[-4.02, 4.66]	0.15	.03		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.01]	1.04	.23		
Total employee lifecycle policies							
Intercept	48.72**	5.20	[37.88, 59.56]	9.38		0.57	.05
Total employee lifecycle policies	1.57	5.76	[-10.45, 13.59]	0.27	.06		
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.01]	1.07	.24		

Total representation efforts policies						
Intercept	49.56***	5.34	[38.43, 60.70]	9.29	0.58	.05
Total representation efforts policies	-0.78	2.61	[-6.23, 4.68]	-0.30	-.07	
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.01]	1.07	.25	
Total handbook policies						
Intercept	48.61***	4.81	[38.57, 58.65]	10.10	1.70	.15
Total handbook policies	-4.76	3.19	[-11.41, 1.90]	-1.49	-.31	
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.01]	1.21	.25	
Total resources policies						
Intercept	48.77***	5.13	[38.07, 59.47]	9.51	0.58	.06
Total resources policies	0.48	1.54	[-2.73, 3.70]	0.31	.07	
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.01]	0.94	.21	
Total communications policies						
Intercept	49.16***	5.16	[38.39, 59.93]	9.52	0.54	.05
Total communications policies	0.36	3.37	[-6.67, 7.38]	0.11	.02	
Organization size	0.00	0.00	[-0.00, 0.01]	1.00	.22	

Note. Sample sizes ranged from 20 to 22 organizations. Total DEI policies score, sub-totals, and organization size were centered for each analysis. Organizations with inconsistent responses to gender were removed, resulting in three organizations being removed. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 11

Parameter estimates and variance components for the multilevel model predicting belonging that includes total DEI policies and race/ethnicity as predictors

Fixed components	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	4.10***	0.03	119.14	26.43	<.001
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	-1.33	12.43	.209
Total DEI policies	-0.00	0.00	-0.18	24.90	.860
Race/ethnicity	-0.09**	0.03	-3.13	21.93	.005
Total DEI Policies X Race/ethnicity	-0.00	0.00	-0.61	18.73	.551
Variance Components	σ^2	SD			
Intercept	0.01	0.12			
Race/ethnicity	0.00	0.07			
Residual	0.75	0.87			

Note. Organization sample size = 36; Employee sample size = 5332. Total DEI policies score and organization size were centered for each analysis.

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

Table 12

Parameter estimates and variance components for the multilevel model predicting belonging that includes total DEI policies and gender as predictors

Fixed components	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	4.17***	0.03	133.19	27.78	<.001
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	-0.89	14.21	.388
Total DEI policies	-0.00	0.00	-0.02	25.57	.988
Gender	-0.08***	0.02	-0.39	24.57	<.001
Total DEI Policies X Gender	-0.00	0.00	-0.18	18.16	.862
Variance Components	σ^2	SD			
Intercept	0.02	0.13			
Gender	0.00	0.05			
Residual	0.75	0.87			

Note. Organization sample size = 36; Employee sample size = 5376. Total DEI policies score and organization size were centered for each analysis.

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

Table 13

Parameter estimates and variance components for the multilevel model predicting justice that includes total DEI policies and race/ethnicity as predictors

Fixed components	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	4.13***	0.04	112.79	28.57	<.001
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	-1.54	14.35	.146
Total DEI policies	0.00	0.00	0.09	26.66	.929
Race/ethnicity	-0.07*	0.02	-2.76	21.06	.012
Total DEI Policies X Race/ethnicity	0.00	0.00	0.35	13.40	.733
Variance Components	σ^2	SD			
Intercept	0.02	0.15			
Race/ethnicity	0.00	0.05			
Residual	0.63	.79			

Note. Organization sample size = 36; Employee sample size = 5332. Total DEI policies score and organization size were centered for each analysis.

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

Table 14

Parameter estimates and variance components for the multilevel model predicting justice that includes total DEI policies and gender as predictors

Fixed components	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	4.19***	0.03	120.86	28.79	<.001
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	-0.81	16.91	.428
Total DEI policies	-0.00	0.00	-0.30	26.62	.768
Gender	-0.09***	0.02	-5.01	23.88	<.001
Total DEI Policies X Gender	0.00	0.00	0.79	15.32	.444
Variance Components	σ^2	SD			
Intercept	0.02	0.16			
Gender	0.00	0.04			
Residual	0.62	0.79			

Note. Organization sample size = 36; Employee sample size = 5375. Total DEI policies score and organization size were centered for each analysis.

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

Table 15

Parameter estimates and variance components for the multilevel model predicting justice that includes total DEI policies and management status as predictors

Fixed components	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	4.19***	0.03	121.81	29.25	<.001
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	-0.80	16.34	.434
Total DEI policies	-0.00	0.00	-0.16	27.15	.878
Management status	0.10***	0.02	4.91	26.09	<.001
Total DEI Policies X Management status	-0.00	0.00	-0.84	22.96	.408
Variance Components	σ^2	SD			
Intercept	0.02	0.15			
Management status	0.00	0.04			
Residual	0.63	0.80			

Note. Organization sample size = 36; Employee sample size = 5512. Total DEI policies score and organization size were centered for each analysis. Management status: 1 = managers and above, -1 = individual contributors.

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

Table 16

Parameter estimates and variance components for the multilevel model predicting justice that includes vision/mission/values sub-total and race/ethnicity as predictors

Fixed components	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	4.12***	0.03	123.01	29.68	<.001
Organization size	-0.00	0.00	-2.15	11.56	.053
Total vision/mission/values	0.02	0.12	1.03	25.37	.312
Race/ethnicity	-0.08**	0.02	-3.93	16.10	.001
Total Vision/Mission/Values X Race/ethnicity	0.02*	0.01	2.24	11.95	.045
Variance Components	σ^2	SD			
Intercept	0.02	0.14			
Race/ethnicity	0.00	0.04			
Residual	0.63	0.79			

Note. Organization sample size = 36; Employee sample size = 5332. Total

vision/mission/values policies score and organization size were centered for each analysis.

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

Table 17

Parameter estimates and variance components for the multilevel model predicting justice that includes handbook policies sub-total and management status as predictors

Fixed components	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	4.19***	0.03	128.06	26.83	<.001
Total handbook policies	-0.01	0.02	0.22	31.39	.824
Management status	0.09***	0.02	5.29	16.51	<.001
Total Handbook Policies X Management status	-0.02	0.01	-2.06	23.59	.050
Variance Components	σ^2	SD			
Intercept	0.02	0.15			
Management status	0.00	0.05			
Residual	0.63	0.80			

Note. Organization sample size = 36; Employee sample size = 5512. Total handbook policies score and organization size were centered for each analysis. Management status: 1 = managers and above, -1 = individual contributors. The model did not converge with organization size, and therefore, organization size was removed from the model.

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

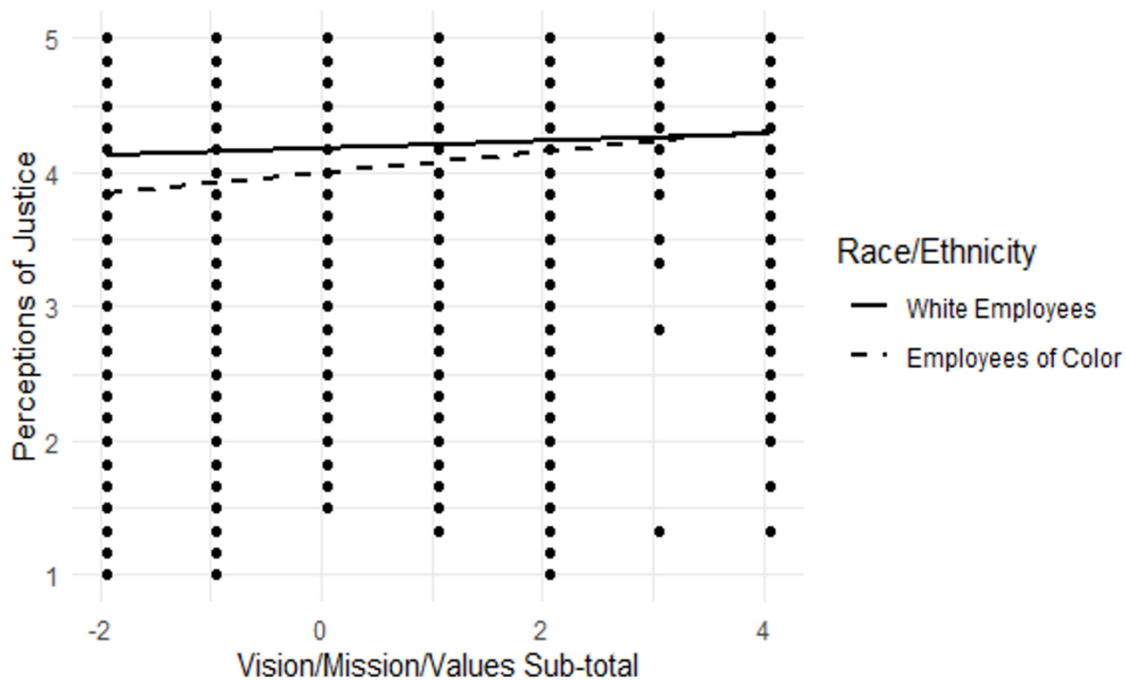


Figure 1. Graphical depiction of the multi-level effects of Vision/Mission/Values Sub-Total X Employee Race/ethnicity on perceptions of justice. There was no main effect of vision/mission/values sub-total for White employees; however, more vision/mission/values policies were associated with greater perceived justice among employees of color.

Appendix A

Organizational Assessment

Response options = yes, no, other

Communications

1. Is a diversity and inclusion representative involved in the creation of public-facing materials?
2. Are diversity and inclusion regularly mentioned in public-facing communications?
3. Does the organization communicate to the public about the alignment of diversity and inclusion goals with organizational goals, strategies, and/or issues?
4. Is a diversity and inclusion representative involved in the creation of internal materials?
5. Are diversity and inclusion regularly mentioned in internal communications?
6. Does the organization communicate to employees about the alignment of diversity and inclusion goals with organizational goals, strategies, and/or issues?

Inclusive job requirements

1. Has your organization identified behaviors and practices that promote inclusion within your organization?
2. Do executives/top leaders review diversity and inclusion projects and progress?
3. Are diversity and inclusion competencies and/or behaviors included in the job descriptions of executives/top leaders?
4. Are diversity and inclusion competencies and/or behaviors part of executives'/top leaders' performance evaluations?
5. Are executives'/top leaders' diversity and inclusion performance indicators directly tied to incentives?
6. Are diversity and inclusion competencies and/or behaviors included in the job descriptions of middle managers?
7. Are diversity and inclusion competencies and/or behaviors part of middle managers' performance evaluations?
8. Are diversity and inclusion competencies and/or behaviors included in the job descriptions of individual contributors?
9. Are diversity and inclusion competencies and/or behaviors part of individual contributors' performance evaluations?
10. Does your organization have policies and procedures in place for dealing with conflict?

Employee lifecycle

1. As part of the hiring process, are prospective employees asked about how they would promote inclusion in the organization?
2. Do exit interviews/surveys contain questions concerning diversity and inclusion experiences?

3. Is diversity and inclusion training of any kind mandatory at your organization?

Handbook Policies

1. Does your organization have policies and procedures in place to support non-traditional schedules?
2. Does your organization have policies and procedures in place for reporting harassment, discrimination, and other similar concerns?
3. Does your organization allow employees to use holiday time to celebrate holidays that are not observed by the organization?
4. Does your organization have policies that allow employees to adhere to religious practices?
5. Does your organization have a dress code policy?
6. Is the organization's dress code policy gender-specific?
7. Does the organization's dress code policy accommodate different religious beliefs, gender identity, etc.?
8. Does the organization have written policies that encourage the use of minority-owned suppliers/vendors?

Representation Efforts

1. During the last year, did your organization evaluate voluntary turnover by - Race/ethnicity?
2. During the last year, did your organization evaluate voluntary turnover by - Gender?
3. During the last year, did your organization evaluate voluntary turnover by - Age?
4. During the last year, did your organization evaluate voluntary turnover by - Other (please explain)
5. During the last year, did your organization evaluate involuntary turnover by - Race/ethnicity?
6. During the last year, did your organization evaluate involuntary turnover by - Gender?
7. During the last year, did your organization evaluate involuntary turnover by - Age?
8. During the last year, did your organization evaluate involuntary turnover by - Other (please explain)
9. Does your organization formally track the race/ethnicity of its employees?
10. Does your organization formally track the gender of its employees?
11. Does the organization formally track the age of its employees?

Resources

1. Does your organization have employee/business resource groups (ERGs/BRGs)? If so, please list the types of groups below.
2. Does your organization provide resources to support employees' mental health? If so, please indicate the resources that are available. (Select all that apply.)
3. Does your organization provide resources to support employees' physical health? If so, please indicate the resources that are available. (Select all that apply.)

Vision/Mission/Values

1. Are diversity and inclusion addressed in your organization's vision, mission, and/or values statements?
2. Does your organization have a written vision statement for its diversity and inclusion initiative?
3. Is the organization's diversity and inclusion vision, strategy, goals, and/or philosophy permanently available to employees?
4. Does your organization have written goals for diversity and inclusion?
5. Does your organization have a written definition of diversity?
6. Does your organization have a written definition of inclusion?

Appendix B

Employee Experience

Response options = 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*)

1. I am often talked over in meetings.
2. I feel like I can be my full self at work and others will accept me.
3. I feel like I belong in my organization.
4. I can express disagreement in my organization without fearing negative consequences.
5. I believe my compensation is fair relative to similar roles at my organization.
6. I feel respected and valued by my co-workers.
7. I feel respected and valued by my supervisor.
8. My organization allows me to balance my personal and work lives.
9. The same general rules of conduct apply to everyone at my organization.

Appendix C

Hypothesis support with combined psychological safety and justice measures

Hypothesis	Supported or not supported
<p><i>Hypothesis 1:</i> A greater number of policies designed to promote DEI will be related to greater employee diversity in race/ethnicity and gender.</p>	<p><i>Partially supported:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Total DEI policies was positively related to percentage of employees of color. • Sub-totals of vision/mission/values, inclusive job requirements, and employee lifecycle were positively related to percentage of employees of color. • Sub-totals of inclusive job requirements and employee lifecycle positively related to Diversity Index Score.
<p><i>Hypothesis 2:</i> White employees and men will have better employee experiences (i.e., greater belonging and greater justice) than will employees of color, women, and gender diverse employees (i.e., non-binary, transgender, other).</p>	<p><i>Fully supported:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • White (vs. employees of color) perceived greater belonging. • Men (vs. women and gender diverse employees) perceived greater belonging and justice.
<p><i>Hypothesis 3:</i> Employees in organizations that have more</p>	<p><i>Not supported</i></p>

<p>policies that promote DEI will perceive greater belonging.</p>	
<p><i>Hypothesis 4:</i> Race/ethnicity will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived belonging, such that the relationship will be stronger for employees of color compared to White employees.</p>	<p><i>Not supported</i></p>
<p><i>Hypothesis 5:</i> Gender will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived belonging, such that the relationship will be stronger for women and gender diverse employees (i.e., non-binary, transgender, other) compared to men.</p>	<p><i>Not supported</i></p>
<p><i>Hypothesis 6:</i> Employees in organizations that have more policies that promote DEI will perceive greater justice.</p>	<p><i>Not supported</i></p>

<p><i>Hypothesis 7: Race/ethnicity will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived justice, such that the relationship will be stronger for employees of color compared to White employees.</i></p>	<p><i>Partially supported:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The interaction of vision/mission/values policies sub-total and race/ethnicity significantly related to employee perception of justice. Such that such that employees of color (but not White employees) perceived organizations that had a greater number of DEI program vision, values, and mission policies as more just.
<p><i>Hypothesis 8: Gender will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived justice, such that the relationship will be stronger for women and gender diverse employees (i.e., non-binary, transgender, other) compared to men.</i></p>	<p><i>Not supported</i></p>
<p><i>Hypothesis 9: Management status will moderate the relationship between number of DEI policies and perceived justice, such that</i></p>	<p><i>Not supported</i></p>

the relationship will be stronger for employees who are lower in management status compared to those higher in status.	
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