PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT INITIATIVES: AFTER THE BLACK LIVES MATTER MOVEMENT OF 2019

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ABSTRACT

Corporations closely monitor social change to assess potential risks to their strategic objectives. As seen in the social unrest of 2019, their reliance on diversity initiatives demonstrated their solidarity. Such efforts, heightened by stakeholder influence can obscure the attitudes and perceptions of those they most rely upon to carry out these policies. While corporate leaders set these initiatives, managers implement and oversee them. This dissertation explores managerial attitudes and perceptions toward diversity management initiatives. It benchmarks this endeavor through two studies. Study 1 establishes the groundwork for this investigation by building a theoretical framework and identifying a research gap concerning the need for validated Diversity Management Initiatives (DMI) scales. Study 2 methodologically develops novel DMI measurements and assesses the current state of managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity mechanisms. This research provides valuable, scholarly insights into diversity management's contemporary, shifting landscape.

I dedicate this manuscript to my daughter, Hannah, and my son, Zachary. Over the past three years, I have lived by one of your grandfather's maxims which is to use our talents, regardless of how small they may be, with a solid work ethic and a positive attitude to contribute to the greater good of humanity. This is a goal that we should always strive for, and I thank you for allowing me to exemplify these characteristics.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Corporate Strategy and Diversity Initiatives

Corporations strategically monitor their external environments to assess any risk that may affect their goals. External factors, such as population growth, global connectedness, and economic policy, influence firms to address cultural complexities and values through diversity management initiatives (Roberson, 2019). When firms perceive that their stakeholders hold considerable power, their response often relates to a heightened desire to address their risk (Plummer, 2003; Welcomer, 2002). This response is particularly true for external factors involving racial conflict or unrest. Firms often increase diversity initiatives to mitigate the risk of being perceived as indifferent or unresponsive (Dobbin et al., 2011). Social change is a critical component of their market environment.

The Benefits of Diversity

The benefits of having a solid diversity strategy make it evident that firms should embrace these initiatives. Yang and Konrad (2011a) argue that organizations can benefit from diversity by leveraging information or knowledge from historically marginalized and disadvantaged members. In so doing, organizations improve their overall performance (Armstrong et al., 2010; Guillaume et al., 2017; Mo Barak, 2015; Sabharwal, 2014). There is also evidence that diversity drives innovation (Armstrong et al., 2010; Janes & Harvey, 2022; Mathews, 1998; Mullins, 2018; Yang & Konrad, 2011a); enhances corporate image (Pratihari et al., 2018); leads to better organizational creativity and organizational effectiveness (Cox & Blake, 1991; Guillaume et al. 2013; Mathew, 1998); improves employee commitment (Wells et al., 2021); and positively

affects employee satisfaction (Ohunakin et al., 2019). Corporate awareness of diversity can directly be correlated with these benefits at the organizational level. It is unclear, however, how diversity strategies impact managers when implementation is based on social change. The intensity of social concerns does rationalize why firms are likely to adopt aggressive strategies to increase diversity and overlook their impact on their internal members.

Racial Unrest

Several critical incidents heightened corporate response to social diversity concerns over the last ten years. In 2020, police officers fatally shot Breonna Taylor in Louisville, Kentucky, when they exercised a “no-knock” warrant and were fired upon by her startled boyfriend (Briley, 2021). The Washington Post reported how the tragic incident and its legal outcome inspired protests for eleven weeks (Wood & Craig, 2020). According to Duvall (2022), Breonna's injustice became a rallying point for the activism of Black Lives Matter (BLM). BLM as a social protest can be described as a movement across a diverse group of Americans galvanized to address the deeply entrenched, repeated racial injustice against Black Americans (Francis & Wright-Rigueur, 2021).

In the same year, police caused unrest in Ferguson, Missouri, when they fatally shot Michael Brown, an unarmed, 18-year-old African American (Chaney, 2015). Besides Missouri, protests erupted in other states fueling outrage against police brutality (Carr, 2016). The national notoriety of both incidents and others likely established the tipping point exhibited by the social uprising over George Floyd’s death in 2019 (Grier-Reed et al., 2021). Bystanders captured a police officer kneeling on George Floyd’s neck while struggling to breathe for nine minutes and then dying (Green et al., 2021;

Onwuachi-Willig, 2021). The ensuing demonstrations lasted more than two weeks as protestors expressed their frustration, which expanded into a sizeable social justice movement nationally and even in other countries (Allam et al., 2021). Miller and Davis-Howard (2022) frame this movement as an organizational awakening to endemic social injustice and inequality.

As a matter of context, it is essential to recall the associated, legal elements that are part of this phenomenon. In addition to public outcry, legislation and policy fueled firms' incentive to address racial inequity concerns by focusing on their diversity management programs. For instance, lawmakers reemphasized the importance of the equal pay act of 1963, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Civil Rights Act of 1991 during the unrest to increase corporate accountability (Brummer & Strine, 2021). In addition, policymakers passed the Corporate Governance Through Diversity Act of 2019 and introduced new SEC disclosure guidelines on diversity. These statues pushed organizations to act overtly to affirm their commitment to diversity and demonstrate their efforts at legal compliance.

Corporate Response

Firms have found that aggressively responding to social concerns about racial equality serves their performative interests in reducing stakeholders' risk (Roberson et al., 2024; Sabharwal, 2014). In response to 2019, corporate reactions manifested in several ways. C-suite leaders immediately formed the National Business Round to redefine their corporation's role in society, as recalled by Harrison et al. (2020). Besides providing customer value, they aimed to invest more in employees, treat suppliers fairly, support local communities, and achieve long-term shareholder value. CEOs professed a new

direction, as captured by Bodie's (2023) highlights of book on Conscious Capitalism by Whole Foods' CEO, John Mackey, and an economics professor, Raj Sisodia. Mackey suggested that corporations should serve all stakeholders, including consumers and communities. As a single example, such sentiments exemplified a new perspective on corporate approach to social change.

Leadership pledges also reflected corporate commitment to the social concerns of 2019. Avery et al. (2022) attest that more than 2,200 executives signed the CEO Action for Diversity and Inclusion Pledge in committing their organizations to constructive change. These pledges were reflected in more than half of Fortune 500 firms that adopted corporate social initiatives (CSI) in response to the Black Lives Matter Movement (Warren, 2022). In this case, CSIs denote voluntary corporate efforts that address social issues, as presented by Warren (2022). She further notes that CSIs may include philanthropic investments in underprivileged areas, public statements of solidarity, and pledges to reexamine organizational diversity (Warren, 2022).

Corporations also reexamined the futility of their diversity efforts. Evidence of this became more apparent during the proxy season of 2021 when board members proposed more audits to determine whether corporate DEI programs advocated effective practices that created a fair workplace (McDowell et al., 2023). These actions were well placed. According to institutional shareholders' services (ISS) data, only 61 Black and Hispanic minorities occupied CEO positions in 2019, compared to 2,440 Whites (TCE, 2020). A comparable statistic indicates that even women hold fewer than one-third of senior management positions in 80% of S&P 500 companies (Sardon & Dieter, 2019). This new awareness became quite evident.

In response, corporate refocus on diversity was clearly illustrated by diversity initiatives' outcomes. A LinkedIn analysis revealed a significant increase in diversity executives in September of 2020, leading up to and significantly after the unrest of 2019. Head of Diversity, Director of Diversity, and Chief of Diversity positions increased by 107%, 75%, and 68%, respectively (Hickley, 2021). Another report showed that among firms in the Russell 3000 Index, nonwhite ethnic groups established 50% more board seats in 2019 and 25% more at the end of 2020 (Peter, 2022). In yet another report, it was shown that companies increased the board seats of Black directors to 9.6% and added director appointments by 31% within one year after the 2019 social unrest (Dzabarovs et al., 2021).

Such reactions to external factors are consistent with the researchers' findings. Pitts and his colleagues (2010) believe that organizations implement diversity initiatives to address the interests of populations who have been historically underrepresented. From another perspective, Eckert (2017) and Pitts et al. (2010) explain that organizations' response to external social and legal factors could signify a strategic desire to protect their brand. After all, a good reputation is one of the most valuable assets firms can possess, and they strive to protect it (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990). It lends itself to customer loyalty, employee recruitment, investors, or partnerships (Szwajca, 2018). Moreover, evidence shows such efforts improved the public perception on corporate solidarity (Corrington et al., 2022). Alternatively, an organization's efforts to increase its diversity may reflect its aversion to social activism, which can potentially lead to boycotts that disrupt corporate operations or result in financial decline (King, 2011).

Firms find an aggressive response is the most effective way to reduce stakeholders' risk (Sabharwal, 2014).

Political Backlash

However, corporate efforts to appease consumers have begun to receive backlash from politicians and conservative stakeholders alike (Warren, 2022). More and more firms are now criticized for "woke washing" or advocating "woke capitalism" for adopting diversity activities (Green, 2023; Kanai & Gill, 2020; Warren, 2022). Gleaned from dogmatic editorials within conservative pop culture, these labels remain undefined yet weaponized (Green, 2023; Sobande, 2020). The closest attempt is made by Jayaram and Sridharan (2023), who use a New York Times editorial that introduces "woke capitalism" as the conscience actions taken by corporations to support social change. Sobande (2020) argues that such political labels stigmatize companies in convincing stakeholders that more care is attributed to diversity than a firm's performance.

The most ardent statements seem to come from state officials in Texas and Florida. Gardner Pate, Chief of Staff for Governor Greg Abbott, states "that diversity, equity and inclusion programs in hiring violate the law because they expressly favor some demographic groups to the detriment of others'" (Zahn, 2023, p. 1). Furthermore, the State Attorney General sent notices of concern to consulting firms for alleged infractions for recommending that companies conduct performance audits on DEI programs (Paxton, 2023). In Florida, Governor Ron DeSantis castigated Disney for supporting “woke” politics and canceled its special tax status (Montlake, 2022).

In addition to political criticism, other political actions indicate a bleak environment for organizations that support diversity programs. According to Bryant and

Appleby (2023), there are 30 anti-diversity bills in state legislatures intended to curtail diversity programs within lower and higher educational institutions. Specifically, seven proposals target diversity, equity, and inclusion efforts, with two states leading in transforming them into law. In Florida, Governor DeSantis has invoked executive measures to prohibit social factors from being used in the investment decisions of the state's pension fund (Moran, 2022). Similarly, Governor Cox of Utah has endorsed a bill prohibiting diversity programs from all educational and government organizations (Patel, 2024).

Besides the state level, identical attitudes can be found at the US senatorial and congressional levels of government. Senators Tom Cotton (R-AK) and Jim Banks (R-IN) proposed a bill that limits DoD DEI representatives from receiving no more than $31,000 per year in compensation (Cotton, 2023). In the house, Representative William Steube (R-FL) introduced a bill to prohibit any funding for DEI programs for the military (Steube, 2023). It is reasonable to surmise that representatives are only responding to the demands of their constituents. Nonetheless, these emerging attitudes may reflect a general demeanor among various populations.

Besides politicians, companies have begun to follow suit. McDowell et al. (2023) note that in 2022, shareholders began to demand that DEI audits be replaced with anti-DEI mandates, a change from the 2021 proxy season. According to Dutkiewicz et al. (2022), these calls have occurred at prominent companies such as Walmart, Lowe's, Bank of America, CVS, Citigroup, and AT&T, where proposals question the use of diversity metrics or even enacting DEI programs.

With these policy changes evolving, the evidence of the repercussions faced by DEI personnel can also be seen, starting in 2022. According to SHRM, LinkedIn reported a significant decline in corporate hiring of diversity officers at companies including Twitter, Nike, and Amazon (Gonzales, 2023). While economic factors may contribute, SHRM suggests that the decline is notably distinct from trends in other employment positions (Gonzales, 2023). Additionally, a study by Revelio Lab in 2023 of 600 companies indicated a 33% attrition rate for DEI professionals, higher than the approximately 21% for non-diversity roles (Ayas, 2023).

This trend is expected to persist through the 2024 election year. For instance, the University of Florida has already made significant cuts, eliminating 28 full-time administrative and faculty DEI positions in the first quarter (Betts, 2024). Concurrently, a growing number of companies are critically evaluating and adjusting their DEI programs to mitigate potential negative repercussions (Goldberg, 2024; Williams, 2021).

Conflicted Support Within Organizations

Naturally, this backlash is reflected in significant emotional and psychological complexities among employees. Gartner reports that more than 40% of employees feel alienated and resentful of DEI programs in light of the heightened focus on diversity since 2019 (Rai & Dutkiewicz, 2022). Gartner further notes that resistance to diversity initiatives is likely attributed to employees' perceived threats to their individual and social identities. Such reactions are likely due to how DEI initiatives compel employees to re-examine their existing behaviors and adopt new ways of thinking and behaving. Such challenges to personal beliefs can engender feelings of threat and resentment towards DEI initiatives. Bowman and Cox (2022) theorize this conflicting behavior as *diversity*

ideology, where individuals may support diversity in principle but react negatively to the practical changes and behavioral outcomes imposed by corporate diversity policies.

Two sociological factors drive the coexistence of these opposing attitudes toward diversity efforts. One factor concerns the political divide among Americans, which has become stronger in recent years (Swigart et al., 2020). And indeed, this polarization is reflected in the workplace and manifested in incivility (He et al., 2020; Lim et al., 2008). As explained by Lim et al. (2008), the term workplace incivility refers to how members behave negatively toward each other based on their political affiliation or ideology, ranging from mild discourtesies to verbal aggressions. Such behaviors can cause tremendous uneasiness for employees (Klar et al., 2019).

Another factor for these attitudes involves the anticipated changes in workplace demographics, which includes a significant increase in minorities. According to a U.S. Census report and others, several shifts in American demographics will significantly change the landscape of the ethnoracial composition in 2030 (Konrad, 2006; Vespa et al., 2018). The report also projects that amidst an aging population, individuals of two or more races or ethnicities will become the fastest-growing ethnic group, leading to one in three instead of one in five Americans identifying with another race. Furthermore, the report estimates that international migration from Latin American and Asian countries will significantly increase over the next three decades.

Alba (2018) explains that this population change for Whites reconceptualizes them as a majority-minority group. The term denotes a demographic shift when Whites and non-Hispanics cease to comprise more than 50% of the U.S. population. However, he argues that reclassifying non-Whites and Whites into one category can dispel this claim

(Alba, 2018; Craig & Richeson, 2018). Another implication of this population change relates to the pronounced behavioral effect on white employees.

Sociologists highlight an increasing trend of emotional anxiety among Whites due to the anticipated demographic shifts toward a majority-minority population structure (Alba, 2018; Craig & Richeson, 2014b). This acute anxiety is evident in how Whites are becoming more politically conservative and questioning the value of racial diversity, according to Craig et al. (2018). Furthermore, the researchers claim these emotions also fuel political ideologies, such as attitudes around diversity initiatives (Craig & Richeson, 2014a).

Nonetheless, these apparent attitudes depart from the enthusiasm once felt in 2019 (Williams, 2019). Even more so, organizations face the dilemma of balancing strategic diversity outcomes with their implications of political, social, and economic risks. The challenges of this phenomenon are understandable. Leigh & Melwani (2019, p. 564) succinctly encapsulate the multifaceted nature of this challenge by noting that "events in our world impinge on us…they incite emotions, elicit cognitions…influence our interactions, and change our behaviors."

Considering the complex dynamics facing organizations, attention is placed upon a narrow area within this phenomenon that entails whether perceptions and attitudes toward diversity management correlate with various managerial characteristics or groups. As discussed earlier, it also considers how the changing aspect of corporate strategy is juxtaposed with political or social factors. Given these elements, this dissertation explores the comprehensive effects of diversity management initiatives on managers.

The Research Question

The overarching research question is as follows: What are managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity management initiatives (DMI)? Accompanying this inquiry are two primary research aims:

1. This research conducts descriptive study that explores the current state of managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity management in light of the post-2019 social landscape. Against the backdrop of increased corporate investment in diversity management initiatives (Bowman & Cox, 2022; Dzabarovs et al., 2021) and legislative scrutiny directed at corporations (Green, 2023; Rai & Dutkiewicz, 2022; Sobande, 2020; Warren, 2022; Zahn, 2023), understanding managerial perspectives becomes imperative.
2. The research aims to measure these perceptions and attitudes accurately, observed as an often-overlooked step in previous studies. Precisely capturing managerial reactions lends authenticity to this research effort.

These dual aims assess the strategic implications of diversity policies and lay the groundwork for future investigations.

As a key value, the timeliness of this research is crucial. It resembles a comparable approach to McEnrue's (1993) rationale to investigate corporate response to the social unrest in April 1992. The author considered, then, the timing of the Los Angeles riots as a unique circumstance to research its implications for diversity management. In this case, the juxtaposition of 2019's unrest with the timing of this research offers a research opportunity that can be classified as a quasi-natural experiment.

Natural experiments are derived from naturally occurring phenomena driven by political or social forces (Dunning, 2008).

However, partially classifying this research as a quasi-natural experiment makes sense since perceptions and attitudes may have changed toward diversity initiatives since the unrest of 2019. According to Williams (2022), this possibility is even more likely considering the overshadowing impacts of the COVID pandemic. After all, there are zero protests, and very few slogans can still be heard regarding black social issues (Fatima, 2022; Williams, 2021). Another reason for the partial classification is that this phenomenon is still evolving. Organizations may still need to realize the total cost and benefits outcomes of implementing their diversity initiatives. As discussed, the emergence of political backlash is still new. Nonetheless, leveraging this study's quasi-natural, experimental aspects can add analytical depth to the inferences of this study (Dunning, 2008). Therefore, this study further serves as a benchmark for managerial perceptions and attitudes post-2019 and provides valuable insight into diversity management.

Why Managers?

Managers are ideal subjects for discerning the effects of diversity initiatives for several reasons. They are usually responsible for hiring, promotions, and pay decisions (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). These responsibilities illustrate the discretionary decision-making that managers exercise in affecting the welfare of their employees, according to Trevino (1986, p. 601, as cited by Hemingway, 2005). In addition, this role naturally identifies managers as agents of their firms, compared to the other roles of employees with less responsibility (Marques et al., 2014). Even more telling is corporate leaders'

reliance on managers to implement organizational initiatives at a practical level where employees are most influenced. Raes et al. (2011) effectively theorized this managerial interface with top-management-teams. They illustrate the inextricable relationship between the strategy of top-management, and the implementation of lower-management, in determining a firm's success. This association explains why managers are highly regarded for their impact on operational performance (Schubert & Tavassoli, 2020). It is no mistake they are also critical in implementing diversity management.

Even more so, managerial perceptions and attitudes are central to this phenomenon. As laten behaviors, they can indicate the effectiveness of policies and systems within an organization. Understanding their implications can enable organizations to take adequate measures that includes those most trusted to improve organizational performance (McCalman & Paton, 2008). Therefore, it is imperative to understand how managers perceive and respond to diversity management initiatives in the workplace and, to a greater extent, when external complexities are mirrored within the firm.

Dissertation Structure

This dissertation embarks on its inquiry by delineating a structured approach to addressing its research problem and attaining several essential objectives. First, it leverages this phenomenon and a comprehensive conceptualization of diversity mechanisms, an essential groundwork laid out in Chapter 2. Albeit a strange and careless comment, even Justice Clarence Thomas candidly admitted his inability to understand diversity (Transcript of Oral Argument at 71, as cited by McDowell et al., 2023 pg. 2). Understanding the varying notions of what constitutes diversity initiatives are key to

deciphering their implications. According to its aims, this dissertation undertakes an exhaustive literature review, meticulously synthesizing various prevailing frameworks. This synthesis offers a succinct yet comprehensive understanding of diversity management, which provides a robust foundation for subsequent analyses and discussions.

Following the comprehensive literature review, the dissertation advances toward its second objective. The research entails meticulously examining the demographic, behavioral, and organizational implications of contemporary attitudes and behaviors toward diversity initiatives. This phase commences with delineating a robust methodological framework in Chapter 3. Sections within this chapter encompass the structural design employed by both studies, delineate research parameters, and expound upon their intended analytical procedures. These discussions rationalize the approaches for two distinct studies.

Study 1 lays the groundwork by undertaking a descriptive exploration of managers' attitudes toward diversity initiatives. The study’s outcomes align with the social fissures within the phenomenon. However, its limitations only reemphasize the necessity of refining the procedures for a more robust analysis, particularly in measuring perceptual attitudes.

Study 2, informed by the insights from Study 1, justifies a novel approach in conducting an effective methodological inquiry in Chapter 4, thereby balancing the exploratory nature of the project. In Table 1, seven propositions are listed. These procedures culminate in the core contribution of this dissertation: the meticulous

development of a valid and reliable instrument for measuring attitudes toward diversity management, thus making a significant addition to the diversity management literature.

The culmination of both studies enables the dissertation to fulfill its third objective by effectively benchmarking managerial attitudes post-2019.

Table 1. Methodological Propositions

Proposition 1:	Conduct an exploratory factor analysis of 20 Diversity Management Initiative Survey (DMI) items derived from Study 1 to produce distinct and reliable measurement scales.
Proposition 2:	Provide a descriptive analysis of managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity management initiatives, including the evaluated DMI scales, to identify statistical significance and summarize their characteristics among the managerial sample.
Proposition 3:	Conduct a correlation analysis of the new DMI scales by analyzing the continuous independent demographic variables of managers' age and political affiliation.
Proposition 4:	Analyze how the DMI scales relate to categorical demographic groups of managers, according to their gender, and race and ethnicity.
Proposition 5:	Analyze how the new DMI scales correlate with continuous variables such as organizational size and years of experience.
Proposition 6:	Analyze how the DMI scales relate to different organizational group variables, such as Level of Management, Type of Organization, and Current Work Modality.
Proposition 7:	Examine the correlated relationships between the DMI scales and managers' turnover intent.

Chapter 5 then explains the practical significance and implications derived from these studies, underscoring their relevance in contemporary organizational contexts. This section not only delineates the contributions of the research but also elucidates its implications for future studies, thereby enriching the discourse on diversity management. Through this comprehensive analysis, this dissertation advances an understanding of managerial attitudes toward diversity initiatives, providing valuable insights for both academia and practice.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Diversity

Diversity entails a variety of concepts and meanings throughout the literature. According to Thomas and Ely (1996), most people assume that diversity concerns increasing underrepresented groups historically marginalized by racial, national, gender, or class representation. This claim provides some merit. These dimensions are interwoven in conceptualizing organizational diversity and its value throughout the literature. To explore these avenues, this literature review first presents how diversity is conceptualized and defined. Then, it proceeds from diversity as a construct to its mechanisms by illustrating how they have evolved from social, legal, and business imperatives. Because these mechanisms are found to lack a stable typology, one is devised for this research. After presenting a theoretical framework, other aspects of the literature are explored.

Diversity Conceptualized

Some scholars conceptualize diversity as a fundamental institutional value. Embrick (2011) highlights that most organizations embrace this perspective due to its widespread acceptance and support among their members. From this standpoint, diversity is perceived as a morally and ethically desirable characteristic that organizations should actively promote. Other scholars, such as Demuijnck (2009) and Thomas and Ely (1996), share a similar viewpoint by emphasizing that diversity is typically assessed through the lenses of discrimination and fairness paradigms. These paradigms are fundamentally concerned with ensuring equitable treatment and equal opportunities, implying a commitment to unbiased employment standards.

This perspective on diversity reflects its historical connection to legislative guidelines that have shaped awareness and understanding of the concept. It also aligns with modern discussions of diversity in the context of biopolitics (Ahonen et al., 2014). Notably, the social unrest of 2019 signified a shift in the U.S. population's perception of diversity, and it underscored changes in corporate perspectives and their strategic approaches to this vital aspect of organizational culture.

Moreover, the value perspective is closely intertwined with diversity's conceptualization as functional principles within organizations. Matthew (1998), for instance, views diversity as an integral function within Human Resources (HR), asserting that organizational policies, processes, and systems are crafted to enhance the overall workforce experience. This perspective highlights the role of diversity in corporate efforts to enhance strategic decision-making (Gilbert et al.,1999), and shape HR practices to promote equity and inclusivity.

The emergence of equity and inclusion as diversity principles represents a critical evolution in the contemporary understanding of diversity. Such principles have become central to organizations' efforts to establish a more comprehensive and purposeful approach to increasing employee-groups with different backgrounds (Pless & Maak, 2004). Oliha-Donaldson (2020) traces the rise of these principles to significant moments in social activism, such as the Black Lives Matter movement in 2019. Firms have increasingly adopted diversity principles to underpin their diversity policies, enhance their equality profiles, and align with broader societal expectations.

Table 2 represents the historical evolution of DEI (Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion) principles and their transformation into an organizational standard for

addressing diversity. This evolution reflects the fundamental belief that everyone, regardless of their differences, should be treated fairly and equally—a concept firmly rooted in historical, constitutional, and legal foundations, as emphasized by Oliha-Donaldson (2020).

In addition to DEI principles, diversity is also conceptualized in its demographic context. Demographic diversity encompasses a multifaceted dimension of diversity that influences various organizational levels and shapes members' social dynamics. Scholars such as Lau and Murnighan (1998) emphasize the significance of demographic factors, including gender, race, and ethnicity, in the context of corporate success. Likewise, researchers like Guillaume et al. (2013) and Horwitz and Horwitz (2007) underscore the importance of understanding the demographic impact on organizational mechanisms and outcomes.

Some researchers advocate the importance of demographic diversity, resembled by their theoretical focus. Harrison et al. (2006) contend that demographic diversity is associated with group member attitudes, influenced by differences in age, gender, and racial attributes. Furthermore, studies by Kim et al. (2015) and Hostager and De Meuse (2008) emphasize the role of gender in shaping perceptions of diversity. Elsass and Graves (1997) argue that demographic diversity can result in negative experiences for minority groups due to underlying differences. Even at the leadership level, research by Kang et al. (2022) highlights the significance of demographic diversity in decision-making processes among board members. Given its profound impact on organizational dynamics and outcomes, demographic diversity is critical to diversity management.

Diversity Defined

The conceptualization of diversity is a multifaceted and complex construct (Mathews, 1998). Its definition can vary depending on the context. However, it is primarily influenced by its historical and legal contexts, even as it has evolved (Klarsfeld et al., 2012). A common thread among various conceptualizations of diversity is its inextricable link to perceived demographic differences (Ferris et al., 1996). This observation aligns with the interpretations of Mannix and Neale (2005), who drew insights from the works of Cross et al. (1994) and Morrison (1992). Rather than offering a generalized definition, scholars like Klarsfeld (2012) and his associates advocate defining diversity based on its demographic and cultural aspects, especially in the context of discriminatory practices against historically marginalized groups.

Table 3 presents viewpoints from leading scholars, which collectively emphasize diversity's focus on differences (Harrison & Klein, 2007; Jackson et al., 2005; Klarsfeld et al., 2012; Prause & Mujtaba, 2015). This emphasis on differences extends to demographic attributes that influence cognitive reactions to diversity policies or initiatives, whether those reactions are positive or negative. For the purposes of this study and the phenomena it explores, diversity is defined as articulated by Ferris et al. (1996, p. 25), who describe it as "the physical, demographic characteristics and social psychological differences reflected in attitudes, values, and norms." In this definition, scholars provide a comprehensive framework where diversity is manifested through fundamental attributes such as gender and ethnoracial factors, which in turn influence cognitive and behavioral responses that may result in discriminatory or nondiscriminatory reactions.

Table 2. Major Influences on the Concept of Diversity, Oliha-Donaldson, (2020)

	Occurrence	Impact
1st Wave	Civil Rights Movement, Government Reform, and Self Determination	Created more focus on civil rights
	-1954: Brown Versus Board of Education	Conduits for social justice ideals
	- 1964: Civil Rights Act	Initial focus on diversity efforts for historically marginalized groups
		Requires institutions to address past discrimination
2nd Wave	Affirmative Action Legislation	
	- 1990s (late): Introduction to the concept of diversity	Focus on affirmative action, equal access, and recognition of HMGs
	- Focused on multiculturalism	
		The prominence of multiculturalism
3rd Wave	Emergence of Diversity as a Construct	Calls for social justice, access, and representation
	- 1990s: Diversity emerges	The concept of diversity begins emerges as a rhetorical framework
4th Wave	Emergence of Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion as a Construct	
	- 2000s: Diversity used with equity and Inclusion	Theorists suggest it should be managed

Table 3. Definitions on Diversity

Authors	Definition
Harrison & Klein, 2007, p. 1	Allocation of differences among members of an entity
Prause & Mujtaba, 2015, p. 16	Acknowledging understanding, accepting, valuing and creating and celebrating differences among people with respect to age, class, ethnicity, gender, physical and mental ability, race, sexual orientation, spiritual practices, and public assistance, status.
Klarsfeld et al., 2012, p. I	An all inclusion of differences discovered in members across a broad spectrum of demographics
Jackson et al., 2003, p. 802	A collective team-level concept that reflect differences among members of an interdependent workgroup in relation to a specific attribute.
Tasheva & Hillman, 2019, p. 748	A multifaceted construct that includes human capital and social capital.
Ferris et al., 1996, p. 25	The physical demographic characteristics and social psychological differences reflected in attitudes, values, and norms.

Basis for Diversity Management

Historical facets contribute to how the concept of diversity management evolved and the manner in which organizations adopted it. Diversity management is regarded as an element of affirmative action and equal opportunity laws (Kelly & Dobbin, 1998; Wright et al.,1995). Specifically, Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act provided the legal framework for coercing firms to provide equal employment opportunities for minorities along with President Johnson's Executive Order 11246 (Gilbert et al., 1999). However, the requirement for organizations to measure their progress to achieve diversity goals and quotas was realized when President Nixon issued Executive Order 11478, according to Gilbert et al. (1999). These mandates coerce organizations to implement employment practices to address racial inequities in the workplace (Kersten, 2000).

However, Kovach et al. (2004) point out that the coercive aspects of these laws in requiring quotas contributed to stereotyping minorities who benefited from them. They attribute this challenge to the usually strong affirmative action policies that enforce preferential treatment. This association leads to conflicts in the workplace linked to negative perceptions and attitudes. According to some researchers (Cox, 1991; Kidder et al., 2004), Whites tend to oppose other groups' preferential treatment. They stigmatize them as incompetent by assuming that mandates force organizations to hire them based on their demographics rather than their qualifications (Leslie et al., 2014; Pettigrew & Martin, 1987). Experimental studies by Heilman and Alcott (2001) and Heilman et al. (1996) found similar stigmas attributed to female members based on gender differences. The negative views regarding affirmative action mandates hindered organizations from initially embracing diversity outcomes.

The term *diversity management* originated from a report by the Hudson Institute in 1987 (Lorbiecki & Jack, 2000). The report reflected the views of 200 executives in their support of diversity (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000). It also became renowned for forewarning corporations that the workforce in 2000 would be dominated by Blacks, Hispanics, women, and other minority groups (Riccucci, 1997). These estimates of changing demographics, known as multiculturalism, became one of the factors that influenced private and public organizations to become attractive to the term, according to Kersten (2000) and (Cox (1991). The idea of multiculturalism stems from predictions of population growth and changing demographics, where inevitable coexistence with other cultures occurs (Fourny & Ha, 1997). Corporations sought diversity management

strategies to reduce anticipated risks to human resource concerns, such as labor sources, team efficiency, and talent management.

Besides multiculturalism, the increase in class action cases of employment discrimination on Wall Street in the late 1990s and early 2000s also influenced firms to reexamine their management of diversity (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). Selmi (2005) notes that these settlements spanned several industries, including $150 million paid by State Farm Insurance Company in 1992 and $81.5 million paid by Publix Groceries in 1997. Other corporations, such as Morgan Stanley, Merrill Lynch, and Smith Barney, issued millions of dollars to resolve sex discrimination claims (Dobbins & Kalev, 2016). These cases highlighted inequalities for women and a negative view of corporate cultures and industries. Factoring changes in the workforce and excessive lawsuits, firms found diversity management to be a sensible alternative to managing diversity through legislative mandates. According to Nkomo et al., (2019 pg. 500), this change became "an epochal shift to the concept of organizational diversity."

Conceptualization of Diversity Management

Researchers conceptualize diversity management as a different approach to corporate diversity issues. Gilbert et al., (1999) pointedly refer to the concept and its derivatives (Portocarrero & Carter, 2022) as a replacement for affirmative action in serving as a crucial element of an organization's survival. This assertion is supported by Staley (2017, as cited by Dover et al., 2020). The researcher notes that firms spend an estimated $16 billion annually on diversity management. Nkomo et al. (2019) also regard this change as an epochal shift from legislative mandates. Firms are incentivized to demonstrate their commitment to diversity management through their significant

investments. According to Ahonen and his peers (2014, p. 270), "diversity management has emerged as a strategic approach to managing differences between individuals to bring about positive workplace relations and to improve organizational performance in the face of demographic shifts in society."

Ivancevich and Gilbert's (2000) comprehensive comparison of affirmative action and diversity management clearly illustrates why companies find diversity management attractive (See Table 4). There are two particularly relevant elements of this comparison. First, organizations discover they can effectively use diversity management to promote HR strategies and be aligned with corporate objectives as agreed upon by Kossek et al. (2006). Also, in Table 4, this notion indicates the inclusiveness of diversity management that encourages a more diverse workforce than traditionally focusing on women, minority races, and ethnicities. Second, organizations regard diversity management as a way to transform behaviors and contribute to corporate goals rather than enforce compliance with regulatory mandates (Kersten, 2000). In this way, managing and valuing diversity makes indirect references to affirmative action and equal opportunity more digestible (Edelman et al., 2001).

Besides meeting affirmative action mandates, researchers conceptualize diversity management as a way corporations reap other benefit. For instance, some researchers (Bassett-Jones, 2005; Pless & Maak, 2004; Cox, 1991) posit that the outcomes of diverse organizations bring increased creativity, innovation, better decision-making, and more market share.

Table 4. Comparing Differences in Diversity Management and Affirmative Action

Affirmative Action	Diversity Management
Reactive and based on law and moral imperatives.	Not tied to strategic human resource plan. Proactive
Not linked in any formal manner to team building.	Focuses on building diverse teams.
Focuses primarily on women and people of color.	Inclusive - race, ethnicity, age, religion, sexual orientation, physical limitations considered.
Emphasis is primarily with employees and not external constituents.	Considers diversity of external constituency, more diversity in employees and recruitment pool, and a more diverse stakeholder pool.
Works at making individuals conform to organizational customs, norms, and values.	Celebrates and respects differences in values, customs, and norms.
Uses the law to enforce discrimination against alleged and actual violators.	Addresses the bias of people toward others who are different.

a. *Table is derived from Ivancevich & Gilbert (2000, p. 89)*

As far as diversity management is concerned, this signifies its economic value. In the same vein, there is ample evidence that diversity in the workplace leads to better performance. (Guillaume et al, 2017; Jackson & Alvarez, 1992). Wright and his research associates (1995) also found that markets react positively when firms adopt human management resources that effectively reduce discrimination.

Scholars also conceptualize diversity management as an altruistic notion that extends beyond economics. Patrick and Kumar (2012) and Mathews (1998) contend that managing diversity facilitates the best in each organizational member through respect for differences. They conceptualize that as a process, diversity management creates positive work environments where the similarities and differences of individuals are valued. This view is unique in its emphasis on individual members. Its approach enables all members to reach their potential and maximize their contributions to an organization's strategic

goals and objectives. Additionally, this view considers talent management and a better workplace experience where employees can thrive. Gilbert and her colleagues (1999) believe that diversity management fosters employee integration. In this respect, the concept suggests the assimilation of diverse members into an organization. The merits of this view seem to factor an organization's culture and its members' differences.

It is important to note how diversity management can be associated with fairness and equality (Bleijenbergh et al., 2010; Mousa et al., 2020; Pitts, 2006). In particular, Mousa and his associates (2020) conceptualize that it can be regarded as managerial practices that promote equality, appreciation, and engagement for members and contribute to an organization's strategic goals. They also describe diversity management as voluntary organizational practices designed to deal with minority employee unfairness and exclusion. Another example is offered by Foster and Harris (2005, p. 5). They define *diversity management* as "an approach to fair treatment that encourages employers to harness and value a wide range of visible differences in their employees. “

Defining Diversity Management

Table 5 illustrates the most notable definitions of diversity management. Interestingly, a few statements indicate linkages to affirmative action, while most definitions express an organizational perspective that signals goals or espouses values, such as commitment, culture, or performance. This list of definitions suggests that scholars associate diversity management less with affirmative action. Their preference also denotes the contemporary view of corporate use of diversity management.

As such, a definition of diversity management is borrowed for the purpose of this study:

> A strategic organizational approach to workforce diversity development, organizational culture change, and empowerment of the workforce. It represents a shift from activities and assumptions defined by affirmative action to inclusive management practices that reflect the workforce diversity and its potential. (Arredondo, 1996, p. 1)

Considering Arredondo's (1996) definition and the scholarly themes items in Table 5, corporations predominantly view diversity management as a strategic component to address diversity concerns within their organizations. To reiterate an earlier point, this perspective contrasts with the notion that diversity management is merely regarded as a strategy aimed solely at meeting regulatory mandates. For instance, Armstrong et al. (2010) argue that diversity management can significantly contribute to an organization's performance, such as productivity, innovation, and decreases in employee turnover.

Criticisms of Diversity Management

On the other hand, some scholars reserve criticism for diversity management, noting that it undervalues affirmative action imperatives in preserving equality. Soldan & Nankervis (2014) posit that diversity management and its rhetoric could significantly differ from employees' experiences. At the same time, Berrey (2014) and Kersten (2000) concur that diversity management minimizes racial and gender concerns by not rendering the same level of sincerity as equal opportunity and affirmative action mandates. In a similar context, Ahmed (2007) suggests that diversity can detach from the history of the struggle of disadvantaged groups in creating an insincere, universal solution to equality. In popularizing diversity, she further explains that it portrays a marketing scheme in concealing the true nature of organizational dynamics.

As stated earlier, Bowman and Cox (2022) theorize this predicament as the principle-practice gap, claiming a disconnect between workplace beliefs and actions. Kersten (2000) asserts that diversity management reflects a distinct racial ideology obscured by its appeasement to organizational politics. She argues that the ideology is embedded within political and social environments that have become intolerant of unfairness to minorities and women.

Table 5. Definitions of Diversity Management

Themes	Scholars	Definitions
Affirmative Action	Arredondo, 1996, p. 17	A strategic organizational approach to workforce diversity development, organizational culture change, and empowerment of the workforce.
	Pitts, 2006	A multifaceted concept and defined in terms of its management functions that fall into AA or EO programs.
	Pitts, 2009, as cited by Kim et al., 2015	Ensures that all organizational functions and processes serve employees regardless of gender, age, nationality, race, and physical condition.
	Bleijenbergh, et al., 2010, p. 414	A successor to traditional affirmative action or equal opportunities programs focusing on specific social groups: sex, ethnicity/race and age.
Change	Gilbert, et al., 1999, p. 66	A complete organizational cultural change designed to foster appreciation of demographic, ethnic, and individual differences.
Commitment	Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000, p. 77	Organizational commitment to recruit, retain, reward, and promote a heterogeneous mix of productive, motivated, and committed workers including people of color, Whites, and the physical challenged.
	Kirton & Greene, 2009	The systematic and planned commitment of organizations to recruit and retain organizational members from diverse demographic backgrounds.
	Omboi, 2011, p. 4	The systematic and planned commitment by the organizations to recruit, retain, reward, and promote a heterogeneous mix of employees.
	Bassett-Jones, 2005, p. 170	The systematic and planned commitment on the part of organizations to recruit and retain employees with diverse backgrounds and abilities.
Culture	Barlett, 2000 as cited by Morrison et al., 2006, p. 277	An organization that promotes individual behaviors and actions that create the environment which leverages diversity.
	Patrick & Kumar, 2012	A process intended to create and maintain a positive work environment where the similarities and differences of individuals are valued.

Table 5. (Continued).

Themes	Scholars	Definitions
Performance	Hubbard, 2004, p. 27	The process or planning for, organizing, directing, and supporting these collective mixtures in a way that adds a measurable difference to organizational performance.
	Thomas, 1990, p. 112	Enabling every member of the work force to perform to his or her potential.
Practices	Olsen & Martin, 2012, p. 1169	The utilization of HRM practices to (i) increase, maintain, or ensure the variation in human capital on some given dimension(s) does not hinder the achievement of organizational objectives, and/or (iii) it facilitates the achievement of organizational objectives.
	Seliverstova & Pierog, 2021, p. 119	Policies and practices designed to recognize and appreciate the uniqueness and differences among employees.
	Manoharan & Singal, 2017	Policies and practices that are designed to allow, acknowledge, and recognize diversity; and leverage these differences to support an organizational goal.
Treatment	Foster & Harris, 2005, p. 5	An approach to fair treatment that encourages employers to harness and value a wide range of visible differences in their employees.
Voluntary	Gilbert, et al., 1999, p. 66	A complete organizational cultural change designed to foster appreciation of demographic, ethnic, and individual differences.
	Sippola, 2007, p. 21	A voluntary means to manage a diversified workforce for the benefit of an organization.
Initiatives	Kulik 2014, p. 132	The organization's formal diversity management activities.
Economic	(Lorbiecki & Jack 2000, p. S23	An instrument or tool that uses people's diversity as the means of achieving economic end goals.

The economic benefits of diversity management are also questioned. Lorbiecki and Jack (2000) step away from the traditional regard for diversity management and use a discursive argument to suggest that diversity management aids companies in achieving their economic goals rather than addressing social concerns. They conclude that this position promotes inequities in the workplace and also argue that it undermines the historical basis for workplace diversity. In essence, leaders may become more concerned with profits than employee welfare.

Though there are benefits and criticisms, there is an overall desire to support the ethical imperative of treating everyone fairly, which diversity management offers. Demuijnck (2009) contends that organizations have a moral obligation to prevent discrimination. He presents our constitutional doctrine as the democratic rationale that fair treatment is inherently required of all, regardless of sex, religion, or ethnoracial origin. Similarly, his argument relates to the earlier discussion on how diversity principles strengthen support for diversity management.

Typologies of Diversity Management

Unsurprisingly, the various positions on diversity management mirror the same complexity of diversity as a construct. Various diversity management frameworks illustrate that scholars' attempts to define and interpret the role of diversity mechanisms are highly dependent upon various contexts. This challenge establishes an unstable typology in comprehending how diversity management should be operationalized in relation to diversity initiatives.

As Kollen (2021) declares, the definition of diversity management is far from being well-established. He acknowledges the complexity and multifaceted nature of the

concept, which encompasses a range of dimensions, including age, gender, ethnoracial factors, and politics, among others. Ahonen et al. (2014) highlight the importance of contextualizing diversity within both a structured framework and an operational context to understand its full implications. Likewise, Foster and Harris (2005, p. 5) caution against the lack of a stable standard for defining diversity management, noting that this absence can lead to inconsistent practices. Such inconsistencies can be particularly problematic for this study, as they may yield unreliable research conclusions regarding the conceptualization of diversity management and its mechanisms.

The challenge of defining diversity management is notable, given the prevalent use of frameworks by researchers to explore theories, introduce typologies, and their attempts to standardize its complex concepts. Frameworks serve as integrative tools that help operationalize intricate constructs, offering clearer insights into theories (Farrow et al., 2021). However, rather than comprehensively operationalizing the theoretical aspects of diversity management, many scholars in the field adopt a general approach to its description. These efforts often involve focusing on causes and effects or linking the concept with overarching theories. Such frameworks include generalized references to diversity mechanisms within sociological and psychological domains (Lorbiecki & Jack, 2000; Olsen & Martins, 2012; Syed & Ozbilgin, 2009), strategic implications (Carstens & De Kock, 2017; Shen et al., 2009), and organizational outcomes (Barry & Bateman, 1996). It is necessary to distinguish how diversity management exists to conceptualize its relevance and the mechanisms it employs.

Identifying and reframing the few mosaic notions about each mechanism of diversity management may remedy this challenge, at least for this study. Additionally, the

nature of the literature only allows for borrowing ideas from a few scholars. As a start, Kulik (2014) understands what constitutes a diversity management system. She brilliantly describes the hierarchical relationship within the operational domain of diversity management by contextualizing its framework as a diversity management system. She also illustrates how various components of a diversity management system appear under this structure, such as diversity programs, practices, and initiatives. As a comparable reference, Kaiser and his colleagues (2013) refer to diversity management systems as diversity structures.

As a pragmatic reference, Kulik's (2014) notion of a diversity management system rationalizes the relationship among its components suited to their intended use. This theoretical structure is the first step in addressing diversity management conceptual challenges. It avoids observations on how components' terminologies are often misinterpreted vis-à-vis their technical purposes, given the number of initiatives and their specialized purpose. As such, further operationalizing Kulik's (2014) three other components (programs, practices, and initiatives) requires accounting for their limited definitions in the literature.

As illustrated in Table 6, the literature scarcely defines and describes the use of diversity programs. This omission may be tied to how researchers interchange the term with other components, such as diversity initiatives or practices. Kulik's (2014) ingenuity is again borrowed to structure this typology. As part of her comprehensive description of diversity management systems, she suggests that diversity programs function as an organizational mechanism in conducting management activities. This view infers that all activities supporting diversity management can be regarded as a program. Furthermore,

as formal activities, they serve as an umbrella for aligning goals with diversity practices. The simplicity of this definition is also helpful for this study. It infers the programmatic nature of diversity programs and their state of maturity over time, which enables firms to achieve and sustain diversity goals.

Table 6. Definitions of Diversity Management Programs

Authors	Definitions
Kulik 2014 p.132	Diversity programs are an organization's formal diversity management activities.
Richard & Kirby, 1999 p.110	Diversity programs are voluntary programs initiated by organizations in an effort to assure that people from differing backgrounds are able to work together in such a way that they are productive individually and as a group.

As with the previous component, definitions of diversity practices are also limited. One explanation may be attributed to the autological nature of the term. Although diversity possesses many layers, combining it with the term *practice* may associate its meaning with an activity or an effort. The straightforward notion of the term may also relate to its inter-use with other components of the diversity system, such as diversity management, programs, or initiatives, as also observed in several studies (see Carstens & De Kock, 2017; Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Kidder et al., 2004; Olsen & Martins, 2012; Shen et al., 2009). Overall, diversity practices signify a managerial aspect of institutionalizing diversity activities to realize positive outcomes in changing the attitudes of organizational members. Table 7 lists seven common types of diversity programs by Kalev, Dobbin, and Kelly (2006) that aid this understanding.

Table 7. Seven Common Types of Diversity Practices

Types	Purpose
Affirmative Action Plans	Designed to set goals and evaluating progress
Diversity Committees & Taskforces	Oversee diversity initiatives and proposes remedies
Diversity Training	Provides comprehensive diversity training
Feedback Evaluations	Provides oversight of managers' performance to diversity
Diversity Managers	Monitors of organizational diversity efforts
Networking Programs	Professional social support for women and minorities
Mentoring Programs	Coaching services for women and minorities

Table 8 further illustrates the notions of diversity management practices as a managerial activity. Only Mousa and his colleagues (2020) extend its meaning to include strategic implications. The broadness of their definition needs to include connecting approaches to the layered systems of diversity management. In a study on HR strategies, Madera (2013) defines *diversity management practices* as supporting HR policies focused on increasing the diversity of an organization's workforce. The definition aligns with the traditional use of diversity practices to support HR outcomes that are tied to attitudes employers want their employees to embrace. A more comprehensive definition is required to illustrate the extent to which diversity practices nest into an organization's overall systemic approach to managing diversity. As previously mentioned, Ahonen et al. (2014) clearly emphasize the need to define diversity within its appropriate context.

Kulik's work in 2014 and Leslie's research in 2019 are both valuable contributions to this effort. Kulik (2014) introduces her concept of diversity management practices and how they relate to the outcomes that members experience within an organization’s

diversity management programs. While it is true that diversity events can bolster an organization's overall diversity program, Leslie (2019) enhances an understanding by offering a typological solution that illustrates the intricate interplay among the fundamental components of an organization's diversity management system.

Table 8. Definitions of Diversity Practices

Authors	Definitions
Madera, 2013, p. 126	Defines diversity management practices as complementary, interrelated Human Resources policies that focus on increasing and marinating a diverse workforce Dyer and Reeves, (1995, as cited by Madera, 2013: 126).
Kulik 2014, p.132	Diversity management practices reflect the organization's diversity management [programs] as they are experienced by managers and employees in the organization.
Spaaij, et al., 2018, p. 281	Researchers use Mor Barak (2014) definition to introduce diversity practices as diversity work in defining actions that are designed to create diversity of members from various backgrounds in formal and informal organizational structures.
Yang & Konrad, 2011b, p. 6	Diversity management practices consist of the set of formalized practices developed and implemented by organizations to manage diversity effectively among all organizational stakeholders.
Mousa et al., 2020, p. 1250	Describe diversity practices as providing the appreciation and engagement of members that contribute to an organization's strategic and tactical objectives.

Table 9 illustrates diversity practices as the mechanisms of diversity management initiatives that also indicate behavioral outcomes. As conceptualized by their definitions, they are nondiscrimination practices, resource practices, and accountability practices. Nondiscrimination-based practices pertain to actions or objectives designed to implement identity blind or EEO-related HR actions. These actions may include hiring, promoting, training, or establishing diversity leadership positions. Resource-based practices provide opportunities, preferential treatment, and support for minorities, such as mentoring and sponsorship programs, social support, recruiting, or career development. And accountability-based practices relate to monitoring outcomes and measuring progress to achieve diversity goals and objectives.

Considering Leslie's (2019) framework and Kulik's (2014) definition of diversity programs, the following definition is presented for the purposes of this study: Diversity management practices are technical approaches that enable an organization's diversity objectives by preventing discrimination, providing resources, or instituting accountability.

In defining diversity initiatives, scholars differentiate them according to their mechanisms or intended purpose within a diversity management system. As implied earlier, other attempts may include cross-utilizing or intermixing the components within the diversity management system framework. Comparably, Meena and Vanka (2017) use the term diversity HR management practices to describe a comparable concept of diversity practices. In re-referencing Table 7, Kalev et al. (2006) present types of diversity practices that can be further contextualized in their parallel reference to an

organization's intended functions, highlighted under the purpose column. References to programs and plans to establish a systematic relationship to an outcome are notable.

Table 9. Leslie (2019), Typological Framework of Diversity Management Initiatives

Categories of Diversity Management Initiatives	Definition	Examples
Prevent Discrimination Practices	Referred to as identity blind and EEO practices that are intended to facilitate progress in achieving diversity goals, by ensuring HR practices such as hiring, promotion, etc.) are based on qualifications and not demographics	Diversity training Merit based decision making Diverse Suppliers Merit-based promoting & hiring
Resource Practices	Identity-conscious, or opportunity based and preferential treatment practices that are intended to facilitate diversity goals progress by providing targets with additional support and opportunities	Mentoring programs Networking programs Preferential treatment Targeted Recruitment Diversity Statements Targeted Training Diversity networking groups
Accountability Practices	Referred as accountability practices, intended to facilitate progress in diversity goals by increasing responsibility for monitoring diversity outcomes	Diversity Plans Diversity Performance Evaluations Diversity Positions Grievance System

However, as with programs and practices, few concrete definitions are offered for diversity initiatives (see Table 10). Arredondo (1996, as cited by Wentling, 2004) defines diversity initiatives as specific activities, programs, policies, and any other formal processes or efforts designed for promoting organizational culture change related to diversity. As a result of the references to policies and formal processes, Arredondo (1996) also associates her definition with HR functions and responsibilities. Dover et al.

(2020) claim that diversity initiatives are designed to improve workplace fairness. She suggests it focuses on preventing discrimination before it arises. These definitions are acceptable to operationalize a dimension of a framework, but they ultimately fall short of establishing a standard concept.

Table 10. Definitions of Diversity Management Initiatives

Authors	Definitions
(Arredondo 1996, as cited by Wentling, 2004)	Specific activities, programs, policies and any other formal processes or efforts designed for promoting organizational culture change related to diversity.
(Society for Human Resource Management, 2009 as cited Leslie, 2019, p. 540)	Implementing of one or more practices directed at improving the workplace experiences and outcomes of employees or groups who are disadvantaged in society.
(Pitts, et al. 2010)	Address the concerns of historically underrepresented groups, such as people of color and women, but may also focus on other dimensions of diversity.

To further clarify these notions, Leslie's (2019) framework is used, due to its logical correspondence to Kulik's (2014) comprehensive diversity management framework. As illustrated in Figure 1, it codifies the various components of a diversity management systems into a logical structure that intuitive reveals the function of each mechanism. In particular, the definition of diversity initiative emphasizes the role of diversity initiatives within a diversity management system and links the term with practices and programs.

The Relevance of Diversity Initiative*s*

Among the three components, diversity initiatives serve as the most suitable medium for this study in illustrating how corporations respond to social concerns in addressing diversity within their organizations and politically charged environments, such as responses to events like the 2019 unrest. Figure 1 depicts this conceptual relationship among each component within a diversity management system. Furthermore, the previous discussions of each component depict how they relate within the hierarchical structure of a diversity management system and how they enable a firm's diversity climate. In this context, diversity climate is defined as the shared impressions of an organization's values toward diversity that are based on its programs, initiatives, and practices (Kulik, 2014).

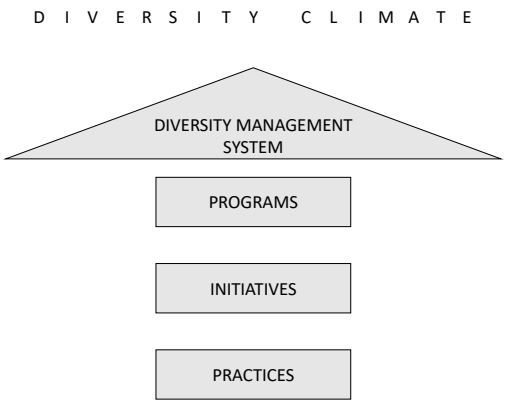


Figure 1. Integration of Leslie (2019) and Kulik (2014) Frameworks

Defining Diversity Management Initiatives

For this study, the definition from SHRM (2009, as cited by Leslie 2019, p. 540) is adopted, stipulating that "diversity management initiatives are emergent practices designed to enhance the experiences of traditionally disadvantaged groups." Furthermore,

the use of diversity initiatives or management throughout this study provides a standard reference for the broad components of the diversity management system.

Effectiveness of Diversity Management

With a set of typologies, the effectiveness of diversity management is now discussed, given its ongoing debate. The varying positions correlate with the complex nature that diversity entails on how to measure, evaluate, or achieve desirable outcomes. The literature reveals that scholars either rationalize their use, advise on how to make them more effective, or outright caution about the potential outcomes. Some researchers (Demuijnck, 2009; Dover et al., 2020; Kidder et al, 2004) believe organizations can improve the effectiveness of diversity initiatives by rationalizing their purpose. They advise that this may be achieved by justifying the moral value of diversity initiatives by aligning them with anti-discrimination policies or rules that create the legal basis for organizational members to participate.

In addition, the aforementioned researchers contend that reasons for diversity management can be leveraged from its institutional benefits, such as obtaining a competitive advantage or marketing a reputation to stockholders for commitment to fairness. Yang and Konrad (2011b) rationalize diversity management effectiveness differently. They suggest that effectiveness should denote how practices intend to provide positive outcomes to measure it accurately. This approach may include increasing a more diverse population, improving working relationships, increasing value, or improving the diversity climate.

There are views on how to improve effectiveness. Scholars (Dezsö & Ross, 2012; Kellough & Naff, 2004) believe that effectiveness can be improved through leader

support. In other words, how leaders advocate or promote diversity can indeed drive their focus and commitment to organizational fairness. Along the same lines, Arredondo (1996) specifically theorizes that diversity initiatives can be implemented effectively by promoting the right culture, values, norms, and practices. These elements serve to convert initiatives into practices and sustain members' perceptions and attitudes. From an alternate perspective, Mathews (1998) posits that effective diversity management depends on where the diversity function is located within an organization's structure. He suggests that the location of diversity programs within an organization should be combined with an HR function or embedded in its hierarchical relationship. He adds that the structure would depend on the needs of an organization.

Some researchers claim that effectiveness can be realized through specific initiatives. For instance, Richard and his coauthors (2013) illustrate that diversity initiatives that provide mentorship and social support to minority members can achieve targeted goals for minority retention. The claim is similar to those suggested by other scholars (Combs & Luthans, 2007; Hanover & Cellar, 1998; Kalinoski et al., 2013; King et al., 2015) who argue that diversity training can improve employee behavior, cultural awareness, and perceptions. Understandably, organizations' reliance on training would result in strong support for it.

However, others question whether any mechanisms of a diversity management system can provide invariable outcomes. For federal agencies, where regulatory guidelines are prominent, Naff and Kellough (2003) insist that diversity programs do very little to create an equitable workplace for minorities and women. Dobbin and Kalev (2016; Kalev et al., 2006) acknowledge that some diversity initiatives are likely

ineffective because they force compliance. They suggest that activities, such as diversity training, appraisals with diversity goals, or even hiring tests to detect bias, do not increase diversity.

Likewise, some scholars claim that increasing diversity may fail to achieve the performance outcomes upon which firms hedge their strategies (Jayne & Dipboye, 2004; Solebello et al., 2016). Such skepticism even extends to the effectiveness of diversity training (Pendry et al., 2007). Moreover, Leslie (2019) and others (Dover et al., 2020; Kidder et al., 2004; Portocarrero & Carter, 2022; Spaaij et al., 2018) caution there are unintended consequences to implementing diversity initiatives. In particular, Leslie (2019) along with Downey et al. (2015) argue that an organization could reap its intended objectives, such as increasing representation, reducing career gaps, and promoting inclusion. While on the other hand, its workforce may see diversity initiatives as window dressing (Dobbin et al., 2011; Kaiser et al., 2022; Leslie, 2019). Leslie (2019) further suggests that this outcome could result in inaccurate metrics, unfavorable perceptions from other members, and a decreased representation of minority groups and women. As mentioned earlier, Sabharwal (2014) asserts that diversity initiatives may even create hostile work environments. The basis for these arguments on effectiveness rests on the elusive reactions that members may harbor.

Perceptions & Attitudes

Members' perceptions (Smith et al., 2012) and attitudes are common reflections of diversity management within organizations. Lindsay and Norman (2013) note that *perceptions* are related to how individuals interpret their environments, influenced by their sensory experiences. Especially important, Pickens (2005) clarifies that a person's

perceptual state is affected by prior experiences and may differ from reality. As a foundational construct, *attitude* is regarded by Allport (1933) as an ingrained mindset shaped by individual experiences, which tends to guide a person's behavior. Although perception and attitude are closely intertwined, the distinguishing aspects of members' attitudes are significant.

In fact, a complex construct (Jamieson & Zanna, 2014), *attitude* can be understood through its many dimensions. Krosnick and Petty (1995) classify the prevailing aspects of *attitude* into four dimensions. These explanations provide a more digestible understanding of its relevance to this research:

1. Attitudes can materialize into a certain extent of behavior, which may be negative or positive. This objective mindset may simply denote whether they may be for diversity mechanisms or against them.
2. Attitudes may be linked to the amount of knowledge a person possesses regarding the object of their behavior. In this case, a person's mindset is limited to what he knows or understands about diversity programs and their intended purpose.
3. Attitudes reflect a person's judgment of an object. This dimension denotes the value or lack of value a diversity mechanism might hold after a person renders a certain degree of thinking.
4. Attitudes denote the degree of importance an object might hold for a person. According to Krosnick et al. (1993), this reaction may relate to how deeply a person cares about a particular object.

All in all, the derivatives of these notions point to the influence of a member's experience on their perceptual or attitudinal demeanor (Krosnick et al., 1993). Perceptions of fairness

may hinge on the outcomes of diversity mechanisms, as suggested by a study from Windscheid et al. (2015). The study suggests that employees' negative perceptions stem from the outcomes of diversity initiatives.

Although research remains limited, other scholarship ideas also show that perceptions and attitudes are influenced by their linkage between diversity management and affirmative action. These studies introduce both alternative and conventional perspectives, similarly regarding minority employees' perceptions of fairness, as highlighted in the works of Pitts (2009) and Elsass and Graves (1997). Furthermore, Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000) argue that diversity management initiatives, designed to combat discrimination, positively impact employee perceptions. This view is echoed by Daly (1995), Harrison et al. (2006), Kidder et al. (2004), Richard et al. (2000), and Richard and Kirby (1999), who contend that diversity efforts linked to affirmative action generate positive attitudes among employees when they are perceived as fair and justified.

Other behavioral researchers pose a more pointed argument that ethnoracial factors affect employees' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity programs, apart from the distinct association with affirmative action. Research by Riordan and Shore (1997) advocates that ethnoracial factors play a significant role in the attitudes and perceptions of employees with similar demographic characteristics. They conclude that racial attributes can affect the dynamic social and psychological interactions among organizational members, leading to complex behavioral outcomes. In a related vein, Kaiser et al. (2022) discuss how perceptions of racial victimization are shifting away from traditional viewpoints held by minority groups. In line with the backlash observed

in 2023, these researchers also claim that some Whites perceive themselves as victims due to their organization's support for diversity programs. Overall, race continues to play a significant role in how the fairness of diversity initiatives is regarded.

For gender-based distinctions, several studies offer differing perspectives on diversity management. Outcomes of gender-focused research are often compared because women and men perceive fairness at work differently (Lee & Farh, 1999). Conversely, Graves and Powell (1994) argue that both men and women may perceive diversity initiatives as biased against their gender. Kidder et al. (2004) claim that attitudes are negative when the opposite gender is given preferential treatment. In general, gender can reveal different perceptions and attitudes.

Researchers further note the uniqueness of men's reactions to diversity initiatives. For example, Mor Barak et al. (1998) found that white men feel less comfortable with diversity initiatives compared to their minority and female colleagues. Martins and Parsons (2007) emphasize the complexity of these perspectives by demonstrating that men’s preexisting beliefs about gender discrimination significantly influence their attitudes towards diversity practices. This view underscores the impact of historical and cultural viewpoints on the acceptance of diversity. Similarly, Kaiser et al. (2013) observe that white men are more likely to perceive organizations as fair when implementing diversity management practices to reduce discrimination.

Regarding the perceptual uniqueness of women, Kim et al. (2015) note that women may view diversity management positively simply because it exists. This optimistic perception is likely due to prevalent gender disparities in wages and promotions, which position women as probable beneficiaries of diversity initiatives.

Specifically within ethnoracial groups, the literature on diversity highlights white women's unique interest in diversity programs, as indicated by studies such as those by Dobbin and Kalev (2011), Kidder et al. (2004), Richard and Kirby (1998), and Kossek and Zonia (1993).

Given this context, it is peculiar that some aspects of white women's attitudes and perceptions toward diversity initiatives now resemble those of white men, a generalization established by Kidder et al. (2004). The researchers propose there is more skepticism among this group. Other scholars, such as Richard and Kirby (1998) and Kossek and Zonia (1993), suggest this nuance indicates that white women are more inclined to support diversity initiatives when these programs are grounded in social, legal, or ethical principles, emphasizing fair treatment and redress for past discrimination. This argument is framed against the backdrop of how women respond to hiring decisions informed by diversity goals.

On the other hand, Dobbin and Kalev (2011) argue that the prevalence of white women in key positions determines the extent to which firms may employ diversity programs. They suggest that their larger proportions in leadership positions can have a more significant impact than corporate culture or external pressures on a firm's diversity initiatives. Furthermore, the prevailing distinction among attitude considerations based on policies, race, and gender is that justifications (as previously commented on findings by Demuijnck, 2009; Dover et al., 2020; Kidder et al., 2004) are important in members' sense of fairness for regarding diversity mechanisms.

The significance of race and gender in these discussions highlights the complexities introduced by individual perceptions and attitudes toward diversity

management. However, aggregating these attitudes at the managerial level magnifies their relevance to corporate strategy. The following section pivots to the organizational approaches to these constructs to understand this significance.

Corporate Assumptions

Arredondo (1996) theorizes that organizations fall into two groups in their assumptions about managers' perceptual or attitudinal regard for diversity management initiatives. First, that organizations assume that managers are void of bias and fully embrace such initiatives. And second, that managers will perceive and react to diversity management initiatives negatively. Although empirical studies are scarce, scholars discuss managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity programs in terms of organizational climate or resistance (Dass & Parker, 1999). Moreover, this focus is consistent with the role that managers play in the workplace. As Guillaume and his colleagues (2017) claim, managers who implement diversity initiatives are influenced by their organization's climate. In this context, climate is further contextualized as perceptions and attitudes (see definition on diversity climate on page 40).

Admittedly, the assertion by Guillaume et al., (2017) implies that managers are expected to carry out the corporate vision and achieve organizational objectives. In this case, the corporation presumes that managers' professional attitudes are successfully shaped and crystalized by their commitment. Nevertheless, Dobbin et al. (2011) and others (To et al., 2023) argue that only some managers may fully embrace diversity management, although external pressures may coerce their firms to adopt them. They rationalize that coercive pressures or personal beliefs would likely lead to resistance; just as negative perceptions of affirmative action do. In a later study, Dobbin et al. (2015)

concede that managers are less likely to oppose diversity when allowed to collaborate on diversity initiatives.

Several assumptions on this corporate unawareness are worth noting to reveal their relevance to the current phenomenon. The first assumption is that the unrest in 2019 affected all managers in some manner. Yet evident from earlier discussions, quests for solidarity compelled corporations to embrace diversity management as a strategic panacea for diversity concerns (McCrea et al., 2022). Consequently, a second assumption emerges: managerial perceptions and attitudes are entangled with ethnoracial and demographic factors inherent in this phenomenon. Therefore, it is reasonable to posit that these factors drive how diversity is perceived.

Additionally, a third assumption that corporations may widely hold is that members will likely embrace diversity management initiatives unquestionably (Kollen et al., 2018). This belief stems, among other reasons, from the strong correlation between diversity as a moral imperative (Kollen, 2016) and the perception of its inherent fairness for all members despite differences (Kollen et al., 2018). Moreover, contemporary disdain for discrimination, whether internal or external to the firm, further solidifies this belief, as noted by Kim (2017).

Based on these assumptions, there is a tendency for managers to have divergent views on diversity programs, which is also consistent with the discourse on diversity programs (Dover et al., 2020; Leslie, 2019; Portocarrero & Carter, 2022). Concurring with Buengeler et al. (2018), not all leadership members are necessarily aligned with the espoused aspects of implementing diversity initiatives. Solebello et al. (2016) concede that while some leaders may support diversity management, others may be conflicted

about its purpose. Moreover, the changing social conditions indicate more challenges lie ahead for organizational diversity.

Literature Summation

The literature review reveals three aspects of the current state of knowledge about diversity management. First, the debate on the effectiveness of diversity management is ongoing, given its complexity. Depending on age group affiliation, religion, and gender, diversity management as a multidimensional concept is interpreted differently (Healy, 2015; Plummer, 2003). These factors contribute to the challenges of establishing a widely accepted typographical standard for delineating diversity terms. However, it is possible to progress toward a cogent structure by adopting Kulik's (2014) diversity system framework and its definitions; and leveraging Leslie's (2019) conceptual model. These theoretical tools offer a pragmatic understanding of a diversity management system for this study and may even propose a standard typology for other scholars.

As a secondary aspect, diversity management has a historical context. Its affects still permeate through the behavioral and social dynamics of organizations. This notion includes the cause of its inception after high resistance to affirmative action mandates and subsequent discoveries of its economic and social benefits.

Figure 2 attempts to conceptualize these salient aspects within the literature. Its illustration, evolving from diversity imperatives to diversity systems, is designed to highlight the desired diversity outcomes of an organization. This uncertainty reinforces the notion of the complexity of this subject.

Examined more closely, figure 2 graphically summarizes diversity as an inextricable antecedent of diversity management as well as a consequence of corporate

strategy. This notion clarifies the complexity of diversity and diversity mechanisms in the research phenomenon. External factors incentivize organizations to shape their diversity climates through three broad categories: diversity initiatives that prevent discrimination, resource programs, or institute accountability. Such approaches may be justified by reaffirmed affirmative action mandates, civil rights laws, or social and cultural changes.

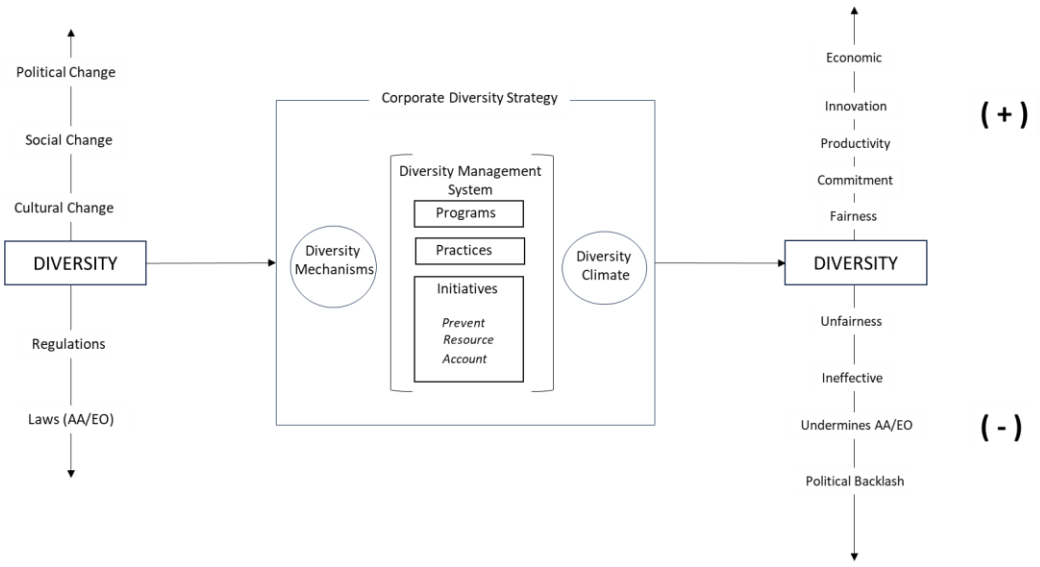


Figure 2. Graphic Overview of the Literature

On the other hand, figure 2 illustrates diversity as an organizational consequence, which may result in positive or negative outcomes as organizations seek to optimize their diversity climate. Guillaume and others (2017) declare this effect as the double-edged nature of how diversity management is regarded in the workplace. Employees may view fairness as the degree to which certain demographic groups benefit most and ultimately affect employee attitudes (Graves & Powell, 1994; Lee & Farh, 1999; McKay et al., 2008; Mor Barak et al., 1998; Pitts, 2009). Alternatively, members can perceive

outcomes as unfair and ineffective and become less supportive of diversity strategies (Bowman & Cox, 2022; Dobbin & Kalev, 2016; Kidder et al., 2004; Leslie, 2019; Mousa et al., 2020; Naff & Kellough, 2003).

Apart from figure 2, the literature review reveals distinct gaps. Existing research predominantly examines the demographic impact on employees' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity management initiatives. This emphasis on employee perspectives may reflect an earlier scholarly focus on the consequences of affirmative action mandates (Kravitz, 1995). However, this has led to a scarcity of studies addressing managerial-level implications. Kulik (2014) explicitly emphasizes this point, identifying it as an under-researched area. The following section will, therefore, undertake a closer examination.

The Research Gaps

Figure 3 presents the identified research gaps within the literature. There is a pronounced need for more in-depth research into managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity management, as suggested by scholars (Kidder et al., 2004; Kulik, 2014). The preponderance of studies converges findings on attitudes and perceptions at the employee level rather than the managerial level (See Harrison et al., 2006; Hofhuis et al., 2015; Kalev et al., 2006; Kidder et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2015; Richard & Kirby, 1998; Sabharwal, 2014; Windscheid et al., 2015; Wyatt-Nichol & Antwi-Boasiako, 2012) or just as important the mechanisms (Nkomo et al., 2019). Moreover, these inquiries primarily explore the regulatory and racial dimensions within the workplace. For example, Harrison et al. (2006) examine the impact of affirmative action on employee

attitudes and various psychological and social factors. Even so, the researchers admit that the findings are unreliable due to inherent bias and other limitations.

Other studies examine members' demographic implications of diversity initiatives. Kidder et al. (2004), as well as Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000), suggest that perceptions can be affected by surface-level diversity variables, such as race, ethnicity, age, gender, nationality, disabilities, and other physical characteristics that can influence organizational outcomes. Yet, research that connects managers to diversity mechanisms is scarce.

Studies exploring diversity initiatives at the executive level are also less common. Only some researchers have ventured into this area, such as Eddy and Sears (2020), Kirton and Green (2019), and Wentling and Palma-Rivas (2000). Moreover, few investigations delve into managerial resistance to diversity management and its implications (David et al., 2015; Dobbin et al., 2011; Giangreco & Peccei, 2005; Kulik, 2014). Nonetheless, few studies specify reactions at the managerial level.

At the managerial level, a distinct but related gap exists in the literature, characterized by contextual or industry-specific boundaries. For example, Foster and Harris (2005) investigate managers' perceptions within the U.K. retail sector, which may not be fully applicable to the U.S. context, given the cultural and historical differences. Madera et al. (2017) provide insights from the healthcare sector, but their findings might not extend to other industries. Rodgers and colleagues (2019) attempt to widen their research to encompass various industries; nonetheless, the small sample size of their study suggests the need for prudence in generalizing the results. Addressing these gaps is a central goal of this research, which is elaborated in Study 2 (See page 120). It aims to

thoroughly investigate managerial attitudes toward diversity, emphasizing the role of demographic variables and group dynamics.

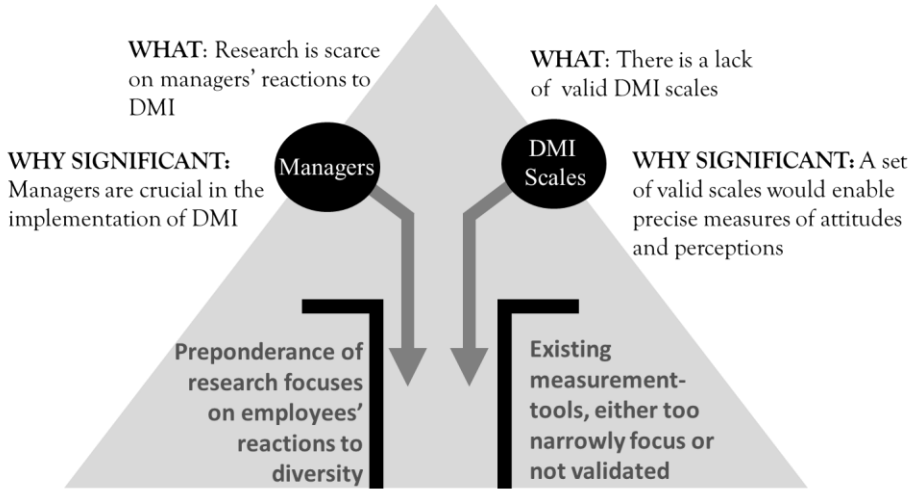


Figure 3.The Research Gaps

Reflection

As Nkomo and others (2019) surmise, diversity research stands at a critical juncture in understanding the complex nature of diversity in the contemporary workplace. The researchers point to factors, such as cultural conflicts, workplace discrimination, and immigration, that underscore the urgency of researching diversity dynamics. Despite the imperative to implement diversity initiatives, there remains a risk of exacerbating prejudices and fostering hostile work environments (Sabharwal, 2014). Moreover, efforts toward equity may inadvertently breed individual perceptions and behavioral conflicts (Kabanoff, 1991). While existing literature acknowledges these challenges, accurate measurements and rigorous procedures are essential to understanding managerial attitudes and perceptions toward diversity. Discussions on these procedures are forthcoming in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3. STUDY ONE

Design Considerations

As previously discussed, corporate efforts to improve diversity have flourished by relying heavily on managers to implement diversity management initiatives in support of organizational performance (Dobbins & Kalev, 2016; Marques, 2014). Besides differences in company cultures, these managers are comprised of various demographic and group characteristics. This phenomenon offers an opportunity to describe the state of diversity management through the managers responsible for its implementation. According to Bryman (2016), a proposed research methodology must be predicated on a sound research question. As a result, this project's research question sets its paradigm, methodology, and design.

Philosophical Assumptions

This research employs a positivist research paradigm that guides its methodological decisions. There is an inclination to exercise objectivity to account for managerial reactions to corporate strategy. Accordingly, a fundamental assumption of this paradigm is that empirical evidence can confirm the latent state of managerial behaviors post the social conditions of 2019. Furthermore, this evidence can determine how each discovery relates to a social context (Colapinto, 1979). These considerations follow a realist ontology in what the implications of those conditions, whether social or demographic, might signify to the internal dynamics of a firm. Another assumption of this paradigm is that it encourages the search for relevant theories, such as SIT, that can explain how group influence affects behavior in a generalizable way. Other areas of interest for this paradigm include the increased investments that generate diversity

initiatives within the firm, expected outcomes of diversity initiatives, and the backlash that corporations receive in a politically and racially charged environment (Green, 2023; Warren, 2022). By embracing this paradigm, this project effectively explores the extent of managerial perceptions and attitudes in the workplace.

Research Approach

Consistent with a positivist approach (Lee & Lings, 2008), this study employs a descriptive methodology to explore managers' perceptions and attitudes. Quantitative procedures are applied to identify key characteristics and associations among this phenomenon's various diversity initiatives. As Hakansson (2013) notes, this technique differs from traditional approaches in employing qualitative methods to investigate the latent nature of perceptions and attitudes.

Choosing to adopt quantitative methods is based on several factors. The first factor relates to the robust analysis that descriptive statistics offer, such as the benefit of parametric over non-parametric analysis. Descriptive research is a disciplined inquiry process that collects and analyzes empirical data (Salaria, 2012). Its statistical techniques can provide valuable insights into the relationships between different variables. Considering this study's research question, this process helps answer the "what" questions about a complex phenomenon, according to Gerring (2012). By focusing on this interrogative, a descriptive design has the potential to glean the key characteristics and establish the groundwork to examine them more deeply (Gering, 2012; Grimes & Schulz, 2002).

This research also explores the essential features of this phenomenon rather than hypothesizing its causes. As discussed earlier, the timing of this research provides a

benchmark for managerial perceptions and attitudes, post the social unrest of 2019. This regard is essential in understanding the state of managerial perceptions and attitudes within the business environment. As stated, exploring may also assist in uncovering findings unique to internal group structures and the evolving environment in which diversity strategies are being implemented. A narrow research focus, driven by hypotheses or propositions, could obscure such revelations.

A third factor surrounds the previous discussion that scholars have yet to fill the empirical void of this research subject, apart from attempts by a few researchers (see Foster & Harris, 2005; Madera et al., 2017). This research considers that more empirical exploration is necessary to understand managerial behavior toward diversity initiatives, thoroughly (Kulik, 2014). These factors and the nature of the proposed research question are interwoven into this study's design.

Research Variables

The following sections elaborate on the technical aspects of this research design. Besides the factors mentioned earlier, the design considers the complexity of diversity and that managerial reactions to diversity initiatives are still evolving. In the first section, variables are first identified, then the construction of the survey instrument, and followed by the data collection procedures. In the last section, the analytical design of the strategy is described, assuming ideal data collection conditions.

Figure 4 shows the research variables associated with this research. Managers' perceptions and attitudes serve as dependent variables. De Meuse and Hostager's (2001) multidimensional framework is incorporated to conceptualize reactions to diversity. Its

measurements include behavioral and cognitive dimensions of their work. The framework is tailored to a new behavioral instrument (see instrumentation, page 69).

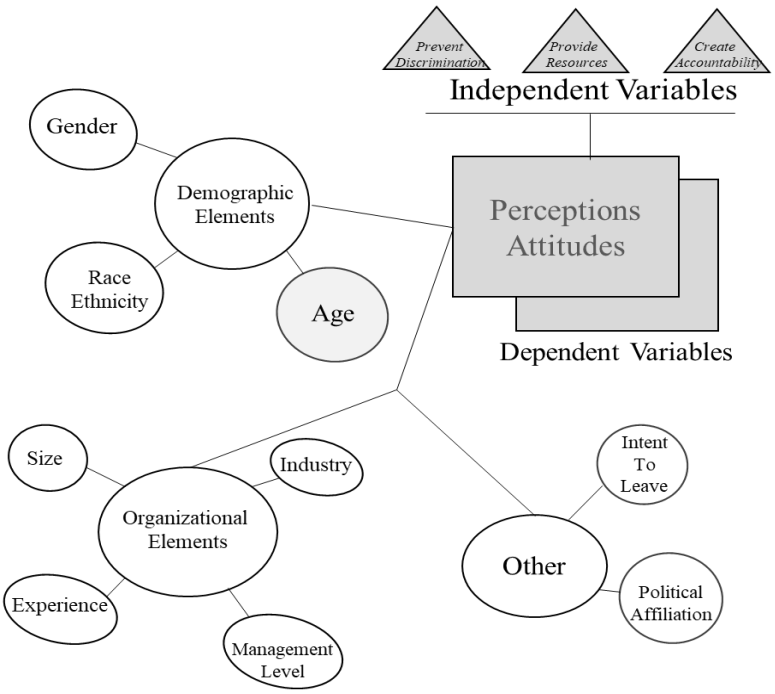


Figure 4. Dependent, Independent, Control, and Unique Variables

Diversity management initiatives are designated as the independent variables for this project. As discussed in the literature review, Kulik's (2014) and Leslie's (2019) conceptual framing of diversity initiatives enables a stable categorization of how they fit into a consistent structure of a diversity management system. Figure 1 elucidates Kulik's (2014) conceptual structure of a diversity management system; Table 9 illustrates Leslie's (2019) contextualization of diversity initiatives as practices intended to improve the workplace experience. In borrowing her framework, diversity management initiatives are further categorized by practices in three broad areas to improve the analysis of this

project: Diversity Initiatives that Prevent Discrimination, Provide Resources, and Institute Accountability. They are utilized in this project to accommodate the numerous types of diversity initiatives corporations utilize. Employing Leslie's (2019) scholarly contribution avoids the anticipated challenges in measuring, managing, and analyzing the complexity of diversity management.

Demographic and organizational elements are designated as control variables. These items provide a deeper understanding of what associations or portions of the subjects are significant to this phenomenon. Demographics include gender, ethnoracial factors, and age. Organizational attributes include managers' experience, organizational level, size, and industry. As a separate component, managers' political affiliation and turnover intent are utilized as unique variables. The political element also addresses the changing political landscape, transitioning from stakeholders' support to stakeholders' backlash. The use of a manager's willingness to leave provides the extent of the affects from implementing diversity mechanisms. These variables capture this phenomenon's general research features and establish a foundational structure for practical analysis.

Theoretical Relevance of Key Variables

There are theoretical foundations that sufficiently rationalize the use of key variables to produce a meaningful, descriptive study. Discussing their relevance rationalizes their utility in the design of the subsequent studies, in order to benchmark the psychometric conditions, post 2019. The following variables are discussed: *Age, Years of Experience, Managerial Level, Organizational Type, Work Modality,* and *Turnover Intent*.

Age

As Lawrence (1996) argues, *Age* is central to organizational studies in revealing how members and organizations interact as a demographic variable. From a fairness perspective, age discrimination remains a part of the workplace dynamics managers face, similar to the challenges related to discrimination based on gender or ethnoracial factors (Posthuma & Campion, 2009). Lawrence (1996) also explains that it is a behavioral indicator in members' attitudes and perceptions when controlled. For example, age reveals that older organizational leaders favor diversity practices compared to younger ones (Ng & Sears, 2012), and it may interact with personal values and other demographics to indicate attitudes toward diversity (Sawyerr et al., 2005).

Political Affiliation

Within this context, political affiliation may significantly affect how managers respond to diversity management initiatives. As previously discussed, political affiliation is closely linked to political ideology, shaping how individuals identify, perceive, and react to their environment (Devine, 2015). Its prominence introduces challenges for managers, as affiliations can influence workplace dynamics (Swigart et al., 2020). Ultimately, political ideology reflects social divisions exacerbated by partisanship (Iyengar & Krupenkin, 2018). Thus, political affiliation emerges as a unique interval variable that adds analytical value to this research.

Organizational Size

This variable considers the influence of size, as highlighted by Schminke et al. (2000), on the perception of procedural fairness. These scholars argue that larger organizations tend to exhibit more bureaucratic and rigid structures, potentially leading to

reduced sociability and diminished interpersonal relationships among members (Schminke et al., 2000; Erez & Rim, 1982). Conversely, smaller firms, characterized by their adaptability, may be more conducive to positive attitudes toward diversity practices (Richard et al., 2013).

Managerial Experience

Managerial experience stands out as another crucial organizational variable. McEnrue (1988) asserts that an individual's length of experience can impact their decision-making. Additionally, an individual's tenure within an organization has been shown to influence organizational performance (Ng & Feldman, 2010). In light of these considerations, it could be argued that the relationship between decision-making and a manager's experience is intertwined with how they perceive and respond to various elements that contribute to the outcomes of their decisions.

Management Level

Management level holds a similar level of importance as managerial experience and responds to requests for its inclusion (Richard et al., 2013). Its significance lies in the hierarchical positions that managers occupy that influence and shape organizational behavior, as well as managers' associated responsibilities and authority in these roles (Parnell, 2005; Tenah, 1986). This concept denotes classifying managerial levels into lower, middle, or upper levels. These levels can be linked to managerial performance, as posited by Blau (1986). He contends that they can play a crucial role in influencing managers' persistence to adopt specific behaviors.

Organizational Type

As a broad category, scholars widely recognize the substantial differences between public and private organizations. Managers can be associated with either public or private entities, and these distinctions carry significant theoretical implications for a more comprehensive assessment of scales (Rainey et al., 1976). The distinctions encompass factors like private ownership versus taxpayer interests, political governance versus market influence, or even tax revenue versus economic revenue (Boyne, 2002; Perry & Rainey, 1988).

These differences are particularly valuable in evaluation studies, enhancing an understanding of various organizational factors. For example, researchers like Balfour and Wechsler (1990) leverage these theoretical distinctions to identify antecedents to organizational commitment. Similarly, Rainey et al. (1976) use these distinctions to illuminate theoretical implications such as market exposure, legal constraints, public scrutiny, and employee characteristics, among others.

Work Modality

The concept of work modality, often referred as remote work, has gained increasing significance in the workplace (McDonald et al., 2022). According to Russell and Frachtenberg (2021), 35% of the U.S. workforce was already trending toward working remotely for white-collar jobs in the early stages of the pandemic. After the COVID-19 pandemic, working remotely has become prevalent, with nearly 59% of workers continuing this practice (Parker et al., 2022). This work modality encompasses various terms, including virtual work, telecommuting, telework, or working from home (McDonald et al., 2022)

Research on the implications of remote work presents a mixed picture. On the one hand, studies emphasize its benefits for employees, such as a heightened sense of autonomy and improved quality of life, according to Giauque et al. (2022). Conversely, the researchers suggest that remote work can create concerns about performance perceptions due to reduced interpersonal rapport, which may be exacerbated by working away from the office. Managers may also find it challenging to directly observe employee performance in remote work settings, leading to increased anxiety and stress (Dandalt, 2021; Felstead et al., 2003). Additionally, remote work could hinder team members' collaboration and negatively impact group performance (Giauque et al., 2022).

Turnover Intent

Turnover intent is the sole outcome variable considered in this study, as noted by Hellman (1997). Tett and Meyer (1993, p. 262) state that “turnover intent denotes a person's conscious and willful desire to leave an organization." This variable plays a crucial role in evaluating the intended affective outcomes of managers’ reactions to the new DMI measures. Notably, turnover intent has a negative correlation with job satisfaction (Hellman, 1997; Mobley, 1977). Its inclusion in this framework aims to determine whether reactions to the new DMI scales could lead managers to consider leaving their organization. As previously suggested, the ability of turnover intent to gauge the effectiveness of organizational strategies adds a tangible dimension to the impact of diversity policies.

Instrumentation Design

Accordingly, an online survey serves as the basis for collecting data on the independent and dependent variables. This design decision offers several advantages that

are well established. First, online surveys are known to encourage participants to reveal their perceptions and attitudes at their leisure, according to Stantcheva (2023). The methodologist (2023, p. 1) articulates this benefit by stating, "Surveys are essential for eliciting otherwise invisible factors such as perceptions, knowledge and beliefs, attitudes and reasoning." Additionally, online surveys allow participants to self-disclose without feeling embarrassed or judged (Gnambs & Kaspar, 2015). They are likely to possess a level of comfort with surveys since topics about diversity as they apply to ethnoracial, gender, or group affiliation are sometimes considered sensitive by managers (Podsiadlowski et al., 2013).

Second, online surveys are also beneficial in minimizing selection and non-response biases, which can be a major concern (Deutskens et al., 2004; Gnambs & Kaspar, 2015; Joinson, 1999; Whelan, 2008). Stantcheva (2023) explains that selection bias occurs when a fraction of participants in a targeted population is afforded a chance to participate in the survey, minus the opportunity for the entire targeted population to participate. Online surveys can be distributed to many participants, who would otherwise be difficult to access. Surveys can be distributed to devices such as cell phones, computers, or other handheld devices. Non-response bias denotes the difference between a survey's actual response rate and estimated response (Colombo, 2000). This problem can be addressed through online surveying features that track response progress and send survey reminders.

Another valuable benefit of online surveys is that they offer anonymity, which can be very reassuring for participants. Participants' low confidence in anonymity can lead to a fear of disclosing their true feelings when confronted with sensitive topics

(Tourangeau & Yan, 2007). However, providing anonymity adds another incentive for managers to participate, as acknowledged by Whelan (2008). He affirms that privacy assurances can persuade subjects to participate in a study. The use of Qualtrics, a popular survey management program, aids in assuring participants that their identities are secured. Many researchers and organizations prefer this software because it provides efficient digital tools for designing, collecting, and analyzing survey data (Cushman et al., 2021). Its tools effectively remove all traces of names and IPs prior to parsing data into its database.

The engineered time that enables completing the online survey within a short time also delivers value. Technical considerations such as short statements, ease of comprehension, and the intuitive layout of the survey are leveraged to maximize participation. The instrument contains 25 items, divided into two sections, requiring at most seven minutes to complete. A minimal standard, such as a short completion time, can increase response rates (Deutskens et al. (2004) and counter survey fatigue since lengthy research questions can easily tire participants (Stantcheva, 2023).

The use of Likert scales as a key feature also ensures a short completion time. Developed by psychologist Rensis Likert, the instrument consists of psychometric, summated scales that measure the perceptions and attitudes of respondents (Ho, 2017; Joshi et al., 2015; Pimentel, 2010). It has been found that participants respond well to its format, created by its popularity and frequent use in the social sciences (Joshi et al., 2010). Brown (2011) notes that the average summations of Likert scales can enhance the analysis of a descriptive study.

Instrumentation Development

The utilization of preexisting instruments offers advantages in achieving content and construct validity, particularly in the development of Likert scales (Hinkin, 1995). However, the scarcity of research on diversity initiatives poses a limitation, preventing the leverage of previously validated scales requiring minimal adjustment. Consequently, this research introduces carefully constructed scales with meticulous attention to item formulation and response bias.

The survey's structure strategically incorporates key subject areas, intended to establish a comprehensive understanding of the sample. The first section contains five demographic questions to generate categorical data on gender, race, ethnicity, age, generational affiliation, political affiliation, and years of experience of managers. The design of the second section is illustrated within the typographical framework outlined in Table 9 (see page 39). Table 11 illustrates 20 Likert items devised to gauge responses to managers' perceptions and attitudes. Drawing from a variety of scholarly practices, such as Schrum et al. (2020), each Likert item include seven response options rather than five, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. These researchers argue that higher response options can enhance a sample's reliability and analytical power (Hinkin, 1995; Joshie et al., 2015; Schrum et al., 2020).

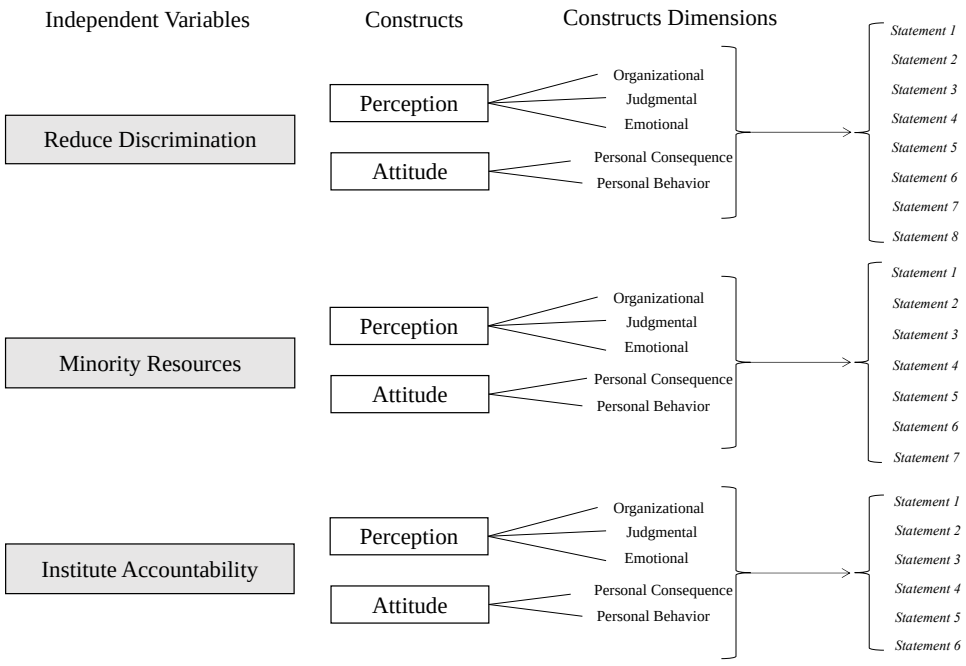


Figure 5.Measurement Framework of the Variable

The survey incorporates two features that systematically arranges its elements. One feature aligns items to increase the strength of measuring each construct. This technique follows Robinson's (1991) advice that scales are also arranged according to each construct's measurement and dimensions. Figure 5 illustrates this architect in that perception and attitude are aligned with their corresponding dimensions. They create measurement sets that correspond to each Likert item. This cross-alignment ensures instrument reliability among the variables. Reliability entails the consistency with which a concept is measured (Bryman, 2016). Determining its essence is discussed in the next chapter.

Table 11. Inter-Linkages of Constructs, Dimensions, Statements, and Diversity Initiatives

Model Constructs	**Dimensions of Constructs**	**Measures *(specific scales, questions, metrics, etc.*, associated with dimension*)***	
7-Point Likert Scale		Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Somewhat Disagree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Agree, Somewhat Agree, Strongly Agree	DMI
Perception	Organizational Outcomes	· Diversity initiatives help build **unity** among employees. · Diversity initiatives reflect social **progress,** and they are designed to make people outside the company feel good about the company. · Diversity initiatives are often found to be a workload **liability** for companies.	Prevent Discrimination
	Judgements	· Employing diversity initiatives is a **sensible** approach to reduce discrimination.	
	Emotional Reactions	· Overreliance on diversity initiatives to reduce discrimination **frustrates** me. · Diversity initiatives relate to the **compassion** I feel for underrepresented groups.	
Attitude	Personal Consequence	· I sometimes feel **pressured** to achieve goals set by diversity initiatives.	
	Behavioral Reaction	· I occasionally feel **withdrawn** when diversity initiatives promote cultures or groups other than my own.	
Perception	Organizational Outcomes	· Diversity initiatives do not create company **unity** when they offer social support programs that help underrepresented employees adapt to corporate culture.	Provide Resources
	Judgements	· Diversity initiatives that provide social support, such as networking groups for underrepresented employees, are **useful.** · Diversity initiatives that mentor or socialize other members of the company are **unfair**.	
	Emotional Reactions	· I am **grateful** that diversity initiatives help other underrepresented groups adjust to an organization's culture.	
Attitude	Personal Consequence	· Diversity initiatives that provide other groups with resources—such as social networks and mentoring programs—also **advance** my success. · Diversity initiatives that provide social support to create **insecurities** for other groups.	
	Behavioral Reaction	· I am more **supportive** of diversity initiatives that socially help underrepresented groups than I am of being held accountable for affirmative action goals.	

a.Table derived from De Meuse and Hostager (2001)

Table 11. (Continued)

Model Constructs	**Dimensions of Constructs**	**Measures (specific scales, questions, metrics, etc., associated with dimension)**	
7-Point Likert Scale		Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Somewhat Disagree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Agree, Somewhat Agree, Strongly Agree	DMI
Perception	Organizational Outcomes	· I consider diversity initiatives as part of an **innovative** strategy in encouraging managers to meet diversity recruitment goals.	Provide Accountability
	Judgements	· Diversity initiatives, such as hiring metrics for underrepresented groups, are **unjustified**.	
	Emotional Reactions	· Evaluating the success or effectiveness of diversity initiatives is **confusing** because they are hard to achieve and/or because they are not always cost-effective.	
Attitude	Personal Consequence	· Diversity initiatives that hire diversity leaders are important because they create **opportunities** for all groups.	
	Behavioral Reaction	· I am **supportive** of diversity initiatives that adjust **merit** standards and/or lower performance expectations to recruit underrepresented groups.	

The second design feature further arranges items based on their potential to prevent response bias. Cautioned by several scholars (Cheung & Rensvold, 2000; Stantcheva, 2023), response bias may easily materialize from respondents who carelessly choose extreme answers, select moderate responses on the middle scale, or answer untruthfully. As a chief concern for data collection, Sengupta and Sinha (2005) also suggest that social factors can influence societal and organizational culture, impacted by work-related thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in the workplace that may ultimately affect survey responses.

To address this challenge, this design follows procedures by Stantcheva (2023) and Welkenhuysen-Gybels et al. (2003) in methodically arranging each Likert item based on its sensitivity. Higher sensitive statements are placed later in the sequence, and then the instrument gradually builds its intensity of measuring perceptions and attitudes. As a reference, Table 11 demonstrates this arrangement. The Likert items correspond to the gradual arrangement of their respective dimensions. In the survey, respondents are asked to respond broadly within an organizational context. Then, the context of each statement progresses in sequence by prodding respondents to respond within the dimensional context of their judgment, emotion, personal consequences, and personal behavior.

Besides sequencing, another design feature balances the use of negative and positive Likert statements in also minimizing response bias. This feature adheres to Schrum et al. (2020), Barnette (2000), Comrey (1988), and even the founder Rensis Likert (1932), that Likert scales should contain a balance of negatively worded statements and positively worded statements. Too many negative statements may trigger acquiesce bias and affect data reliability (Barnette, 2000). Conversely, too many positive

statements may generate leniency. A prudent selection of proven anchor words based on their level of sensitivity is shown in Table 12.

Table 12. De Meuse and Hostager (2001), Response Scale for Measurement

Construct	Dimensions	Key Words Response to Diversity	
Perception	Organizational Outcomes	Asset Innovative Progress Unity	Bureaucratic Expensive Liability Turnover
	Judgments	Fair Justified Sensible Useful	Unfair Unjustified Unnatural Useless
	Emotional Reactions	Compassionate Apprehensive Grateful Hopeful Good	Frustration Confuse Frustration
Attitudes	Personal Consequence	Merit Opportunity Rewarding	Insecurity Stress Sacrifice Pressure
	Behavioral Reaction	Support Understanding Cooperation Participate	Unfriendly Resistance Patronizing Withdrawal

The use of these words in formulating each Likert statement draws from the work of De Meuse and Hostager (2001), who pioneered a measurement tool for managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity. In a three-part study, the scholars developed a workforce diversity survey and a Reaction to Diversity (RTD) wordlist to examine each word that triggers cognitive and behavioral responses from respondents. Corresponding

dimensions were also identified: Emotional Reactions, Judgments, Personal Consequences, and Organizational Outcomes. The resulting survey reflects a transformation of twenty key words from the wordlist into Likert items, as illustrated in Tables 11 and 12.

To ensure the effectiveness of this survey, the study begins with a pilot phase involving a small group of participants. This step aligns with Robinson's (1991) suggestion to gather feedback from a limited number of individuals at the outset. The objective is to identify less sensitive language from the RTD wordlist, enhance the clarity of the statements, and assess the likelihood of acquiescence or response bias (Nemoto & Beglar, 2014).

Data Collection Design

As with choosing Likert items, the data collection design includes a sampling method that ensures quality data collection. Its structure is comprised of primary and contingent collection strategies for a sample size of 250 managers. This decision ensures that enough data is collected to conduct robust analyses.

This strategy is borrowed from Madera (2013) in utilizing Diversity Inc.'s annual ranking of the top 50 companies with the best diversity practices. His data collection strategy contains key features that enhance data collection on managers accustomed to diversity initiatives. Madera (2013) rationalizes that Diversity Inc.'s ranking criteria make this distinction possible. It includes CEO commitment, human capital, corporate communications, and supplier diversity. Another attractive feature is Madera's (2013) benchmarking methodology, introduced by Hinkin and Tracey (2010). Yasin and Zimmerer (1995) conceptualize generic benchmarking as studying companies with

similar processes, commodities, and services across various industries. Similarly, Madera (2013) chose firms with similar profiles from a ranked list to enable a better analysis of comparable companies.

As an added benefit, this procedure enables stratified random sampling, which can establish a representative sample. Some scholars (Antonijević & Ivanovic, 2021; Bryman, 2016) argue that stratified random sampling is more effective than a simplified random sampling approach in achieving this objective. For the sample, twenty-five corporations are selected and divided into strata according to their industry or commodity from Diversity Inc.'s ranking in 2022. Each stratum is distributed randomly with Excel's numbering tool, where they are added to the objective sample (Stantchva, 2022; Taherdoost, 2016).

Procedures for primary data collection strategy also accounts for organizations that may be difficult to access. As discussed by Tomaskovic-Devey and associates (1994), denial to access a targeted population can occur at the organizational level, where it can be attributed to respondents needing more authority, insufficient time, or a motive not to participate in surveys. Apart from being denied, challenges may also be attributed to navigating gatekeepers who may impose lengthy approvals for access (Smith, 2012). Nevertheless, Brick and Tourangeau (2017) advise that researchers should focus on improving the sample response rate rather than being subjected to the whim of nonresponse bias.

In these situations, the primary strategy calls for collaborating with gatekeepers, as corporations may be reluctant to permit access to their members. A key step includes orienting senior HR or diversity executives to this project to establish an internal

champion who can legitimize requests for support. This champion is likely to possess the authority to approve the project and ensure other corporate members know the project's goals. This step also ensures that a champion is committed to the project's success and knows the safeguards.

In referencing the earlier discussion on designing anonymity into the survey, this trait can be emphasized as a protective measure to ease the concerns of those overseeing the process. Gatekeepers can be assured that the surveys are not tied to participants' identities. Surely, such assurances can also increase response rates (Tyagi, 1989) as well as lessen corporate concerns that research information could create a negative perception of their organization. Moreover, demonstrating a sincere effort to partner presents a willingness to accommodate an organization's concerns and a sincerity to collaborate in addressing any perceived risk. As Bryman (2016) notes, access can be a challenging process that requires negotiation and renegotiation.

As a secondary method, the contingent collection strategy is different. It relies upon convenience sampling, should the primary strategy prove inept. Teddlie & Yu (2007) describe convenience sampling as a data collection method that establishes a sample from an accessible group of individuals willing to participate in a research study. While a practical alternative, the generalizability of convenience sampling is limited (Andrade, 2021). This contingency allows access to a student population of managers with experience implementing diversity initiatives. MBA students from 15 business schools across the country are targeted. Similar to accessing diversity executives, initial engagements for access are set aside for deans, administrators, and professors as needed.

To facilitate data collection, the Qualtrics software program is used to create and distribute online surveys. The surveying period is active for 30 days. Given Qualtrics' delivery capabilities, participants usually return surveys within 15 days. The program also provides a follow-up feature that can remind non-responders and further reduce non-response errors. Once all surveys are received, data analysis begins.

Data Analysis Design

The analytical design of this study uses the descriptive features of a quantitative analysis to aggregate summations of the Likert scales and conduct a categorical analysis of Likert items (Boone & Boone, 2012; Ho, 2017). However, debate considerations are worth mentioning given their strong concerns in the use of Likert scales. Researchers have found the dispute contentious and even confusing (Brown, 2011).

The arguments fall into two camps. Some scholars believe it is inappropriate for researchers to convert ordinal data from Likert scales to numbers and treat them as interval data by applying parametric statistics (Sullivan & Artino, 2013). According to them, it violates the assumption that data is normally distributed. As such, they find parametric statistics, means, and standard deviations erroneous. Conversely, a second group of scholars offers a strong argument for employing parametric statistics to analyze Likert scales. Harpe (2015) says this position has become the consensus throughout this debate.

Of the many supporters, Harpe (2015) and Carifio and Perla (2007) provide the most cogent argument that Likert scales produce interval data and can be analyzed accordingly. They base their argument on misusing the terms Likert scales and Likert items. The researchers argue that scales are intended to be computed as a group,

indicating that aggregate scores can be treated as continuous data. They further suggest that nonparametric or categorical analyses can also be applied. However, its use should be limited to Likert items. Brown (2011) also supports the distinction between Likert items and Likert scales when treating the data as intervals. Considering these viewpoints, this project analyzes Likert scales as interval data and analyzes Likert items as ordinal data.

In applying descriptive methods, this research project incorporates several statistical tests and models to analyze ordinal and interval data. To baseline the features of its sample, it describes its variables, associations, and distributions, as Dulock (1993) suggests. Additionally, the statistics address this research project's "what" inquiry by identifying indicators and dimensional features, based on Gerrings (2012). The outcome of this effort establishes the basis for allowing descriptive arguments to emanate from an initial study and set the foundation for follow-on investigations.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is the primary analytical tool for testing and analyzing collected data. Developed by IBM, SPSS is a popular statistical software tool academic researchers use (Field 2013). Initial analytical activities test data reliability and quality. Evaluating reliability requires the use of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient within SPSS. It is considered one of the most widely used measures for psychometric testing (Peterson, 1994). Reliability is confirmed when the coefficient equals or exceeds 0.70, indicating a high correlation between variables. Confirming reliability leads to the next step in evaluating data quality. Some statistical techniques are identified as analytical alternatives based upon meeting additional statistical assumptions such as normality, interdependence, randomness, and homogeneity.

For data quality, the Rasch analysis serves as one option. The analysis examines the quality of Likert rating scales with regard to response bias (Van Zile-Tamsen, 2017). In identifying uncharacteristic responses, the module computes a quasi-Z-statistic to evaluate scores beyond -2 and +2 (Edwards & Alcock, 2010). By applying these scores, statements are ranked according to their difficulty and how participants respond to them. A Rasch analysis is also considered in evaluating the results of a pilot in support of improving the quality of the Likert statements (Van Zile-Tamsen, 2017).

Once initial tests are completed, SPSS is also used to analyze the categorical aspects of the data. The statistical tool provides insight into describing the proportional features of the sample relative to the population of interest. Bar graphs, pie charts, histograms, the distribution of variables, and frequencies are utilized to illustrate proportional inferences. As stated, the analytical design is comprised of an initial study that explores rather than hypothesizes.

The use of predictive analytical techniques depends on the results and direction of the initial study. In this effort, SPSS is utilized to determine the causal extent the variables in the sample that contribute to managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity management. The predictive tools of this analysis begin by examining how the variables are associated with their significance. A key analytical procedure to determine associations among categorical variables is the Chi-Square test. Karl Pearson's test uncovers associations or differences among categorical variables (Franke et al., 2012). It can also be instrumental in determining how managers perceive certain types of diversity initiatives, a crucial aspect of this study.

As a key application, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) is also proposed for this design, considering this topic's relation to traditional gender and ethnoracial factors. According to Porter and Raudenbush (1987), ANCOVA is a reliable statistical technique used in random experience in the behavioral sciences. The researcher and others (Miller & Chapman, 2001) further advocate its value in reducing errors in variance and improving the precision of analysis. In other words, an ANCOVA is a powerful, robust statistical tool that can enable reliable evaluations of covariates, such as age, experience, and even unique variables like political affiliation and intent to leave. In general, this could lead this project to more accurate forecasts and aid better comprehension of intricate and multi-faceted research inquiries (Porter & Raudenbush, 1987).

Reflection

Despite its complexity, the phenomenon that involves managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity management is an explorable endeavor. This research considers the investigative worthiness of managers whose organizations are driven by external factors, such as being influenced by the social movement of 2019. Corporate efforts to manage their external risk have overlooked the internal risks of a key group. As such, an opportunity exists. Most notably, this research project challenges a possible held assumption that managers, as iconic leaders of U.S. organizations, accept such initiatives. As such, this research design resonates with calls for more research on diversity implications. Moreover, it compels an empirical approach that describes managers' demographic and group characteristics relative to their attitudinal demeanors. Utilizing a methodology that pursues a practical study unlocks an under-explored knowledge of diversity management.

Methodology of Study One

This study, involving a sample of 133 managers, aims to shed light on managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity initiatives within corporate settings. Understanding these perceptions is crucial in the contemporary corporate landscape, where diversity is paramount. The employed procedures are discussed in this descriptive study, outlining the key differences or significances of the sample. The primary objective is to explore the various demographical, organizational, and unique features that may signify influence on managerial behavior regarding diversity management initiatives. Hypothesis testing is withheld for this study, focusing instead on comprehensively understanding managers' reactions. Although political affiliation is highlighted, a review of those results reemphasizes the need for valid scales and informs the direction of an intriguing second study.

Distribution

This study was initiated on January 17, 2023, with a series of engagements to diversity executives of the companies ranked in 2022 by Diversity Inc. The initiation was predicated on notices were sent via LinkedIn mail, where most of the initial contacts took place. Dialogues were offered to reorient the gate keepers to the study or confirm commitments by gatekeepers in accessing their population of managers. Two of the 25 executives expressed interest: Accenture and Cox Communications. However, no concrete responses were received from the other executives.

A significant contributor to the reluctance is likely related to the earlier discussion on the increased political backlash in 2022. The influence of anti-diversity requests and policies from stakeholders and politicians (Bryant & Applelby, 2023; Green,

2023; Warren, 2022) may have compelled diversity executives to be unwilling to support research studies that appear to share information with an external member. As suggested by SHRM (Gonzales, 2023), there is a notable shift in companies' stance on diversity, evidenced by instances in 2022 where DEI programs are being suspended indefinitely. As previously highlighted, SHRM emphasizes that in 2022, layoffs of DEI personnel surpassed those of non-DEI personnel. These situations raise concerns that diversity professionals may feel their job security is at risk. Due to limited support, the secondary data collection method was employed, utilizing contingency sampling to reach out to managers.

The secondary strategy was implemented using two procedures. The first step involved contacting 15 business schools across four regions of the U.S. The online profile of each school revealed that they offered resident and executive MBA programs. Although non-representative, this procedure created the potential to sample managers who might be in-state residents and reflect regional values. Deans of each business school were invited to participate in an in-depth orientation. Presentations were provided to seven schools, and a follow-up invitation was also offered to discuss the pedagogical outcome of the study. Six business schools committed to allowing graduate students to volunteer for the study, including one school that expanded access to its alums.

The survey was activated in Qualtrics on February 24, 2023, for participants. The business schools invited graduates to participate in three ways. An administrator either posted a link to the survey on an online blackboard, placed the link in a student or an alum newsletter, or permitted direct collaboration with a professor. To administer,

professors would read a script to request volunteers and then email the survey to participants.

The second procedure utilized a contingent list of 85 individuals who volunteered to participate after being deferred from the pilot study. This list was activated on April 3, 2023 and included professional associates across various industries who likely served as managers during their careers. As a form of convenience sampling, this procedure also included snowballing (Collins et al., 2006), where participants were encouraged to send the link to other acquaintances within their professional circles.

Response Rate

Among the 15 business schools and the list of associates, the sampling pool estimated the potential for 1,129 individuals to participate in the survey. However, a review of the responses in SPSS indicated a response rate of 19%, considerably lower than the expected response to the online survey. Baruch and Holtom (2008) found response trends among surveys could be at least 52.7%. Nonetheless, researchers are beginning to notice declining response rates among college students, according to an article by Fosnacht and his colleagues (2017). All in all, 225 respondents attempted to participate in the survey.

Peterson and Merunka (2014) are right to argue that there is uncertainty when surveying college students for behavioral research. Nonetheless, Brick and Tourangeau (2017) assert that researchers should focus on improving the sample response rate rather than being subjected to non-response bias. For this study, leveraging the convenience of college students and business associates is designed to adequately answer this study's research question (Teddlie & Yu, 2007).

Data Preparation

The survey closed on April 10, 2023. Respondents who had already initiated their surveys were allowed a grace period of three days to complete them. Upon an initial review of the data using SPSS, further steps were required to address incomplete records, missing data, outliers, and prepare the Likert elements for analysis.

Missing Data

The sample required addressing missing data through two methods: deleting items with a low percentage of completion or imputing records with a high percentage of completion. In a review of 225 respondents, 92 records were deleted. Of that number, 74 respondents were unqualified to take the study. Either they had never served as a manager (39), never been exposed to the three types of diversity initiatives (32), or chose not to consent after reading the survey's conditions (3). Additional deletions included 18 respondents who failed to provide data critical to the study, whose data omissions ranged from 3% to 85%. Critical data elements included key demographics and Likert responses. A duplicate record was also deleted, where two survey IDs indicated that a respondent took the survey twice. The total deletions created a residual of 133 records, with 85% - 97% of missing values requiring further adjudication.

Unusable Records

Using summations and composite scores requires all values to exist in the datasets (McDonald et al., 2000) to maintain consistency. SPSS offers a computation module that addresses missing values to ensure data quality. Items 21 and 22, as indicated in Table 13 were flagged in missing values in comparison to the other items. Item 21 asks respondents to enter their age and item 22 asks respondents to enter their experience.

SPSS also calculates an algorithmic estimated maximum (EM) score that considers the conditions under which all missing values occurred and determines the maximum value to be considered (Dempster, 1977). The use of the module calculates a low EM score of two. A score is also provided for determining the basis on which missing data occurred completely at random (MCAR). The 117.192 value of the chi-square computation and its corresponding significance (.834) indicate that the missing values within the sample occurred randomly. These values signify that the existing data could be used to analyze the sample without introducing any significant bias to its parameters (Pigott, 2001).

Imputations

Nonetheless, imputation steps were still taken to address 30 records with completion rates above the 85% threshold. As the primary source, values in items 21, 22 were processed as well as a few demographic items and two Likert items. Procedures were followed in substituting missing values with the means of the data item, as described by Downey and King (1998). Eight records on age were imputed to a mean score of 48. Based on the likelihood a value would have been a male respondent, one record on gender was imputed.

Missing values for two industry questions were also addressed; An organizational question was coded as a profit institution and 16 records on experience were imputed to its mean score of 16 years. For the Likert items (questions 1 & 11): Question 1 was imputed to a score of 5, based upon its mean score of 4.95, and question 11 was imputed to 5, according to its mean score of 5.35.

Outliers

Steps were taken to address outliers through winsorizing. Winsoring is an imputation process that identifies extreme values in a dataset and requires recoding them with less extreme values in an adjacent, less extreme percentile (Dixon, 1980; Garson, 2012; Gignac, 2019). Procedures prescribed by Garson (2012) were followed. Figures 6 and 7 depict Likert statements 10 and 12 with nine outliers. Statement 10 included cases 19, 15, 16, 17, 3, and 2, which were imputed with values of 4. Statement 12 included cases 11, 2, and 3, which were imputed with values of 3.

Table 13. Analysis of Missing Values, Items 21 & 22

Separate Variance t Tests[a]			
		Q21.0 (age)	Q22.0 (experience)
Q21.0	t		0.8
	df		4.3
	P(2-tail)		0.483
	# Present	127	117
	# Missing	0	5
	Mean (Present)	48.51	16.47
	Mean(Missing)		12.40
Q22.0	t	-1.1	
	df	10.4	
	P(2-tail)	0.317	
	# Present	117	122
	# Missing	10	0
	Mean (Present)	48.20	16.30
	Mean(Missing)	52.20	

For each quantitative variable, pairs of groups are formed by indicator variables (present, missing).

Coding

In preparation for analysis, Likert data elements usually require adjustments (Mat et al., 2020). Two steps were necessary. First, all Likert statements were revised with

simple and concise labels for quick referencing and computations during analysis. And second, the scales of ten negatively worded Likert statements were reverse coded to ensure consistent scoring in SPSS. Reverse coding is a standard practice in reassigning negative values to the order of Likert items, so responses to negatively worded statements contain the same valence as those that consistently responded to a similar statement worded positively (Paap et al., 2023). The culminating actions on data preparation established a sample with no missing values.

The Composition

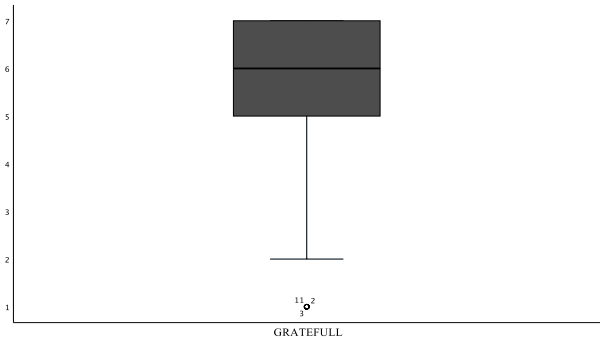


Figure 6. Likert Statement 12

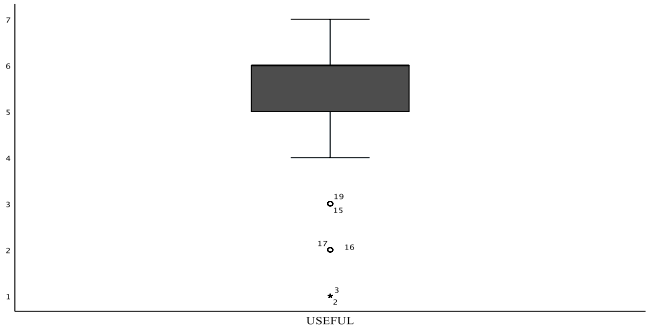


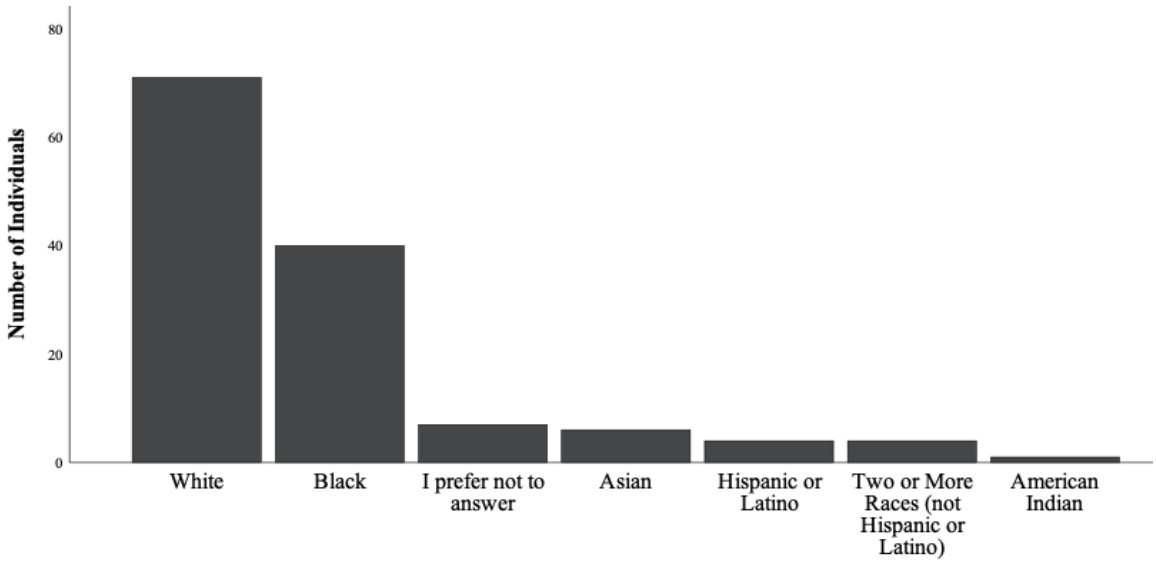
Figure 7. Likert Statement 10

Gender and Race and Ethnicity

The sample contains several key demographic features. As illustrated in Table 14, the data include 70 men (52.6%), 61 women (45.9%), and 2 participants (1.5%) who describe themselves in another way. Figure 8 illustrates the race and ethnicity composition of the sample: Whites (53.4%) and Blacks (30.1%), with 11.2% comprising other ethnoracial elements, and 5.3% who chose not to answer.

Table 14. Male and Female Comparisons

Gender	N	%
Men	70	52.6%
Women	61	45.9%
I describe myself in another way	2	1.5%



a. N = 133

Figure 8. Ethnoracial Comparisons

Age

As illustrated in Table 15, the ages of the respondents within the sample are comparable. Men average 48 years, while women and those describing themselves alternatively average 47 years. The youngest man is 26 years old, and the oldest man is 70. Similarly, the youngest woman is 26 years old, and the oldest woman is 74.

Table 15. Age Comparisons Across Genders

Gender	Mean	N	Min	Max
Men	48.81	70	26	70
Women	47.84	61	26	74
I describe myself in another way	47.5	2	47	48
Total	48.35	133	26	74

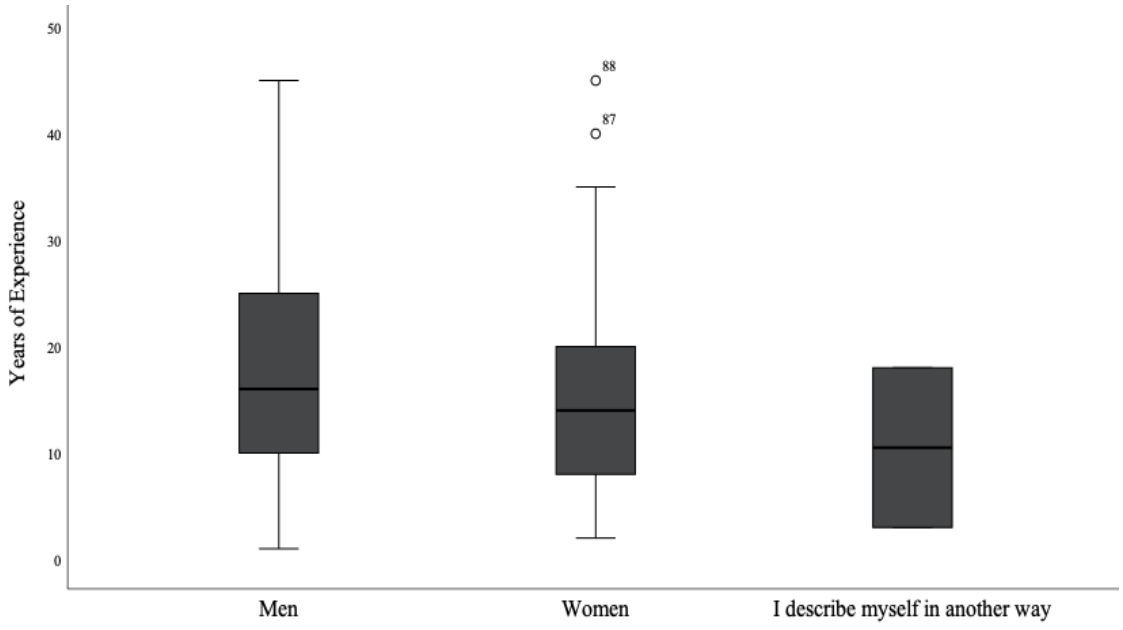


Figure 9. Years of Experience Among Male and Female Respondents

Experience

The sample also contains key organizational features. Respondents average 16 years of experience. The average years of experience for men are 17.84 years, and women are slightly lower at 14.6 years. As indicated in Figure 9, outliers for experience are attributed to women in cases where experience extends to 45 and 40 years. These values are not omitted since the male experience extends to 45 years.

Organizational Features

In terms of size, most of the respondents (43.6%) are employed in organizations with over 10,000 employees, as indicated in Figure 10. In the second comparable category, the other respondents (39.8%) worked for smaller organizations with less than 1,000 employees. Respondents are adequately proportioned across three management levels within their organizations' structure.

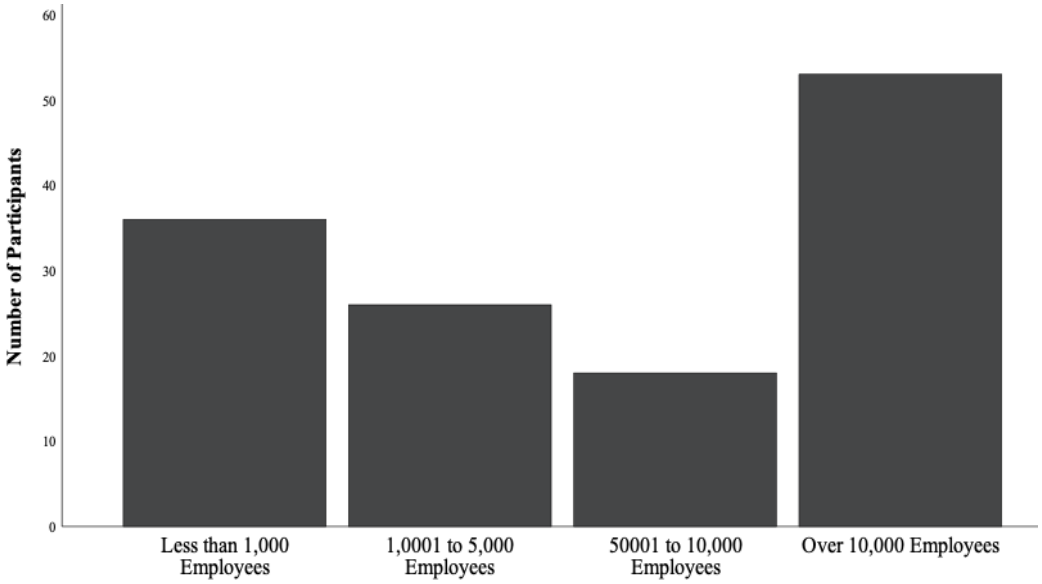


Figure 10. Size of Organizations Where Managers Work

Industries

Two types of organizations are reflected in the sample. Men (25%), women (21%), and others (1.5%) are derived from for-profit organizations, as illustrated in Table 16. Many respondents are from government organizations (31%), and a slice comes from non-profit organizations (20%). This information is also reflected across the 20 industries, illustrated in Figure 11. Sizeable categories are represented in typical industries such as government, military, education, healthcare, and pharmaceuticals. It should be noted that the "other" category is the second largest dataset. However, its size may indicate that respondents may not have noticed their industry in the drop-down menu. As a result, respondents may have become prone to choosing "other" as a catch-all category because of this menu format in the survey (Couper et al., 2004).

Table 16. Types of Organizations Among Male and Female Respondents

Gender		Frequency	Percent
Men	Profit	34	48.6
	Non-Profit	13	18.6
	Government	23	32.9
	Total	70	100
Women	Profit	28	45.9
	Non-Profit	14	23
	Government	19	31.1
	Total	61	100
I describe myself in another way	Profit	2	100

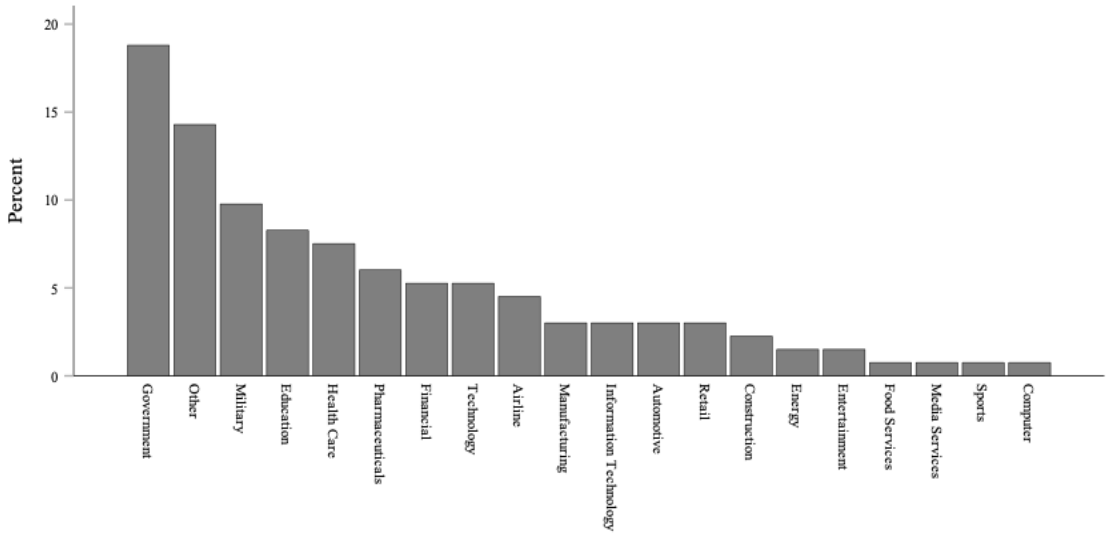


Figure 11. Industries

Politics

Most respondents indicated their political affiliation as being moderate or liberal. Of that proportion, most respondents displayed in Figure 12 are moderates (41%). While not identified as outliers in SPSS, two respondents indicated they are very conservative, and nine respondents identified as liberal.

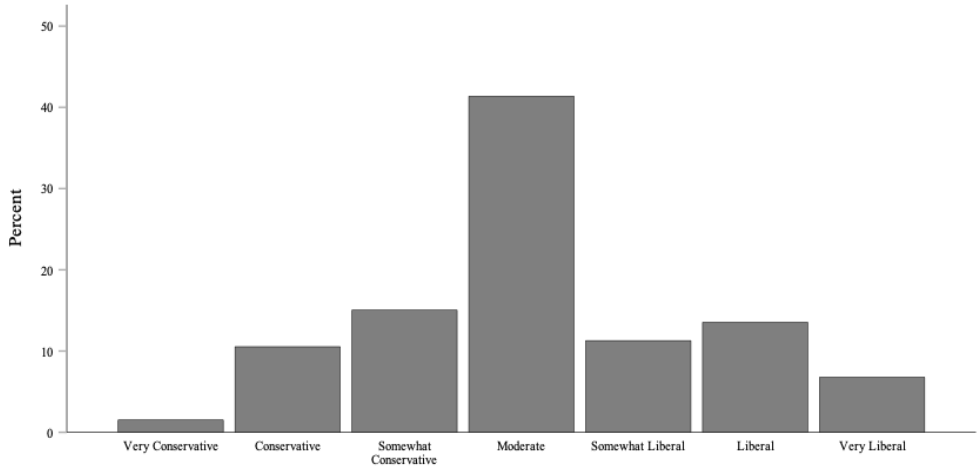


Figure 12. Political Affiliation

Data Analysis and Results

It is acknowledged that a descriptive analysis requires investigative measures that distinguish key attributes of the sample to the extent the sampling method allows theoretical exploration (Sarstedt et al., 2018). This section presents how the variables were measured and includes their key features about managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity initiatives.

Measures

In order to advance in this section, it is important to contextualize what constitutes an initiative and revisit the borrowed measures from two frameworks. In the extensive literature review, the concept of a diversity management system.is defined and operationalized. To conceptualize corporate actions that demonstrate an initiative, the term is classified as any endeavor or undertaking that signifies a response to the social unrest in 2019. For instance, corporate strategies might involve prioritizing fairness, issuing public statements on diversity, implementing new hiring and training strategies, setting diversity goals, or appointing a chief diversity officer.

Returning briefly to Leslie and her colleagues (2014), their framework adequately conceptualizes diversity initiatives. They (2014, p. 538) define diversity initiatives "as the implementation of one or more practices aimed at improving the workplace experience and outcomes of groups that face disadvantage in society." The scholars categorize three types of initiatives with their practiced outcomes and frame them accordingly: initiatives that prevent discrimination, provide resources, and institute accountability.

As a complimentary tool, De Meuse and Hostager's (2001) Reaction to Diversity (RTD) wordlist is incorporated to measure perceptions and attitudes. The researchers

contend that perceptions and attitudes are triggered by emotional and behavioral reactions to diversity, whether positive or negative. They theorize that these reactions further manifest into reactions portrayed in five dimensions: emotional reactions, judgments, behavior reactions, personal consequences, and organizational outcomes (see Table 9 & 11). These dimensions represent the measured ranges of negative or positive reactions (De Meuse & Hostager, 2001, p. 37):

1. Emotional: an instinctive, gut feeling general response to diversity.
2. Judgments: a person's general beliefs about diversity that is influenced by their principles.
3. Behavior: a person's intended reaction to the verbal or nonverbal aspects of diversity.
4. Personal Consequence: a person's view on how diversity affects their wellbeing.
5. Organizational Outcome: a person's collective view on how diversity affects their organization.

In conducting a criterion-related validity test based on their diversity wordlist, De Meuse and Hostager (2001) report an adequate correlation (r = .51, p .001).

Although generally discussed in the design section, the technical application of De Meuse's and Hostager's (2001) study is warranted. For composing the surveying instrument, 10 words were selected from the scholars' RTD wordlist, and 10 statements were selected from their Workforce Diversity Survey (WDS) to develop 20 Likert statements. Each RTD word was initially chosen based on its unlikelihood that it would trigger response bias. Although each WDS statement still emphasized its original RTD word, the structure was refined to ensure interpretation. A seven-item scale was applied to all Likert items, ranging from highly disagree to highly agree. The survey included self-reporting on control variables such as gender, ethnoracial, and age, as well as

managerial level, work modality, experience, organization size, and industry. Additionally, the three Likert-type items were added to explore the unique variables on political affiliation and turnover intent. The political scale was obtained from Blau et al. (2023). For turnover intent, a multi-item measure was utilized as recommended by Tett and Meyer (1993) to improve reliability. As such, two Likert-type items were derived from Jung et al. (2021): The intent of leaving and searching for a job. These items were analyzed as ordinal data, as advised by Boone and Boone (2012).

The questionnaire was further refined on January 20, 2023, with a limited pilot study using 14 respondents. Respondents were comprised of professional associates, who were asked how well they comprehended the statements or whether the statements triggered response bias. The primary refinement consideration entailed feedback on readability.

Statistical Assumptions

Accordingly, steps were also taken to determine whether the sample met normality assumptions. The 20 Likert items were treated as interval data, as suggested by several researchers (Boon & Boon, 2012; Brown, 2011; Carifio & Perla, 2007; Harpe, 2015; Howell, 2012; Mircioiu & Atkinson, 2017). Mean scores were computed for each item according to its RTD since means can provide a robust and efficient measure of central tendency (Hopkins & Weeks, 1990). The computing procedures were performed by following illustrative procedures in SPSS by Gignac (2019) and Howitt and Cramer (2017).

Skewness & Kurtosis

As key indicators, skewness and kurtosis were first analyzed using a normality interval of -1 and 1. This is a similar approach used by Berente and associates (2020). Caution is advised for sample sizes less than 300 (Mishra et al., 2019). Composite calculations were made on individual RTD items.

While close, Tables 15, 16, and 17 illustrate that 13 of the 20 RTD items contain moderately skewed, negative values and two negative values slightly greater than one (SENSIBLE & ADVANCES). There are also five items with moderately skewed, positive values. A noticeable amount of variability exists between RTD items on UNITY (3.21), FRUSTRATES (3.39), UNJUSTIFIED (3.20), PRESSURED (3.03), and WITHDRAWN (3.29). Furthermore, the Kolmogorov-Simirnov and Shapiro-Wilks test shown in Table 20 confirms that the scales fail to meet any assumptions of normality ($P < .05$) in indicating distributions differ from the norm.

Table 17. Std, Mean, and Distribution RTD Statements

		Statistic	Std. Error
UNITY	Mean	4.95	0.155
	Median	5.00	
	Variance	3.210	
	Std. Deviation	1.792	
	Skewness	-0.942	0.210
	Kurtosis	0.017	0.417
PROGRESS	Mean	3.0827	0.14636
	Median	3.0000	
	Variance	2.849	
	Std. Deviation	1.68795	
	Skewness	0.905	0.210
	Kurtosis	0.148	0.417
LIABILITY	Mean	4.3985	0.14357
	Median	4.0000	
	Variance	2.742	
	Std. Deviation	1.65575	
	Skewness	-0.170	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.991	0.417
SENSIBLE	Mean	5.02	0.149
	Median	5.00	
	Variance	2.969	
	Std. Deviation	1.723	
	Skewness	-1.043	0.210
	Kurtosis	0.330	0.417

		Statistic	Std. Error
UNFAIR	Mean	5.3534	0.13297
	Median	6.0000	
	Variance	2.351	
	Std. Deviation	1.53344	
	Skewness	-0.998	0.210
	Kurtosis	0.145	0.417
GRATEFUL	Mean	5.54	0.114
	Median	6.00	
	Variance	1.720	
	Std. Deviation	1.311	
	Skewness	-0.920	0.210
	Kurtosis	0.553	0.417
ADVANCES	Mean	5.26	0.134
	Median	6.00	
	Variance	2.392	
	Std. Deviation	1.547	
	Skewness	-1.049	0.210
	Kurtosis	0.428	0.417
INSECURE	Mean	3.8421	0.13152
	Median	3.0000	
	Variance	2.301	
	Std. Deviation	1.51679	
	Skewness	0.497	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.649	0.417

Table 18. Std, Mean, and Distribution RTD Statements

		Statistic	Std. Error
FRUSTRATES	Mean	3.7519	0.15953
	Median	3.0000	
	Variance	3.385	
	Std. Deviation	1.83982	
	Skewness	0.284	0.210
	Kurtosis	-1.184	0.417
COMPASSION	Mean	4.81	0.149
	Median	5.00	
	Variance	2.972	
	Std. Deviation	1.724	
	Skewness	-0.668	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.406	0.417
PRESSURED	Mean	4.4060	0.15096
	Median	4.0000	
	Variance	3.031	
	Std. Deviation	1.74094	
	Skewness	-0.155	0.210
	Kurtosis	-1.016	0.417
WITHDRAWN	Mean	5.1128	0.15747
	Median	6.0000	
	Variance	3.298	
	Std. Deviation	1.81598	
	Skewness	-0.794	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.586	0.417

		Statistic	Std. Error
SUPPORTIVE	Mean	4.35	0.134
	Median	4.00	
	Variance	2.395	
	Std. Deviation	1.547	
	Skewness	-0.497	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.245	0.417
INNOVATIVE	Mean	5.15	0.126
	Median	5.00	
	Variance	2.098	
	Std. Deviation	1.449	
	Skewness	-0.737	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.049	0.417
UNJUSTIFIED	Mean	4.8421	0.15498
	Median	5.0000	
	Variance	3.195	
	Std. Deviation	1.78734	
	Skewness	-0.510	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.783	0.417
CONFUSING	Mean	4.2782	0.13808
	Median	4.0000	
	Variance	2.536	
	Std. Deviation	1.59237	
	Skewness	0.093	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.728	0.417

Table 19. Std, Mean, and Distribution RTD Statements

		Statistic	Std. Error
UNITY	Mean	4.8346	0.14046
	Median	5.0000	
	Variance	2.624	
	Std. Deviation	1.61986	
	Skewness	-0.455	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.671	0.417
USEFUL	Mean	5.71	0.087
	Median	6.00	
	Variance	1.012	
	Std. Deviation	1.006	
	Skewness	-0.334	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.937	0.417

		Statistic	Std. Error
OPPORTUNITIES	Mean	4.88	0.150
	Median	5.00	
	Variance	2.985	
	Std. Deviation	1.728	
	Skewness	-0.715	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.508	0.417
SUPPORTIVE	Mean	2.63	0.147
	Median	2.00	
	Variance	2.871	
	Std. Deviation	1.694	
	Skewness	0.899	0.210
	Kurtosis	-0.242	0.417

Table 20. Kolmogorove-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests

Normality Tests of Likert Statements						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Statement: **Useful**	0.234	132	0.000	0.856	132	0.000
Statement: **Innovative**	0.219	133	0.000	0.880	133	0.000
Statement: **Grateful**	0.172	133	0.000	0.931	133	0.000
Statement: **Advance**	0.226	133	0.000	0.854	133	0.000
Statement: **Unity**	0.185	133	0.000	0.904	133	0.000
Statement: **Opportunities**	0.191	133	0.000	0.903	133	0.000
Statement: **Compassion**	0.181	133	0.000	0.927	133	0.000
Statement: **Unfair**	0.289	133	0.000	0.849	133	0.000
Statement: **Sensible**	0.223	133	0.000	0.910	133	0.000
Statement: **Unity**	0.246	133	0.000	0.849	133	0.000
Statement: P**rogress**	0.306	132	0.000	0.837	132	0.000
Statement: **Liability**	0.254	133	0.000	0.841	133	0.000
Statement: **Pressured**	0.255	133	0.000	0.856	133	0.000
Statement: **Withdrawn**	0.259	133	0.000	0.898	133	0.000
Statement: I**nsecurities**	0.201	133	0.000	0.921	133	0.000
Statement: **Frustrates**	0.195	133	0.000	0.901	133	0.000
Statement: **Supportive**	0.200	133	0.000	0.904	133	0.000
Statement: **Merit**	0.193	133	0.000	0.934	133	0.000
Statement: **Unjustified**	0.215	133	0.000	0.889	133	0.000
Statement: **Confusing**	0.247	133	0.000	0.847	133	0.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

b. *Sig. for P < .05*

Reliability

The lack of normality defaulted to relying on the McDonald's Omega coefficient ω as an alternative test to determine reliability among the 20 Likert scales. Because of the Omega coefficient's unstandardized measure, scholars recommend using it as a robust measure and even suggest its computations are better than Cronbach's Alpha (Hayes & Coutts, 2020; Shaw, 2021). An SPSS module was accessed through Hayes.com, and procedures were followed as prescribed by Hayes & Coutts (2020). Maximum likelihood yielded a reliability score of .883, indicating internal consistency among the Likert items.

ANOVA

Considering RTD items' variability, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with SPSS. Composite scores were aggregated according to the three categories of diversity initiatives that prevent discrimination, provide resources, and institute accountability. The aggregate scores account for the collective responses from the participants toward a particular aspect of the study (Josh et al., 2010). In comparison to the variability of the composite RTD scores, the skewness of the aggregate scores improved. However, this adjustment was insufficient to establish normality. Table 21 lists the ANOVA values across the three categories. For the sample, marginal significance is noted for diversity initiatives that prevent discrimination ($P < .007$) and pronounced significance for diversity initiatives that institute accountability ($P < .002$).

It is recognized that the collection methods for this statistic raise concerns since probability sampling was not employed. However, the reliance on the robustness of the ANOVA is deemed sufficient, even under non-normal conditions as argued by some researchers such as McDonald et al. (2000) and Schmider et al. (2010). Furthermore,

Lantz (2013) contends that skewness has little effect on ANOVA robustness. As such, ANOVA was used to guide the subsequent analysis in addressing the primary research question.

Table 21. Analysis of Variance Using Composite Scores

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Prevent Discrimination	Between Groups	491.90	2	245.95	5.215	0.007
	Within Groups	6131.20	130	47.16		
	Total	6623.10	132			
Provide Resources	Between Groups	88.17	2	44.09	1.023	0.362
	Within Groups	5603.13	130	43.10		
	Total	5691.31	132			
Establish Accountability	Between Groups	403.96	2	201.98	6.805	0.002
	Within Groups	3858.71	130	29.68		
	Total	4262.68	132			

Analysis of Dimensions

Two approaches were employed to analyze respondents' perceptions and attitudes. Besides computing composite scores for these constructs, means and standard deviations were computed to compare each dimension. As investigated by De Meuse and Hostager (2001), the dimensions correspond to either perceptions or attitudes, which provide a deeper understanding of respondents' reactions (see Table 11).

Table 22 illustrates how these dimensional scores relate to diversity initiatives. Respondents' perceptions tend to be favorable toward initiatives that institute accountability with organizational implications (M=5.15). Respondents also signal they are favorable toward initiatives that prevent discrimination in the way they judge how their personal values align with the initiatives' purpose (M=5.02). Their behavioral reaction is also favorable (M=5.11). These reactions are comparable to respondents'

emotional reactions to initiatives that provide resources (*M*=5.54). However, those reactions (M=2.68) conflict with the way respondents judge initiatives that provide resources. Varying attitudes within the sample also point to a lower behavioral score (*M*=2.63) for attitudes toward initiatives that institute accountability.

Table 22. Comparison of Means and Standard Deviations Among Constructs

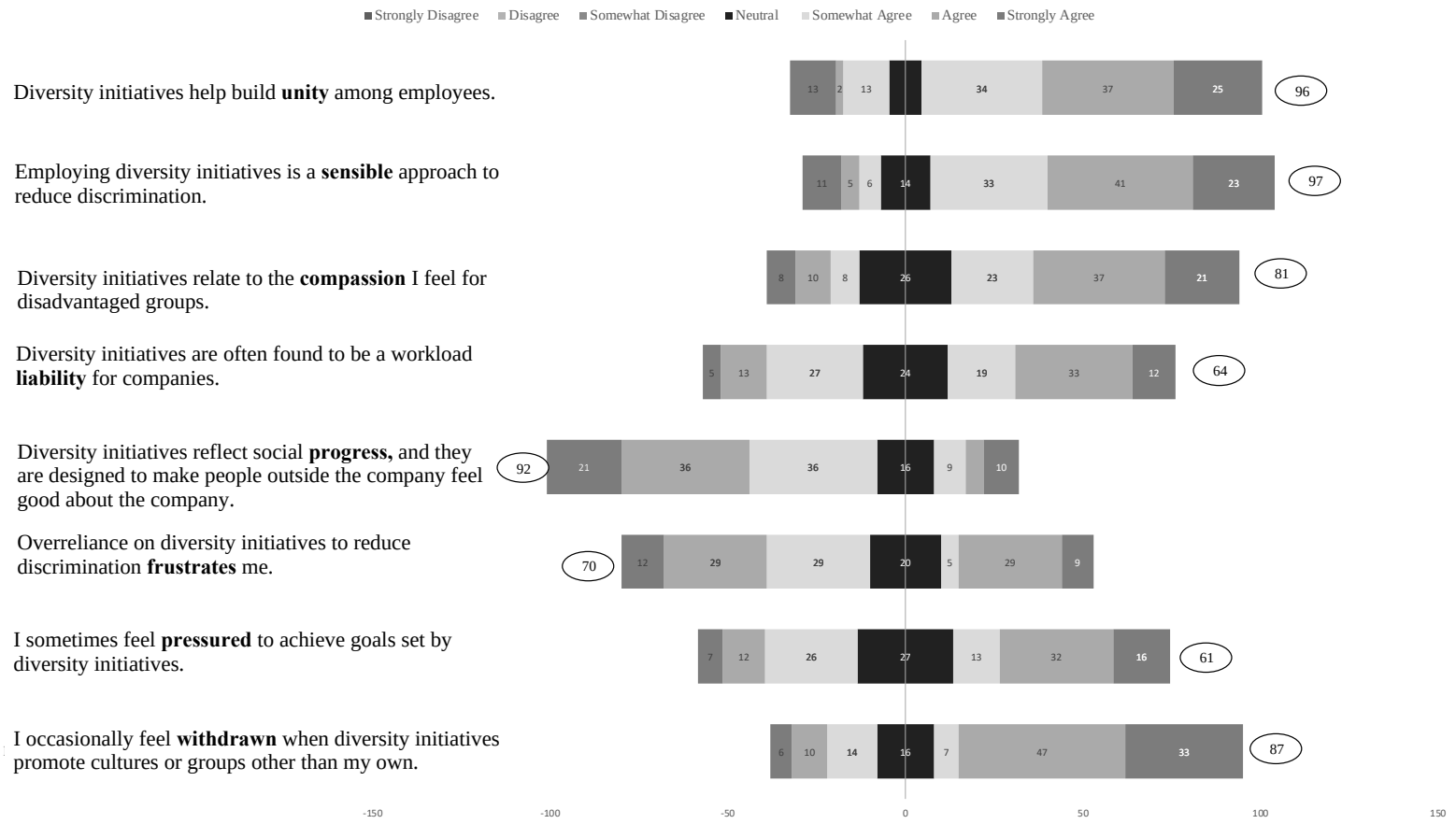
	Perception						Attitude			
	Organizational Outcomes		Judgments		Emotional Reactions		Personal Consequence		Behavioral Reaction	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Prevent Discrimination	4.14	1.71	**5.02**	1.72	4.28	1.78	4.41	1.74	**5.11**	1.82
Provide Resources	4.83	1.62	**2.68**	1.27	**5.54**	1.31	4.55	1.53	4.35	1.55
Institute Accountability	**5.15**	1.45	4.84	1.79	4.28	1.59	4.88	1.73	**2.63**	1.69

a. *Dimensions determined by Reactions to Diversity initiatives study by the three studies conducted by De Meuse and Hostager (2001).*
b. *Means greater than 5 or less than 3 are noted in bold.*

Analysis of Likert Data as Individual Items

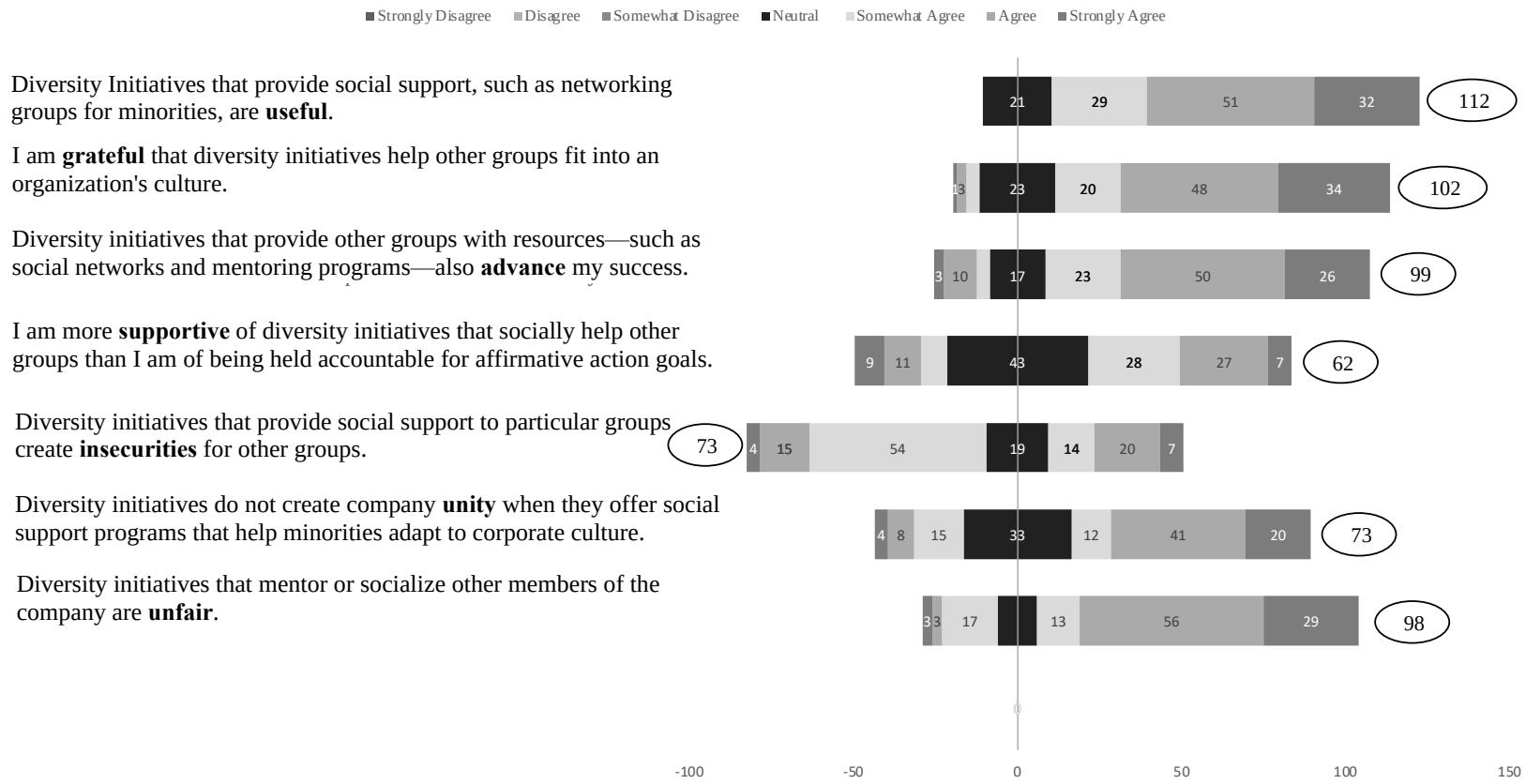
The second approach to analyzing perceptions and attitudes is analyzing Likert scales as ordinal data to accommodate normality challenges. According to Joshie et al. (2010), this approach can effectively capture perceptions and attitudes as they relate to each Likert item. Rather than means, the analysis focuses on the distribution of medians and frequencies as recommended by Boone and Boone (2012) and Pimentel (2010). To do so, Figures 13, 14, and 15 correspond to a relative category of a diversity initiative. The figures are structured at the item level, and a frequency score is computed for each item that reflects perceptions or attitudes. A share of respondents fell into the neutral category (neither agree or disagree).

However, a number of respondents fell into areas worth highlighting that reflect frequencies of mixed reactions greater than 70. The results are illustrated by category. For Figure 13, a proportion of respondents agree or strongly agree that diversity initiatives that prevent discrimination are sensible (96) and they build unity within an organization (97). Moreover, respondents also expressed that diversity initiatives are not necessarily designed to make constituents feel good (93). On the other end of the spectrum, respondents also held negative perceptions and attitudes. Respondents (87) occasionally felt withdrawn when initiatives were used to promote other groups, and an overreliance on diversity triggered frustration among other respondents (70).



a.Neutral scores are not computed.
b.Negatively worded statements were reverse scored.

Figure 13.Perceptions and Attitudinal Reactions toward Diversity Initiatives (DI) that Prevent Discrimination



a.Neutral scores are not computed.
b.Negatively worded statements were reverse scored.

Figure 14.Perceptions and Attitudinal Reactions toward Diversity Initiatives (DI) that Provide Resources

a.Neutral scores are not computed.
b.Negatively worded statements were reverse scored.

Figure 15.Perceptions and Attitudinal Reactions toward Diversity Initiatives (DI) that Establish Accountability

In contrast, similar perceptions and attitudes are expressed toward diversity initiatives that provide resources for underrepresented groups. Figure 14 illustrates that a proportion of respondents (112) perceive that social acclimation programs are useful, and accordingly, they (102) feel grateful for that benefit. On the other hand, negative reactions (73) among respondents agree that such initiatives do not create unity and that socialized programs are unfair (98).

Perceptions and attitudes toward diversity initiatives that institute accountability tend to yield mixed results (Figure 15). Respondents (96) consider such initiatives innovative, and they (87) also believe leaders who lead such efforts create opportunities for all groups. On the other hand, respondents (79) believe it is unjustified to use metrics to hire minority groups. Respondents (95) also disagree with adjusting merit or performance standards for underrepresented groups.

Turnover Intention

Considering the mixed reactions, turnover intentions provide some insights. Treated as ordinal data, the range of this experience extends from somewhat agree to strongly agree. Table 23 indicates that most respondents (47.4%) experienced thoughts about leaving their jobs. Blacks and Whites share the greater proportion of this desire. Tables 24 depicts whether thoughts on leaving were acted upon. Most respondents neither “agree or disagree” with having this tendency (26.3%). However, slightly more women (19.5%) than men (18.8%) admitted to having searched for a job.

Table 23. Turnover Intent by Race and Ethnicity on Thinking About Leaving their Jobs

Ethnoracial	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Indian	0	0	0	0	0	**1**	0	1
Asian	1	1	0	2	**1**	**1**	0	6
Black	0	8	0	9	**4**	**10**	**9**	40
Hispanic	0	2	0	1	**1**	0	0	4
White	12	14	2	14	**12**	**10**	**7**	71
Other	0	1	0	0	0	**2**	**1**	4
Prefer not to Answer	0	0	0	3	0	**4**	0	7
Total	13	26	2	29	**18**	**28**	**17**	133

Table 24. Turnover Intent by Race and Ethnicity on Searching for a New Job

Ethnoracial	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Indian	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Asian	1	1	0	2	2	0	0	6
Black	5	6	0	11	4	7	7	40
Hispanic	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	4
White	14	19	4	14	4	11	5	71
Other	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	4
Prefer not to Answer	0	0	1	4	2	0	0	7
Total	21	27	5	35	13	19	13	133
	15.80%	20.30%	3.80%	26.30%	9.80%	14.30%	9.80%	100.00%

Discussion of Results

This study examines managers' perceptions and attitudes toward three categories of diversity initiatives. Its research methods seek to describe its demographic and social features, resting upon the social remnants of the social unrest in 2019. As discussed, this social change incentivized firms to relook at their diversity management system and demonstrate their commitment to a diverse, equitable, and inclusive workplace (McCrea et al., 2022). However, the corporate enthusiasm was short-lived. Two years after 2019, corporations received backlash from politicians, employees, and consumers alike for employing diversity strategies (Fatima, 2022; Williams, 2021).

Apart from the anticipated use of parametric measures, the discussions presented rely upon the aggregate and average sums of frequencies. This analysis examines managers' perceptions and attitudes according to three categorical frameworks of diversity initiatives. As a viable approach, this method seeks to identify key notions and describe demographic and social features, resting upon the social remnants of the social unrest in 2019. As discussed, its social upheaval motivated companies to review their diversity management strategies and demonstrate their dedication to cultivating an inclusive, equitable, and diverse workplace. (McCrea et al., 2022). However, the corporate enthusiasm was short-lived, considering the corporate backlash from politicians, employees, and consumers alike for employing diversity strategies (Fatima, 2022; Williams, 2021).

Apart from the anticipated use of parametric and nonparametric measures, the following results rely upon the aggregate sum of frequencies. Further discussed in the limitations section (See page 117), caution is exercised due to the statistical constraints of

convenience sampling and the data's lack of meeting normality assumptions. Nonetheless, the general outcome of this study suggests that managers share perceptive and attitudinal reactions to certain diversity initiatives that correspond to their group identities. Several findings exist among the three types of diversity categories.

Diversity Initiatives: Prevent Discrimination

It is interesting to note that findings on diversity initiatives that prevent discrimination offer mixed results. Managers within the sample tend to be favorable toward diversity initiatives that prevent discrimination. Table 20 illustrates this notion (5.02) in that their judgment promotes these perceptions. Figure 13 further shows that a more significant frequency (97) of managers believe that employing diversity initiatives is a sensible approach to reducing discrimination. The reaction to this category is fairly expected. Preventing discrimination appeals to the moral aspect of fairness and a contemporary, social understanding that discrimination is wrong (Demuijnck, 2009; Thomas & Ely, 1996). This notion is also consistent with other research (Harrison and others (2006); Kidder et al., 2004; Richard & Kirby, 1999), where respondents reacted favorably to affirmative action policies because they were justified. Managers may tend to support such initiatives since the mechanisms may fulfill an institutional value, a corporate principle, or an economic objective, according to Embrick (2011). This claim denotes that diversity initiatives may be viewed favorably, when adhering to corporate principles or economic goals. Levy and Williams (2004) also claim that indirect influences, such as corporate climate, values, sociopolitical factors, or workforce composition, may influence the degree to which accountability is accepted.

In contrast, respondents' attitudes reveal a different reaction. As Table 20 illustrates, respondents' behavioral reactions (5.11) indicate a desire to feel withdrawn when diversity initiatives promote other cultures. This reaction is represented by the frequency (87) in Figure 13. Leslie (2019) describes this reaction as an unintended consequence of diversity initiatives.

Intergroup emotion theory (IET) explains respondents' behavioral reactions for withdrawals. Mackie et al. (2008) elucidate the cognitive processes that bear on the perceptual emotions of being culturally dissimilar. They illustrate that how individuals see themselves, relative to how they perceive work, invoke intergroup emotions. In this case, the sense of being different may have contributed to these managers' low sense of belonging toward different cultures.

Diversity Initiatives: Provide Resources

Mixed results are also observed in how respondents perceive diversity initiatives that provide resources. Respondents indicate favorable reactions toward diversity initiatives that provide resources for underrepresented groups, highlighted in Table 22 (M = 5.54). Figure 14 shows that diversity initiatives are deemed useful (112), and there is gratitude for initiatives that enable members to adapt to the workplace (102). These reactions may relate to managers' awareness of the negative impact of not having such programs that aid member acclimation. As noted by Biggs et al., a lack of such diversity initiatives could create barriers to advancement. So, it is understandable that managers should find value in them (Yang et al., 2010). Programs, such as mentoring programs, enhance the professional growth of all members (Baugh & Scandura, 1999; Lankau &

Scandura, 2002). Moreover, such programs can positively affect minority members' satisfaction and attitudes (Egan & Song, 2008; Kim et al., 2013).

However, also indicated by Table 22 (2.68), respondents' judgment of the fairness of those programs is inconsistent. They believe diversity initiatives that provide mentoring and socializing support to other members are unfair, as illustrated in Figure 14 (98). The inconsistency found here also requires looking closely at the elements that drive this reaction. The same rationale for using political affiliation to understand group differences is reapplied. Only Whites show significance, confirmed by a Pearson's Chi-Square test illustrating an association between white respondents and their political affiliation, $X2(df=36, N=133) = 46.006, P = .001$). Table 25 further itemizes this score by comparing white and black respondents. Moderate to conservative respondents in both ethnoracial categories agree that diversity initiatives that help mentor and socialize other members are unfair.

De Meuse and Hostager (2001) describe the perceptual dimension attributed to judgment as an individual's beliefs about diversity. It is then expected that individual beliefs can affect how diversity is perceived (Harrison et al., 2006; Richard et al., 2000; Van Dick et al., 2008). Equally important, Leslie and Flynn (2022) suggest that individual beliefs are part of a broader sense of their identity, which may influence a person's reaction to diversity programs. Hence in the sample, the reactions by conservative white respondents could be related to how they perceive the unfairness of diversity initiatives intended to socialize or acclimate other members to an organization.

Huy (2011) further adds to this conundrum by highlighting that managers' perceptions can stimulate how they feel toward other groups, even when no risk is posed

to their interests. Managers might agree with the basic rationale for socializing new members. However, they might also resist them through settled behaviors. Huy (2011) theorizes that such reactions are triggered by individuals' emotional attachment to their group allegiance.

Table 25. Comparison of Ethnoracial and Political Affiliation to Diversity Initiatives that Institute Accountability

			Likert Item #20: I am supportive of Diversity Initiatives that adjust merit standards or lower Preferences or Expectations to recruit underrepresented groups							
Ethnoracial			Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Black	Politics	V-Conser	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	3
		SW-Conser	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	3
		Moderate	4	6	2	3	3	2	1	21
		SW-Liberal	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	3
		Liberal	2	2	0	2	1	1	0	8
		Very Liberal	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Total		12	13	2	5	4	3	1	40
			30.00%	**32.50%**	5.00%	12.50%	10.00%	7.50%	2.50%	100.00%
White	Politics	V-Conser	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
		Conservative	6	1	2	0	0	0	0	9
		SW-Conser	9	2	2	0	0	0	0	13
		Moderate	7	9	5	2	2	0	0	25
		SW-Liberal	3	3	3	2	1	0	0	12
		Liberal	1	2	1	1	1	1	0	7
		Very Liberal	0	0	0	2	1	0	1	4
	Total		26	17	13	8	5	1	1	71
			36.60%	**23.90%**	**18.30%**	11.30%	7.00%	1.40%	1.40%	100.00%
Total			38	30	15	13	9	4	2	111

a. Key results are in bold

b. Categories with Hispanic, Asian, Indian, and Other omitted for subsamples less than 7

c. Abbreviations: V= Very, SW=Somewhat, Conser = Conservative

Table 26. Comparison of Ethnoracial and Political Affiliation to Diversity Initiatives that Provide Resources

			Likert Item #11: Diversity Initiatives that mentor and socialize other members of the company are unfair							
Ethnoracial			Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Black	Politics	Conservative	0		0	0	0	2	1	3
		Somewhat Conservative	0		0	0	1	0	2	3
		Moderate	0		2	1	0	12	6	21
		Somewhat Liberal	0		0	0	0	2	1	3
		Liberal	1		0	0	0	2	5	8
		Very Liberal	0		0	0	0	1	1	2
	Total		1		2	1	1	**19**	**16**	40
			2.5%		5.0%	2.5%	2.5%	47.5%	40.0%	100.0%
White	Politics	Very Conservative	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
		Conservative	1	2	1	1	3	1	0	9
		Somewhat Conservative	0	0	4	0	3	4	2	13
		Moderate	1	0	4	4	3	12	1	25
		Somewhat Liberal	0	0	0	2	2	5	3	12
		Liberal	0	0	0	0	1	4	2	7
		Very Liberal	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	4
	Total		2	2	**10**	7	**12**	**29**	9	71
			2.8%	2.8%	14.1%	9.9%	16.9%	40.8%	12.7%	100.0%
Total			3	2	12	8	**13**	**48**	**25**	111

Diversity Initiatives: Institute Accountability

Perhaps the most interesting finding is respondents' regard for diversity initiatives that institute accountability. As with the previous notions from Table 22, there are also mixed results. Respondents' perceptions are favorable organizationally (M=5.15). The corresponding frequencies (96) in Figure 15 also reflect this result. Most respondents agree that diversity mechanisms are associated with innovative strategies to institute accountability for diversity goals.

However, respondents' behavioral reactions tend to portray unfavorable attitudes toward this category (M = 2.63). Figure 15 shows that respondents (95) disagree with adjusting merit or performance standards for underrepresented groups. This outcome is perplexing, given the inconsistency and the scarce research on the topic. McCarty et al. (2005) and others (Richard et al., 2013) claim that diversity goals can be incentivized through performance appraisals that hold managers accountable. He highlights metrics and goals as an effective way to achieve diversity objectives. Dobbin and Kalev (2022) contend that performance appraisals produce mixed results since they do not consistently achieve intended diversity goals and objectives. This inconsistency is difficult to decipher. The period of McCarthy et al. (2005) research indicates perhaps shifts in managerial practices and reliance on performance evaluations. Another explanation could be related to how managers judge the value of being held accountable for the success of the firm's diversity management strategy, as in a similar claim by Kidder et al. (2004). The researchers describe the likelihood of this reaction being attributed to whether managers believe diversity initiatives are justified.

This inconsistency also generates other implications when examined through two factors that drive this current environment: ethnoracial and political factors. Race and ethnicity are treated as controlling factors among the other variables. Specifically, the results demonstrate that political affiliation can influence attitudes at work (Iyengar & Krupenkin, 2018). Pearson's Chi-Square test reveals that only Whites have a significant relationship between their political affiliations among the seven ethnoracial categories in the sample. It equates to $X2(df=36, N=133) = 60.297, P = .001$).

Table 26 presents these differences differently. Examining the frequencies among white and black respondents, it lists dissimilarities according to political affiliation. Although Blacks hold low significance in this association, they are added to the comparison since they are the second largest group in the sample. Similarly, the other groups contain less than ten frequency points. The frequencies show that white respondents, who are moderate to very conservative, tend to react unfavorably to diversity initiatives that adjust merit or performance standards for recruitment.

While inconsistent in this sample, these reactions should be expected, according to Scarborough and others (2019). Scholars argue that race and ethnicity affect how members feel about diversity initiatives. The historical context of ethnoracial and personal experiences can shape attitudes. Scarborough et al. (2019) also reveal that policies designed to prevent discrimination receive more support than policies programmed to increase diversity.

Other explanations exist for unfavorable responses to diversity initiatives based on adjusted merit or performance standards. This negative score might also lie in the notion that diversity initiatives can still conjure unpleasant emotions if perceived as an

extension of affirmative action mandates (Kersten, 2000; Leslie et al., 2014). Managers may be conflicted by its intent to ensure fairness while worrying that their decision-making will be questioned or challenged. Such a dilemma can lead to resistance or skepticism, which can be difficult to overcome.

Limitations

These findings are encouraging. Nonetheless, they are interpreted with care since their limitations entail using convenience sampling, adopting procedures for imputing values, and failing to meet normality assumptions. It is noted that convenience sampling is a common sampling method used by researchers (Sarstedt et al. (2017). In this study, it provided a respectable sample size of 133 participants. However, it should be noted that this sampling method may restrict the ability to generalize the findings of the study. Therefore, for greater generalizability, a different sampling method may be necessary. As a result, this study is limited to this sample.

At the same time, Sarstedt et al. (2017) also imply that not all research settings require a sample that needs to be generalized. As an initial study intended to explore, this study fits into a lesser methodology described by Calder et al. (1981). They argue that exploratory research is meant to explore and establish an informed idea about the phenomenon. They claim this differs from using inferences to advance theory in which generalizing, then, can be considered beyond the bounds of an exploratory research setting. Considering their argument, it is reasonable to mention that this study's utility is informing future research that can expand these findings for more scholarly insights.

Another concern is the use of mean substitutions for missing values. As an ongoing debate, there is only concern for its potential limitation regarding its

effectiveness. For example, Downey and King (1998) found mean substitutions as an adequate replacement for replacing missing data in Likert scales when total missing values are less than 20%. Despite this advocacy, the process is discouraged. Baraldi and Enders (2010), Pigott (2001), and others recommend more modern statistical methods such as Complete Case Analysis and Maximum Likelihood to impute missing values. In this study, replacing missing values with mean substitution may create a modicum of risk, given the established MCAR score. However, regression imputation methods require meeting the statistical assumption for normality assumptions (Kelly, 2013).

The lack of meeting normality assumptions created a primary limitation for this study. As stated earlier, the sample distribution failed to attain normality. Norman (2010) is right to point out this drawback when using Likert scales. While transforming procedures exist, they risk diluting original data (Mircioiu et al., 2017). Even so, applying a log transformation with SPSS only made minor improvements to the distribution. The skewness and kurtosis of the data remained out of tolerance. Consequently, the lack of normality limited this study's statistical analysis to non-parametric methods, which are less robust than parametric procedures.

Another limitation is the use of a partially validated surveying instrument. As one of the few instruments that assesses managers' reactions, the WDS instrument by De Meuse and Hostager (2001) enables this study's insight into managers' perceptions and attitudes. However, its design of an RTD wordlist and a 10-statement survey only provided a partially (50%) validated instrument. Since the remaining 20 Likert statements were not tested with statements that could be interpreted consistently, they needed construct validity. Moreover, De Meuse and Hostager (2001) cautioned that more tests

were necessary to address these factors. Although this study's survey achieved a high omega score (.883) in reactions, concern about potential inconsistency can be seen in Figures 13, 14, and 15. Some items contradict settled inferences, which could challenge the analysis of respondents' perceptions and attitudes. As noted earlier, respondents expressed positive perceptions of diversity initiatives that institute accountability. Conversely, behavioral reactions tend to be unfavorable (M = 2.63) in the same category. All in all, the conflicting findings attest to the challenge of clearly delineating perceptions and attitudes when limited statistically.

Reflection

While mixed, diversity initiatives tend to manifest their relevance in managers' perceptions and attitudes in the following ways. Managers' perceptions favor diversity initiatives that institute accountability and prevent discrimination. These reactions indicate that judging or rationalizing how these elements align with their values contributed to how they perceived such initiatives. Conversely, managers' attitudinal dispositions are mixed compared to their perceptions. Their attitudes are less favorable toward initiatives that institute accountability, specifically those that adjust merit standards. On the other hand, resource-based diversity initiatives are also deemed favorable.

CHAPTER 4. STUDY TWO

The Framework

Study 2 explores the impact of diversity initiatives on managers' perceptions and attitudes. While Study 1 utilized descriptive analysis to achieve this objective, its findings pointed to certain limitations that underscore the need for a more robust approach. As such, this study seeks to provide that robustness through a methodologically meticulous study. Specifically, it endeavors to develop a diversity management initiative (DMI) scale, a critical step in laying a solid foundation to thoroughly investigate and accurately benchmark managerial reactions to diversity initiatives in the post-2019 context.

Rationale for New Scales

Why are reliable DMI scales essential to this study? Several reasons underlie this rationale. Primarily, viable scales simply do not exist. Echoing Otaye-Ebede's (2018) insightful findings, there is an evident need for robust scales that accurately measure members' perceptions of diversity management practices. My extensive searches across various databases, encompassing terms such as diversity management, diversity practices, diversity programs, and diversity climate, have only reinforced the need for suitable tools in this area.

I reviewed articles before and after 2017, also utilizing boolean operators in Google Scholar to retrieve the latest top-journal articles on diversity, as well as articles from this dissertation's literature review. Besides Otaye-Ebede's (2018, p.465) findings, I identified and substantiated six additional articles, such as Richard et al. (2013) and Pitts (2009) on diversity practices, Konrad et al. (2016) on diversity systems, Mor Barak et al.

(1998) on diversity climate, Kim et al. (2015) on diversity programs, and De Meuse & Hostager (2001) on workplace diversity, which further confirmed this ongoing issue.

Tables 27 through 29 combine these findings. Unfortunately, they indicate the diversity scales within these studies were either limited to their respective research parameters or lacked statistical validity. Two research efforts were added to Table 29 warrant further discussion due to their relevance to this discovery.

First and foremost, Otaye-Ebede's (2018) research deserves acknowledgment for recognizing this challenge and making a commendable effort to address it. In her study, she meticulously designed specific scales to measure employees' perceptions of diversity management practices, following the guidelines outlined by Hinkin (1995), a prominent scholar in scale development.

However, it is essential to note that Otaye-Ebede's (2018) scales were tailored for assessing employees' perceptions and may not directly apply to this study, which focuses on managers. Additionally, her research was conducted in the United Kingdom, introducing potential limitations in terms of generalizability. A key concern for scale development, cross-cultural generalizability requires a considerable amount of effort to fully account for the psychometric properties that may exist in one culture and may be lacking in another (Durvasula et al., 1993). This research factors the historical and cultural nuances of diversity management in the U.S. and considers how its managers might respond.

Another rationale for reliable scales involves the use of De Meuse and Hostager's (2001) Reaction to Diversity framework, which was also incorporated into the research design of Study 1. The researchers developed scales from an aggregate wordlist based on

students' reactions and a workforce diversity survey (WDS). In retrospect, the researchers cautioned the limited validity of their instrument (Hostager & De Meuse, 2008). As noted in the limitations section (see page 118), using the wordlist and the WDS to construct an instrument made it less reliable. Consequently, inconsistencies were observed in Study 1 (Also see Figures 13, 14, and 15).

Hinkin (1995) re-emphasizes the value and the requirement for validity. He argues that scale accuracy and reliability are based on how their constructs are operationalized through content and construct validity. Hinkin (1995) conceptualizes content validity as how well a measure assesses the central idea of a targeted domain, while construct validity relates to the relationship among the measures and their key attributes. While an acceptable score of content validity was achieved for Study 1, it lacked construct validity. These components are vital for implementing a sound research methodology.

Hinkin (1995) also offers another reason for establishing reliable scales. Such an instrument can significantly enhance empirical estimates and precision, which are essential for assessing psychometric qualities and measuring the unidimensionality of managerial reactions (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Haynes et al., 1995; Reise et al., 2000). Unidimensionality can be regarded as a construct or a latent attribute that reflects a set of measures (McDonald, 1981, as cited by Anderson et al., 1987). In another way, achieving unidimensionality provides a higher level of confidence that instruments effectively measure the intended unobservable constructs.

These considerations significantly enhanced the analytical credibility of this study. Given the complex nature of diversity management—encompassing cultural,

social, and administrative factors (Leslie, 2019; Pitts, 2009)—the precision of measurement tools becomes essential to prevent potential misinterpretations. The introduction and subsequent validation of the new DMI scales have bolstered confidence in the accuracy of this research data, a crucial trait as argued by Hinkin (1995) and Stone (1995). Accordingly, this approach safeguards against inconsistencies in measurement, results, analysis, and interpretation.

Framework for New DMI Scales

In reviewing the discussions found in the scale development literature, including works by Hinkin (1995), Anderson et al. (1987), and Gerbing & Anderson (1988), it becomes evident that scale methodology involves two distinct phases: scale development and scale assessment. This established framework makes developing scales a viable undertaking, given the foundational design elements established in Study 1.

As previously stated, Study 1 laid the groundwork for scale development with Likert items constructed upon the foundation laid by De Meuse and Hostager (2001). Despite some recognized limitations, the diversity inventory word list evaluated in Study 1 provided a means to categorize responses to diversity initiatives. The researchers' study also proposed a theoretical priori about how specific words can trigger cognitive reactions. Its design structure illustrated how these responses reflect key dimensions for behavioral discernment, outlined in Table 11.

These dimensions cover a broad spectrum of potential responses that managers might have, including organizational, judgmental, emotional, personal consequence, and behavioral reactions. Furthermore, these social structures offer a valuable framework for deductive scale development and ultimately facilitate more effective data collection and

analysis (Froman, 2001; Hinkin, 1995). The following section will explore additional aspects of Study 2's design that support its goal to conduct a thorough methodological investigation.

Table 27. Sample of Diversity Management Measurements

Authors	Title of Article	DM Measurement	Type of Response
Sakr et al., 2023	Development and Validation of the Marginalized-Group-Focused Diversity Climate Scale: Group differences and Outcomes	The use of 18 items produced three factors to validate diversity climate scales at the organizational level for historically marginalized groups: organizational inclusion, Personal Valuing of other groups, and Organizational Anti-Discrimination.	9 - Point Likert Scale
Mor Barak et al., 1998	Organizational and Personal Dimensions in Diversity Climate: Ethnic and Gender Differences in Employee Perceptions	Incorporated 23 items along two dimensions, factoring perceptions of diversity on the organizational and individual levels.	6 - Point Likert Scale
Carstens & De Kock, 2016	Firm-level diversity management competencies: development and initial validation of a measure	Questionnaire measures the Diversity Management competency at the firm level that includes inclusiveness, opportunities and power distribution and performance	5 - Point Likert Scale
Kim et al., 2015	The effect of workplace diversity management in a highly male- dominated culture	Relies on study by Mor Barak et al. (1998) to measure employee perceptions, commitment, and job performance	5 - Point Likert Scale
Pitts, 2009	Diversity Management, Job Satisfaction, and Performance: Evidence from U.S. Federal Agencies	Uses a three-item survey questionnaire to explore commitment, existence of diversity policies with employees.	5 - Point Likert Scale
Downey et al., 2015	The role of diversity practices and inclusion in promoting trust and employee engagement	Fifteen items were developed to measure diversity practices that included leaders' support and organizational recruitment	Not illustrated

Table 27. **(Continue)**

Authors	Title of Article	DM Measurement	Type of Response
Richard et al., 2013	The link between diversity and equality management practice bundles and racial diversity in the managerial ranks: does firm size matter?	Utilized bundles separated into diversity equality management practices (DEM) and managerial accountability. DEM's dimensions include internships, networks, and career-development programs. Dimensions for accountability include appraisals and bonuses.	Yes and No
Ng & Sears, 2012	CEO Leadership Styles and the Implementation of Organizational Diversity Practices: Moderating Effects of Social Values and Age	Used Konrad and Linnehan's (1995) survey for identity-conscious that explores diversity practices that contained inquires on diversity policies, training, recruitment, compensation, accountability, and development.	Varying scales: Yes and No responses, and a 3-point Likert Scale
Naff & Kellough, 2003	Ensuring Employment Equity: Are Federal Diversity Programs Making a Difference?	Evaluates components of diversity programs by using 23 items over four factors: Training, Communication, Accountability, and Resource.	Index Scores
Downey et al., 2015	The role of diversity practices and inclusion in promoting trust and employee engagement	Fifteen items were developed to measure diversity practices that included leaders' support and organizational recruitment	Not illustrated

Table 27. (Continue)

Authors	Title of Article	DM Measurement	Type of Response
Konrad et al., 2016	Antecedents and Outcomes of Diversity and Equality Management Systems: An Integrated Institutional Agency Systems in Canadian Organizations and Strategic Human Resource Management Approach	Binary type survey with 32 items	Yes and No
De Meuse & Hostager, 2001	Developing an Instrument for Measuring Attitudes Toward and Perceptions of Workplace Diversity: An Initial Report	Constructed a multidimensional framework, comprised of a wordlist and workplace diversity survey questions to develop a tool that measures reactions to diversity. Researchers used academic experts, practitioners, and students to categorize their wordlists into four dimensions	5 - Point Likert Scale 70 words, established by respondents
Otaye-Ebede, 2018	Employees' perception of diversity management practices: scale development and validation	Utilized 28 items of diversity management practices that included a 3 - item scale derived from Pitts (2009) in measuring diversity management, 5 - items obtained from Mo Barak (2005) to measure diversity climate.	5 - Point Likert-Type Scale

Design Considerations

The reliance on a methodological study design is pivotal for this research. Its use is widely recognized as an effective research method within the scholarly community, as evidenced by a Google Scholar search. The term methodological study is referred to as "one that addresses the development, validation, and evaluation of a research tool or technique" (Polit & Hungler, 1978 as cited by Thorn & Deitz, 1990, p. 28). In essence, a methodological study is designed to tackle procedural research limitations, especially those that emerged from Study 1.

The methodological study is structured around the seven propositions outlined in Table 1 and the results section of this chapter. It selectively integrates technical approaches from Study 1. Changes and refinements are discussed to demonstrate the prudence and careful approach taken in Study 2 to sustain its credibility in implementing a methodological study. For instance, Study 2 continues the scale development efforts begun in Study 1, which includes defining the concept of diversity management (as detailed on page 21) and illustrating how survey mechanisms could capture the latent constructs of perceptions and attitudes (as outlined on page 65).

Recapping Hinkin's (1995) guidelines for scale construction, Study 1 implemented technical procedures such as reverse scoring, using a 7-point Likert scale, and developing a 20-item instrument to optimize participant response efficiency. In building on these foundational elements, the subsequent sections naturally illustrate these aspects, briefly present additional design parameters, and then shift toward evaluating their results.

The philosophical underpinnings and key variables from Study 1 are seamlessly extended into Study 2. Mirroring the approach of Study 1, this research is anchored within a positivist paradigm and a realist ontology, as previously delineated. The seven propositions facilitate a meticulous qualitative evaluation of the newly developed scales. In the same way, leveraging similar variables in Study 2 comprehensively examines managerial attitudes, fulfilling the study's objectives. These notions revisited:

Variables

The variables for Study 1 were chosen to establish consistency in Study 2. They included demographic details and organizational characteristics, such as their management levels and intent to leave. Depicted in Figure 16, three additional variables were added to capture managers' location, and educational and income levels. These variables were key to enhancing the analytical depth and completeness of this study.

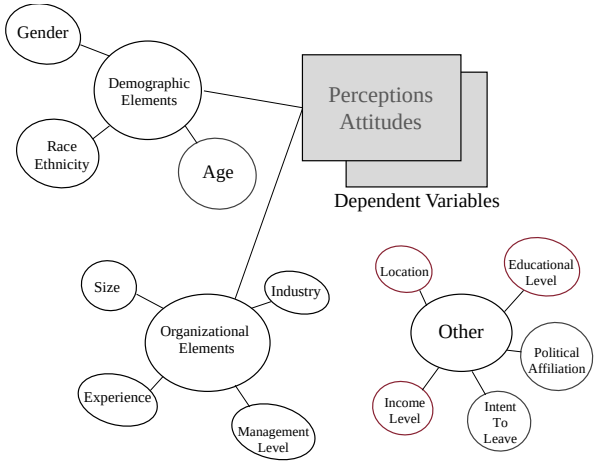


Figure 16. Revised Independent, Control, and Unique Variables

Notwithstanding their utility, the dependent variables were anticipated to derive from the factors that emerged from the exploratory factor analysis. As further discussed

in the analytical section (see page 156), these factors were nested within two focal points and unveiled new insights into managerial perceptions and attitudes. The factors also served as the central components for the new DMI scales. They represented an intrinsic value for the overall procedures conducted for this methodological study.

Instrumentation

The utility of Study 1's instrumentation was evident in Study 2. As previously discussed, the procedures employed by De Meuse et al. (2007) faced limitations regarding internal and external validity. Nonetheless, the Reaction to Diversity List and the Workforce Diversity Survey (WDS), utilized in Study 1, served as foundational elements to categorize, and structure the instrument employed in Study 2. Importantly, requiring managers to self-report was beneficial for the analysis, creating a bivariate aspect that facilitated determining the extent of managerial attitudes, a noted dimension in employing an attitudinal response-structure (Krosnick et al., 1993). This design made the analysis more straightforward, as the nature of the responses clearly illustrated how attitudes varied from the midpoint of the Likert items. Furthermore, the 20 Likert items in Study 1 showed an acceptable level of reliability, as indicated by a Cronbach's Alpha score exceeding 0.70. This metric provided a consistent basis for incorporating this instrumentation into Study 2, a point that is elaborated upon in the results section.

Data Collection

Study 2 also implemented a design change for data collection. It deviated from the convenience sampling used in Study 1, which impacted analytical power and generalizability. This revised approach prioritized the assurance of a robust sample size of 250 participants through crowdsourcing. Such guarantees are in line with Comrey's

(1988) assertion that sample sizes greater than 200 are suitable for complex statistical computations. Crowdsourcing leverages online research marketplaces, such as Cint, a reputable commercial research firm, to coordinate surveys quickly (Winton & Sabol, 2022). This design change significantly enhanced Study 2's analytical capabilities.

Data Analysis

With acquiring a robust sample size, the analytical procedures for the seven propositions established the methodological framework for Study 2. These propositions laid the groundwork for scale assessment and provided a structured approach to uncover the merits of individual and organizational attributes of managers in the anticipated sample.

Initiating this framework began with the employment of an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a critical step for Study 2. An exploratory factor analysis is a complex, multi-step procedure used to evaluate a set of latent variables and determine the extent to which they covary (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p. 1). It is important to reiterate that no evidence of an EFA was previously conducted on the Workforce Diversity Survey (WDS) by De Meuse and Hostager (2001). Highlighted by other researchers (Beavers et al., 2013; Yong & Pearce, 2013), EFA procedures facilitate the validation of new scales, affirm their utility, and generate reliable analytical insights, as demonstrated in the analysis and discussion sections.

Methodology of Study Two

Study 2 commenced on November 1, 2023. Data collection was facilitated through crowdsourcing services provided by Cint Inc. On October 27, 2023, a confirmation conference assured random sampling would be utilized. The data collection period concluded on December 1, 2023, resulting in 386 respondents who attempted the online Qualtrics survey.

Data Preparation

In the data cleaning process, participants were excluded based on predefined criteria to ensure the integrity and reliability of the collection results. Exclusions were conducted with four criteria:

1. General Qualifications: Participants who did not meet the eligibility criteria were excluded, including individuals who were not currently managers or had not been exposed to the three categories of diversity initiatives outlined in Table 9.
2. Incomplete Surveys: Participants who failed to complete the survey by the deadline were excluded.
3. Careless Responses/Duplicates: Participants providing careless responses or attempting to retake the survey as duplicates were excluded. Careless responses were identified through a thorough review, and duplicate attempts were detected by cross-referencing various identifiers such as location, residence, and DMI comments. These findings were validated by the Cint program manager.
4. Sample Size Threshold: Records exceeding the targeted sample size of 250 were excluded due to budgetary constraints.

Missing Data

Of the 386 respondents, 54 were excluded due to exceeding the study's budget, resulting in a pool of 332 records for analysis. Subsequently, during the data quality assessment, a further 82 participants (25%) were excluded. Within this subset, 53 (16%) were ineligible due to not being managers or lacking exposure to the three categories of diversity initiatives. For incomplete surveys, 16 participants (5%) failed to complete the survey. Upon detailed scrutiny, 13 (4%) participants were identified as providing careless responses or attempting to retake the survey as duplicates. The final review yielded a sample size of 250 participants who met all eligibility criteria and supplied complete and valid responses.

Additional steps were taken to prepare the sample for analysis (N=250). Following Downey and King's (1998) recommendations, imputation procedures were applied to five records exceeding the 85% data completion threshold. The means of these records were used to substitute each missing value, thereby reducing the variance. Imputations were performed for one record related to politics (moderate), two records for education (bachelor's degree), and two records for gender identity (one for each category), considering the weighted split between women and men within the sample (58% women and 41% men).

To ensure analytical efficiency, Likert items were recoded into concise labels, following the initial dimensions developed in Study 1 (see Table12, reference to De Meuse & Hostager, 2001). Additionally, data elements were reviewed and adjusted to correctly reflect classifications for nominal, interval, and categorical data. Confirming the accuracy of the data classification is essential to ensuring the coding architecture is

consistent with how SPSS will process the computations. It ensures that variables are accurately quantified according to their intended measurement (Bala, 2016). As a consistent statistical practice (Paap et al., 2023), ten negatively worded statements were reverse-coded in SPSS to ensure scoring consistency. These procedures produced a robust dataset, enabling the comprehensive analysis of the sample's unique features.

The Composition

Several univariate analyses revealed key demographic features on *Gender*, *Race*, and *Ethnicity*. Within the sample, 104 men (42%) and 146 women (58%) participated in the survey. As Table 28 indicates, no participants in the sample described themselves in another way. Figure 17 illustrates that Whites (65.6%) made up most of the respondents, followed by Blacks or African Americans (22.1%), and other categories such as American Indians, Asians, or participants with two or more races making up the remaining composition (10.4%, combined). Only a few respondents chose not to identify their race (2%).

Table 28. Male and Female Comparisons

Gender	N	%
Men	104	41.6
Women	146	58.4
I describe myself in another way	0	0

Ethnoracial comparisons across the sample are depicted in Figure 18. It signifies that most respondents were not Hispanic or Latino (82%). Of the total proportion of Hispanics or Latinos (18%), a fraction amounted primarily to men (11%) and a lesser proportion of women (7.2%).

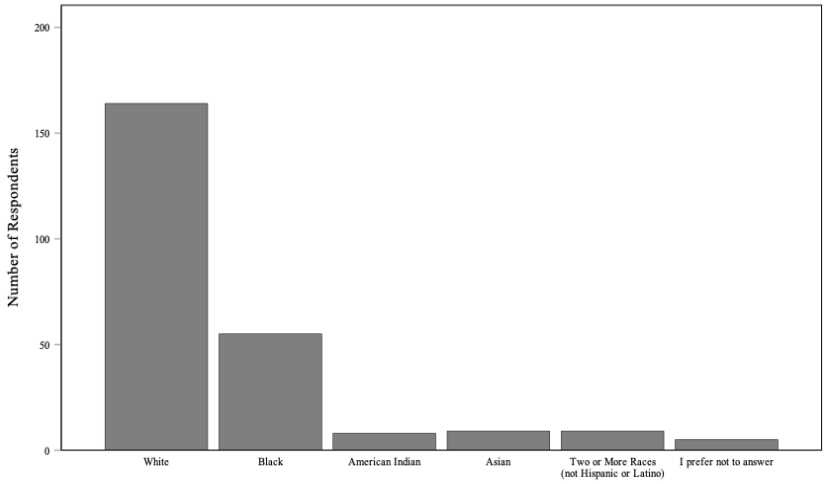


Figure 17. Race Comparisons

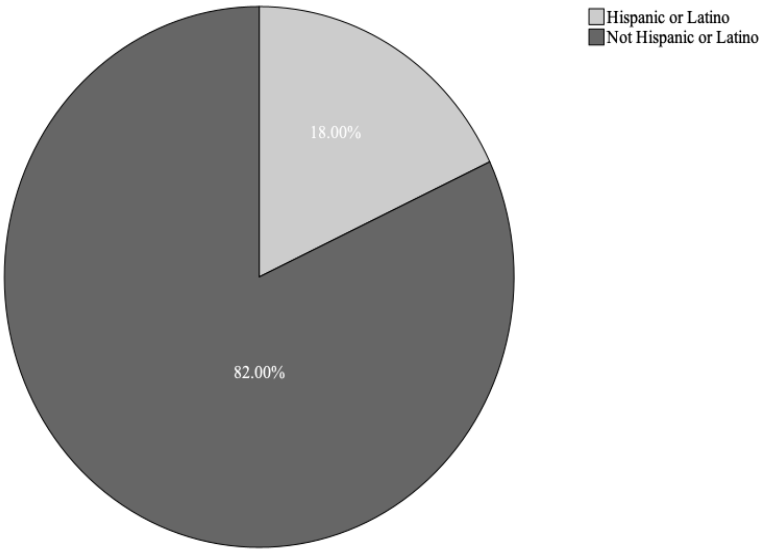


Figure 18. Portions of Ethnicities

As Table 29 depicts, ages among male respondents ranged from 20 to 61, with an average age of 37. Female respondents held a similar range but averaged 38 years. A different perspective, American Indians had the lowest average Age (32), while Whites had a slightly higher average age (39). In the same way, Hispanic or Latino ethnicities shared a similar average age (38 years old).

Table 29. Age Comparisons Across Genders

Gender	Mean	N	Min	Max
Men	37.38	104	20	61
Women	38.60	146	20	61
Total		250		

The respondents possessed comparable managerial experiences between gender categories. Figure 19 indicates that most experience within the sample resides below ten years for both men and women (9 1/5 years). Among races, Table 30 shows that Whites held a majority of that category (44%), followed by Blacks (17%). Whites had the most experience in categories beyond 20 years, ranging from 21 – 30 years (5%).

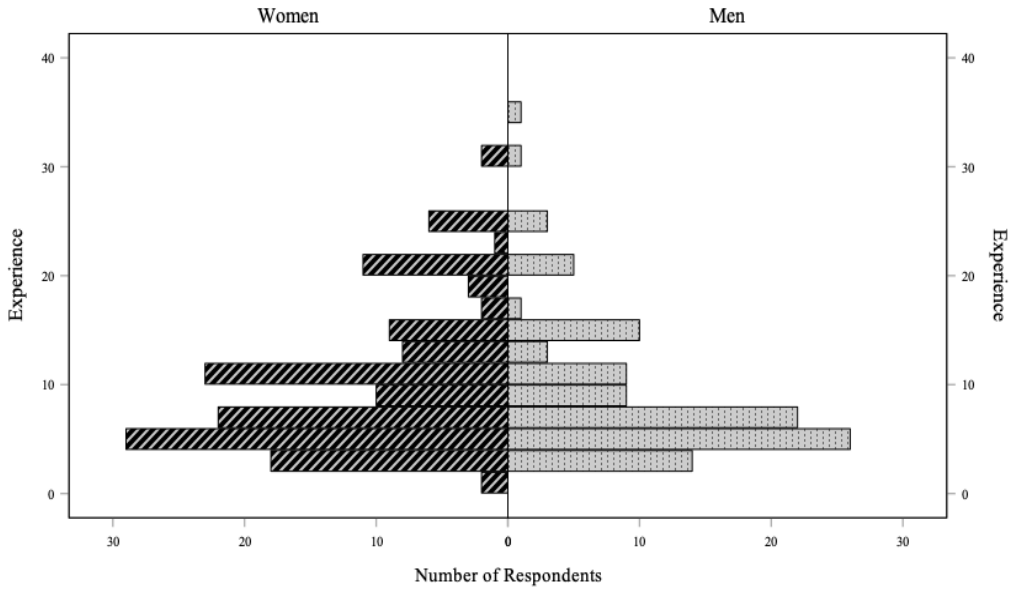


Figure 19. Experience Across Genders

Depicted in Figure 20, several industries were represented within the sample. Most respondents came from the healthcare industry (18%). Industries containing at least 8% of the respondents were found in education, information technology, manufacturing, finance, retail, and specialized sectors (Other) that were not listed in the survey. Figure 21 conveys that most respondents worked for organizations with less than 1,000 employees.

Table 30. Race Comparisons on Experience

		Experience				Total
		Under 10	11 - 20	21 - 30	Over 31	
Race	American Indian	6	1	1	0	8
	Asian	7	2	0	0	9
	Black	43	11	1	0	55
	White	111	40	12	1	164
	Two or More Races[a]	8	1	0	0	9
	I prefer not to answer	3	2	0	0	5
Total		178	57	14	1	250

a. Not Hispanic or Latino

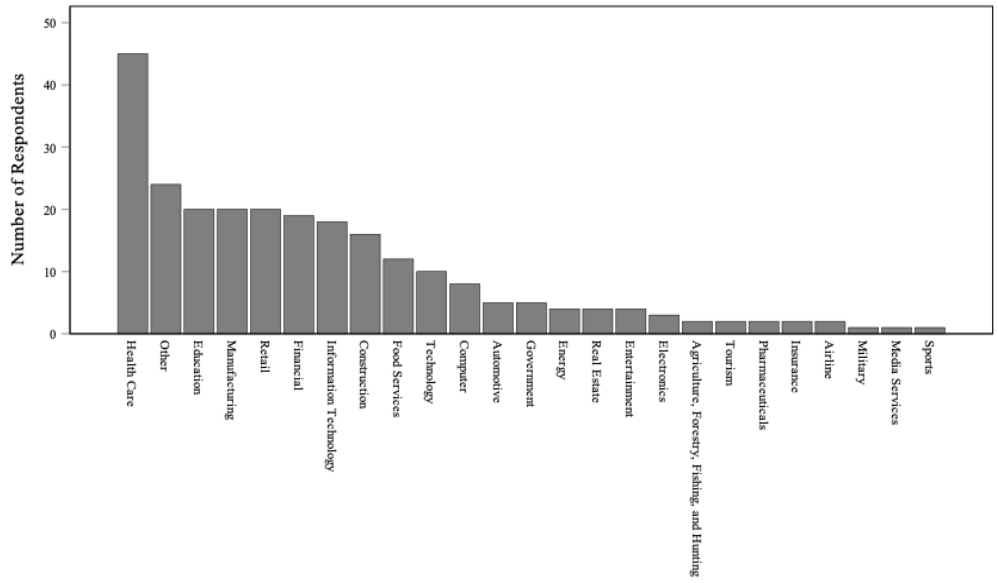


Figure 20. Pareto Illustration of Industries

Table 31 indicates that most of these respondents derived from profit-based organizations (76%), while the other respondents were employed by non-profit and government organizations (14% and 10%, respectively). A comparable portion of respondents (44%) also worked for organizations with less than 1,000 employees, or they (38%) worked for midsize organizations with 1,001 - 5,000 employees.

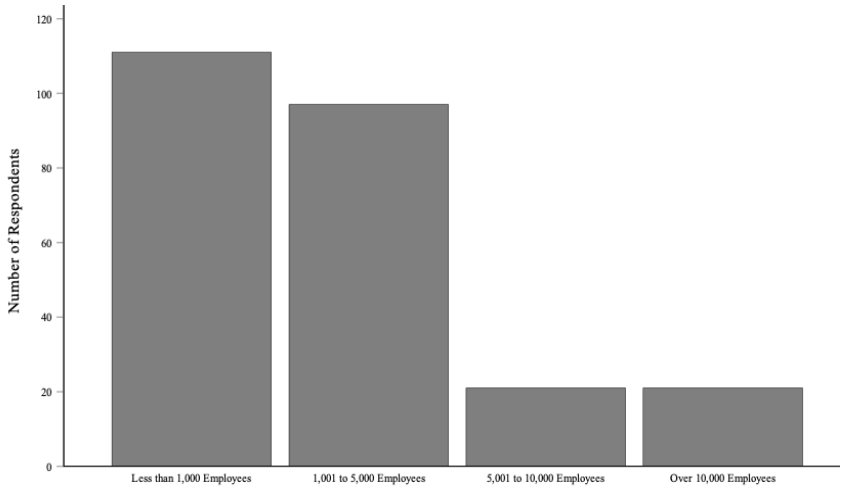


Figure 21. Respondents and Industry Size

Table 31. Types of Organization According to Size

		Organizational Size				Total
		Less than 1,000 Employees	1,001 to 5,000 Employees	5,001 to 10,000 Employees	Over 10,000 Employees	
Type	Profit	85	76	14	14	189
	Non-Profit	17	12	4	3	36
	Government	9	9	3	4	25
Total		111	97	21	21	50

The respondents represented different levels of management across races. In Table 32, most of them derived from middle (50%) and upper (45%) management. Accordingly, Whites held the greater share at middle and upper management levels (32% and 30%, respectively). Blacks were proportional to their share at the same levels (12% and 9%, respectively), followed by Asians (4%). Considering gender allocations, a higher proportion of women is illustrated for middle (29%) and upper (26%) management levels compared to men (20% and 19%, in each case).

Figure 22 details the allocations of respondents across diverse locations. The majority hailed from suburbs (45.20%) and cities (43.60%), with a smaller percentage residing in rural settings (11.20%). State representation was extensive throughout 43 states. As Figure 23 shows, a proportional concentration exists in nine key states: California, New York, Texas, Florida, Pennsylvania, Georgia, Ohio, Louisiana, and Indiana.

Table 32. Race Comparisons and Management Level

		Level			Total
		Lower Management	Middle Management	Upper Management	
Race	American Indian or Alaska Native	0	1	7	8
	Asian	0	6	3	9
	Black	3	29	23	55
	White	9	81	74	164
	Two or More Races (not Hispanic or Latino)	0	4	5	9
	Prefer not to answer	0	4	1	5
Total		12	125	113	250

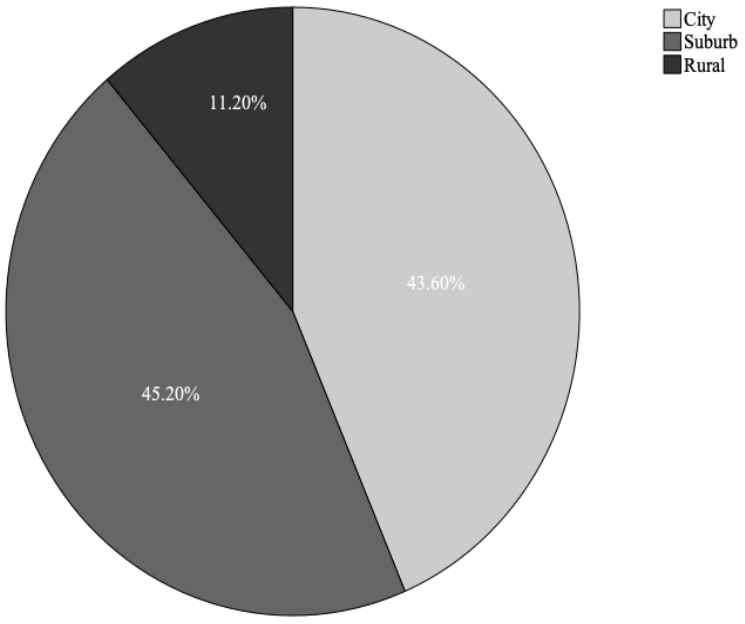


Figure 22. Proportion of Respondents in Urban, Suburban, and Rural Areas

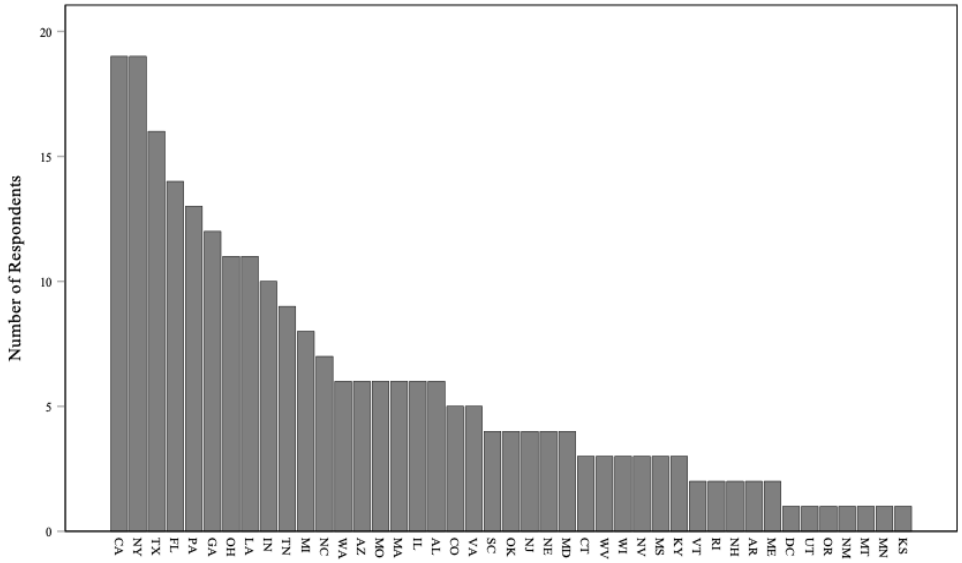


Figure 23. Pareto Distribution of Respondents Across States

Additional sample features include respondents' political affiliation, educational levels, income, and the extent to which they would leave their organization. Particular to *Political Affiliation*, a significant portion identified as moderates (40.8%), as depicted in Figure 24. Smaller proportions were associated with being liberal (15.2%), very liberal (12%), or conservative (11.2%).

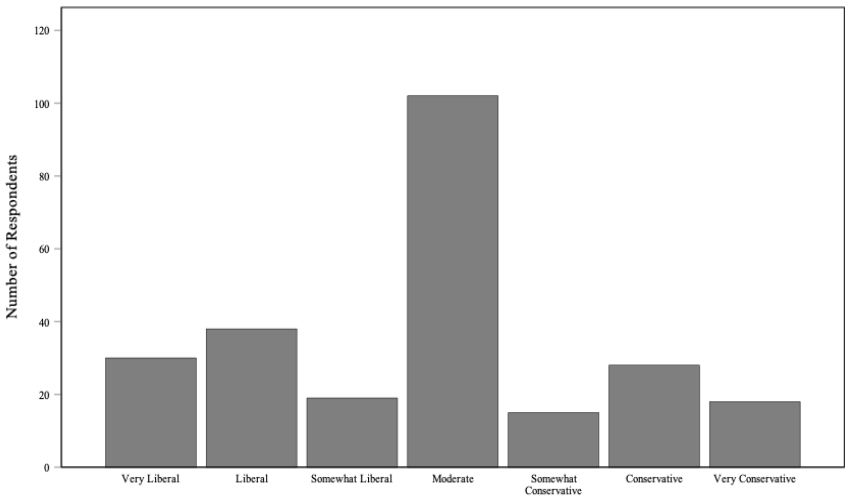


Figure 24. Respondents' Political Affiliation

Table 33 illustrates the variation in *Educational Levels*. Respondents largely held bachelor's degrees (42%) or master's degrees (19.6%). A few respondents had doctorate degrees (1.2%), while others (35.2%) held either an associate degree, less than one year of college, or a high school diploma.

Table 33. Educational Levels

	N	%
Regular high school diploma	24	9.6%
Some college credit, but less than 1 year of college	29	11.6%
Associates degree (AA & AS)	35	14.0%
Bachelor's degree (BA & BS)	105	42.0%
Master's degree (MA, MS, MEng, MEd, MSW, & MBA)	49	19.6%
Professional degree beyond bachelor's degree (MD, DDS, DVM, LLB, & JD)	5	2.0%
Doctorate degree (PhD, & EdD)	3	1.2%
	250	

Regarding *Income*, the majority of respondents earned less than $100,000, as detailed in Table 34. Whites constituted the largest proportion in the lower income bracket (39%) and the higher bracket of $100,000 and above (28%). Table 35 reveals that over half of respondents did not contemplate leaving their organization (52%). Among the 48% considering a departure, Whites (28%) and Blacks (9%) proportionally held this propensity. As illustrated in Table 36, their percentages corresponded with managers who were actively seeking another job (21.2% for Whites and 8.8% for Blacks).

Table 34. Income Levels among the Races

		Income						
		Below $25,000	$25,000 - $50,000	$50,000 - $100,000	$100,000 - $150,000	$150,000 - $200,000	Above $250,000	Total
Race	American Indian or Alaska Native	1	1	2	1	1	1	8
	Asian	0	0	6	3	0	0	9
	Black or African American	3	17	22	7	5	3	55
	White	5	25	67	38	23	8	164
	Two or More Races (not Hispanic or Latino)	0	0	7	1	1	0	9
	I prefer not to answer	0	1	3	1	0	1	5
Total		9	44	107	51	30	13	250

Table 35. Race Comparisons on Respondents who Thought about Leaving

		Thinking about Leaving							
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Race	American Indian or Alaska Native	5	0	1	1	0	1	1	8
	Asian	0	2	4	1	2	0	0	9
	Black or African American	15	11	2	4	8	9	6	55
	White	29	36	21	9	34	21	14	164
	Two or More Races (not Hispanic or Latino)	0	0	2	0	4	1	2	9
	I prefer not to answer	0	3	0	1	0	0	1	5
Total		48	52	30	16	48	32	24	250

Table 36. Race Comparisons on Respondents Searching for Jobs

		Searching for a Job							
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Race	American Indian or Alaska Native	3	1	1	0	1	1	1	8
	Asian	1	5	2	1	0	0	0	9
	Black or African American	16	12	2	3	12	6	4	55
	White	41	38	16	16	22	17	14	164
	Two or More Races (not Hispanic or Latino)	1	0	0	0	3	1	3	9
	I prefer not to answer	1	3	0	1	1	0	0	5
Total		63	59	24	21	38	25	22	250

Table 37. Non-Parametric Procedures on Determining Associations, De Vaus (2013)

Type of Problem		Data Type	Level of Measurement	Descriptive Statistic	Nonparametric Methods
Group Association	DMI & Demographic Variables	Two groups	Nominal / Interval Ratio	DMI: eta Square, median and IQR or if close to normality: median & SD	Effect size and crosstabulation Bootstrapping
		More than two groups			
	DMI & Organizational Variables	Single Group	Interval Ratio / Interval Ratio Ordinal / Interval Ratio	Ranked Based Association	Spearman rank correlation coefficient Bootstrapping
		Single Sample	Interval Ratio / Interval Ratio	Ranked Based Association & Eta Square	Spearman rank correlation coefficient & effect size

Table 37. (Continue).

Type of Problem		Data Type	Level of Measurement	Descriptive Statistic	Nonparametric Methods
Group Comparison	DMI vers. Demographic Variables	Sample divided into group variables	Nominal / Interval Ratio	Median, IQR, frequencies, & percentages	Mann-Whitney, Kruskal - Wallis H test
	DMI vers. Organizational Variables		Ordinal / Interval Ratio		

Data Analysis

Quantitative Implications

To inform the methodological framework of this study (see Table 1), the statistical assumptions and requisite conditions for each procedure were rigorously evaluated. Selecting the statistical techniques was informed by the analytical queries of each proposition and matched to the levels of measurement outlined in Table 37. As indicated, the methodological determinations warranted non-parametric procedures, principally driven by the observed nonnormal distribution patterns exhibited within the data. In accordance with Wright's (2003) recommendations to explain methodological rationales, the next two sections discuss the measurements of pivotal variables and how their distributions influenced the analytical procedures of each proposition.

Measurements

The operationalization of demographic and organizational variables is vital for understanding the settled relationships within the dataset. The synopsis of the key variables delineates the values that define elements of their measures for a contextual relevance to diversity. As most variables are drawn from Study 1, their measurements are refined and conceptualized as follows:

- *Age* is considered to have two dimensions, as theorized by Lawrence (1996 p. 22), which embodies chronological and social implications. This framework was adopted to capture the progression of time from birth, considering the passage of years and its social context.
- *Political Affiliation* employed a seven-point Likert scale, adapted from Blau et al. (2023). Respondents rate their affiliation on a spectrum from 1 = extremely

conservative to 7 = very liberal, providing a nuanced understanding of their political orientations.

- *Gender* was simplified into three options: 1 = Male, 2 = Female, and 3 = I describe myself in another way, recognizing diverse self-identifications.
- *Race* categories aligned with the 2022 Census, accounting for five groups: White - a person with European, Middle Eastern, or North African origins; Blacks - a person with origins from African American roots; American Indian or Alaska Native - a person originating from North, Central, or South America; Asian - A person from the Far East, the subcontinent of India, and Southeast Asia; Native Hawaiian - a person from Samoa, Guam, or other neighboring islands. This classification ensures inclusivity and accuracy in capturing participants' racial backgrounds.
- *Ethnicity* was dichotomized into Hispanic or Latino and not Hispanic or Latino, adhering to the Census Bureau's definitions (Census U.S., 2022). Being Hispanic or Latino encompasses individuals with Puerto Rican, Cuban, Mexican, or Spanish origins.
- *Organizational Size* was represented by the number of employees, according to Hall and Haas (1967). Categories range from 1 = less than 1,000 employees to 4 = over 10,000 employees, providing insights into the organizational scale.
- *Years of Experience* reflected the cumulative years spent in managerial positions, distinct from job tenure (McEnrue, 1988). The use of a numeric variable allows a quantitatively comprehensive understanding of managers' professional profiles relative to time.

- *Levels of Management* were classified into three levels: 1 = Lower Management, 2 = Middle Management, and 3 = Upper Management. These levels denote the authority, responsibility, accountability, and power assigned to managers within their organizations (Tenah, 1986).
- *Types of Organization* distinguished between for-profit organizations = 1, non-profit organizations = 2, and government organizations = 3, shedding light on the diversity of organizational structures.
- In classifying *Work Modality,* three categories were utilized, consistent with terms used by McDonald et al. (2022). Managers with regular onsite schedules were considered as completely in-person = 1; schedules where they consistently working off-site, or teleworking were considered as completely remote = 2; schedules that combined working onsite and working remotely were considered a hybrid schedule = 3; and managers who no longer worked were considered retired = 4.
- As discussed, a multi-item measure was utilized to improve reliable measures for managers' *Turnover Intent*, as Tett and Meyer (1993) advised. Constructed as Likert-type items, they reflected two dimensions (Jung et al., 2021): Managers who were thinking about leaving and managers who had begun to search for other jobs. The 7-point scale captures the spectrum from strongly disagree to strongly agree, providing granularity to managerial intentions.

This operationalization ensures the clarity and precision needed for a thorough examination of the relationships between these variables. These variables are further

explored in the following sections in utilizing descriptive, univariate, and binomial analyses.

Distribution of Key Variables

Attention was first placed on examining key continuous variables, particularly respondents' experience and their age. To ascertain normality, boxplots (Figures 26 & 27) compared distributions of experience among men and women and a histogram was utilized to examine the univariate contour of *Managerial Experience* (Figure 25). The data indicated a central tendency where half of the respondents possess 5 to 12 years of experience, anchored by a median of 7 years. Notably, above the lower quartile, a subset of managers showcases a breadth of experience, extending from 13 to over 35 years. Conversely, the lower quartile reflects individuals with 1 to 4 years of experience. This distribution skews moderately to the right (skewness = 1.367) and displays a kurtosis of 1.552.

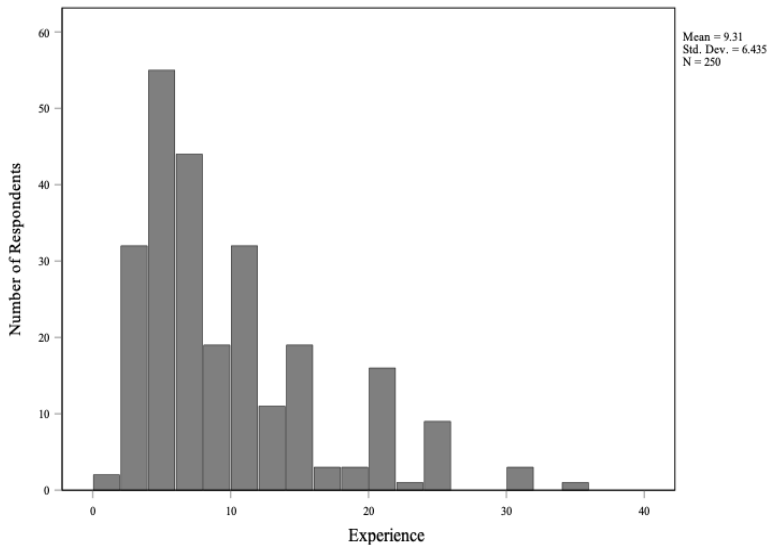


Figure 25. Distribution of Experience

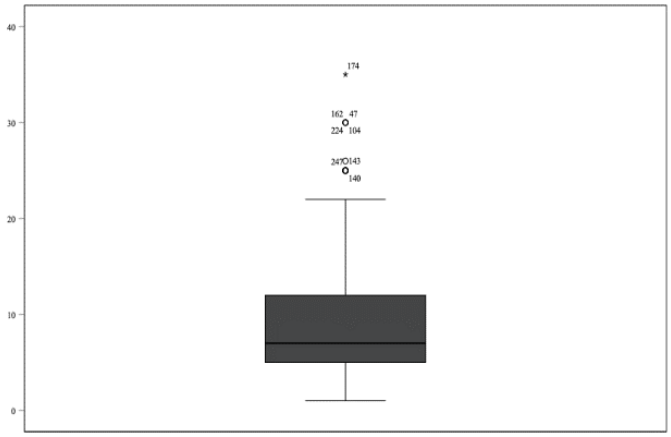


Figure 26. Distribution of Outliers

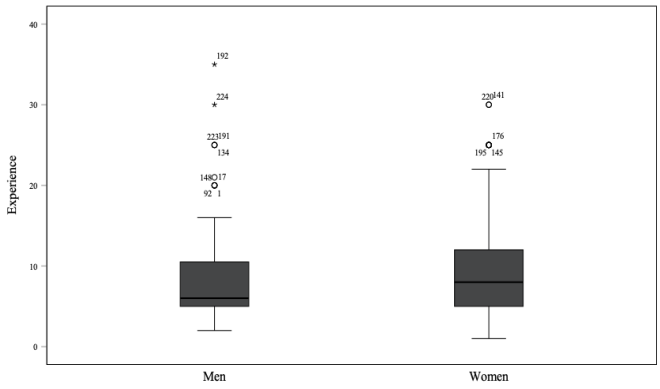


Figure 27. Distribution of Experience and Gender

Outliers were detected among both men (2 extreme, 7 moderate) and women (6 moderate). They were maintained in the dataset to capitalize on the unique insights they might offer, adhering to the perspectives of De Vaus, D. A. (2002) as cited by Dillon & Patrick (2013). Moreover, further analysis of these outliers confirmed their associations with other variables. For example, record number 192, flagged as an extreme value with 35 years of experience, aligns with the respondent's Age (61) and educational attainment (Masters), suggesting a correlation with higher earnings (above $250k). Similarly, record number 249 portrays a respondent with 30 years of experience who was 58 years old and

had an income between $25,000 and $50,000 per year. While these values may seem contradictory, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS, 2022) indicated that Nebraska's median income ($55,000) corresponds with this profile.

In terms of Age, Figure 28 presents the age distribution among respondents, with a median age of 37 years (Figures 29 & 30), spanning the interquartile range of 31 to 44 years and encompassing 50% of the sample. The upper quartile includes individuals aged 45 to 61 years, accounting for 25% of the sample, whereas the younger 25% fall below 32 years, with ages as low as 20 years.

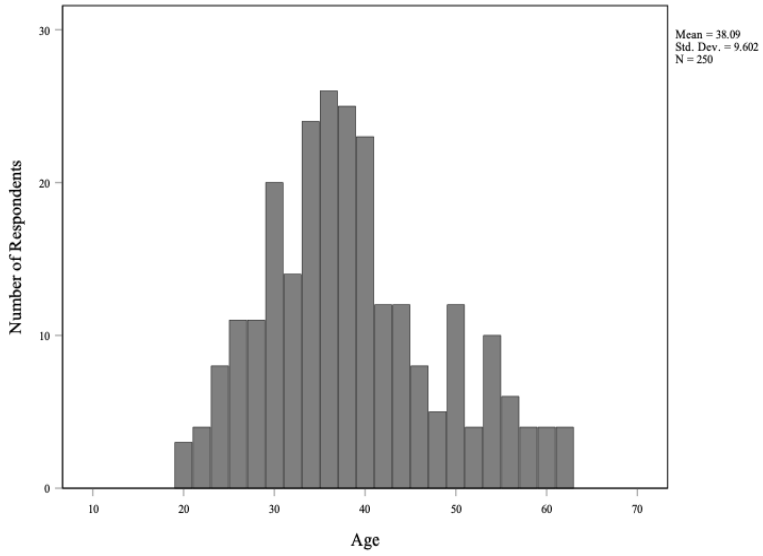
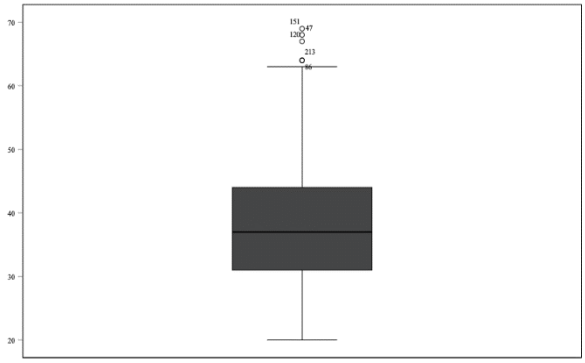


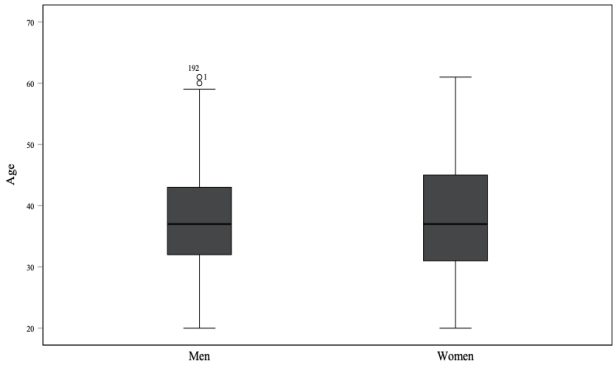
Figure 28. Distribution of Age

The age distribution is slightly right-skewed (skewness = .499), implying a minor concentration of older respondents, and it exhibits a kurtosis value of -.305, which characterizes a relatively flat distribution compared to a normal curve. Among the respondents, two outliers are noted among men, with none detected among women. These outliers were carefully evaluated for their impact on other key variables and were deemed legitimate observations for inclusion in the analysis.



a.Extreme outliers are designated by the asterisks.
b.Mild outliers are designated by O

Figure 29. Distribution of Age



c.Extreme outliers are designated by the asterisks.
d.Mild outliers are designated by O

Figure 30. Distribution of Age & Gender

Following the assessment of continuous variables, attention shifted to the interval data derived from the 20 Likert items. Table 38 illustrates marked departures from normality for these items, as indicated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, with p-values less than .001. Complementary to these findings, skewness and kurtosis are further examined in Table 39. Applying the criteria used by Lei and Lomax (2005), skewness values below 1 are considered slight, whereas values from 1 to 2.3 are categorized as moderate. Z-score analysis revealed that 13 items displayed high or severe

skewness. Similarly, kurtosis Z-scores showed that 17 items had pronounced levels of peakness or flatness, underscoring the non-normality within the data.

Table 38. Normality Tests of Likert Statements

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.[b]
Statement: **Builds Unity**	0.274	250	0.001	0.684	250	0.001
Statement: **Good**	0.245	250	0.001	0.821	250	0.001
Statement: **Liability**	0.138	250	0.001	0.922	250	0.001
Statement: **Sensible**	0.271	250	0.001	0.779	250	0.001
Statement: **Frustrates**	0.149	250	0.001	0.916	250	0.001
Statement: **Compassion**	0.226	250	0.001	0.862	250	0.001
Statement: **Pressured**	0.147	250	0.001	0.923	250	0.001
Statement: **Withdrawn**	0.232	250	0.001	0.861	250	0.001
Statement: **No Unity**	0.168	250	0.001	0.913	250	0.001
Statement: **Useful**	0.247	250	0.001	0.831	250	0.001
Statement: **Unfair**	0.186	250	0.001	0.889	250	0.001
Statement: **Grateful**	0.231	250	0.001	0.807	250	0.001
Statement: **Advance**	0.233	250	0.001	0.861	250	0.001
Statement: **Insecure**	0.164	250	0.001	0.911	250	0.001
Statement: **Supportive**	0.210	250	0.001	0.901	250	0.001
Statement: **Innovative**	0.214	250	0.001	0.859	250	0.001
Statement: **Unjustified**	0.160	250	0.001	0.914	250	0.001
Statement: **Confusing**	0.155	250	0.001	0.930	250	0.001
Statement: **Opportunities**	0.235	250	0.001	0.810	250	0.001
Statement: **Merit**	0.236	250	0.001	0.861	250	0.001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
b. Sig. for P < .05
c. *Words in bold, derived from De Meuse and Hostager's (2001) Reaction to Diversity Wordlist*

While abnormal distributions are common in behavioral science research, as noted by Cain et al. (2017), the researchers claim abnormality is particularly prevalent in univariate data such as Likert items, which often challenge normality assumptions. This characteristic of the data underpins the rationale for non-parametric procedures.

According to Cain et al. (2017), Blanca et al. (2013), and Schmider et al. (2010), non-parametric methods are effective at addressing nonnormal distributions, thereby reducing the likelihood of committing Type I or II errors. The subsequent analysis, leveraging these non-parametric approaches, offers valuable insights into the associations and differences across various groups, albeit with some trade-off in analytical power.

Key Features

In summary, several key aspects of the sample warrant reemphasis before delving into the propositions. Comprising of 250 respondents, the sample represents a geographically diverse group predominantly based in urban and suburban areas across the United States. Notably, 41% of the sample is majorly comprised of white women, highlighting an important demographic dimension.

With an average age of 38, these managers possess higher educational backgrounds and predominantly occupy mid-level positions in their organizations. Their roles and compensation levels correspond with an average managerial experience of approximately nine years. Politically, most of these respondents identify as moderates. These salient characteristics have been carefully considered in addressing the seven methodological propositions of this study. As this analysis unfolds, these '*respondents*' will be referred to as *'managers,*' aligning with their professional roles and the context of the subsequent analysis.

Table 39. Degree of Skewness and Kurtosis Using Standard Error

Statements	Std Err.	Skewness[a & b]				Std Err.	Kurtosis[a & b]			
		Slight	Moderate	High	Extreme		Slight	Moderate	High	Extreme
Statement: **Builds Unity**	0.154				-2.283	0.307				6.269
Statement: **Good**	0.154				1.188	0.307			1.240	
Statement: **Liability**	0.154	-0.042				0.307			-1.240	
Statement: **Sensible**	0.154				-1.610	0.307				3.465
Statement: **Frustrates**	0.154	-0.032				0.307			-1.273	
Statement: **Compassion**	0.154			-1.080		0.307			1.316	
Statement: **Pressured**	0.154		-0.274			0.307			-1.043	
Statement: **Withdrawn**	0.154			-0.781		0.307		-0.563		
Statement: **No Unity**	0.154		-0.337			0.307			-1.062	
Statement: **Useful**	0.154			-1.214		0.307			1.971	

a. Z-test of Skewness and Kurtosis is calculated by dividing the statistic by the standard error

b. Criteria: value < 1.0, Moderate: values between 1 and 2.3, High: values between 2.4 and 7.5, Extreme: values beyond 7

c. *Words in bold, derived from De Meuse and Hostager's (2001) Reaction to Diversity Wordlist*

Table 39. (Continue).

Statements	Std Err.	Skewness[a & b]				Std Err.	Kurtosis[a & b]			
		Slight	Moderate	High	Extreme		Slight	Moderate	High	Extreme
Statement: **Unfair**	0.154			-0.568		0.307		-0.834		
Statement: **Grateful**	0.154				-1.409	0.307				3.478
Statement: **Advance**	0.154			-0.996		0.307			0.941	
Statement: I**nsecure**	0.154	0.030				0.307				-1.311
Statement: **Supportive**	0.154			-0.683		0.307	-0.097			
Statement: **Innovative**	0.154			-1.000		0.307			1.288	
Statement: **Unjustified**	0.154	-0.149				0.307			-1.268	
Statement: **Confusing**	0.154	0.078				0.307			-1.099	
Statement: **Opportunities**	0.154				-1.400	0.307				2.481
Statement: **Merit**	0.154			-1.088		0.307			0.990	

a. Z-test of Skewness and Kurtosis is calculated by dividing the statistic by the standard error

b. Criteria: value < 1.0, Moderate: values between 1 and 2.3, High: values between 2.4 and 7.5, Extreme: values beyond 7

c. *Words in bold, derived from De Meuse and Hostager's (2001) Reaction to Diversity Wordlist*

Proposition #1

As proposition #1 directs, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is necessary to uncover the latent structures (Reise et al., 2000) and in doing so, produce DMI scales from this dataset. Michalopoulou (2017) argues that a vital step before an EFA is assessing the psychometric properties of possible factors, mainly when scales are constructed from Likert items.

> *Proposition 1: Conduct an exploratory factor analysis of 20 Diversity Management Initiative Survey (DMI) items derived from Study 1 to produce distinct and reliable measurement scales.*

Table 40 and Figure 31 provided the framework for the EFA that emphasizes three sets of focal variables and their associated descriptive anchors. The anticipated convergence of three focal points was predicated on distinctions by Richard and Kirby (1999) and Kirby and Richard (1996) regarding fairness within diversity programs. These distinctions included procedural justice, concerning the fairness of organizational policies like hiring and promotions, and distributive justice, relating to the outcomes of these policies. Egalitarianism, as defined by McMillian-Capehart and Richard (2005), emphasize the equitable distribution of outcomes, suggesting that fairness may be a crucial aspect of DMI by advocating for resources and opportunities to be equally shared among all organizational members. Additionally, justification, as introduced by Swain (1972), offers a lens through which personal beliefs can support or oppose diversity initiatives based on individual values, experiences, or empirical evidence. Together, these concepts of procedural and distributive justice, egalitarianism, and justification provide a

comprehensive framework for examining the effectiveness and fairness of diversity programs in organizations.

Table 40. Anticipated Variables and Item Measures

Focal Variables[a]	Descriptive Anchors[b]		
Egalitarian Perceptions (Nine Items)	*Unity* *Good* *Sensible* *Useful*	*Compassion* *Grateful* *Advance* *Innovative*	*Opportunities*
Justifying Perceptions (Five Items)	*Liability* *Pressured*	*Unjustifiable* *Confusing*	*Merit*
Proportional Perceptions (Six Items)	*Frustrating* *Withdrawn*	*No Unity* *Insecure*	*Supportive* *Unfair*

a. Focal Variables only used for the initial analysis.
b. Descriptive anchors correspond to De Meuse & Hostager (2001)

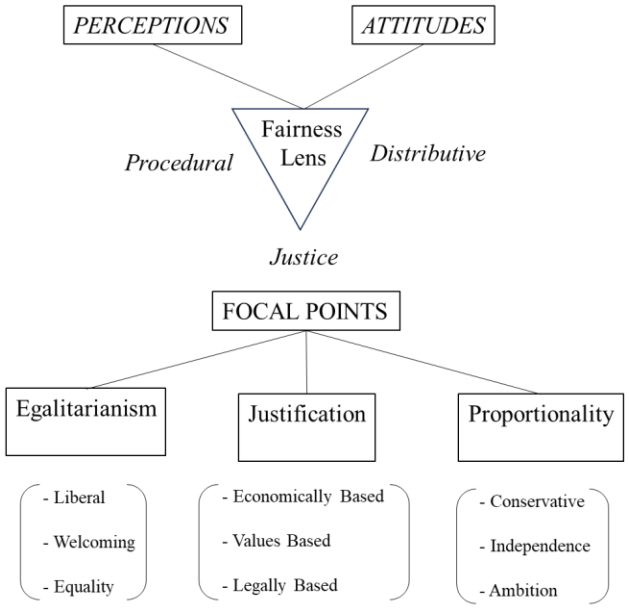


Figure 31. Tentative Focal Points

In preparation for the analysis, SPSS was meticulously configured to conduct an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), adhering to guidelines established by prominent

researchers. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was selected as the extraction method, as recommended by Fabrigar et al. (1999). This choice was influenced by the high skewness in the distribution of most variables, as discussed earlier, and the criterion that an eigenvalue greater than one should be considered (Comrey, 1978). Furthermore, in referencing considerations for communalities, Shrestha (2021) highlighted the importance of shared variance for interpreting results. Consequently, a threshold for communalities was set at 0.30, aligning with the standard practices of Costello & Osborne (2005) in accurately discerning the most intrinsic factor structure.

Additionally, Bartlett factor scores were chosen for estimating score coefficients, preferred over methods like regression and Anderson-Rubin, following DiStefano et al. (2009). This option was selected for its ability to yield unbiased estimates, lack correlation with other factors, and contribute to high validity. However, caution was exercised due to the potential for Bartlett scores to correlate, despite their orthogonal factors. Lastly, the direct quartimin rotation method was employed, strongly advocated by Zaman et al. (2014) and Fabrigar et al. (1999) as a practical approach in behavioral science research. It economizes the number of factors necessary to interpret the relationships among the variables.

Table 41. Initial Test on Suitability for Exploratory Factor Analysis

Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.923
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3077.384
	df	190
	Sig.	<.001

These initial settings yielded four statistical tests, validating the dataset and the procedures for an appropriate Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). The first test, the

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure, confirmed the sampling adequacy. Following Shrestha's (2021) guidelines, a KMO value between 0.8 and 1.0 signifies satisfactory sampling, while values below 0.7 are considered mediocre. This standard was successfully met, as shown in Table 41, where the KMO score resulted in 0.923, indicating a highly adequate sample for factor analysis. Additionally, the sample size of 250 further supported sampling adequacy, especially considering its proportion to the 20 Likert-scale items used to identify the structure of latent constructs. Comrey's (1988) recommendation suggests that a minimum subject-to-variable ratio of 20:1 is necessary for conducting a reliable EFA with 20 Likert items.

The second test for validating the adequacy of the EFA involved assessing unidimensionality through item-total correlation scores. Acknowledged as fundamental in scale development by scholars such as Reise et al. (2000) and Gerbing and Anderson (1988), this procedure was carefully implemented. Composite scores for all 20 items were computed, following Zaman et al. (2014). A Spearman's correlation matrix was then used to examine each item's relationship with its composite score.

Determining unidimensionality was based on comparing observed correlations against a critical value of 0.127, derived from Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient critical values table, with 248 degrees of freedom at a 0.05 significance level. Of the 20 items, 18 demonstrated significant correlations ($p < 0.05$). The exceptions were Item 19, 'Good,' showing a negative, non-significant relationship ($r(248) = -0.122$), and Item 20, 'Supportive,' also indicating a negative, non-significant relationship ($r(248) = 0.04$). Both correlations were weaker than the critical value (0.127), signifying an insignificant correlation with the model. Overall, the dataset was deemed suitable for EFA.

In accordance with Shrestha's (2021) guidelines, the third test for EFA adequacy applied Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. This test ascertained the adequacy of correlations among variables for dimension reduction methods. It yielded an approximate chi-square value of 3077.384 with 190 degrees of freedom. The significant p-value ($p < .001$) suggested that the variables were interrelated and appropriate for a valid structural model.

The fourth and conclusive test for suitability addressed potential multicollinearity, using the determinant score as suggested by Shrestha (2021). Garson (2012 p. 46) describes multicollinearity as a condition of strong associations among independent variables, complicating the distinction of individual variable effects. Scores near zero indicate severe multicollinearity, while those close to one imply minimal multicollinearity. The correlation matrix's determinant score for the loaded factors (2.92E-006), exceeding the threshold of 0.00001, indicated the absence of significant multicollinearity among the variables.

Having confirmed EFA's adequacy and the absence of multicollinearity, the analysis progressed to evaluating factor loadings. Initial computations, as shown in Table 42, suggested extracting two linear components, accounting for 58.845% of the total variance. Review of the scree test, Figure 32, supported this result, as per the recommendations of Comrey (1988), Comrey (1978), Costello & Osborne (2005), and Fabrigar et al. (1999). They advocate retaining factors with eigenvalues greater than one.

In Table 43, Item 19 ('Good') and Item 20 ('Supportive') were identified for exclusion based on their initial loadings. Item 20 showed significant cross-loadings on both factors, confirming earlier concerns about unidimensionality. Despite Item 19's

loading score marginally exceeding .5 (.511), it was excluded due to its negative value and potential ambiguity in wording identified upon review.

Maintaining the initial SPSS settings, a secondary rotation culminated in a definitive solution for measuring managers' attitudes and perceptions toward diversity initiatives. As Table 43 shows, the refined factored structures proposed 18 items. Table 44 reflects how the solution yielded comparative results. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure remained high at .929, affirming the sample's adequacy for EFA. Furthermore, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($X2$ (153) = 2922.683, $p < .001$) continued to support the correlation matrix's suitability for structural analysis. In addition, a determinant score (5.74E-006), exceeding the multicollinearity threshold of 0.00001, further confirmed the appropriateness of the factor analysis. Overall, the extracted factors collectively accounted for an increased total variance of 62.799%. This two-factor solution, clearly shown in both iterations, provided a solid foundation for further detailed analyses of the DMI scales.

Retransformation of Standard Scores

Before exploring the practicability of the newly proposed DMI scales, it is important to understand their distinct nature. In executing the EFA, selecting the Bartlett's method standardized the original Likert responses by converting them into z-scores. This standardization normalized the scores around a mean of zero, with a standard deviation ranging from -3.0 to +3.0, as explained by DiStefano et al. (2009). This approach not only aids in interpretation but also reflects the amount of variance each factor represents. This is further quantified by squared factor loadings, or R-squared values, which are instrumental in evaluating the significance of each factor's contribution.

Table 42. Initial Exploratory Factor Loadings of 20 Items with Two Factors

Item	Content	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	I occasionally feel **withdrawn** when DI promote cultures or groups other than my own.	0.887	
2	Diversity initiatives that mentor or socialize other members are **unfair**.	0.846	
3	DI do not create company **unity**, when they offer social support programs that help [minorities to adapt] …	0.834	
4	DI, such as hiring metrics for underrepresented groups, are **unjustified**.	0.819	
5	DI that provide social support to particular groups create **insecurities** for other groups.	0.803	
6	I sometimes feel **pressured** to achieve goals set by DI.	0.786	
7	Evaluating the success or effectiveness of diversity initiatives is **confusing,** hard to achieve and not cost effective	0.767	
8	DI are found to be.a workload **liability** for companies.	0.757	
9	Overreliance on DI to reduce discrimination **frustrates** me.	0.738	
c	DI that hire diversity leaders are important because they create **opportunities** for [all]**.**		0.825
11	I consider diversity initiatives as part of an **innovative** strategy in [meeting] diversity goals.		0.807
12	I am **grateful** that diversity initiatives help other underrepresented groups adjust merit standards to recruit …groups.		0.769
13	DI that provide minority groups with [resources] **advance** my success.		0.747
14	Diversity initiatives that provide social support are **useful**.		0.738
15	Employing diversity initiatives is **sensible** to reducing discrimination.		0.733
16	I am supportive of DI that adjust **merit** standards to recruit underrepresented groups		0.711
17	DI relate to the **compassion** I feel for underrepresented groups.		0.651
18	DI build **unity** among employees.		0.629
19	*DI are designed to make consumers feel **good** about a company*		0.511
20	*I am more **supportive** of DI that help [other] groups; than being held accountable for affirmative action goals*	0.370	0.451

a. Statements are abridged from the actual survey for illustrative purposes.
b. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis and Italicized items were extracted from factors 1 and 2.
c. Words in bold, derived from De Meuse and Hostager's (2001) Reaction to Diversity Wordlist

Table 43. Exploratory Factor Loadings of Remaining 18 Items with Two Factors

Item	Content	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	I occasionally feel **withdrawn** when DI promote cultures or groups other than my own.	0.917	
2	Diversity initiatives that mentor or socialize other members are **unfair**.	0.847	
3	DI do not create company **unity**, when they offer social support programs…	0.832	
4	DI, such as hiring metrics for underrepresented groups, are **unjustified**.	0.809	
5	DI that provide social support to particular groups create **insecurities** for other groups.	0.804	
6	I sometimes feel **pressured** to achieve goals set by DI	0.803	
7	Evaluating the success or effectiveness of diversity initiatives is **confusing,** hard to achieve…	0.764	
8	DI are found to be a workload **liability** for companies.	0.759	
9	Overreliance on DI to reduce discrimination **frustrates** me.	0.749	
10	DI that hire diversity leaders are important because they create **opportunities** for [all]**.**		0.853
11	I consider diversity initiatives as part of an **innovative** strategy in [meeting] diversity goals.		0.826
12	I am **grateful** that diversity initiatives help other underrepresented groups adjust…		0.785
13	DI that provide minority groups with [resources] **advance** my success.		0.756
14	Diversity initiatives that provide social support are **useful**.		0.754
15	Employing diversity initiatives is **sensible** to reducing discrimination.		0.748
16	I am supportive of DI that adjust **merit** standards to recruit underrepresented groups		0.726
17	DI relate to the **compassion** I feel for underrepresented groups.		0.682
18	DI build **unity** among employees.		0.636
Eigenvalues		7.287	4.017

a.Statements are abridged from the actual survey for illustrative purposes.
b.Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis and Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
c.Words in bold, derived from De Meuse and Hostager's (2001) Reaction to Diversity Wordlist

Table 44. Initial Test on Suitability for an EFA

Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.929
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2922.683
	df	153
	Sig.	<.001

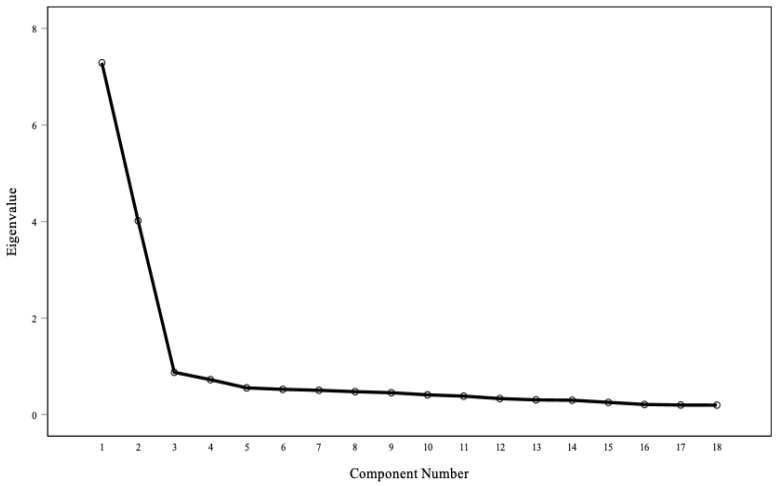


Figure 32. Scree Plot, Determination of Factors

As previously mentioned, caution was exercised in employing Bartlett's method, despite its advantages. As DiStefano et al. (2009) advise, the potential risk exist for scores that are statistically independent to produce high correlations between items could lead to misinterpretations. This caution was particularly concerning in the use of the DMI scales in their ratio format to analyze interval data.

To address this conundrum, a simple yet effective transformation was applied to convert the z-scores into interval scores. This procedure involved summing the scores for each item within a factor and dividing by the number of items, which, in this case, was nine. Although not a standard practice, this transformation resulted in more intuitive and interpretable scores, facilitating direct comparisons with the ordinal nature of Likert

scales and categorical variables. The use of these retransformed scores is noted in the ensuing analysis. However, the regression-type z-scores are still utilized in analyzing ratio data and are highlighted accordingly. Some comparisons of these scores are made in the next section.

Proposition #2

Meticulously evaluating each DMI scale is vital to scale development, ensuring they accurately measure their intended constructs (Cronbach, 1951; Furr, 2011; Peter, 1981). In concert with Proposition 2, a descriptive analysis was conducted to further evaluate the DMI scales. This analysis identified their statistical significance and summarized their characteristics among the managerial sample, such as the distribution of each factor, compared indeterminacy scores, their reliability, and an examination of the scales' construct, convergent, and discriminant validity.

> *Proposition 2: Provide a descriptive analysis of managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity management initiatives, including the evaluated DMI scales, to identify statistical significance and summarize their characteristics among the managerial sample.*

The distributions of Factors 1 and 2 inferred from Table 45 and Figures 32 through 36, generally gauge the managerial attitudes and perceptions of the sample toward diversity initiatives (DI). Factor 1 is characterized by its robust loadings that encapsulate challenging or negative perceptions of DI. As reflected by the item-loadings in Table 43, Factor 1 span a spectrum of DI dimensions, such as withdrawal sentiment (Item 1), perceptions of equity and justification (Items 2 & 4), DI-related pressure (Item

6), and the influence of DI on offering opportunities and resources (Items 11 & 13). Factor 2, with subtler loadings, represents a supportive stance on DI, emphasizing the value hiring diverse leaders and viewing DI as innovative. The range of factor loadings reflects a multifaceted array of viewpoints among the managers concerning DI's role and efficacy.

Table 45. Statistics on Distribution of The Barlett Scores

			Factor 1	Factor 2
N	Valid		250	250
	Missing		0	0
Mean			0	0
95% Confidence Interval		Upper Bound	0.1245644	0.1245644
		Lower Bound	-0.1245644	-0.1245644
Std. Deviation			1	1
Minimum			-2.18615	-5.10545
Maximum			1.68147	1.35844
Variance			1	1
Skewness			-0.355	-1.355
Std. Error of Skewness			0.154	0.154
Kurtosis			-0.722	3.776
Std. Error of Kurtosis			0.307	0.307
Range			3.86762	6.46389
Percentiles [a]	25		-0.7221130	-0.5626693
	50		0.1552791	0.1270125
	75		0.7510866	0.7539279

a. Percentiles are based on Tukey's Hinges Me

Besides the discussed indications of the factors, Factor 1's distribution appears slightly nonnormal (Figure 33). The spread of the standardized scores contains a 95% confidence interval for the mean between -1.25 and 0.12, a median of 0.15, and a variance of 1.00, as detailed in Table 49. The observed minimum and maximum values are -2.19 and 1.68, respectively, with an interquartile range of 1.48. The distribution

shows a slight leftward skew (skewness = -0.355; SE = 0.154) and is somewhat flat (negative kurtosis = -0.722; SE = 0.307). While these statistics approximate normality, nonnormality is substantiated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(250) = 0.068$, p = .006) and the Shapiro-Wilk test ($W = 0.968$, $p < .001$).

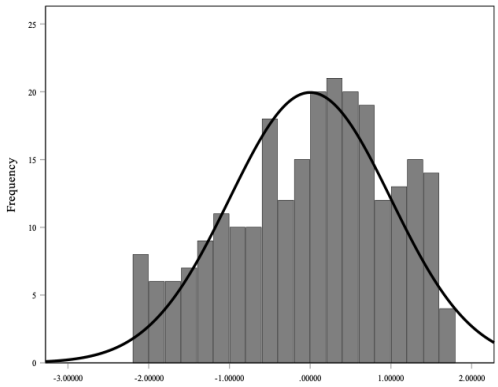


Figure 33. Z-Score for Factor 1

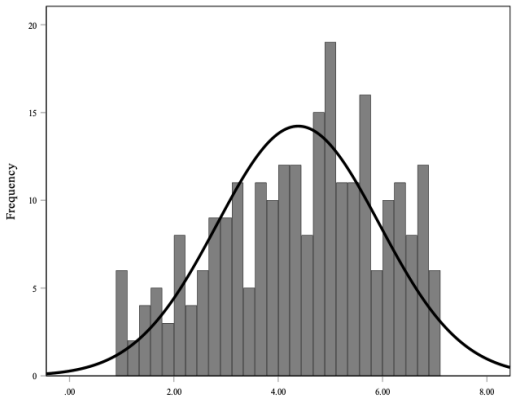


Figure 34. Factor 1, Transformed

In comparison, Factor 2's scores suggest a clearer departure from normality (Figure 35). The statistics in Table 45 illustrate a 95% confidence interval for the mean, notably the same as for Factor 1, extending from -1.25 to 0.12. The skewness of -1.36 and kurtosis of 3.78 indicate a pronounced left skew and a peaked distribution. The data

extremes, with a minimum of -5.11, a maximum of 1.36, and an interquartile range of 1.33, further emphasize the non-normality. The 25th and 75th percentiles, along with Tukey's hinges, suggest some concentration of data within these quartiles despite the overall nonnormal distribution. Nonetheless, nonnormality is confirmed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(250) = 0.087$, p = .001) and the Shapiro-Wilk test ($W = 0.913$, $p < .001$).

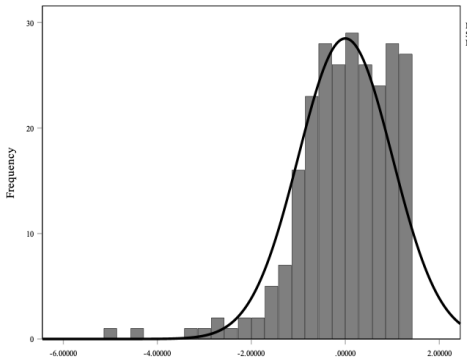


Figure 35. Z-Score for Factor 2

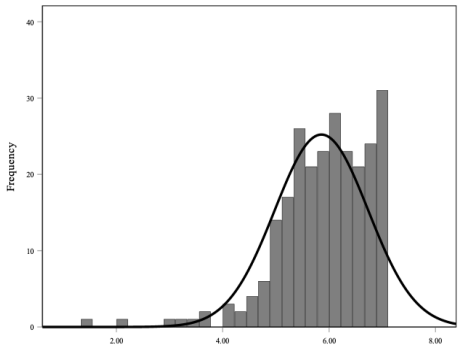


Figure 36. Factor 2, Transformed

As expected, the distribution of the transformed Likert scale scores, used for ease of interpretation, exhibit similar patterns in Table 46. For Factor 1, the median score was

situated at 4.6111, with the most frequently occurring score (mode) being 4.89. As expected, this gradual increase from the 10th (2.2222) to the 90th (6.4444) indicates a relatively symmetrical distribution. The 25th and 75th percentiles fell at 3.2222 and 5.5556, respectively, indicating a central tendency towards the mid-range of the scale. The lower and upper deciles were recorded at 2.2222 and 6.4444, respectively, suggesting a relatively even spread across the scale.

Table 46. Statistics on Distribution of Scores, Transformed to Likert Values

		Factor 1	Factor 2
N	Valid	250	250
	Missing	0	0
Median		4.6111	6.0000
Mode		4.89[a]	7.00
Range		6.00	5.56
Minimum		1.00	1.44
Maximum		7.00	7.00
Sum		1096.00	1464.00
Percentiles[a]	10	2.2222	4.8889
	20	2.8889	5.2222
	25	3.2222	5.3333
	30	3.5556	5.4444
	40	4.1111	5.7111
	50	4.6111	6.0000
	60	4.8889	6.1111
	70	5.3333	6.4444
	75	5.5556	6.5556
	80	5.7778	6.6667
	90	6.4444	6.8889

a. Percentiles are based upon the weighted averaged (Definition 1)

Contrastingly, Factor 2 demonstrated a tendency toward higher scores. The median was recorded at 6.0000, with a mode closer to the maximum of 7.00. The range was slightly less than that of Factor 1, at 5.56, with minimum and maximum scores of

1.44 and 7.00, respectively. In addition, lower percentiles (10th at 4.8889) are more compressed than the higher percentiles (90th at 6.8889), which is consistent in suggesting a skewed distribution.

Having established the distributions of the factors, the next step involved evaluating the reliability and accuracy of each factor. This was achieved by computing Cronbach's alpha scores, a widely recognized measure for internal consistency. According to Shrestha (2021), a Cronbach's alpha value greater than 0.7 is acceptable for demonstrating reliability. The Cronbach's alpha scores for both scales were notably high, indicating strong internal consistency. Specifically, Factor 1 exhibited a Cronbach's alpha of 0.941, while Factor 2 recorded an alpha of 0.904.

As a robust metric, McDonald's Omega was also incorporated as an extended measure of reliability. Consistent with earlier discussions, researchers such as Shaw (2021) and Hayes and Coutts (2020) have advocated applying this procedure, especially effective in scenarios involving nonnormal distributions. The Omega scores indicated high reliability: Factor 1 achieved an impressive score of 0.936, while Factor 2 displayed a reliability estimate of 0.906.

The factors' composite reliability (CR) was also calculated to assess construct reliability, in line with guidelines by Fornell and Larcker (1981). This involved measuring the variances among variables, as illustrated in Figure 37. In the formula, lambda represents the factor loadings and Var € represents the variance. A CR value exceeding 0.7 is indicative of satisfactory reliability. For this sample, the CR for Factor 1 (0.9219106 > .7) and the CR for Factor 2 (0.945083484 > .7) both exceeded the 0.7 threshold, thus demonstrating high reliability.

$$CR = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda_{yi}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda_{yi}^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \mathrm{Var}\,(Var\,(\mathcal{E}_i)}$$

Figure 37. Formula on Composite Reliability (Shrestha, 2021)

Now, this analysis turns from reliability assessments to employing procedures to determine the validity of the DMI scales. They derive from established best practices for validating EFAs. An essential procedure involved addressing indeterminacy in the interpretation of factor solutions, as emphasized by DiStefano et al. (2009), Goretzko et al. (2021), Grice (2001), and Maraun (1996). Echoing Maraun (1996), indeterminacy is essential for a robust validity assessment in that it allows for understanding how unobserved factors influence a set of observable factors. DiStefano and colleagues (2009) add that higher scores on observable factors signify greater validity. Demonstrating this, the 18-factor solution showed an improvement in factorial validity, as evidenced by its higher determinant score (5.735E-6), which markedly exceeds the determinant score of the initial 20-factor solution (2.923E-6).

Determining convergent validity was another best practice utilized to validate the scales. As Fornell and Larcker (1981) outlined, this criterion is met when the average variance extracted (AVE) is 0.5 or higher. The researchers explain that the AVE assesses the degree of correlation among multiple items within a scale, reflecting how well they interrelate. Referencing Figure 38, convergent validity was ascertained by calculating

each factor's average loadings. The AVE values for both factors surpassed the 0.5 threshold (Factor 1: 0.56513333; Factor 2: 0.645083484), indicating a common variance among the DMI scale items and thus affirming convergent validity.

$$AVE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda_{yi}^{2}}{n}$$

Figure 38. Formula on Convergent Validity (Cornell & Larcker, 1981)

Emphasized by Peter (1981), tests for discriminant validity were performed as the final procedure to validate the distinctiveness of each factor. This form of validity assesses whether each construct uniquely measures a specific behavior and is distinct from others. Following Fornell and Larcker (1981), each factor's previously computed average variance extracted (AVE) was compared to the squared inter-construct correlation estimates. Discriminant validity was confirmed when AVE was greater than the squared estimates of inter-construct correlations for both factors. The average squared component loadings for Factor 1 (0.569151333) and Factor 2 (0.657445111) were both higher than the squared value of the component correlation (0.061504), underscoring the uniqueness of each construct.

Given the reliability and validity of these factors, they are viable as DMI scales. Although they do not meet normality assumptions, the rigorous computations and procedures of the factored scales indicate they are highly reliable and valid. They offer a

nuanced understanding of managerial attitudes toward diversity management initiatives, capturing dimensions within two factors.

Interpretation

The cumulating step in Proposition 2 involves interpreting the theoretical relevance of each scale. This analytical component is essential, considering its aim to capture managers' current perceptions and attitudes toward Diversity Management Initiatives (DMI). Three key dimensions—egalitarianism, justification, and proportionality—were initially identified as central to understanding how fairness is contextualized by organizational members, as shown in Table 44 and Figure 31. Nonetheless, the parameters of the factor loadings informed the refinement of the theoretical framework, favoring a two-factor solution from the EFA over the initially posited three focal points.

Revisiting Factor 1 in Table 43, the highest factor loading aligned with the Item 'I occasionally feel withdrawn when DI promotes cultures or groups other than my own.' This convergence characterizes a strong sense of belonging or identification with the organization. Conversely, 'Diversity initiatives are found to be a workload liability for companies' registers the lowest loading, implying that managers may perceive the practical or financial aspects of diversity initiatives as less impactful.

These observations of Factor 1 suggest a nuanced ambivalence toward DMI, where managers acknowledge benefits but also express reservations or skepticism. Importantly, this attitude aligns with well-established psychological theories on racial ambivalence (Katz & Hass, 1988), gender ambivalence (Glick & Fiske, 1996), and behavioral ambivalence (Conner et al., 2002; Kabanoff et al., 1995). In organizational

behavior, such ambivalence is reflected in divergent views about the effectiveness and outcomes of diversity management. While Kollen (2021) discusses the role of ambivalence in shaping workplace diversity perceptions, other researchers underscore potential negative reactions or outcomes associated with diversity initiatives (Kulik, 2014; Leslie, 2019; Li et al., 2019; Mackie et al., 2008). Given these loadings and the nuanced attitudes they reveal, the term 'Diversity Ambivalence (DA) scale' is proposed for Factor 1 to encapsulate the complex sentiments expressed by managers.

The loadings for Factor 2, as shown in Table 43, convey a positive disposition toward diversity and inclusion. The statement 'DI that hire diversity leaders are important because they create opportunities for [all]' garners the highest loading. It indicates that the managers value diversity initiatives for the opportunities and benefits they provide to the organization and its members. In contrast, the statement 'DI build unity among employees' has the lowest loading, suggesting that the social or communal benefits of diversity initiatives may not be as emphasized by the managers.

The pattern of loadings for Factor 2 aligns with previous comments on egalitarian attitudes. This outcome strengthens the idea that managers prefer diversity programs that provide leadership, resources, and equal opportunities. These findings are consistent with literature that links egalitarianism with liberal leadership values that support diversity (Gupta et al., 2018; Roberson, 2019) and influence perceptions of organizational fairness (Rasinski, 1987). Given these interpretations, Factor 2 accurately reflects 'egalitarian attitudes,' and its instrumentation will be referred to as an 'Egalitarian Attitudinal (EA) scale.'

Completing Propositions 1 and 2, two DMI scales have emerged, fulfilling this study's first aim. The reliability and validity tests affirm the scales are appropriate for measuring managerial reactions to diversity management initiatives. As this analysis progresses to Propositions 3 through 7, these scales explore the core research inquiry of the managers' perceptions and attitudes toward DMI, thereby addressing the study's second aim.

Proposition #3

In examining how the newly developed DMI scales interact with other variables, Proposition 3 focuses on analyzing their correlation with the managers' ages and political affiliation. Prior to this analysis, specific conditions for *Age* and the DMI scales were carefully assessed to ensure statistical consistency. Given the ratio nature of *Age* and the non-normality of the DMI scales, the analysis utilized standardized scales with Bartlett scores. The lack of a normal distribution (see distribution of key variables) dictated that Spearman's rho correlation analysis was applied rather than Pearson's correlation. As Gignac (2019) highlights, Spearman's rho is advantageous in that it does not assume linearity or normal distribution of the variables, making it robust for analyzing ordinal or non-normally distributed interval data. This method was particularly effective in assessing the direction and strength of relationships between two continuous or ordinal variables, such as the variables in Proposition 3 and the DMI scales. The strength and direction of the correlation are indicated by coefficients ranging from -1 to 1, where values closer to - 1 or 1 suggest a stronger negative or positive monotonic relationship (Howitt & Cramer, 2017).

Proposition 3: Conduct a correlation analysis of the new DMI scales by analyzing the continuous independent demographic variables of managers' Age and political affiliation.

Before conducting the correlation, the extent of the monotonic relationship was determined between the variables in whether they consistently increase or decrease. Scatter plot diagrams revealed a clear monotonic relationship between *Age* and the DMI scales, as indicated by the equation $y = - 0.93+0.02 (x)$.

Age

In assessing the relationships between the DA scale and *Age*, the Spearman's rank correlation was found to be statistically significant, r_s (248) = .196, p = .002, indicating a small to moderate positive association. Due to the low magnitude of this association, its significance was further explored by examining its effect size as encouraged by Kelley and Preacher (2012).

The effect size was calculated by squaring the Spearman's rho coefficient: r_s = .196. This calculation yields a small effect size, r_s^2 = .196 x .196 = .0384, indicating that only 3.84% of the variance in the DA scale can be attributed to *Age*. However, due to its nonnormal distribution, the advance use of bootstrapping was utilized. Bootstrapping is considered a powerful, advanced non-parametric technique, useful in analyzing an unknown sampling distribution (Woodroof, 2000). Applying bootstrapping interpretations for this procedure and others were based on 2000 bootstrap samples to ensure robust effect size estimates and confidence intervals.

The bootstrap samples produced a 95% bootstrap confidence interval ranging from .075 to .314. This suggests that *Age* may contribute to slight increases in DA scores, and there is a substantial probability that future coefficients could fall within this interval, potentially indicating a stronger effect. Furthermore, Gignac (2019) emphasizes the significance of this confidence interval, particularly as the point-estimate range does not intersect zero, reinforcing the meaningfulness of the observed correlation.

In contrast, the correlation between *Age* and the EA scale did not yield significant results. The Spearman's rho coefficient for this relationship was calculated as r_s (248) = -.113, with a p-value of .075 that failed to reach the conventional threshold for statistical significance.

Political Affiliation

The following evaluation used the DMI scales to measure relationships among the managers' political affiliations. No significant correlational relationships were observed for either scale. Given the interval nature of the scales, the transformed values were used for this determination. The results of the computations were the following: DA scale, r_s (248) = .057, p = .369, and the EA scale, r_s (248) = -.053, p = .403. This conclusion remained consistent even after applying a logarithmic transformation to *Political Affiliation*, resulting in a weak, negative correlation (r_s = -.061, n = 248, p = .335), confirming the absence of any significant monotonic relationship.

Proposition #4

Proposition 4 examines the correlational relationships between the DMI scales and categorical demographic groups among managers, focusing on *Gender*, *Race*, and *Ethnicity*. Given the nominal nature of these demographic variables, eta squared (η^2) was

employed to ascertain their relationship with the DMI scales. Although eta squared (η^2) is a parametric measure, it is apt for assessing relationships involving nonnormal distributions, nominal independent variables, and ratio-scaled dependent variables, thus facilitating the revelation of correlational patterns (De Vaus, 2013; Gignac, 2019). However, its usage was approached with care, heeding Liu's (2022) advice that analysis with eta squared (η^2) may yield biased results.

> *Proposition 4: Analyze how the DMI scales relate to categorical demographic groups of managers according to their Gender, Ethnicity, and Race.*

Gender

As presented in Table 47, the association between the Diversity Ambivalence (DA) scale and *Gender* was determined to be small, with an eta squared (η^2) value of .087. The bootstrapped 95% confidence interval for this association, ranging from .005 to .207, confirmed that *Gender* accounts for approximately 8.7% of the variance in DA scale scores. Similarly, the association between the Egalitarian Attitudes (EA) scale and *Gender* was also small, as evidenced by an eta squared (η^2) value. The corresponding confidence intervals ranged from .007 to .232, suggesting that *Gender* explained about 10.8% of the variance in egalitarian attitudes. These findings underscored the modest but present influence of *Gender* on both the DA and EA scales.

Bootstrapping was also incorporated to mitigate this risk and enhance the reliability of the coefficients, as recommended by Liu (2022). This procedure also involved the use of transformed scores to interpret eta squared (η^2) values according to

Cohen's (1962) guidelines: a large effect for $\eta^2 > .2$, a moderate effect for $\eta^2 > .1$, and a small effect for $\eta^2 > .01$.

Table 47. Association of Gender and Ethnicity with DA and EA Scales

		Eta Squared	95% CI Lower Bound	95% CI Upper Bound
Gender	Diversity Ambivalence Scale	0.087	0.005	0.207
	Egalitarian Attitude Scale	0.108	0.007	0.232
Ethnicity	Diversity Ambivalence Scale	0.141	0.021	0.281
	Egalitarian Attitude Scale	0.039	0.002	0.165
Race	Diversity Ambivalence Scale	0.202	0.133	0..355
	Egalitarian Attitude Scale	0.173	0.110	0.309

Note. CI = Confidence Interval.
Eta squared values are based on 2000 bootstrap samples

Considering the small association of *Gender* with the DMI scales, an ad hoc point-biserial correlation test was employed to ensure methodological thoroughness and to gain a comprehensive understanding of these relationships. This statistical measure was particularly valuable in assessing associations between dichotomous and continuous variables, especially when the latter may not adhere to the assumptions of normality (Islam & Rizwan, 2022). The use of this test complemented the initial findings by providing a different lens in examining the association and thus, enriching the analysis.

The point-biserial test revealed that *Gender* had a nonsignificant positive correlation with the DA scale (r_{pb} = .091, p = .152, n = 250) and a nonsignificant negative correlation with the EA scale (r_{pb} = -.111, p = .081, n = 250). While not statistically significant, these results provided an additional perspective on the subtle influence of *Gender*. When combined with the eta squared values, which suggested *Gender* accounted for approximately 8.7% of variance in DA scale scores and 10.8% in EA scale scores, the point-biserial correlation analysis contributes to a nuanced and comprehensive portrait of gender's role in shaping attitudes toward diversity management initiatives.

To further substantiate the gender-specific associations, a post hoc Mann-Whitney U test was conducted on the extent egalitarian attitudes exist between the male and female managers. This extra step was particularly of interest, given the marginal p-value (p = .081). As a nonparametric test, the Mann-Whitney U test is well-suited for dichotomous and ordinal variables and sufficiently robust for non-normal distributions (De Winter & Dodou, 2010; Gignac, 2019).

First, a test for the homogeneity of variance was conducted. The assumption was assessed using Levene's test as a nonparametric condition for employing the Mann-Whitney U test (Garson, 2012). The transformed Likert-scale scores were subjected to Levene's test, which yielded a statistic of .040 with a significance level of .842, confirming the homogeneity of variances (p > .05) and thereby validating the use of the Mann-Whitney U test for further analysis. The Mann-Whitney test revealed a statistically significant difference in EA scale scores between genders, U = 6432.500, n = 250, p = .040. This significant result indicates a disparity in the medians of Egalitarian Attitudes by gender, with men (*Mdn* = 136.65) exhibiting higher scores than women (*Mdn* =

117.56). The effect size, measured by a z-statistic of -2.057, fell within the small to medium range, as described by Cohen (2013). These differences are visually represented in Figure 39, depicting the distribution of Egalitarian Attitudes across genders, further illustrating that men rank higher in egalitarian attitudes compared to women.

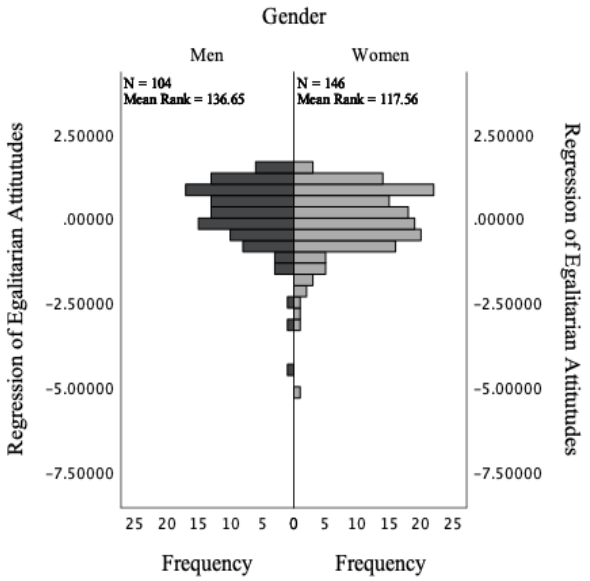


Figure 39. Mann-Whitney U Test on Gender

As part of the analysis, the relationship between *Gender* and the DMI scales was conclusive. The data from this sample did not demonstrate a significant correlation. Although there are distinct differences in Egalitarian Attitudes (p = .04) between men and women, the overall correlation is nonsignificant within the context of this study. Therefore, *Gender* is not a determining factor for the managers in shaping reactions toward Diversity Management Initiatives. This determination sets aside *Gender* as a focal point in the subsequent discussion and allows for a more targeted examination of variables with more pronounced results.

Ethnicity

In Table 51, the association between *Ethnicity* and the Diversity Ambivalence scale was found to be near a medium effect, with an eta squared (η^2) value of .141. This value slightly exceeded Cohen's threshold for a small effect size, suggesting a meaningful association. Furthermore, the bootstrapped 95% confidence interval for this value ranged from .021 to .281, indicating some variation in the association's strength.

Conversely, the eta squared (η^2) value for the association between *Ethnicity* and the Egalitarian Attitudes scales was .039, falling below Cohen's threshold for a small effect and indicative of a very weak association. For this statistic, the bootstrapped 95% confidence interval, from .002 to .165, implied that while the association is statistically detectable, its practical significance may be limited.

A point biserial correlation, serving as a complementary method to the eta squared $(\eta)^2$ evaluation, further substantiated the relationship between *Ethnicity* and the Diversity Ambivalence (DA) scale. The biserial correlation coefficient (r_{pb} = .139, p = .028, n = 250) confirmed a statistically significant positive correlation, aligning with the eta squared findings that suggested a meaningful association. This parallel approach provides a cohesive understanding of how the managers' *Ethnicity* relates to diversity ambivalence.

In contrast, the relationship between *Ethnicity* and the Egalitarian Attitudes (EA) scale, though statistically insignificant (r_{pb} = -.040, p = .531, n = 250), echoes the findings from the eta squared analysis, showing a very weak effect size (η^2 = .039). The congruence between the biserial correlation and eta squared results reinforces the conclusion that the influence of *Ethnicity* on egalitarian attitudes is limited. This result is

further substantiated by the practical implications drawn from the bootstrapped confidence intervals.

Given the earlier significance detected, the extent of the association between the DA scale and *Ethnicity* was further evaluated. Procedures were reapplied to utilize the Mann-Whitney U test and Levene's test in assessing differences between Hispanic and non-Hispanic groups. For this analysis, transformed scales were used instead of standardized Bartlett scores. Levene's test revealed variance inhomogeneity between groups, as indicated by significance values falling below the .05 threshold. This variance inconsistency across groups necessitated the use of an alternative test to assess differences on the scale.

The Welch's ANOVA test provided the alternative procedure, as recommended by Delacre et al. (2017) and Lantz (2013). It is considered robust for testing differences under such conditions, as well as suitable for variables containing slight violations of normality. The dispersion of the DA scale's transformed scores met this standard, displaying a slight deviation from normality with a mean of 4.3840 and a standard deviation of 1.55798. The skewness value of -0.317 (standard error = 0.154) suggested a slight negative skew, less than twice the standard error, indicating a minor deviation from symmetry. Similarly, the kurtosis value of -0.742 (standard error = 0.307) denoted a platykurtic distribution, less peaked than a normal distribution. Like skewness, the kurtosis was within approximately twice the standard error, further suggesting that the distribution's deviation from normal kurtosis may not be significant.

Proceeding with Welch's ANOVA, the analysis revealed a statistically significant effect of *Ethnicity* on the Diversity Ambivalence scale $F(1, 248) = 5.031$, $p = .026$.

Furthermore, the effect size measured by omega squared was $\omega^2 = .016$. All in all, differences existed in diversity ambivalence between the two ethnic groups. Managers who identified as 'Not Hispanic or Latino' reported higher levels of diversity ambivalence than those who identified as 'Hispanic or Latino.'

A Wilcoxon test was conducted to complement Welch's ANOVA, providing additional insights into the differences among ethnicities. As a nonparametric test, the Wilcoxon test is also appropriate for nonnormal distributions. It offers an alternative perspective by focusing on median scores rather than means (Gignac, 2019). The Wilcoxon test yielded a test value of 5527.00 and a Wilcoxon W value of 26642.00. The standardized test statistic was 2.082, and the asymptotic significance (2-sided) was $p = .037$. Given the significance level ($p < .05$), the results suggested a statistical difference in the DA scale's distribution of scores between Hispanic and non-Hispanic groups.

Race

Next, the DMI scales were used to evaluate the association of the sample's six racial categories, including responses from managers who preferred not to specify their race. As noted in Table 39, De Vaus (2013) suggests using eta squared (η^2) to measure associations between nominal variables with multiple categories and ratio scales.

Table 51 displays the association with the Diversity Ambivalence (DA) scale, which yielded an eta squared (η^2) value of .202. The bootstrap 95% confidence interval for this association, ranging from .133 to .355, indicates a moderate association strength. The association between *Race* and the Egalitarian Attitudes scale is similarly moderate, with an eta squared (η^2) value of .173 and a bootstrap 95% confidence interval extending from .110 to .309.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted as an alternative to the one-way ANOVA as advised by Gignac (2019) for comparing multiple groups, such as *Race*. The DMI scales (DA & EA) measured no significant differences in scores among the racial groups. The computational procedures were based on the standardized scores of the DMI scales. The DA scale resulted in a statistic of 8.097 with 5 degrees of freedom. The asymptotic significance (2-sided) revealed a p-value of .151, which exceeds the conventional alpha level of .05, indicating no significant difference in diversity ambivalence among the racial groups. Comparably, the EA scale computed a statistic of 6.269, with 5 degrees of freedom, relaying an asymptotic significance level of .281, which also attested to this claim.

Like *Gender*, the unexpected outcome between *Race* and the DMI scales is considered conclusive for this analysis in that no significance was shown among and between the subcategories. However, an exception is made for its implications to be further discussed (see discussion section), as *Race* is a key factor in this phenomenon.

Proposition #5

> *Proposition 5: Analyze how the new DMI scales correlate with continuous variables such as Organizational Size and Years of Experience.*

Organizational Size

Proposition 5 centers on examining the correlations between the DMI scales and organizational variables. Spearman's rho was used to evaluate the relationships. The correlations were deemed statistically insignificant because their p-values exceeded the conventional alpha threshold (0.05). A weak negative correlation emerged from the DA

scale (r_s = -0.025, p = 0.689), and a weak positive correlation emerged from the EA scale (r_s = 0.092, p = 0.146). These results were further substantiated by indicating that a meaningful monotonic relationship was absent between *Organizational Size* and the DMI scales.

Considering weak and insignificant correlations on *Organizational Size*, the outcomes are peculiar. This doubt relates to the notion that larger organizations usually possess the resources to invest in diversity programs, as opposed to smaller ones (Peretz et al., 2015). Nonetheless, the conclusiveness of this outcome on *Organizational Size* will end here to allow more attention to be placed on other significant results for the discussion.

Table 48. Mean Ranks of Experience and DA Scale

Experience By Groups		N	Mean Rank
Diversity Ambivalence	Under 10	178	119.35
	11 – 20	57	139.25
	21 – 30	14	141.93
	Over 31	1	207.00
Total		250	

Years of Experience

In evaluating the relationship of the DMI scales and managerial experience, Spearman's rho correlation was also utilized. The analysis indicated a weak but statistically significant association between the DA scale and *Years of Experience*, $r_s(248) = .155$, $p = .014$. Albeit modest, the results suggested that the managers with more experience exhibited slightly higher diversity ambivalence. Based on Table 48, subgroups with over 11 years of experience collectively demonstrated the highest level of diversity ambivalence. While the ‘Over 31’ category displayed the highest mean rank for diversity

ambivalence, the very small sample size (N = 1) for this group limits the reliability of this observation; and thus, it was deemed inappropriate to include it in the overall comparison of the groups.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to assess these differences in Diversity Ambivalence scores among different groups. The test revealed a Kruskal-Wallis H statistic of 5.348 with 3 degrees of freedom. Although there was a moderate difference in the Diversity Ambivalence scores among the experience groups, this difference did not reach statistical significance ($\chi^2(3) = 5.348$, $p = .148$).

Table 49. Pairwise Comparisons of Experience by Groups and the DA Scale

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.[a]
Under 10 - 11 - 20	-19.909	11.002	-1.810	0.070	0.422
Under 10 - 21 - 30	-22.583	20.066	-1.125	0.260	1.000
Under 10 - Over 31	-87.654	72.493	-1.209	0.227	1.000
11 – 20 - 21 - 30	-2.674	21.563	-0.124	0.901	1.000
11 – 20 - Over 31	-67.746	72.922	-0.929	0.353	1.000
21 – 30 - Over 31	-65.071	74.828	-0.870	0.385	1.000

a. Significance values adjusted using, the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.
b. Each subgroup tests, null hypothesis: Sample 1 and Sample 2 are the same.
c. Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed: significance level is .050.

A subsequent post hoc analysis, delineated in Table 49, illustrates this result further. The groups were divided into quartiles, and the analysis employed the Mann-Whitney U test for between groups, pairwise comparisons, and the DA scale. The comparative interest between managers with less than 10 years and those with 11-20 years of experience approached statistical significance (p = .070). However, these comparisons and the other groups did not reveal significant differences, as indicated by their higher p-values.

In assessing the EA scale and *Years of Experience,* the results portrayed an extremely weak, negative correlation coefficient (r_s = -.016), suggesting the inverse relationship that was not statistically significant (p = .801). This lack of significance indicated no discernible monotonic trend between *Years of Managerial Experience* and egalitarian attitudes among the managers in this sample.

Proposition #6

> *Proposition 6: Analyze how the DMI scales relate to different organizational group variables, such as Level of Management, Type of Organization, and Current Work Modality.*

Levels of Management

As this proposition requires, the variances in the DMI scales (with standardized scores) were analyzed in relation to *Levels of Management, Types of Organizations*, and *Managers' Work Modality.* To evaluate the DA scale across different management levels, Spearman's rho correlation analysis was first applied. The results revealed no significant correlation between management levels and the regression of Diversity Ambivalence, $r_s(250)$ = -.072, p = .256. In contrast, a significant correlation existed between management levels and the Egalitarian Attitudinal scale, $r_s(250)$ = .230, p < .001, indicating that higher management levels are associated more with egalitarian attitudes.

The Kruskal-Wallis test was employed to further evaluate the differences in the EA scale across the same *Levels of Management,* revealing more notable findings. The test showed 13.204 with 2 degrees of freedom, yielding a significant p-value of .001 that

noted meaningful differences in egalitarian attitudes among the different management levels.

To further explore this significance, pairwise post hoc comparisons were performed using the Mann-Whitney U test and Bonferroni adjustments. As one of the most conservative methods, the Bonferroni adjustment compensates for the increased risk of Type I error in conducting multiple pairwise tests (Mundfrom et al., 2006). It provides a significance level for each element, ensuring a more robust analysis.

Table 50. Pairwise Comparisons of Management Levels and Egalitarian Attitude

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.[a]
Lower Management – Middle Management	-22.107	21.854	-1.012	0.312	0.935
Lower Management – Upper Management	-52.242	21.955	-2.379	0.017	0.052
Middle Management – Upper Management	-30.135	9.387	-3.210	0.001	0.004

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.
b. Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.
c. Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Table 50 illustrates the post hoc analysis. It shows that pairwise comparisons indicated no significant difference in egalitarian attitudes between lower and middle management levels (adjusted $p = .935$). A marginally significant difference was observed between lower and upper management levels (adjusted $p = .052$). However, a significant difference was found between the middle and upper management levels (adjusted $p = .004$). These results draw attention to contrasting findings in the sample between the two facets of workplace attitudes and perceptions. While there may be uniformity in ambivalence toward diversity, they suggest that egalitarian perceptions vary significantly across different management strata.

Type of Organizations

Spearman's rho was also utilized to determine the correlation between the *Type of Organization* and DMI scales. The results showed that there was no significant correlation between organization type and Diversity Ambivalence, with $r_s(248) = .025$ and $p = .696$. Similarly, the correlation between organization type and Egalitarian Attitudes was also non-significant, with $r_s(248) = .005$ and $p = .943$. These results indicate that the type of organization does not significantly impact the scores of either the Diversity Ambivalence or Egalitarian Attitudes scales in the sample of 250 managers.

This analysis specifically investigated the relationship between different types of organizations and the DMI scales. No significant differences were found within the sample for these variables. This outcome is unique. Due to their advocacy for social services, Hasenfeld and Garrow (2012) posit that nonprofits usually align with neoliberal values. Hence, some significance in the DMI scales was anticipated among the subgroups, reflecting these values. Furthermore, the scarcity of research suggests more investigations are required. Johansen and Zhu (2017) also highlight the need for more extensive study in this area. The absence of significant findings related to organizational types suggests that other factors may have a more substantial influence on the DMI scales within the sample.

Work Modality

For *Work Modality*, a Spearman's rho correlation analysis found a noteworthy, negative relationship $r_s(250) = -.193$, $p = .002$), between variations in work schedules and the managers' scores in diversity ambivalence. This result implies that managers with dissimilar work schedules tend to have different levels of diversity ambivalence.

Similarly, a significant negative correlation existed between work schedule variations and managers' egalitarian attitudes $r_s(250) = -.169$, $p = .007$), indicating that varying work schedules are associated with varying levels of egalitarian attitudes among the managers.

Accordingly, an ad hoc analysis was performed to explore the differences in the relationship between the DMI scales and managers' current *Work Modality*. For the DA scale, the Kruskal-Wallis produced an H statistic of 9.945 with 2 degrees of freedom ($p = .007$), suggesting there are variations in work schedules in relation to differing levels of diversity ambivalence within the sample.

Table 51. Pairwise Comparisons of Work Modality and Diversity Ambivalence

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.[a]
Hybrid - Completely Remote	-2.086	17.543	-0.119	0.905	1.000
Hybrid - Completely in-person	29.432	9.803	3.002	0.003	0.008
Completely Remote - Completely in-person	27.346	16.922	1.616	0.106	0.318

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.
b. Each row tests the that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.
c. Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .050.

For DA, Table 51 delineates the results of the subsequent post hoc pairwise comparisons, which were conducted using the Mann-Whitney U test with Bonferroni adjustments to account for multiple comparisons. Significant differences were observed between Hybrid and Completely In-Person work schedules (adjusted p-value = .008), where the Completely In-Person group had higher ambivalence scores. Conversely, no significant differences were detected between Completely Remote and Completely In-Person (adjusted $p = .318$) or between Completely Remote and Hybrid (adjusted $p =$

1.000) work schedules. A separate Mann-Whitney U test comparing In-Person and Hybrid schedules further corroborated these findings. In-Person workers reported significantly higher levels of ambivalence (p = .003). These outcomes underscore that the type of work schedule is relevant in shaping employees' diversity ambivalence.

An Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis test was also conducted for the Egalitarian Attitudes (EA) scale to explore its variations. The analysis yielded a Kruskal-Wallis H statistic of 8.368 with 2 degrees of freedom, corresponding to an asymptotic significance of .015. This value indicated notable disparities in Egalitarian Attitudes depending on the work schedule classification.

Table 52. Pairwise Comparisons of Work Modality and Egalitarian Attitudes

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.[a]
Completely Remote - Hybrid	29.559	17.543	1.685	0.092	0.276
Completely Remote - Completely in-person	45.580	16.922	2.694	0.007	0.021
Hybrid - Completely in-person	16.021	9.803	1.634	0.102	0.307

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.
b. Each row tests the that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.
c. Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .050.

The subsequent post hoc pairwise analysis, detailed in Table 52, compared egalitarian attitudes across Completely Remote, Hybrid, and Completely In-person work modalities. The Bonferroni-adjusted Mann-Whitney tests revealed a significant difference between Completely Remote and Completely In-person schedules (adjusted p = .021), indicating a marked variation in Egalitarian Attitudes between these two modalities. In contrast, comparisons between Hybrid and Completely In-person (adjusted p = .307) and between Hybrid and Completely Remote (adjusted p = .276) schedules did not yield statistically significant results. These findings are key in illustrating the

significant influence of the modality subgroups on the managers' egalitarian beliefs and principles.

Proposition #7

Proposition 7: Examine the correlated relationships between the DMI scales and managers' turnover intent.

Proposition 7 examines the relationship between Diversity Ambivalence (DA) and Egalitarian Attitudes (EA) scales and managers' Intentions to Leave (ITL) their organizations. The propensity for ITL was measured using two Likert-scale items: 'Thoughts about Leaving' and 'Searching for a Job.' First, reliability was determined. The 'Cronbach's alpha analysis returned a high-reliability coefficient of .872, indicating strong internal consistency among the items probing employees' considerations of leaving and job search activities. This statistic was reaffirmed by the central tendency of both items. The 'Thoughts about Leaving' item had a mean score of 3.62, above the scale's midpoint, while 'Searching for a Job' had a mean of 3.30. These scores were accompanied by an approximate standard deviation of 2.0, pointing to moderate variability in responses; and a substantial inter-item correlation of .773 suggesting a probable link between the contemplation of leaving and the initiation of job searches.

Intentions to Leave Scale

Given the robust internal consistency, the ITL items were deemed suitable for constructing a scale and investigating its associations with the DMI scales and other pertinent variables. The methods to construct an ITL scale involved consolidating the items into a composite score and then converting them to Z-scores. This standardization

was crucial for enabling a comprehensive correlation analysis to address Proposition 7, effectively.

Upon analyzing the DMI and ITL scales, Spearman's rho identified a robust negative correlation (r_s = -.507) with the DA scale, showing a highly significant p-value ($p < .001$). This intriguing correlation indicated an inverse relationship: the managers' inclination to leave their organization intensifies as diversity ambivalence lessens. Indistinguishably, a negative correlation (rho = -.168) was found between the ITL scale and the EA scale, which, while moderate, is statistically significant ($p = .008$). This suggests that the managers with stronger egalitarian attitudes are associated with a reduced desire to leave their organization. Both correlations are meaningful, with the latter being moderate yet noteworthy at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

These results piqued more curiosity to understand the correlated significance of the ITL scale. Accordingly, the items were evaluated using eta squared (η^2) to glean a dichotomous perspective from the categorical variables within the sample. *Gender* was first examined, considering its ubiquitous nature. The analysis produced an eta squared (η^2) value was 0.002401, accounting for approximately 0.24% of the variance in the ITL scale. This finding indicates an extremely weak association between *Gender* and the composite measure of turnover intention and job-search behavior, suggesting that men and women, alone are not strong predictors of these outcomes.

Along the same lines, *Ethnicity* yielded an eta squared (η^2) value of 0.005625. Although marginally higher than the value for *Gender*, it reflected an extremely weak association, explaining merely 0.56% of the variance in the ITL scale. This notion implies that *Ethnicity* has negligible predictive power regarding managers' contemplation

of leaving their jobs and pursuing new opportunities. Additionally, the point biserial correlation coefficient further confirmed an extremely weak, non-significant negative correlation, $r_{pb}(248) = -.075$, $p = .240$, underscoring the absence of a significant association between managers' ethnicity and their turnover intentions within this sample.

In summary, Proposition 7 revealed that demographic factors such as *Gender* and *Ethnicity* have a limited association with managers' intent to leave (ITL), accounting for a small fraction of the variance in the combined Z-score. In contrast, the DMI scales, particularly the Diversity Ambivalence (DA) scale, have exhibited a more pronounced relationship with ITL. This divergence highlights that while demographic variables may contribute marginally, aspects encapsulated by the DMI scales—like diversity ambivalence and egalitarian attitudes—play a more significant role in predicting managers' turnover intentions.

Review of Other Variables

The design features of Study 2 included managers' locations, types of residence, education, and income levels. These variables were analyzed at the end of the proposed propositions as an auxiliary perspective to explore whether these factors are associated with or influenced by managerial mindsets. However, none of these variables presented any significant relationships with the sample of managers. The following discussions outline their results.

Locations

As presented earlier (see page 140), the distribution of managers across 43 states was concentrated in nine states: California, New York, Texas, Florida, Pennsylvania, Georgia, Ohio, Louisiana, and Indiana. To determine whether the DMI scales were

associated with managers from these locations, the data were divided into four regions based on the most recent regional configurations by the Census Bureau in 2023 (Census, 2022). The computational percentages, from highest to lowest, highlight the South (41.6%), Northeast (21.2%), Midwest (20%), and West (17.2%).

The relationship between Diversity Ambivalence and these four regions resulted in an eta squared (η^2) value of .116, indicating a moderate effect size. Approximately 11.6% of the variance in diversity ambivalence can be attributed to the regional categorization of the managers. Additionally, the Egalitarian Attitudes scale yielded an eta squared (η^2) of .053, representing a small effect size and accounting for 5.3% of the variance.

However, a series of Kruskal-Wallis H tests indicated no significant differences in the distribution of scores for both DMI scales across the regions. This was confirmed through pairwise comparisons that were performed with Bonferroni corrections to adjust for multiple tests. All adjusted significance (*Adj. Sig.*) values exceeded the .05 criterion for statistical significance.

Residence

Three types of managerial residences were analyzed as an extension of managers' locales in urban, suburban, and rural areas. The analysis of the relationship between types of locales and Egalitarian Attitudes yielded a small eta squared (η^2) value of .091, indicating that 9.1% of the variance in EA is associated with variations in locales. Moreover, Diversity Ambivalence yielded an eta squared (η^2) value of .167, showing a moderate effect of the variance (16.7%) in EA with variations in locales.

While some indications of the differences between certain locales were initially shown, these did not withstand the stricter criteria of the Bonferroni correction. In the pairwise comparisons with the DA scale, the initial unadjusted significance levels suggested a significant difference between City and Suburb locales (p = .034); however, this difference did not maintain significance after Bonferroni adjustment (*Adj*. p = .102). Neither the City-Rural comparison (*Adj*. p = .228) nor the Suburb-Rural comparison (*Adj*. p = 1.000) were significant after adjustment. The pairwise comparisons for EA also indicated no significant differences between the locales when considering the Bonferroni adjustment. The Suburb-Rural (*Adj*. p = 1.000), Suburb-City (*Adj*. p = .583), and Rural-City (*Adj*. p = 1.000) comparisons all exceeded the adjusted significance threshold, indicating a lack of evidence to suggest differences in this variable among the various locale types.

Educational Levels

A few adjustments were made to facilitate analysis of the educational levels among the sample. As shown in Table 34, two subgroups were combined due to their low numbers. The first combination involved merging those with professional degrees beyond bachelor's (5) and doctorate degrees (3). The second combination merged managers with high school diplomas (24) with those holding less than one year of college (29). This restructuring created four subgroups: Bachelor's (105), Master's (49), Associate's (35), and High School Diploma or less than one year of college (53).

The correlation analysis indicated small to moderate relationships. For Diversity Ambivalence (DA), the eta squared (η^2) was .153, denoting a moderate effect, with 15.3% of the variance in DA associated with educational levels. For Egalitarian Attitudes

(EA), the eta squared (η^2) was .063, suggestive of a small effect, with 6.3% of the variance in EA associated with educational levels.

Even so, the Kruskal-Wallis H test found no statistically significant difference in associations between DMI scores and educational levels. For EA, the test statistic was $H(3) = .307$ with a p-value of .959; for Diversity Ambivalence, $H(3) = 5.637$ with a p-value of .131, neither below the .05 threshold for statistical significance.

Income Levels

Analysis of annual income levels within the sample revealed moderate correlations with the DMI scales. The incomes were also recoded into four levels for ease of interpretation: $50K and below ($n$=53), $50K - $100K ($n$=107), $101K - $150K ($n$=51), and $151K and above ($n$=39). For Diversity Ambivalence, an eta squared (η^2) of .145 indicates a moderate effect size, with 14.5% of the variance in Diversity Ambivalence being explained by income levels. Similarly, the Egalitarian Attitudes scale reported an eta squared (η^2) of .167, also representing a moderate effect size. This value accounts for 16.7% of the variance in Egalitarian Attitudes due to income level differences.

Pairwise comparisons of income levels with DMI scales generally showed no significant differences. However, the DA scale initially indicated a significant effect at the .05 level for the comparison between the highest income group ($151K and above) and the lowest income group ($50K and below), with a standard test statistic of 2.112 and a p-value of .035. Nevertheless, after applying the Bonferroni adjustment for multiple comparisons, the adjusted significance level rose to .208, which did not denote statistical significance.

For the EA scale, none of the pairwise comparisons between income groups reached statistical significance post-Bonferroni adjustment. The most notable difference was between the $151K and above group and the $101K - $150K group, with a standard test statistic of 1.877 and a *p*-value of .061, which adjusted to .363, indicating a non-significant trend.

As with other statistical outcomes of no significance, the analysis of these variables is considered conclusive. As such, discussions are reserved in the following section for those variables that revealed significance or a peculiar outcome.

Discussion of Results

The previous methodological procedures provided the necessary analysis to benchmark the attitudes and perceptions of managers toward diversity management initiatives (DMI). Consistent with the aims of this study, the seven propositions enabled a detailed and descriptive exploration. The following sections discuss the relevance of the findings and highlights some of the unexpected outcomes as well. Arranged by the sequenced of the propositions, the discussions only present the significant findings among the managers' *Age, Years of Experience, Levels of Management, Work Modalities, Intentions to Leave,* and unexpected results for *Political Affiliation, Ethnicity,* and *Race.*

Among the procedures, calibrating reliable scales was a critical step. And consequently, the scales have emerged as essential tools for measuring perceptions and attitudes that were once obscure and unexplored. As the EFA illustrated, the DMI scales reflect two primary mindsets among the managers. In one aspect, they re-underscore that diversity ambivalence is very much a part of the attitudes and perceptions that exist in organizations. Its prevalence resonates with research by Axelrad et al. (2023) in their

seminal work on managerial bias. The researchers reveal that ambivalence towards diversity is not just a passive state; but that it actively shapes organizational dynamics. In another way, the negative convergence of the DA scales imply that management diversity-strategies do contribute to the underlying skepticism and reservations managers may harbor. One explanation may relate to how managers' perceptions of fairness are directed to the outcomes of diversity programs that institute some level of accountability, according to Leslie (2019) and Richard and Kirby (1999). As noted in the literature review, the researchers believe that managers who exhibit counter reactions to diversity may feel more threatened by diversity initiatives, rather than embrace their corporate obligation in being supportive.

Similarly captured by the EA scale, the prevalence of egalitarian attitudes (EA) in the workplace echoes arguments by Rasinski (1987) of its existence. In general, he asserts that egalitarianism serves as a natural and ubiquitous extension of members' expectations for fairness. So, as an example, managers' strong preference for equality and equal rights for all may influence how they react and support diversity policies.

All in all, the DMI scales and their reflection of managerial expectations may represent managers' personal values (Rasinski, 1987; Richard et al., 2000). Managers are likely to use their values as barometers to judge the procedural and distributive policies that influence how fairness is perceived (Greenberg, 1990; Kravitz & Klineburg, 2000). Collectively, these perceptions and attitudes demonstrate managers' reactions post-2019 and contribute to understanding their contemporary implications.

Age

As such, investigating whether the DMI scales correlate with *Age* and *Political Affiliation* provided notable outcomes. Two aspects are intriguing. *Age* showed a slight correlation with the Diversity Ambivalence (DA) scale, indicating that more ambivalence toward diversity tend to exist in older managers, than younger managers. Limited research on this observation suggests that ambivalence or a negative attitude may depend on the outcomes that diversity mechanisms generate, as discussed by (Leslie, 2019)

Mannix and Neale (2005) also highlight this tendency. They suggest that the outcomes of diversity programs magnify the dissimilarities of a more diverse workforce and subsequently create negative effects. In other words, older workers might be influenced by various factors created by a diverse workforce, like the presence of younger colleagues, diverse cultures, or different values within the workplace.

However, another intrigue of this analysis relates to a view from Hur et al. (2010). The researchers suggest that in certain contexts, such as in their statewide study, older managers may view diversity practices favorably, with factors like race or location contributing positively to their attitudes toward these practices. Previously mentioned to establish the relevance of *age*, it is reiterated that older organizational leaders are likely to favor diversity practices (Ng & Sears, 2012).

Nonetheless after 2019, the small yet significant results from the sample suggest that older managers may tend to share some ambivalence toward DMI. The intricacy of this interplay shows that other variables, defined by generational or cultural differences, may contribute to such attitudes. This possibility emphasizes a need for further investigation of *Age* and its relationship to DMI.

Political Affiliation

The analysis of *Political Affiliation* within this study yielded a surprising outcome that also diverges from theoretical expectations. In addressing the propositional requirements, results were anticipated to reveal some relationship with diversity ambivalence or egalitarian attitudes. But contrary to what prevailing literature might suggest, no significant correlations were demonstrated with the DMI scales.

Further analysis was conducted on the outcome of the sample's political aspects by comparing managers' origins according to their States' political orientation with the DMI scales. Political orientations for the states were categorized as RED for Republican-leaning and BLUE for Democrat-leaning states, following the regional analysis by Abramowitz et al. (2021) from the University of Virginia's Center for Politics. In our sample of 43 states, 19 were classified as RED and 24 as BLUE.

The point-biserial correlation was used to examine the association between state political orientation (coded as 1 for BLUE and 2 for RED) and Diversity Ambivalence, as well as Egalitarian Attitudes among managers. The results indicated a weak and non-significant correlation for both Diversity Ambivalence, r_{pb} (248) = -.101, p = .111, and Egalitarian Attitudes, r_{pb} (248) = -.020, p = .757. These findings suggested that the political orientation of a manager's state of origin, as defined by recent political trends, does not have a significant relationship with their levels of Diversity Ambivalence or Egalitarian Attitudes.

This particular result is of notable interest because Americans identify strongly with political groups (Devine, 2015). As described on page 46, this association resonates with psychologists in deeming that such behavioral reactions manifest in their reference

to *attitude importance* (Eaton & Visser, 2008; Visser et al., 2016). The very least, significant outcomes should have resulted in this study. Behavioralists agree.

For instance, Roberson (2019) clearly establishes that *Political Affiliation* significantly affects how members respond to diversity management initiatives. Devine (2015) also complements this position by asserting that *Political Affiliation is* closely linked to political ideology, shaping how individuals identify, perceive, and react to their environment. Considering the nature of politics, these theories also suggest how identity is heavily regarded.

Ultimately, political ideology further magnifies identity, reflecting social divisions exacerbated by partisanship (Iyengar & Krupenkin, 2018). Its prominence persists within the social fabric of 2019 and remains evident even five years later (Bowman & Cox, 2022; Bryant & Appleby, 2023; Zahn, 2023). Within the firm, political ideology poses challenges for managers as group identity can significantly influence workplace dynamics (Jost et al., 2003; Swigart et al., 2020). Research indicates that individuals with very conservative leanings tend to hold entrenched attitudes that are aligned with their values and require justification for diversity programs (Jost et al., 2003). In contrast, liberal members typically exhibit greater support for diversity programs, reflecting their egalitarian values (Roberson, 2019). As discussed earlier, they view diversity mechanism as a conduit to promoting fairness in the workplace (Kollen et al., 2018; Roberson, 2019).

The relevance of political identity is amply explained by Social Identity Theory (SIT) which sheds light on how social affiliations can shape individual perceptions (Yadav & Lenka, 2020). Tajfel, the founder of SIT, explains that the theory connects

social structures with individual identity in emphasizing the significance of group membership (1982, as cited by Mo Barak et al., 1998, pg. 83). As such, SIT directly links managers' attitudes to their identification with diversity management mechanisms (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Chattopadhyay et al., 2004; Harrison et al., 2006; Kabanoff, 1991; Roberson, 2019). Yet, contrary to SIT expectations and the known influence of political identity, *Political Affiliation* revealed a minimal association with diversity management initiatives.

The lack of significance could be attributed to the preponderance of managers who identify with being moderates. As Figure 24 indicates, the median score for political affiliation reflects 4, suggesting that moderates (40.8%) were notably the largest subgroup. This convergence was further supported by reviewing the Turkey Hinges inferences of the 25th and 75th percentiles at 4 and 6, respectively, highlighting the concentrated range around the middle of the scale. The abundance of moderates in the sample underscores the importance of examining their perspectives and understanding the nuanced relationship between political ideology and managerial attitudes toward diversity initiatives.

As a statistical causation, this convergence also calls attention to the effects of middle scores. Scholars still debate whether middle scores truly impact the analytical outcomes of Likert items. One influence could relate to how respondents tend to select a middle score when odd numbers are constructed with middle points and absolute labels utilized (Wyatt & Meyers, 1987). Or according to Leung (2011), such Likert designs may have little or no influence on centrality when normality is achieved. This means that the

dispersion of Likert scores inevitably converging on a middle score may contribute to such outcomes.

Nonetheless, the lack of significant correlation between *Political Affiliation* and the DMI scales emerges as an intriguing outcome. As discussed, the prevailing literature underscores political ideology as a determinant of workplace dynamics, with conservative and liberal orientations influencing attitudes toward diversity initiatives differently (Devine, 2015; Roberson, 2019). On the other hand, the lack of significance may suggest that moderates may not be aligned with extreme partisan positions. This group may be unique in having less ambivalence or egalitarian attitudes than what the phenomenon shows. Nonetheless, absence of expected correlations in this study invites a re-examination of the interplay between political ideology and diversity attitudes within organizational contexts. As such, this contradiction challenges prior theoretical assertions and urges further exploration to understand the underlying factors that contribute to this peculiar outcome.

Race & Ethnicity

Expectations and surprises were also revealed in testing how the DMI scales relate to the ethnoracial aspects of this study. For example, the analysis yielded no significant correlations between *Race* and the DMI scales, which is counterintuitive given the prevailing theoretical and social emphasis on racial issues within corporate diversity policies. As Arredondo (1996) would agree, *Race* is inextricably linked to diversity and diversity initiatives. In this phenomenon, this result is particularly striking in the context of heightened corporate responses to movements like Black Lives Matter (Dzabarovs et

al., 2021; Pitts et al., 2010) and legislative proposals that pose risk to diversity practices (Cotten, 2023; Montlake, 2022; Zahn, 2023).

A prevailing consideration is that the structural composition of the sample may have influenced this lack of significance. The sample's racial composition entails predominantly white managers. Such a demographic skew could potentially homogenize attitudes toward diversity initiatives, obscuring the varied perspectives that a more racially diverse sample might offer. This possible scenario aligns with concerns raised in the literature about overrepresentation affecting the quality of analysis in research samples (Nadler et al., 2021).

However, in another way, this statistical influence also offers an opportunity. Its stark outcome compels further investigation into the DMI scales' capacity in capturing a comprehensive range of racial attitudes. A more nuanced understanding of these attitudes requires consideration of both the measurement constructs and the demographic composition of samples in future research.

Along similar lines, unpredicted outcomes also materialized for *Ethnicity*. The analysis presented a modest yet significant correlation with diversity ambivalence while illustrating no significance with egalitarian attitudes. Further analysis indicated the differences among ethnicities for diversity ambivalence prevailed among the non-Hispanic group.

Theses distinct reactions between Hispanic and non-Hispanic groups reflect broader patterns of in-group orientation (Phinney, 1996). Their impacts on perceptions of diversity programs are also grounded in social identity frameworks (Green, 2004). For

that reason, differences within groups, such as culture, are noted as possible contributors to this outcome (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993).

As with *Race*, Whites are the dominant subgroup for non-Hispanics within the sample. Phinney (1996) suggests that being less oriented to other ethnic groups can influence individuals to have negative attitudes or perceptions toward diversity programs. She rationalizes her premise on the fact that ethnicity, as a complex concept, can be predicated on which groups individuals may identify themselves.

This notion underscores the expectation that non-Hispanics may exhibit higher levels of ambivalence towards diversity initiatives, contingent on their identification with a dominant group. Accordingly, it also deserves more investigation that may be further explained by the common effects of culturally influential differences among ethnic groups (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993).

Years of Experience

The analysis of managers' *Years of Experience* within the sample revealed a moderate yet significant correlation with diversity ambivalence (DA). This association was notably pronounced among managers with less than ten years of experience, as revealed by the post hoc analysis. Among the sample, 71% of the managers (178 of the 250) fell into this group. Interestingly, this subgroup did not exhibit a proportionately significant inclination toward egalitarian attitudes concerning diversity initiatives. A narrow examination of this pattern aligns with limited theoretical underpinnings.

Existing theories suggest that more experience generally benefits an organization. One fundamental idea is that managers with more experience are likely to possess skills conducive to teamwork and improved decision-making (Dawson, 1997). Other theories

highlight that higher experience levels are associated with competence in leadership, adaptability, tolerance of diversity, and a commitment to establishing cohesive teams (Sukalova, 2022). These attributes position experienced managers as potential advocates for diversity management, using such qualities to enhance organizational effectiveness.

However, aligning the notion of these theories with the DA results implies that the managers with fewer years of experience in this sample may not yet have developed the seasoned leadership qualities associated with leveraging and advocating for diversity programs. Consequently, their ambivalence may reflect their novice experience in navigating the organizational dynamics that became more prominent in the post-2019 era. This differential pattern indicates a complex relationship between professional experience and specific aspects of attitudes toward diversity.

Considering the covariant aspects of this analysis, it was also observed that managers' *Years of Experience* did not align as expected with the prior findings on *Age*. Specifically, the analysis indicated that the older managers exhibited more ambivalence than their younger counterparts, contradicting the anticipated correlation with experience levels. Further post hoc analysis showed that managers with less than 10 years of experience had an average age of 33. The data included one manager identified as the oldest at 59 years and three as the youngest at 20 years. With a median age of 34, most of the managers within this subgroup were relatively young.

Given these results, one might have expected a clearer correlation between age and experience indicators. While unsubstantiated by this study or works by other researchers, speculation suggests that cultural nuances might explain the differential

aspects of these conflicting outcomes. Future research is needed to shed light on these peculiar dynamics.

Levels of Management

Similarly, the analysis of management levels revealed an irregular outcome. *Levels of Management* showed a moderate and significant correlation with egalitarian attitudes. However, no significant relationship was found with diversity ambivalence. Notably, upper-level managers showed pronounced differences compared to other groups. A significant correlation was observed between those in upper and middle management, while a marginal difference was noted between upper and lower-level managers.

The significance of egalitarian attitudes toward diversity initiatives aligns consistently with notions on upper management. Upper managers are more likely to possess leadership traits such as high optimism (Blau, 1986). Sosik (2005) also asserts that they are charismatically influential, displaying transcendent leadership abilities aligned with personal values that exhibit citizen-type behavior. These upper management qualities extend into strategic considerations (Parnell, 2005), such as the diversity strategies that were promoted in 2019.

In contrast, lower or middle managers may assume a less strategic posture, according to Parnell (2005). This perspective may attribute to the tendency of lower managers to hold more ambivalence toward diversity programs according to their lack of experience, hindering their understanding of the deeper value diversity initiatives offer an organization. This view is further substantiated by the notion that lower managers are

unlikely to possess high-performing behaviors or vested interests in strategic mechanisms (Blau, 1986), such as diversity programs.

Work Modalities

The analysis of DMI scales unveiled a significant negative correlation with managers' work schedules, indicating distinct patterns in diversity ambivalence (DA) and egalitarian attitudes (EA) based on *Work Modalities*. A significant difference is noted among the managers adopting hybrid work modalities and those working completely in-person. Within the two groups, a higher prevalence of diversity ambivalence existed in the managers who worked completely in-person. Conversely, managers who embraced completely remote work modalities, compared to those working completely in-person, demonstrated a significant decrease in egalitarian attitudes.

The intriguing negative trend, particularly among managers working completely in-person, implies that as these managers operated further from the office, they tend to manifest reduced diversity ambivalence and as well declines in egalitarian attitudes. This claim is predicated on the notion that their absence or limited exposure to on-site work environments may be the primary reasons for them to experience reductions in both attitudes.

Researchers point to contributing factors. McDonald et al. (2022) and Dandalt (2021) suggest that the well-being of members who work remotely are deemed more stable. This perspective, substantiated post-2019 by Giauque et al. (2022), is grounded in beliefs that they are better able to control their quality of life. Russell and Frachtenberg (2021) claim the nature of remote work also avoids the many challenges that onsite workers usually face, such as social stigmas and workplace conflicts.

However, it is important to note that researchers, such as Barsness et al., (2005) believe that remote work may bring negative outcomes. Principally, the scholars contend that members become less visible, compared to the face-time visibility that onsite members receive. And consequently, remote workers can feel left out or assume they are less competitive for career development opportunities. As mentioned earlier, Dandalt (2021) notes that emotional anxiety can accompany managers under remote conditions. He further claims that remote work can be less productive, evident by the extra effort and time remote members tend to focus on impressing their superiors.

Nonetheless, the significance of the findings within a post-2019 context, suggest that remote managers within the sample may not hold the same perceptions toward diversity management. Their modality infers that their absence has insulated them from its influence. More research, however, is necessary to investigate the other implications that working away from the office might present. Again, culture becomes the common unexplored variable for this analysis that could add depth in expanding theoretical explanations.

Intentions to Leave

As the sole outcome variable, analysis was applied to investigate the extent to which the managers were willing to leave their organization in reaction to diversity programs. The strong, correlated significance indicated an inverse relationship, suggesting that managers with high diversity ambivalence (DA) were likely to remain with their organizations. Albeit a moderate strength, an inverse relationship was also noted for managers with egalitarian attitudes (EA). Similarly, their EA attitudes

correlated with a likely desire to remain with their organizations, intensifying as their levels of this attitude increased.

Mitchel (1981) posits that the inversions of these relationships suggest that organizational factors may influence the attenuating effects of managers' intent to leave or remain with their organizations. For example, Hellman (1997) explains that high job satisfaction can significantly influence a member's commitment. If managers are satisfied with their organization's environment or strategy, there is a likelihood that they will want to remain. Another explanation by Peretz et al. (2015) adds to this line of reasoning. They and others (Armstrong et al., 2010) contend that the cultural practices of an organization may moderate a manager's desire to leave. The researchers also add that it would be necessary for diversity mechanisms to be aligned with an organization's culture to increase organizational commitment and reduce turnover.

Also relative to SIT, satisfaction and cultural congruence are aligned with how well managers identify with their organizations as well as each other (Chatman & Spataro, 2005). Moreover, Van Dick et al. (2004) theorize that turnover intentions are driven by how individuals identify with their organizations and how they think and behave. In other words, managers may choose to remain with their organizations because they feel comfortable with certain groups and their organizational culture.

Overall, the inverse relationships of the DMI scales with managers' intentions to leave suggest the role of social identity for this sample, post-2019. Whether expressing diversity ambivalence or egalitarian attitudes, managers' tendency to remain indicates the influence of other variables. Based on the suggestions made by Peretz et al. (2015) and

implications from the previous sections, more investigation of cultural factors is necessary to confirm nuanced reactions in these inverted relationships.

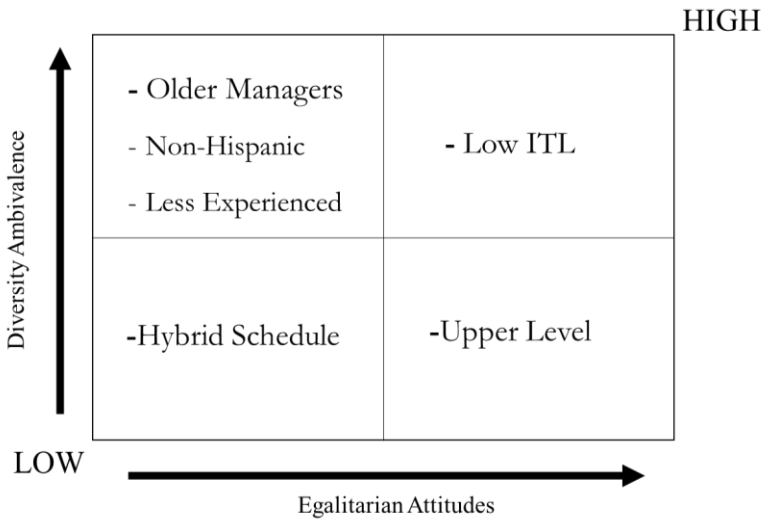


Figure 40. Profile of Managerial Perceptions and Attitudes, Post 2019

Reflection

Addressing propositions 3 to 7 achieves the second aim of this study in evaluating the post-2019 attitudes and perceptions of managers. In summary, the significant outcomes from the sample reveal a mixed managerial profile of behavioral reactions toward diversity initiatives, as illustrated in Figure 40. Diversity ambivalence tends to be more prevalent among older, non-Hispanic managers with less than 10 years of managerial experience. Conversely, an alternative pattern emerges, showing that egalitarian attitudes are more prominent among upper-level managers compared to their lower-level counterparts. Interestingly, managers with hybrid or regular offsite work schedules exhibit lower diversity ambivalence and egalitarian attitudes. Furthermore, the

prominence of either diversity ambivalence or egalitarian attitudes appears to mitigate managers' intentions to leave their organizations.

Despite these insights, unexpected outcomes within the sample challenge conventional views on organizational dynamics, particularly when variables such as *Political Affiliation*, *Ethnicity*, *Race* and even *Age* are controlled. Considering these outcomes, more investigations are warranted to confirm the implications of these managers' reactions and shed more light on the complexities of post-2019 workplace dynamics.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, AND APPLICATIONS

Review of Both Studies

This dissertation embarked on an exploratory journey to benchmark managers' attitudes and perceptions post-2019, a period marked by social and political complexities across the corporate landscape. The procedural implementation of two key studies is evident in its accomplishments. Study 1 revealed the central problem of this undertaking, presenting mixed outcomes for diversity initiatives. When aligned with managers' personal values, these outcomes ranged from favorable responses toward initiatives that institute accountability, prevent discrimination, or provide resources to less favorable attitudes towards initiatives that required accountability or adjusted merit standards. Study 1 not only highlighted these findings as a necessity for more precise measurement tools, but also informed the methodological improvements implemented in Study 2.

Through a rigorous academic framework, Study 2 addressed seven methodological propositions, unveiling key insights into managerial behaviors. Notably, some findings aligned with current theories, while others challenged prevailing views. A significant discovery was the prevalence of diversity ambivalence among non-Hispanic managers with less experience compared to their more senior counterparts, who exhibited more egalitarian attitudes. This difference suggests that experience plays a critical role in shaping managers' perspectives. These more experienced and senior managers were likely involved in planning the corporate response to 2019. Furthermore, such dedication and commitment would transcend any reservations contrary to their firm's strategic goals (Dobel, 2005). And consequently, they were more supportive of diversity initiatives.

As emphasized, another interesting outcome was the diminished impact of diversity strategies on managers working remotely, underscoring the idea that physical presence in the workplace enhances the effectiveness of such initiatives. However, Study 2 introduced a puzzlement by indicating that political affiliation, ethnicity, and race—factors highly relevant in today's sociopolitical climate as evidenced by the emerging political backlash (Dutkiewicz et al., 2022; Green, 2023; Warren, 2022)—did not significantly influence managerial attitudes toward diversity initiatives. As mentioned previously, this finding is particularly striking, given the expectation that ethnoracial factors and political divisions, especially in the context of an impending presidential election, would be central to managers' perceptions.

While the methodologies of these studies slightly differ, the juxtaposition of their outcomes converges on the general notion that diversity is a multifaceted construct (Mathews, 1998) with complex behavioral influences. This complexity extends to managers, whose reactions to diversity programs mirror those of junior employees, irrespective of their roles and responsibilities in overseeing these initiatives. As outlined in the literature review, research indicates that perceptions of diversity programs can range from negative (Hofhuis et al., 2015; Mor Barak et al., 1998; Windscheid et al., 2015) to positive (Kidder et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2015; Rai & Dutkiewicz, 2022; Sabharwal, 2014), highlighting the varied impacts these programs can have within organizations. Thereby, the highlighted outcomes do indicate some demeanors, however modest and limited to this study, of managerial reactions to diversity management initiatives post-2019. This analysis answers the overall objective of this dissertation.

Reflection

The analysis is evident by the dual aims of this research, which directly address the central research question: What are the current perceptions and attitudes of managers toward diversity management initiatives? The first aim is met by the methodological study that developed a unique instrument for precise and reliable measurement of managerial attitudes. Despite statistical limitations, the second aim is met by implementing a descriptive study that successfully analyzed authentic attitudes from a respectable sample of managers. While the subsequent discussions will outline its limitations, this research not only enriches the academic literature but also informs practical applications and opens avenues for future investigation.

Limitations

As previously highlighted, the limitations encountered in this research are encouraging. Chief among these was the revelation in Study 1 of a critical gap in the existing tools for more reliable Diversity Management Initiative (DMI) scales. The most significant contribution of this study, this gap prompted a deeper exploration into the technicalities of such limitations, which are thoroughly discussed at the conclusion of Study 1 (refer to page 118). This discussion informed the rationale behind the design and methodology of Study 2. Given the detailed examination already provided, this section will only refer to Study 1's limitations as a reference point for administrative clarity.

Study 2 aids our understanding of diversity management post-2019, however, its limitations are clear. In one way, the methodological design of Study 2 ensured internal validity through an exploratory factor analysis. The EFA uncovered two factors, which identify diversity ambivalence as a negative attitude and egalitarian attitudes as a positive

response. The theoretical support for this interpretation is sufficient. Diversity ambivalence and egalitarian attitudes are supported by behavioral theorists (Conner et al., 2002; Gupta et al., 2018; Kabanoff et al., 1995; Katz & Hass, 1988; Kollen, 2021; Rasinski, 1987; Richard et al., 2000; Roberson, 2019). It is the external validity of Study 2 that proposes a potential limitation.

External validity is instrumental in determining whether a causal relationship can be generalized across various measures, individuals, time periods, and settings (Calder et al., 1982, p. 240). This study's external validity is particularly challenged by the unique conditions of 2019, including the effects of police brutality, social protests, the shifting political landscape, and how these factors might shape managers' perceptions and attitudes toward diversity management initiatives. An underlying assumption of this research is that all participants and their organizations were significantly influenced by the events of 2019.

Yet, the realism of this assumption warrants scrutiny. Some organizations may not have been affected by the social upheaval in 2019, because they were geographically secluded. Or, as discovered in Study 2, the work modality of some managers may have insulated them from the effects of their organizations' implementation of DMI. Therefore, this research's generalizability is constrained by potential variations in managers' demographic, organizational, and as mentioned earlier, their cultural attributes, which may influence their reactions to diversity management initiatives.

Another consideration is the potential limitation in generalizing the findings that may arise from using Likert scales. Despite their many advantages (Ho, 2017) and their crucial role in this research, it is important to recognize the ongoing debate surrounding

the use of Likert scales for measuring constructs and the interpretation of accompanying statistics (detailed on page 75). Scholars are divided on whether Likert scales should be treated as ordinal or interval data, contributing to discussions about the appropriateness of using an 11-point scale to enhance generalizability to meet statistical assumptions (Wu & Leung, 2017). Furthermore, researchers suggest that the assumption of normality can be challenging with Likert data, which may become skewed if respondents hit the upper limits of their options (Clason & Dormody, 1994). These unresolved positions underscore potential concerns related to the use of Likert scales in this study.

An alternative perspective on using Likert items may denote that achieving generalizability may inherently require the collection of extensive data. Study 1 encountered limitations in using parametric methods despite its sample size of 133. The unexpected outcomes of Study 2 also hint at the need for a larger sample size, although its size was increased (N=250) and it met adequacy tests. However, the distributions still failed to achieve normality. A larger sample size might have been beneficial. Additionally, Study 2 encountered budgetary constraints like the high cost of crowdsourcing (Mullinix et al., 2015) as well as the time required to establish sourcing relationships to obtain an adequate contingency sample. As demonstrated, non-parametric procedures were adopted for propositions requiring descriptive analysis.

There are also other design limitations, specific to the selected variables. One revelation involves the use of a unidimensional measure for *Political Affiliation*. The design of the Likert-type items used may have limited the utility of this variable. As discussed, many managers in Study 2 identified themselves as moderates despite societal indications of political polarization, as influenced by the tendency according to He et al.

(2020), Rogowski and Sutherland (2016) and Williams (2021). Concerns regarding response bias (Gnambs & Kaspar, 2015; Stantcheva, 2023) or respondents' tendency to opt for middle scores (Wyatt & Meyers, 1987) are acknowledged for such outcomes.

In retrospect, advocates for multidimensional measurements, such as Fowler et al. (2023) and Klar (2014a), present a strong argument against using unidimensional measures to assess political effects in behavioral research. They suggest that moderates might harbor beliefs that align with conservative and liberal values, complicating the interpretation of their behavioral outcomes. In other words, the researchers reveal that the close identity between moderates and independents introduces an additional layer of complexity.

Similar to previous concerns on establishing a middle point, unidimensional Likert scales often position moderates at the midpoint. This design may not accurately reflect the identity of independents who prefer a distinct categorization. Klar (2014b) argues that independents should be considered a meaningful political identity for behavioral analysis due to their potentially unique beliefs, challenging previous notions that depicted independents as passive or uninvolved. A multidimensional measurement approach, incorporating independents, could have better captured the observed variance, possibly reducing the predominance of moderates as the primary political affiliation of this study.

Another revelation is the design implication of *Age* and *Years of Experience.* While these variables were not used concurrently in the propositional models, an inherently collinear relationship can exist between them (Dawson, 1997). As implied, *Age* as a variable captures the chronological progression of an individual (Kornadt et al.,

2021), whereas years of experience reflect the accumulation of professional expertise and exposure. This distinction is vital for a subtle understanding of the variables' impact on attitudes toward Diversity Management Initiatives (DMI). The anticipated collinear relationship between these variables also highlights the need to examine their unique contributions and interrelations with the DMI scales, separately.

However, these limitations should not overshadow the intrinsic value of Studies 1 and 2 in their primary objective for this research—benchmarking. The findings of this research present a unique opportunity for future researchers to inspire subsequent investigations that will ultimately enhance the external validity of this research. Therefore, Study 2 serves as a pivotal contribution to existing literature.

Contributions to Literature

From an academic perspective, this dissertation makes a significant contribution to the diversity management literature. Its introduction of novel diversity measurement scales addresses a critical gap identified by Otaye-Ebede (2018), where previous research efforts were often too narrow in scope or lacked the statistical validity to serve as effective measurement tools. The validated DMI scales offer reliable measures for assessing managers' behavioral reactions to diversity management initiatives. Therefore, researchers are invited to leverage the considerable benefits their use provides.

Another significant contribution of this research to the literature is its focus on an under-researched group: managers, who are pivotal and valued leaders in every organization (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016; Marques et al., 2014; Schubert & Tavassoli, 2020). Echoing Arredondo's (1996) assertion, managers play a crucial role in implementing an organization's diversity management strategy. This initial exploration lays a groundwork

for future research, emphasizing that understanding managers' behavioral reactions to diversity mechanisms is essential for the efficacy of corporate strategy.

Contributions to Practice

Beyond its academic contribution, this dissertation provides practical value for corporate strategists by enhancing their understanding of managerial perceptions and attitudes toward diversity initiatives. Insights gained from this research can guide corporations in strategically selecting effective diversity strategies, as advocated by Konrad et al. (2016). Additionally, applying the DMI scales developed in this research can offer corporate leaders a more straightforward evaluation of the effectiveness of their diversity programs. Such informed corporate reviews can help in avoiding negative outcomes or fostering positive organizational impacts, including mitigating potential unintended consequences (Dover et al., 2020; Leslie, 2019), enhancing organizational commitment (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Richard & Kirby, 1999; Sanchez & Brock, 1996), or reducing turnover intentions among members (Tett & Myers, 1993).

Furthermore, corporate leaders can refine their social strategies through the comprehensive insights offered by this research. Specifically, it equips them to thoughtfully consider the realistic implications of various diversity programs and better align them with consumer expectations. This value reflects the nuanced findings from Study 1 in indicating that the general reactions from diversity initiatives underscore the importance of a careful approach. Moreover, Kollen (2016) suggests that a discerned understanding of the effects of diversity management can enhance efforts in corporate social responsibility, and suggestions by Nickerson et al. (2022) reveal that careful customer considerations can potentially cultivate stronger brand loyalty.

This research also informs organizations' human resource strategies. It highlights the critical need to support the development of junior managers. This insight is particularly pertinent given the detected ambivalence within the lower and middle management levels, suggesting a potential maturity gap compared to their senior counterparts. Such an observation is consistent with findings that upper management often leads diversity initiatives (Avery et al., 2022; Harrison et al., 2020; Warren, 2022), likely due to their broader experiences and professional growth. To foster a more inclusive culture, it is essential for leadership development programs to incorporate diversity goals, preparing middle and lower-tier managers for the challenges of implementing swift changes in diversity practices (Morrison et al., 2006).

Another practical aspect of this research also stresses the implicit importance of organizational culture in effective diversity management. Arredondo (1996, p.21) emphasizes that "successful diversity management necessitates a focus on both personal and organizational culture, including cultural differences, cultural changes, and cross-cultural relationships, underpinned by interdisciplinary knowledge." This viewpoint is also supported by scholars like Turner and Merriman (2022) and Ely and Thomas (1996). Although this study did not directly examine organizational culture, its significance is noted by the arguments of Mannix and Neale (2005). They posit that understanding cultural dynamics offers insights into an organization's social intricacies. An organization's exploration into its cultural dimensions could uncover its leaders' settled behaviors toward diversity management. An in-depth analysis of cultural factors may also shed light on other behavioral complexities, such as validating the influences of

managers' political affiliation and why evidence of acute diversity ambivalence or strong egalitarian attitudes might persuade them to stay at or leave their companies.

Corporate strategies may also utilize the precepts of this research as a clue to examine whether their policies on managers' work modalities impact the effectiveness of their diversity programs. The research identified significant attitudinal differences between managers based on their work modality—remote versus onsite. This distinction underscores the importance of enhancing cohesion between these groups, particularly in light of the increased prevalence of remote work post-2019 (Parker et al., 2022).

To re-emphasize, it was observed that remote managers experienced fewer diversity issues, likely due to a diminished perception of diversity-related challenges (To et al., 2023). Golden and colleagues (2008) suggest that implementing a hybrid work schedule, combining remote and face-to-face interactions, can counteract the tendency of remote managers to feel disconnected from workplace dynamics. Adopting such a strategy could maintain or even improve managers' awareness and attitudes toward diversity initiatives, ensuring the efficacy of these programs across different work modalities. In summary, this research avenue holds promising contributions. However, its intrinsic value still relies upon future researchers to further its exploration.

Applications for Literature

As previously discussed, this research serves as an initial step toward further inquiry. Several avenues remain unexplored and warrant investigation. Specifically, the unexpected findings related to *Race*, *Ethnicity*, and *Political Affiliation* in Study 2 invite deeper exploration. As previously explained, the incongruence with the present phenomenon presents a theoretical challenge. Additionally, while the non-significance of

gender may appear unexpected, it also contradicts findings, as those by Mor Barak and her colleagues (1998) and Dobbin and Kalev (2011), who confirmed differences in attitudes toward diversity programs between genders, with men typically less positive than women. This notion was further anticipated, given the proportional representation of female managers (58%) in the sample, which was higher than their male counterparts. As stated previously, a significant proportion of this group were white females (41%). This demographic proportion might have influenced the study's outcomes, particularly regarding the observed marginal responses to ambivalence and the absence of marked significance in certain areas. This observation could align with the insights provided by Kidder et al. (2004, p. 93), who suggested that "white women may enjoy the benefits of diversity programs but are disposed to dominant reactions to diversity initiatives by white males."

These outcomes indicate a rich area for further research to uncover and validate whether the underlying dynamics are informed by strong theoretical foundations. Furthermore, the notions of this study’s phenomenon, signaled by increasing political polarization (Lau & Murnighan, 1998; Swigart et al., 2020) and ongoing social concerns (Rogowski & Sutherland, 2016; Warren, 2022), underscores the critical need for a comprehensive understanding of these complex behaviors.

Acknowledging the previous limitations, future researchers may require larger sample sizes to address the unforeseen findings from Study 2 adequately. The reality of this idea implies that only more research can remediate the unexpected outcomes from Study 2 and clarify them. As previously implored, researchers are strongly encouraged to build upon this study, responding to calls from diversity scholars (Ahonen et al., 2014;

Bowman & Cox, 2022; Hur & Strickland, 2015; Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Kulik, 2014; Leslie, 2019; Schubert & Tavassoli, 2020) for further investigation into these complex areas.

Future researchers should also examine the role of change management in implementing diversity initiatives. Arredondo (1996, p. 19) codifies its significance by saying that "diversity management is a paradigm for change with people as its focal point." In retrospect to culture, the variable of change and its influence on organizational behavior seems to be the unexplored veneer of this research. Cao et al. (2003) also advocate its significance in policy-decision making. Especially in the context of implementing diversity strategies, the process of organizational change offers valuable perspectives for developing corporate policies aimed at instituting effective diversity initiatives.

As a tangible continuation of this research, Annex 1 offers additional propositions focusing on fairness concerns and further discusses the impact of political affiliation in the workplace. Future researchers should aim to deepen their understanding of the relationships between Diversity Management Initiatives (DMI) and potential causal factors, as causality was not within the purview of this study. Researching these aspects could significantly enhance this research's nomological validity, considering the current political climate. As mentioned previously, political implications play a significant role in this phenomenon.

It is also recommended that subsequent studies leverage Annex 1 as a theoretical platform to formulate and test hypotheses regarding pivotal variables such as organizational culture, demographics, and change management strategies. Previous

studies by He et al. (2020), Martins and Parson (2007), Richard and Kirby (1997), and Turner and Merriman (2022) have underscored the importance of these variables, suggesting that explorations could reveal the intricate reactions observed among the managers in this study.

In conclusion, this dissertation makes profound contributions to both academic understanding and practical application. This dissertation lays a solid foundation for future research and corporate strategy. It is my hope that it provides a promising start for an engaging journey of discovery.

ANNEX 1: FUTURE EXPLORATIONS ON POLITICAL IDEOLOGY

As an extension of this research, several avenues are open for further exploration within the realm of diversity management. Notably, the insights gained from Studies 1 and 2, though limited, suggest a promising direction for future research: the implications of political ideology on corporations. In today's world, politics permeate all aspects of our lives, with the omnipresence of political discourse on social media, television, and other news platforms. These political ideologies significantly influence our decisions, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. While political science has extensively studied these issues, Bermiss and McDonald (2018) emphasize the need for further progress in the organizational context.

A standard definition of political ideology denotes "a set of beliefs about the proper order of society and how it can be achieved" (Erikson & Tedin, 2003, p. 64, cited by Jost et al., 2009, p. 309). To be sure, politics are personal, according to Ford et al. (2023). It is not uncommon for today's political climate to be wroth with one party imposing its will on another (Iyengar & Krupenkin, 2018). Disputes may be influenced by public opinion on the political system they rely upon or a lack of trust in the government. Case in point, political ideologies are fueling much of the backlash, now witnessed post-2019 (Craig & Richeson, 2014b; Green, 2023; Leigh & Melwani, 2019; Warren, 2022; Zahn, 2023). Support for diversity initiatives is divided along liberal and conservative lines. According to Alba (2018) and others (Craig & Richeson, 2014b), Whites are especially prone to adopting conservative views, spurred by the threat of losing social status.

Corporations should recognize the management paradigm that politics create. A key implication is that political ideologies are ensconced in the groups they form, according to Jost (2017). He asserts there is a tendency for liberals and conservatives to gravitate to each other according to their party affiliation; and, conversely, avoid other individuals based on beliefs they find undesirable. This grouping also indicates the importance for firms to understand polarization among their members (Heltzel & Laurin, 2020). Polarization has become more prevalent in the U.S. over the last decade (Abramowitz & Saunders, 2008). Furthermore, its prevalence continues. Polarization can become even more prominent during high peaks of political tension and discourse, according to Rogowski and Sutherland (2016).

This effect offers corporations another implication on the psychological aspects of the polarizing impact of political ideologies. Swigart et al. (2020) claim that all members possess some type of political ideology. Some political ideologies may be based on cultural and social factors. Lau and Murnighan (1998) assert that along social faultlines, demographics can become a signal for political ideologies in fueling conflict among disparate groups. Nonetheless, while I agree that demographics carry considerable influence, political ideology is a profound influence within the organizational context.

Theoretical framework

The contention in members' ideology lies in the political differences of their positions which drive certain behaviors. As such, political ideology may reflect the prescribed values of an individual (Swigart et al., 2020). This view aligns with Dang and Joshi (2022) that despite ethnoracial differences, political ideologies can influence members' attitudes, willingness to support specific policies and embrace new ways of

work. Similarly, Johnson and Roberto (2018) argue that political ideology affects how members interact and behave in the workplace. In other words, their perceptions and attitudes are influenced by the political affiliations of other members. All in all, party affiliation is associated with political ideology, which has more influence on members' behavior than their demographics (Dang & Joshi, 2022).

For another implication, it is essential to note that the behavioral impacts of political ideology can be harmful. Members' attempts to self-regulate political ideology can take its toll on their emotions, create micro-aggression, and induce chronic stress (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Ford et al., 2023). These negative behaviors can be influenced by workplace incivility. As Miner et al. (2021) and others (He et al., 2020) affirm, members can become the targets of incivility based on their political affiliation.

Workplace incivility negatively affects the workplace and the organization as a whole (Cortina, 2008; Estes & Wang, 2008). As defined by Andersson and Pearson (1999, p. 457), "Workplace incivility is low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others." Corina (2008, p. 56) also concurs in stating that "incivility can be subtle, but its effects are not." Incivility can be generated by differences in values (Estes & Wang, 2008). It can take the form of an unwillingness on the part of organizational members to interact, socialize, and be professionally cordial (Corina, 2008). As a consequence of political ideology, it contributes to stress, dissatisfaction, cognitive distraction, and distress (Cortina, 2008). This notion is further reasoned by Estes & Wang (2008 p. 6), that if civility is the ligature that binds members together, then incivility is the catalyst

that compels them to leave. They further assert that these psychological effects can create negative organizational performance and adversely change an organization's culture. While not currently the aim of Study 1, this review of workplace incivility only demonstrates the necessity to be aware of the more profound effects of political ideology.

Turning to managers, there are also implications. Political ideology can impact managers' views on diversity initiatives in organizations. Considering their positions of authority, their political ideology can negatively or positively influence the firm (Pratto et al., 1994). Extreme ideological views could negatively affect a firm's decision-making, culture, and performance. For example, research shows the apparent effects of political ideology on gender disparities. Brisco and Joshi (2017) report that managers made unfavorable gender pay decisions based on party affiliation for employees with similar political ideologies. Research by Carnahan and Greenwood (2018) indicates that managers are influenced by their political ideology in similarly basing hiring decisions on gender relationships. In their instance, liberal managers tend to hire female applicants over male applicants. Along the same vein, Gupta et al. (2017) attest to the role of political ideology in top management decision-making. Liberal leaders tend to adopt corporate social responsibility strategies that address diversity and other social concerns.

Drawing from SIT, the impact of political ideology and political identity in the firm provides more relevance to what a future study can do for this project. Mason (2015, p. 130) says that “partisanship is the most prominent form of political identity.” It is one way individuals establish their identity and behave toward each other (Iyengar & Krupenkin, 2018; West & Iyengar, 2022). Swigart et al. (2020) conceptualize that SIT applies to members’ political affiliations in merely referring to themselves as Democrats

or Republicans. Based on these characteristics, groups are likely to form within the firm as well as possibly demonstrate the tendencies found in Study 1 (see Chapter 6, discussions). This attractiveness is based on values and personal beliefs (Jost, 2017). Psychologically, political affiliations may intensify group attitudes and behaviors toward other groups with different political affiliations, putting them against each other (Iyengar & Krupenkin, 2018). As this can be regarded as social polarization, it creates deep divisions among groups. Members may feel strong emotions such as anger, bias, and a desire to take action based on their political affiliation (Mason, 2015).

To summarize, political affiliation can be linked to political ideology in how members use their associations to identify, perceive, and react to their environment, according to Devine (2015). He also convinces us that political ideology can extend to how individuals connect to groups within an organization. Considering this post BLM era (as discussed earlier), it has become prominent over the years in permeating the workplace (Swigart et al., 2020). Iyengar and Krupenkin (2018) argue that political ideology can reflect social divisions that are fueled by partisanship. As such, they imply that political affiliation may trigger negative attitudes toward individuals who identify with other political groups.

The theoretical framework in Figure 41 conceptualizes this notion. The three categories of Leslie's (2019) diversity framework drive the perceptions and attitudes of managers. A fundamental assumption is that corporations employ diversity initiatives as part of their strategy. These strategies generate reactions from managers through their perceptions, manifested in group characteristics. Swigart et al. (2020) further conceptualize that subgroups are also formed through political ideologies that contain

behavioral or social contexts. His suggestion implies that the political ideologies of those subgroups may relate to the extent their perceptions and attitudes are affected by diversity strategies. Understanding such relationships can provide constructive feedback on strategic decisions for diversity. Another benefit is understanding how these behaviors relate to members' underlying values and how social aspects relate to how members interact. The significance of this information for this research continues to be of interest.

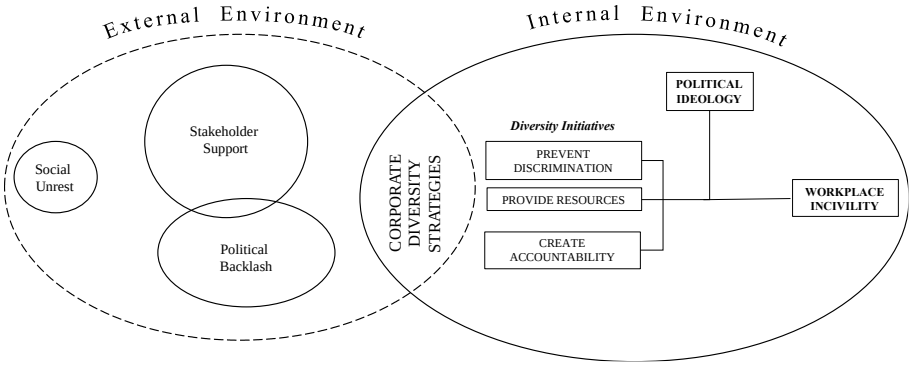


Figure 41. Annex 1, Theoretical Framework

Proposition Development

Given this framework, this research proposes a continued exploration of this dissertation's research question: What are the current perceptions and attitudes that diversity management initiatives generate in managers? Does political identity affect how managers react to certain kinds of diversity management initiatives? In this section, I describe corporate diversity strategies that trigger managers' perceptions and behavioral reactions, according to their political ideology. I propose five propositions. These recommended propositions are anticipated to apply adequately to this phenomenon of a post-BLM era.

I also employ AMR guidelines from Cornelissen (2017) and Ulaga et al. (2021) as well as heed encouragement from Delbridge and Fiss (2013) in utilizing a typological style to construct propositions for theory development. These researchers advocate this technique as a narrative way of classifying distinct features of the phenomenon.

Figure 42 presents a variance model, which outlines the five propositions proposed for Study 2. Its design derives from the scholarship by Mohr (1982). He insists that employing variance theory in behavioral science better conceptualizes complex ideas and constructs propositions to reflect them. The features in the model depict relationships between behavioral and cognitive ideas. Cognitive factors are particularly relevant, given their role in enabling the success of diversity management (Leslie & Flynn, 2022). Moreover, Jost and his colleagues (2003) suggest that a cognitive approach provides the best way to theorize a conceptual understanding of political ideology. Through scenarios, I aim to explain further these relationship implications as they relate to perceptual and attitudinal reactions to corporate diversity strategies in a politically charged environment.

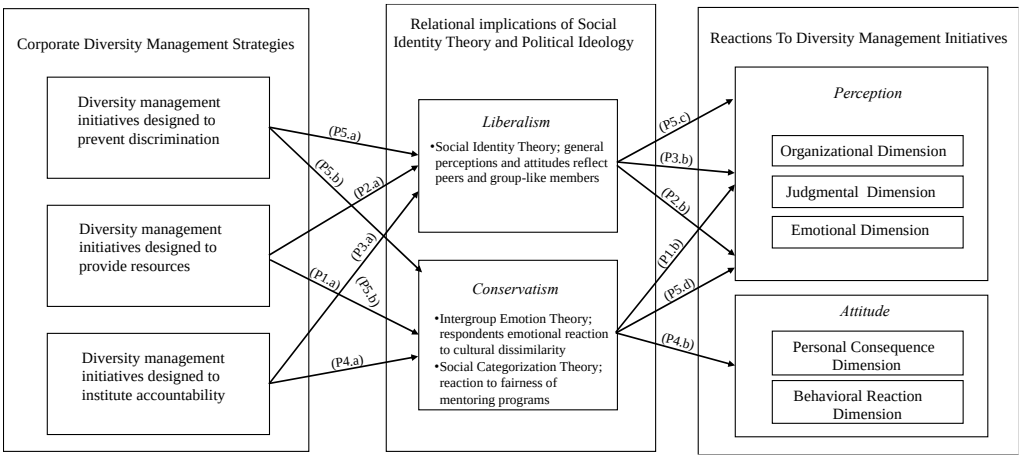


Figure 42. Annex 1, Variance Model

Figure 42 also reflects the current phenomenon. To reset the stage, corporations leverage their diversity management system to enact strategies that bolster their diversity during times of racial unrest. Cumulating with the killing of George Floyd, police brutality over the years has encouraged corporations to manage risk by enacting diversity strategies to avoid damaging their brand from non-action or complacency (Dzabarovs et al., 2021). Moreover, employing diversity management strategies has been heralded as an alternative that enhances firm performance and increases employee morale (Matthews, 1998). Often, however, these strategies are utilized without understanding their unintended consequences (Bassett-Jones, 2005; Kalev et al., 2006; Leslie, 2019; Solebello et al., 2016; Windscheid et al., 2015;). In presenting each proposition, the scenarios include assumptions that are relevant to managers, as they are still a subject of interest:

1. Managers have observed or been affected by the 2019 unrest.
2. Managers have a common understanding of the challenges their organizations face in a highly polarized environment.
3. Managers' values are reflections of their identity and driven by their political affiliations.

Resource-Based Diversity Initiatives & Conservatism

I propose that resourced-based diversity initiatives will generate fewer positive attitudes from conservative managers. Resourced-based initiatives are intended to increase support for minority members in a firm (Leslie, 2019). They include diversity practices such as mentoring programs, culture awareness programs, professional development programs, or networking programs to name a few. The initiatives target

underrepresented members on the assumption that they need professional and social assistance (Leslie, 2019).

As mentioned in the discussion section, the mixed results of resourced-based initiatives may lie in the type of initiative being employed in opposition to their intended purpose. For instance, conservative managers may very well see the benefit in some initiatives, such as acclimating new minority employees; but also see the developmental or mentoring as programs that create an unfair advantage to underrepresented groups (Kidder et al., 2004). To put it differently, managers might view minority members as a danger that deprives them of desirable career advancements and salary increases.

Aspects of Self-Categorization Theory show the possibility of this occurrence. According to Mackie et al. (2008), their emotional reactions influence them to identify with their group, self-categorizing the perceived dissimilarity of their values in one group as "taking something for nothing." This theory also accounts for the conflicted emotions that ensue, with a spectrum that could result in anger (Mackie et al., 2008; Tran et al., 2011). In that, the extra "legup" the initiatives provide is undeserved. This suggests the following proposition:

> *Proposition 1 (a & b): If a corporate diversity strategy employs diversity initiatives that provide resources, then the perceptions of managers who are conservative will be less positive, compared to managers who are liberal.*

Resource-Based Diversity Initiatives & Liberalism

I propose another scenario that describes resource-based initiatives and reactions of managers with a liberal ideology. Considering political ideological differences, liberal

managers would generally support diversity initiatives compared to members with different political ideologies. Resource-based programs simply align with their values. This reaction is especially true of programs that reflect the inclusive aspect of diversity management. For resource-based initiatives, inclusion can be considered an inextricable component of the diversity management philosophy (Buengeler, et al., 2018; Kollen et al., 2018). It is well known that liberals tend to advocate social justice issues and social programs, while conservatives support strong defense and low government interference. Factoring these ideas, liberal managers would feel grateful for the resources that diversity strategies provide other groups.

The social identity aspects of liberal managers fit into a broader scheme of how positive emotions attract them to similar groups. As referenced previously, Dang and Joshi (2022) point to "ally-ship" behaviors of liberal members that bring other groups together in supporting underrepresented co-workers and building a positive work environment. This behavior also benefits the firm. As tested by Bermiss and McDonald (2018), ideological congruence between a company and its liberal employees can lead them to increased commitment to remain with the company. Admittedly, they also point out that this characteristic exists when members are more liberal than the firm. Nonetheless, the researchers note the behavior is different from their conservative peers, who are at odds with the liberal values and tend to leave. This suggests the following proposition:

> *Proposition 2 (a & b): If a corporate diversity strategy employs diversity initiatives that provide resources, then the*

attitudes of managers who are liberal will be more positive;

compared to managers who are conservative.

Accountability-Based Diversity Initiatives & Liberalism

I propose that accountability-based diversity initiatives will spur positive perceptions from liberal managers. Accountability-based initiatives are intended to establish accountability to achieve diversity goals (Leslie, 2019). They include appointing diversity executives and specifying diversity objectives in performance evaluations (Leslie, 2019); such as recruitment goals and retention metrics for unrepresentative groups, to increase representation. Organizations also equate achieving diversity goals to improving organizational performance, such as member commitment, creativity, innovation, and revenue (Armstrong et al., 2010; Cox, 1991).

In this scenario, liberal managers are likely to advocate for all corporate strategies that institute accountability for diversity programs. Such initiatives serve as mechanisms for measuring the tangible efforts of a diversity strategy. In fact, liberal managers may request more accountability or be affected by initiatives that lag in attaining diversity goals. Ultimately, they would expect absolute support from other peers. It is important to note that the level of commitment to peer-group accountability relies on the notion that the organization is predominantly liberal (Dang & Joshi, 2022). In this change, adverse reactions could ensue.

Nonetheless, it is probable that the support expectations have already been established beforehand through the diversity strategy implemented at the corporate level, which follows a top-down management approach. This ascendancy creates the basis for a favorable response, as shown in Study 1.

This suggests the following proposition:

> *Proposition 3 (a & b): If a corporate diversity strategy employs diversity initiatives that institute accountability, then the perceptions of managers who are liberal will be more positive, than managers who are conservative.*

Accountability-Based Diversity Initiatives & Conservatism

I propose that accountability-based diversity initiatives will spur fewer positive attitudes in conservative managers. The difference in this scenario is that conservative managers may agree in principle for accountability. However, they are concerned with unfairness in applying different standards to some groups to achieve diversity goals. Like resource-based initiatives, managers may perceive accountability-based initiatives as a threat to their self-interests and view them as unwarranted (Kidder et al., 2004). From a psychological perspective, Wiggins-Romesburg and Githens (2018) believe this tendency to resist relates to a cognitive response. They claim it can be motivated individually or collectively within the organization that the strategy to address inequality is illegitimate.

SIT best explains the emotional reactions that influence conservative managers. Similar emotions within the organization form like groups susceptible to resisting diversity outcomes. Further, a partisan-environment fuels ideological attitudes not to compromise or accommodate dissimilar values advocated by other groups (Green, 2004). Devine (2015) refers to this behavior as an ideological social identity in which group

behavior is stimulated by ideological emotions related to partisanship. He emphasizes that this trait is unique to conservatives. This suggests the following proposition:

> *Proposition 4 (a & b): If a corporate diversity strategy employs diversity management initiatives that provide accountability, then the attitude of managers who are conservative will be less positive compared to managers who are liberal.*

Preventative-Based Diversity Initiatives & Unified Support

I propose that preventative-based diversity initiatives will engender positive perceptions despite different political ideologies. These initiatives would create a feeling of mutual respect for the legal and historical context such initiatives contain. These initiatives may bridge the ideological gap between both groups.

As this scenario includes both political ideologies, the reactions here rest on the moral and principal aspects that justify the corporate strategy in addressing a wrong (Demuijnck, 2009). In such circumstances, the corporate strategy is to prevent discrimination. The linkage of preventative base initiatives with legal imperatives of affirmative action or equal opportunity will likely generate managers' positive perceptions, despite ideological differences. According to Dover et al. (2014), this reaction is specific to efforts aimed at reducing discrimination. The mechanisms tend to spur justifying beliefs that are perceived as legitimate reasons to exist (Edelman et al., 2001; Kaiser et al., 2013). Additionally, such initiatives appear less disputable in contemporary times because of their broad advocacy for moral and constitutional imperatives (Demuijnck, 2009; Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000). For instance, the majority of

Americans believe that everyone should be treated fairly; and that equal opportunities should be granted to all.

Psychological aspects of SIT are present. As previously discussed, Kaiser and his colleagues (2013) describe how white male managers tend to have positive perceptions toward programs associated with the legal tenets of fairness. Similarly, these perceptions contribute to a collective view by the group and suggest that underrepresented groups are treated fairly. I propose the following proposition that captures this reaction:

> *Proposition 5 (a, b & c) If a corporate diversity strategy employs diversity initiatives that prevent discrimination, then the perceptions of both conservative and liberal managers will be positive.*

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