

WHAT IS IT WORTH TO YOU? EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF ENGAGING IN EXTRA-
ROLE ORGANIZATIONAL DIVERSITY WORK

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ABSTRACT

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To date, in the field of organizational psychology there has been no critical examination of who is engaging in diversity and inclusion work and what effect this work has on one's career-related outcomes. The present investigation examined the perceptions, value, and career impacts of engaging in extra-role work with a particular focus on how diversity work is perceived as similar to and different from affiliation and challenge oriented OCBOs. The three studies herein were designed to address four main aims: (1) develop and test a new theoretical framework to explain why diversity work may be devalued by majority group members, (2) compare how individuals from marginalized racial and ethnic groups and individuals from societally privileged racial groups are perceived when they are engaging in diversity work, (3) examine employee perceptions of how diversity work should be compensated and whether the degree of compensation varies depending on race of the person engaging in the work and (4) examine whether there are differential career-related outcomes related to doing diversity work compared to engaging in other OCBs and learn whether these differential outcomes are exacerbated for members of marginalized racial and ethnic groups in the workplace. It was revealed that diversity work is viewed similarly to affiliation oriented OCBOs. In addition, how White employees conceptualize their own racial identity was found to impact perceptions of diversity work and the allocation outcomes. Implications, limitations, and future directions are discussed.

Keywords: diversity work, organizational citizenship behavior, resource allocation.

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INTRODUCTION

Recently, many organizations have reaffirmed their commitment to diversity and inclusion through a variety of statements, promises and monetary forms of support (Friedman, 2020; Garcia, 2020; Kerber et al., 2020). Some have outlined specific actions they wish to take in addressing injustices within their own systems, policies and culture in an attempt to increase inclusion. While a plethora of ideas and initiatives have been proposed, there has been little discussion as to who will be doing the work and how individuals who are asked to engage in this work in addition to their role-related work will be compensated for their time (Miller, 2020). In academia, discussions have surfaced that a great deal of this work may fall to members of marginalized groups (Melaku & Beeman, 2020) and a recent national survey confirms this concern (Jimenez et al., 2019). While there is some research in the higher education literature that has considered the impact of engaging in diversity work on faculty career outcomes (Wijesingha & Ramos, 2017), sadly, empirical research has yet to consider the impact of engaging in extra-role diversity work in organizations. In addition, little to no research has compared the effects of engaging in diversity work to other extra-role work (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior; OCBs). There has also been very little examination of the degree to which the perceived value of this work depends on the characteristics of the person engaging in the work and very little in the way of theory explaining why individuals from societally privileged groups (e.g., White employees) may devalue diversity work.

In the present paper, I propose a new theoretical framework to explain why diversity work may be devalued by societally privileged group members. Second, I seek to examine how individuals from marginalized racial and ethnic groups and individuals from societally privileged racial groups are perceived when they are engaging in diversity work. Third, I will examine

employee perceptions of how diversity work should be compensated and whether the degree of compensation varies depending on race of the person engaging in the work. Fourth, I will examine the ramifications of engaging in this work and examine whether there are differential career-related outcomes related to doing this work compared to engaging in other OCBs. Lastly, I will examine whether these differential outcomes are exacerbated for members of marginalized groups in the workplace.

This project has the potential to contribute to the literature in at least two ways. First, the present study proposes a new explanatory mechanism through which diversity work and those who engage in it may be devalued by majority group members. Although other researchers in this area have proposed alternative explanations based on other theoretical lenses (e.g., Hekman et al. 2014), these theories do not necessarily explain the causal mechanisms through which White individuals come to these unconscious assessments towards diversity initiatives and work aimed at increasing the diversity and inclusion of individuals from marginalized racial groups in organizations. To that end, I synthesize tenants of Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Branscombe et al., 1999) with White Racial Identity Theory (Helms, 1984) to propose an alternative explanation as to why White employees may devalue this specific form of extra-role work.

Second, the present study will be the first to examine how organizational efforts to increase diversity and inclusion may contribute to workplace inequity when the burden of this work is placed on employees from marginalized groups. To date, in the field of organizational psychology there has been no critical examination of who is engaging in diversity and inclusion work and what effect this work has on career-related outcomes. It is particularly important to address this research question because this work tends to fall on the shoulders of already

marginalized employees to complete regardless of whether it is part of their work role to do so. In addition to the psychological toll of engaging in this work in workplaces that often lack diversity, this work may also take a toll on the career outcomes of employees from marginalized groups. Pouring emotional and cognitive resources into diversity and inclusion efforts for one's organization may result in fewer resources being left for role-related work which may negatively impact job performance, job satisfaction and ultimately indicators of career advancement (e.g., promotions and raises) for members of marginalized groups who take on diversity work. Thus, in an organization's effort to increase diversity and inclusion, they may be inadvertently contributing to workplace inequity when diversity work is not distributed equitably.

This document is organized into six main parts. First, I will outline and define diversity work in organizations. Second, I will discuss the ways in which diversity work is similar to and different from other forms of OCBs. Third, I will discuss my theoretical framing outlining why diversity work may be perceived as less valuable compared to other forms of OCBs. Fourth, I will discuss the role of the race and gender of the person engaging in the work and how it may result in differential value of diversity work. Fifth, I will highlight the role of social dominance orientation as a potential moderator. Lastly, I will discuss a series of studies to investigate the hypotheses outlined in this dissertation.

Diversity Work in Organizations

Diversity work is described as “the labor that one undertakes in trying to make an institution more diverse demographically and the labor one undergoes as part of being a member of a group that does not fit with an institution's prevailing norms,” (Ahmed, 2012 pg 173-187 summarized and quoted in Eng, 2019). A common form of diversity work is that of diversity initiatives which are described as “a set of formalized practices developed and implemented by

organizations to manage equality, diversity and inclusion,” (van den Brink, 2020) or “the implementation of one or more practices aimed at improving the workplace experiences and outcomes of groups that face disadvantage in both organizations and the broader society,” (Leslie, 2019). Drawing upon previous definitions (Ahmed, 2012; Leslie, 2019, van den Brink, 2020), for the purposes of this dissertation, the term diversity work will refer to work conducted in an attempt to make an organization more diverse, inclusive and/or equitable in an attempt to increase the full participation of marginalized group members within the organization. In this section, I will outline various forms of diversity work drawing on Leslie’s (2019) taxonomy of diversity practices, and prior research on diversity initiatives including Ruggs et al.’s (2018) chapter on strategies to combat bias in the workplace and Wentling and Palma-Rivas’ (1998) qualitative study on workplace diversity initiatives. The latter research included 12 interviews with diversity and inclusion experts in the United States with specific initiatives being discussed as ways to achieve organizational goals (see Table 1 for summary of Diversity Work examples).

Table 1.
Diversity Work in Organizations by Level

	Description of Work	Description of Worker
Individual Level	Directly confronting the perpetrator of biased behavior	Both*
	Engaging in perspective taking and increasing empathy towards marginalized group members	Majority Group Member Employee
	Allies showing support and positive attitudes for marginalized group members	Majority Group Member Employee
	Serving as a mentor for employees from marginalized groups	Both
	Identity Management	Marginalized Group Member Employee

Table 1. (cont'd)

Organizational Level	Recruiting individuals from diverse backgrounds	Both
	Making a formal company policy about diversity to signal that the organization values it to outsiders	Both
	Zero-tolerance policies towards racial harassment with consequences	Both
	Examining and strengthening the climate for diversity	Both
	Developing and administering training for addressing biases and biased behavior	Both
	Having commitment from top management to reduce bias and serve as a role model for all employees	Both
	Supporting career development through programming for members of marginalized groups	Both
	Diversity initiatives (i.e. employee resource groups)	Both

Note: Description of worker refers to majority group member or marginalized group member in describing who is more likely to engage in that form of work; * = research from Rattan & Dweck (2016) found that when individuals from marginalized racial groups confront prejudice, only those who are high in growth mindset tended to have more positive outcomes from confronting prejudice (greater degree of belonging and satisfaction at work).

Diversity Work at the Individual Level. Ruggs et al. (2018) identified individual level strategies for addressing bias. Individual level strategies that were particularly relevant to combating biases towards members of racial or ethnic marginalized groups included: directly confronting the biased behavior of the perpetrator (Ashburn-Nardo et al., 2008; Rattan & Dweck, 2016) which can be done by individuals who are third parties to the behavior and are intervening on behalf of the person effected (Ashburn-Nardo et al., 2008) or they can be done by the person on the receiving end of the biased behaviors (Rattan & Dweck, 2016), engaging in perspective taking with the goal of increasing empathy towards marginalized group members (Lindsey et al.,

2014), and having allies exhibit positive attitudes and support for marginalized employees which may impact the overall organizational culture and social norms. In addition, there are tactics that marginalized group members can engage in to combat biases that fall into the category of identity management. Marginalized group members engage in identity management to combat the discrimination they face and cope with the effects of their identity being stigmatized in work environments. Shih et al. (2013) outline four strategies marginalized group members may engage in including: identity switching which can involve deemphasizing the target identity and/or recategorizing to a positively valued identity or engaging in identity redefinition. Examples of the latter include engaging in stereotype reassociation in which one changes emphasis among stereotypes in an attempt to dissociate oneself from negative stereotypes and lean in to positive stereotypes from their group or engaging in stereotype regeneration in which individuals may redefine the characteristics that are associated with an identity that is negatively stereotyped societally. When marginalized group members engage in identity management, it may allow them to perform better (Shih et al., 1999; Shih et al, 2002) and may result in positive psychological outcomes (Shih et al., 2013). However, there is also evidence that when one is trying to engage in identity management when cognitive load is high, this may be related to negative emotions towards the outgroup, particularly for individuals high in ingroup self-esteem (Martiny & Kessler, 2014). In addition to these, Wentling and Palma-Rivas (1998) suggest that mentorship for individuals from marginalized groups may be another way to help them feel included in the workplace and assist in helping them reach their career goals (Kram, 1985).

Diversity Work at the Organizational Level. Ruggs et al., (2018) also suggest several organizational level-strategies including: recruitment of individuals from diverse backgrounds and making the company policy regarding diversity known to applicants to discourage

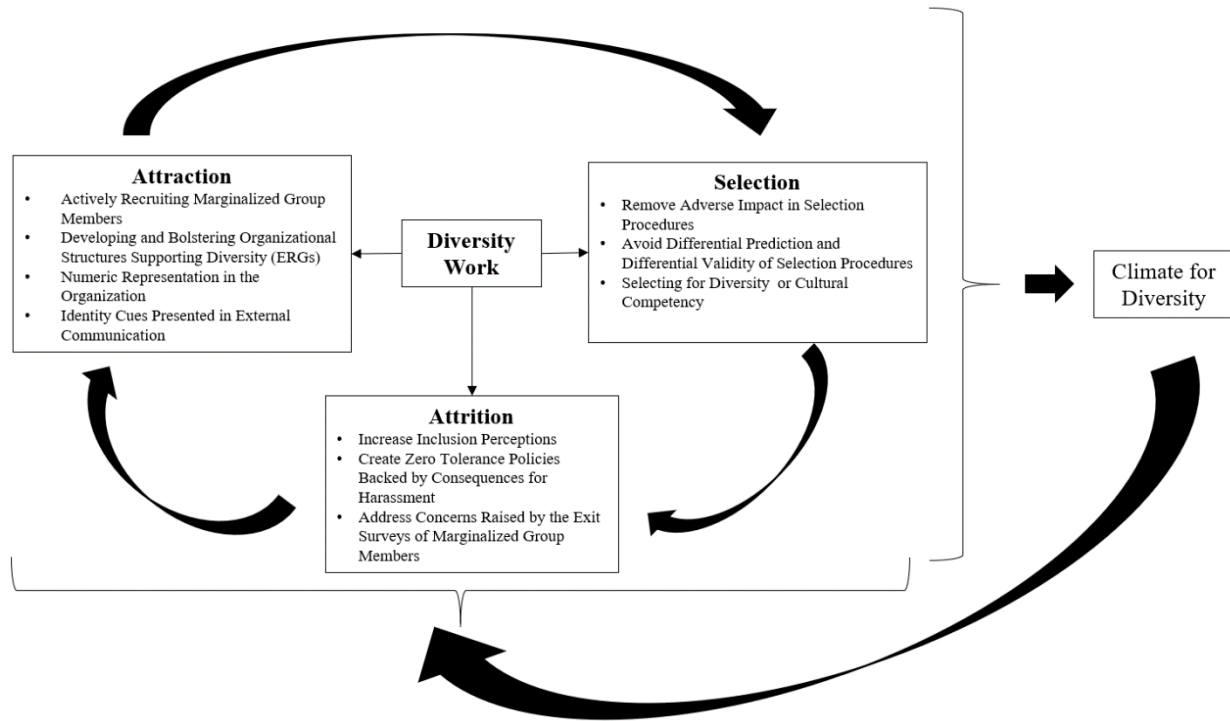
individuals who do not value diversity or those who may engage in racial harassment from applying (see Bell et al., 2002 for a similar argument regarding sexual harassment), zero-tolerance organizational policies backed by actual consequences for the person engaging in harassment (Hurley et al., 2016; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2000), examining the current diversity climate in the organization, developing relevant training for addressing biases (Burley & Lessig, 1999) and having commitment from top management to reduce biases at the managerial level as well as serve as behavioral role models for employees of all levels (Dobbin & Kalev, 2013). In addition to these, Wentling and Palma-Rivas (1998) suggest that organizationally supported career development for members of marginalized groups could be an additional avenue for fostering inclusion and career support. Other organizational diversity initiatives may help provide a sense of identity safety and belonging for members of marginalized groups. For example, some initiatives serve as standing structures (i.e., employee resource groups, Welborne et al., 2018) and allow members to form networks and be around others in the organization with a tacit understanding of their daily experience or other individuals who are committed to understanding their experience (e.g., prospective allies).

Leslie’s (2019) taxonomy of diversity practices can also serve as a useful framework for considering the range of activities that may fall into the category of organization level diversity work. To develop this heuristic for thinking about diversity work, Leslie (2019) drew from prior large-scale studies (Kalev et al., 2006; Konrad & Linneham, 1995; Richard et al., 2013). In her taxonomy, diversity initiatives fall into three categories: nondiscrimination practices (merit-based decision making, diversity training), resource practices (preferential treatment, targeted recruitment, diversity statements, targeted training, diversity networking groups, diversity

mentoring programs) and accountability practices (diversity plans, diversity performance evaluations, diversity positions, grievance systems).

These different forms of work are key for increasing diversity and inclusion at various portions of the work life cycle. Applying Leslie's taxonomy to Schneider's (1987) Attraction-Selection-Attrition Model, it becomes evident that diversity work impacts who may be attracted to the organization, who is ultimately selected into the organization and the degree to which people wish to separate from the organization. Through acts such as targeted recruitment, signaling identity safety cues in diversity statements and signaling externally that diversity is important through making diversity plans, individuals from marginalized racial backgrounds may be more attracted to the organization. Instituting merit-based decision making, engaging in preferential treatment, and engaging targeted training initiatives may increase the likelihood that individuals from marginalized backgrounds are selected into the organization. Diversity training, diversity networking groups and properly functioning and accessible grievance systems can serve as mechanisms for inclusion in organizations which may buffer against tendencies towards attrition. Thus, as illustrated in Figure 1, diversity work has the potential to impact who remains in the organization and thus the organizational climate. If these climate perceptions become solidified within the organization's culture, this may result in a less homogenized organization.

Figure 1.
Applying ASA in the Context of Diversity Work



Boundary Conditions on the Construct of Diversity Work

Because diversity work is defined broadly and is thus comprised of a multitude of actions and behaviors, I will discuss the boundary conditions of this construct for the purposes of this dissertation. For the present investigation I will limit the scope of the study to individuals who are engaging in diversity work outside of their designated work role (i.e., not those in DEI roles). This will allow me to compare the completion of diversity work to that of other OCBs which are also completed outside of one's official work role. While diversity work that is done in one's work role may result in similar affective outcomes, particularly if the person engaging in the work is a member of a marginalized group, it is likely that in-role diversity work would not impact the career related outcomes of interest in the present study in the same way that they may impact the career related outcomes of an individual engaging in this work outside of their official work role. Second, I will limit the scope of diversity work specifically to work that impacts the

organizational overall rather than work at the individual level. This is primarily due to the fact that the rewards and compensation considered in the present study would be allocated by the organization and would thus need to be something that the organization could quantify and monitor. For example, an organization could more easily identify an individual who is an active leader in an employee resource group or who helped develop a diversity training curriculum while quantifying allyship behavior would be more difficult and thus harder to reward in a similar manner. A secondary reason is that in comparing diversity work to forms of OCBs, previous reviews of the existing literature have revealed that some forms of OCBs are only conceptualized at the organizational level (e.g., Podsakoff et al. 2014; challenge-oriented OCBs). Thus, in order to engage in a true comparison of diversity work and the various forms of OCBs, I have decided to limit my examination to diversity work at the organizational level. Lastly, I will limit the present investigation to diversity work in the context of initiatives designed with marginalized racial groups as the target beneficiaries and consider the role of race specifically in examining who is engaging in the work as well. Although gender has also been shown to be a highly prevalent factor in terms of who is engaging in extra-role behaviors at work, particularly those that are more communal or affiliation-oriented (Allen & Jang, 2018; Guarino & Borden, 2017) the focus of the present investigation is on diversity work specifically with regard to race. Unlike other demographic characteristics, in the United States, race tends to be a highly visible a characteristic that remains fixed for longer periods of time and is linked to several systematic disparities in employment including differences in income (Wilson, 2020), hiring (Fernandez & Greenberg, 2013) and job longevity (Weller & Fields, 2011). Extra-role work for racial minorities who must already contend with societal inequities may be more taxing given that there is no reprieve of race-based privilege to fall back on compared to others who have intersectional

identities featuring whiteness as a component. Thus, I will focus on the impact of the race of the person engaging in the work as one of my primary research questions. This work will be drawn from Leslie's (2019) taxonomy, specifically the non-discrimination practices and resource practices and will include: taking a leading role in a diversity workshop or training, engaging in targeted recruitment efforts to increase numeric representation of individuals from marginalized groups, engaging in targeted training efforts aimed at increasing the likelihood that individuals from marginalized groups are included, participation or leadership in an employee resource group (ERGs), serving on a diversity and inclusion committee within the organization or providing ad-hoc support on organizational inclusion initiatives and projects.

Diversity Work as Extra-Role Behavior

Discussion of extra-role work within the diversity sphere warrants a discussion of extra-role behaviors broadly as well as what makes diversity work similar to and different from organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). OCBs are characterized as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ 1988; p. 4). In their review, Podsakoff et al., (2014) summarize the various forms of OCBs from previous conceptualizations. First, there are the OCBI which are classified as affiliation-oriented OCBs that benefit individuals in the organization. Examples of OCBs of this form include: interpersonal helping, altruism, courtesy, peacekeeping, cheerleading, interpersonal facilitation, interpersonal harmony (Podsakoff et al., 2014). Second, there are the OCBOs which are classified as affiliation-oriented OCBs engaged in for the benefit of the organization broadly construed. Examples of this form of OCB include: organizational loyalty, loyal boosterism, organizational identification, endorsement, support and defense of the organization, spread of

goodwill, promotion of company image, sportsmanship, compliance, organizational obedience, protection of company resources, compliance to organizational rules and procedures, and civic virtue (which involves attending meetings and functions that are not required as well as reading organizational announcements to stay up to date; Podsakoff et al., 2014). Lastly, there are the challenge oriented OCBOs that are considered to be OCBs directed towards the organization in a way that challenges the status quo (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Examples of this form of OCB include voice behavior, making constructive suggestions, civic virtue in the context of voice, principled dissent, advocacy participation, organizational participation, issue selling and taking charge (Podsakoff et al., 2014).

Although categorized as work existing outside of one's role, meta-analytic research on the outcomes of OCBs revealed that engaging in affiliation-oriented OCBs is positively related to certain organizational level outcomes including things such as productivity, efficiency, reduced organizational costs, customer satisfaction and unit level turnover (Podsakoff et al., 2009). In addition, despite the fact that this work is conducted outside of one's work role, engaging in affiliation-oriented OCBs was found to be positively related to reward allocation decisions and managerial ratings of performance such that this behavior accounted for similar or greater variance in performance evaluations than task-role behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

As previously mentioned, diversity work could be conceptualized as being directed towards the person and the organization. Various forms of diversity work may also be conceptualized as affiliation and challenge oriented in a similar manner to OCBs (see Table 2).

Table 2.

Synthesizing Diversity Work and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Outlined in Podsakoff et al. (2014)

	Affiliation-Oriented	Challenge-Oriented
OCBI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpersonal Helping • Altruism • Altruism Toward Colleagues • Courtesy • Peacekeeping • Cheerleading • Interpersonal Facilitation • Interpersonal Harmony 	
OCBO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational Loyalty • Loyal Boosterism • Organizational Identification • Endorsement, Support and Defense of the Organization • Spread of Goodwill • Promotion of Company Image • Sportsmanship • Compliance • Organizational Obedience • Protection of Company Resources • Compliance to Organizational Rules and Procedures • Civic Virtue (attending functions that are not required, keeping up with organizational announcements) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voice • Making Constructive Suggestions • Civic Virtue (when referring to Voice) • Principled Dissent • Advocacy Participation • Organizational Participation • Issue Selling • Taking Charge
DWI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engaging in perspective taking and increasing empathy towards marginalized group members • Allies showing support and positive attitudes for marginalized group members • Serving as a mentor for employees from marginalized groups • Identity Management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Directly confronting the perpetrator of biased behavior • Voicing concerns to management about issues of bias • Reporting issues of bias and discrimination to HR

Table 2. (cont'd)

	Affiliation-Oriented	Challenge-Oriented
DWO	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Recruiting individuals from diverse backgrounds• Making a formal company policy about diversity to signal that the organization values it to outsiders• Creating zero-tolerance policies towards racial harassment with consequences• Examining and strengthening the climate for diversity• Developing and administering training for addressing biases and biased behavior• Advocating for buy-in from top management to reduce bias and serve as a role model for all employees• Supporting career development through programming for members of marginalized groups• Organizational Diversity Initiatives (i.e. employee resource groups)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Calling for changes to biased hiring policies and practices• Requesting that changes be made to reporting systems to make them more accessible

Note: Drawn from Ashburn-Nardo et al., (2008), Leslie (2019), Lindsey et al. (2014), Podsakoff et al. (2014), Rattan & Dweck (2016), Ruggs et al., (2018), Shih et al., (2013), Wentling & Palma-Rivas (1998) and van den Brink, 2020. OCBI = organizational citizenship behavior directed towards the individual, OCBO = organizational citizenship directed towards the individual, DWI = diversity work directed towards the individual, DWO = diversity work directed towards the organization.

Many of the examples provided in Table 1 align with an affiliation-oriented conceptualization in that they involve creating and facilitating a more harmonious work environment and including employees who are marginalized. In addition, some behaviors may be more challenge-oriented when they involve directly confronting the perpetrator of biased behavior (individual) or calling for changes to organizational systems or structures that facilitate inequities (organizational). However, despite the nuances outlined in Table 2, it is possible that overall, diversity work may fit particularly well with the conceptualization of challenge-oriented OCBs due to the fact that it inherently challenges the status quo and calls attention to the fact that work environments may not be as diverse or inclusive as they believe themselves to be. Thus, it is an open question as to whether all diversity work is conceptualized in a similar manner or whether others perceive differences between affiliation-oriented diversity work and challenge-oriented diversity work.

Whether there are benefits allotted to those who engage in extra-role diversity work in a similar manner to those who engage in affiliation-oriented OCBs also remains an open question. Research in higher education suggests that diversity work may not necessarily result in career-relevant benefits. For example, using a nationwide survey, Jimenez et al.'s (2019) research revealed not only that faculty from underrepresented racial identities were more likely to be engaging in diversity work than their White counterparts; but that there was no career-related acknowledgement of this work (e.g., consideration of diversity work in the tenure process). Rodriguez et al. (2015), in considering similar disparities between unrepresented racial minorities the field of academic medicine, argued that one factor contributing to the promotion disparity for individuals from underrepresented marginalized groups was the fact that they were spending more time on diversity initiatives and work. They then mentioned how promotion

disparities were linked to lower pay for these individuals because salary is linked to rank in many institutions (Rodriguez et al., 2015). However, diversity work may not be unique in this regard. Research on organizational citizenship and career outcomes in an outcome-based control system revealed that time spent on task-related performance was deemed to be more important than OCBs in determining career-related outcomes including: salary increase, promotion and advancement speed (Bergeron et al., 2013). In addition, when Bergeron et al. (2013) controlled for time spent on performance type for task performance and OCBs they found that employees who spent more time engaging in OCBs had lower increases in their salaries and were promoted at a much slower rate compared to employees who spent less time on OCBs.

Whether diversity work may or may not be rewarded or valued to the same degree as challenge-oriented OCBs is also not yet known. In the research literature, there has been little discussion as to the individual and group level outcomes for challenge-oriented OCBs. Mackenzie et al., (2011) found that challenge-related OCBs (operationalized as voice behavior) had an inverted U-shaped relationship with unit level performance that was moderated by affiliation-oriented OCBs. Other work has identified that challenge-related OCBs may be particularly helpful for allowing groups to come up with more creative solutions (Farh, Lee, and Farh, 2010) and may keep groups from inadvertently reaching premature consensus (De Dreu & West, 2001). Although there are some organizational level benefits for employees engaging in challenge-oriented OCBs, these behaviors are also linked to interpersonal consequences such as negatively impacting employee relationships with managers (Morrison & Milliken, 2000) and negatively impacting task performance and coworker relationships in one's work group (Fay & Frese, 2001). Diversity work inherently challenges the status quo in organizations which is a conceptualization that best aligns with challenge-oriented OCBs. To date, there is little to no

known research on the rewards for challenge-oriented OCBs at the individual level. Returning to the illustration in Figure 1 and the examples in Tables 1 and 2, each example of diversity work is generally completed to address an inequity in a pre-existing organizational structure or process. For example, recruiting more members of racially marginalized groups in a company is spurred by recognizing a lack of numeric representation. Targeted recruitment efforts, in this case, would implicitly challenge the demographic composition of the hypothetical company at present. Thus, I posit that diversity work may be more likely to fall into the conceptualization of challenge-oriented OCBs which may contribute to its decreased likelihood of being recognized and rewarded accordingly.

While diversity work can be characterized as a specific form of OCB, one distinction between this work and OCBs more broadly is that this work can be assigned. Indeed, the phenomenon of marginalized group members being “voluntold” to engage in extra-role diversity work has been documented and discussed in the popular press (Caruso & Pandya, 2020; Mercer, 2020). Assigned diversity work would be inherently different from other OCBs for two reasons. First, assigned work is not voluntary which is considered to be a key element of the traditional OCB definition by Organ (1988, p.4): “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system.” When work is assigned, it is no longer discretionary. Second, and in tandem, when work is assigned by those with decision-making power such as bosses or supervisors, these individuals may find the work to be more salient and it may be directly or indirectly considered in performance evaluations. Voluntary work may or may not allow employees to reap that same benefit.

Thus, another reason extra-role diversity work may not be valued is because this work may be classified as invisible labor. Invisible labor is defined as work that is completed for little

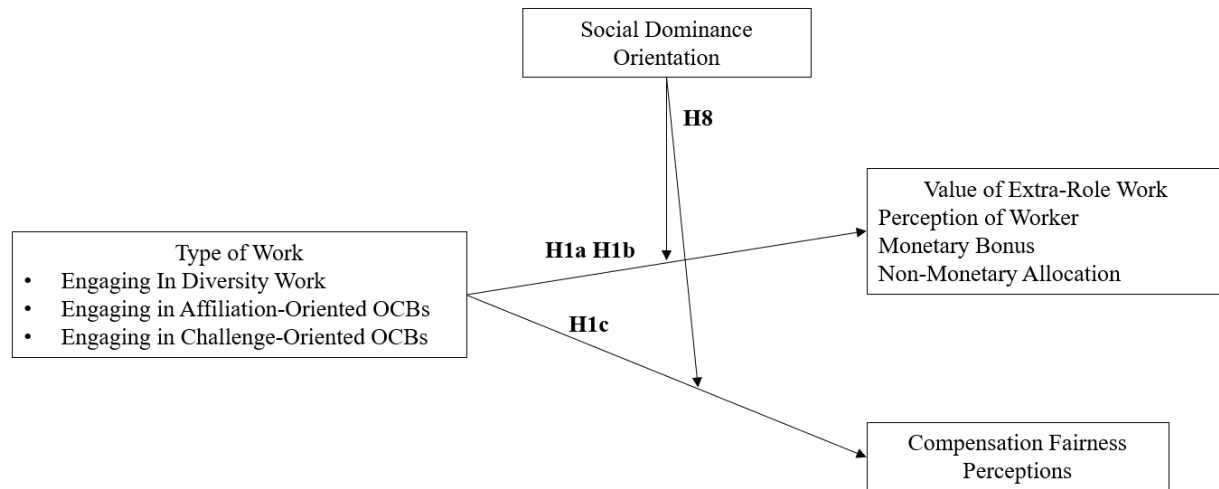
to no compensation or benefit (Wiedhaas, 2017). This term has often been applied in the context of work women engage in with caretaking, parenting and housekeeping responsibilities being disproportionately completed by them (see Allen, 2012 for discussion). However, diversity work in organizations can similarly be completed in addition to one's work role for little to no additional compensation nor recognition. When individuals spend several hours a week engaging in this work that is treated as invisible, it may result in those who do the work feeling undervalued. This may lead to a variety of outcomes including (a) ceasing to engage in diversity work, (b) feelings of dissatisfaction with work more broadly and (c) turnover. Each of these outcomes has the potential to harm organizational goals such as negatively impacting financial performance (Heavey et al., 2013), losing employees to competitors which may impact the organization's survival (Agarwal et al., 2009) or may result in turnover contagion (Felps et al., 2009).

Despite arguments that compensating for extra-role diversity work is needed, it is possible that some may worry about the fairness of compensating employees for work completed outside of their work role given that it is completed voluntarily. Research on pay satisfaction revealed that employees can become dissatisfied when coworkers earn more than they do and particularly so if they perceive themselves to be similar to higher earning co-workers on reward-relevant characteristics (Card et al., 2012; Clark & Oswald, 1996). When people who complete their job-relevant work are being compensated at a lower rate than those who complete both their job-relevant work and extra-role work, the former group may perceive this as inequitable and unfair if they are meeting the requirements of their role-relevant work. Thus, because certain forms of extra-role work, particularly diversity work, may be less visible and perceived as voluntary and is likely to challenge the status quo, it is hypothesized that (see Figure 2):

H1: Individuals will (a) allocate a higher bonus, (b) allocate more non-monetary benefits and (c) perceive compensating the extra-role behavior to be more fair when they are rating affiliation-oriented OCBOs compared to challenge-oriented OCBOs and diversity work.

Figure 2.

Model Examining Differential Value and Fairness Perceptions of Extra Role Work



In addition to the open question of whether challenge-oriented OCBOs and diversity work are rewarded differently at an individual level compared to affiliation-oriented OCBOs, the demographic identity of the individual engaging in these extra-role behaviors may also impact the degree to which these behaviors are rewarded. Research in higher education revealed that women who were faculty members engage in significantly more internal service activities than men when controlling for rank, race and ethnicity and field of study (Guarino & Borden, 2017) though this work is less likely to be weighted heavily in promotion decisions (Jimenez et al.'s 2019). Other organizational research aligns with this finding in that employees who are women are more likely to engage in OCB helping behavior and were less likely to view altruism related behaviors at work as optional compared to employees who were men (Farrel & Finkelstien,

2007; Heilman & Chen, 2005). A more recent study by Allen and Jang (2018) found that while women reported engaging in more communal OCBs and men reported engaging in more agentic OCBs, supervisors did not rate men and women differently on OCB performance. However, the authors note in their review of previous literature that the lack of differences in some previous studies may be due to the way in which OCBs are measured with significant differences being more frequent in studies where participants were asked to self-report and when multidimensional measures were used (Allen & Jang, 2018). As noted in other research, the lack of differences between genders in supervisor ratings of OCBs may be due to the fact that OCB performance is not considered or noticed when completed by women but rewarded for men (Heilman & Chen, 2005) potentially stemming from gender stereotypes (Kidder, 2002; Steele, 2016).

The racial identity of the person engaging in diversity work may also be related to differential work outcomes when engaging in extra-role work. One of the earlier studies to consider racial differences in OCBs found that individuals from marginalized racial groups were more likely to self-report the OCB of altruism and less likely to be rated by supervisors to be high on the OCB of compliance and that this relationship was partially mediated by coworker support and job satisfaction and negative affectivity (Jones & Schaubroeck, 2004). One other known study considered the relationship between race and engaging in OCBs (Thau et al., 2008). Using the negative adaption hypothesis as a guiding framework, they posited that because Black employees were more likely to experience injustice and mistreatment compared to White employees, when non-contingent punishment occurred in the workplace, it would have no bearing on whether Black employees engaged in OCBs. Indeed, they found in their own study that non-contingent punishment from supervisors was negatively related to engaging in OCBs for White employees but not Black employees (Thau, et al., 2008). Although these findings

highlight factors that impact when individuals from marginalized groups engage in OCBs, more research is needed to make concrete assertions as to the impact of engaging in these behaviors for underrepresented racial groups in the workplace.

Despite the relative dearth of information on race and engaging in OCBs, I posit that the characteristics of diversity work may pose particular detriments to members of marginalized racial groups compared to other OCBs. Many of the individuals who engage in diversity work are underrepresented in their professions (Jimenez et al., 2019; Campbell & Rodriguez, 2019). This may result in the same, few, individuals being top of mind when organizations elect to make strides in this area. Comparatively, for other OCBs there would hypothetically be a broader range of employees that could be called upon. In addition to underrepresentation, individuals from marginalized racial groups are also contending with several environmental disparities. Referring to work examining medical school faculty members, Rodriguez et al., (2015) noted that in addition to spending additional time on diversity-related work, these scholars also face racism which contributes to job dissatisfaction, isolation which limits the likelihood of collaborating with others for scholarly activity, a lack of mentorship, and lower engagement in valued task-related work (e.g., less scholarly work and more community and clinical work). All of these factors contribute to promotion disparities which in turn result in pay disparities (Rodriguez et al., 2015). In addition to these factors, individuals from marginalized racial groups also contend with the cognitive load of constantly surveilling the work environment for threatening situational cues that their social identities will be devalued (Murphy et al., 2007; Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008). In sum, members of marginalized racial and ethnic groups in the workplace often bear the brunt of discriminatory treatment. Doing diversity work for the organization in addition to this may result in feelings of being overburdened which may result in negative career relevant

outcomes. This may mean that individuals from marginalized groups who engage in diversity work may have worse work outcomes compared to individuals from societally privileged racial groups who engage in the work. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

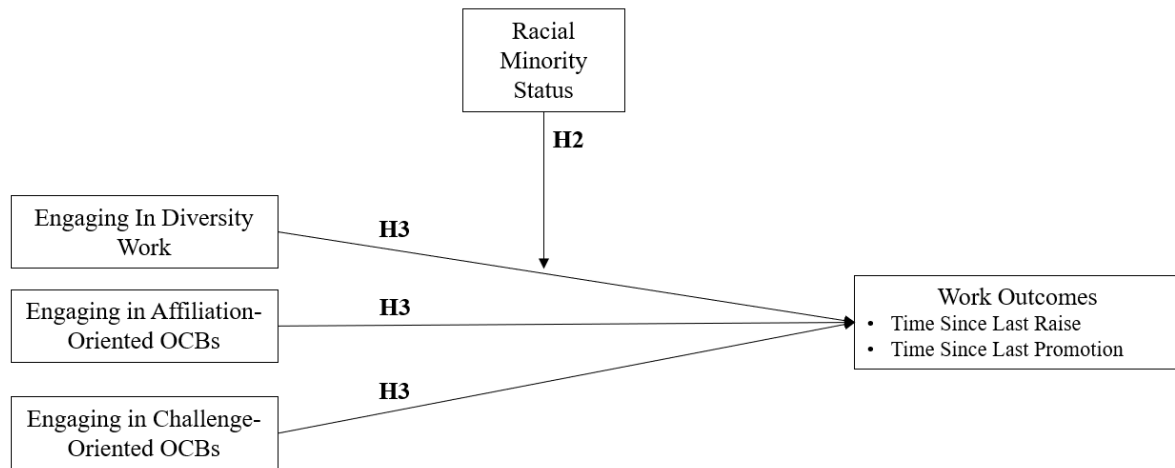
H2: Racial minority status will moderate the relationship between diversity work and work outcomes such that individuals who are racial minorities will have (a) more time since their last raise and (b) more time since their last promotion when they engage in diversity work compared to White workers.

In addition, I also hope to better understand the degree to which various forms of OCBs are valued and learn whether outcomes for individuals who engage in OCBOs are different than for individuals who engage in diversity work broadly. Diversity work's potential status as a challenge-oriented OCB and as a form of invisible labor may negatively contribute to the likelihood of valuing the behavior. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H3: Individuals engaging in diversity work will have (a) a longer time period since their last raise and (d) a longer time period since their last promotion compared to those who engage in other forms of OCBs.

Figure 3.

Model Examining the Moderating effect of Minority Status on the Relationship Between Extra-Role Work and Work Outcomes



However, these assertions beg the larger question of why else diversity work would be considered less valuable, particularly by individuals who are in societally privileged racial groups in organizations. In the next section, I propose a potential rationale explaining why this may be the case.

Why Diversity Work May Be Perceived as Less Valuable: Theoretical Possibilities

In this section of the proposal, I will discuss potential reasons why diversity work may be perceived as less valuable than other forms of organizational OCBs. First, I will discuss the framing posed by Hekman et al., (2017) in their work on diversity valuing behavior in which they argued that negative perceptions of diversity work may be a result of stereotyping. Then, I will propose my own theoretical framing. To do this, I will integrate Helm's (1990) White Racial Identity Theory and Social Identity Theory.

One reason diversity work in organizations may be devalued compared to other OCBs is due to the fact that those who engage in the work would be aligning themselves with a low status identity. Hekman et al. (2017) drew on the relational demography, social dominance orientation

and stereotyping literature for framing their work on diversity-valuing behaviors and leadership perceptions. They proposed that low status groups (e.g., marginalized racial groups and women) align themselves with their low status identity when they engage in diversity valuing behavior (behaviors that promote demographic balance in an organization that are commensurate with the broader region in which the organization is located). When individuals from low status groups engage in diversity valuing behavior, they may be seen as socially competitive particularly if one holds the view that members of different demographic groups are competing for status in a zero-sum format (Chattopadhyay et al., 2004; Sidanius et al., 1994). They further posit that engaging in diversity valuing behavior as a member of a marginalized group makes one's demographic characteristics more salient thus activating negative stereotypes of their group. This, in turn results in perceived incompetence of the person engaging in diversity valuing behavior (Hekman et al., 2014). Although this framing could be useful for considering why diversity work more broadly may be devalued compared to other OCBs, this framing does not particularly consider the root cause of stereotyping nor address why White individuals, who may be more likely to be the majority group members in organizations, may or may not devalue the work. Through synthesizing tenants of White Racial Identity Theory and Social Identity Theory, I hope to illustrate the underlying mechanism that may explain why diversity work is more likely to be devalued by White, majority group individuals in organizations.

White Racial Identity Theory (WRID; Helms, 1990; 2005) posits that the racial identity of White individuals is exemplified within a set of linearly delineated statuses that include (a) unawareness of the systematic presence of Whiteness, one's race and the existence of racism (contact), feelings of shame and guilt due to being challenged by new information about the White identity that was previously viewed positively (disintegration) (c) the idealization of being

White and denigrating individuals in marginalized racial groups (reintegration), (d) intellectual acceptance of one's race and racial privilege (pseudo-independent) (e) internalized positive anti-racist White identity and flexible interactions with individuals in marginalized racial groups (immersion) and finally, (f) the individuals fully understand their White identity while simultaneously working to pursue social justice (autonomy; Helms, 2005; Mallot et al., 2015). Helms (2005) argues that there are two things that must be completed in order to obtain a healthy White identity. One must first shun institutional racism and individual racism (which is involved in statuses a-c) and must second define a positive identity for themselves (statuses d-f). The most recent conceptualization of this theory retains only the four statuses of contact, reintegration, pseudo-independence and autonomy (Helms, 2005; Ponterrotto & Park-Taylor, 2007). Although this theory was originally proposed as a stage model, this conceptualization was not supported and in later versions of the theory, these stages were relabeled as statuses (Helms, 1984; Helms, 2005). Research examining this theory suggests that White individuals may tap into various statuses simultaneously rather than making a linear progression through the statuses (Ponterrotto & Park-Taylor, 2007). Although this theory has been critiqued for a myriad of reasons including failing to describe how White individuals develop their own White identity, instead focusing on White attitudes towards other racial groups (Rowe, Bennett & Atkinson, 1994), little evidence supporting the statuses outlined (Rowe, 2006) and lacking detail in terms of how to live an anti-racist life (Miller & Fellows, 2007), there are tenants within the theory that may be useful for constructing an alternative explanatory framework for the devaluation of diversity work and those who engage in this work in organizations.

This theory highlights at least two reasons why White employees, managers and higher-level leaders may devalue diversity work in organizations. First, in accordance with the contact

status of WRID theory, White individuals in organizations may take a colorblind approach towards racism and may not acknowledge racism nor racial privileges. These individuals may fail to see a need for diversity work due to the fact that they do not acknowledge the impact of discrimination and prejudice as existing barriers to inclusion. Second, in accordance with the disintegration and reintegration statuses, once White individuals become aware of new information that challenges their view of their identity, they may feel shame and guilt. This may result in White employees idealizing their own ingroup and denigrating marginalized racial groups as a defense mechanism so as not to question their beneficial position. This then contributes to negative attitudes towards diversity work and diversity initiatives as individuals with this status of WRID may feel that this work may result in unfair benefits and assistance being given to marginalized individuals who are undeserving in their perspective. This position aligns with Intergroup Threat Theory (ITT; Stephan et al., 2009) which outlines two forms of threats that impact an identity group and an individual: (a1) realistic threats to the group which impact the group's power, resources and welfare, (a2) realistic threats to the individual which have to do with actual harm to an individual such as torture, pain or death, (b1) symbolic threats to the group in which values, beliefs, philosophy and worldview of the group are threatened and (b2) symbolic threats to the individual in which the self-esteem and the self-identity of the individual is threatened. These threats need to only be perceived to influence emotions, cognitions and behaviors (Stephan et al., 2009). Thus, White employees may perceive that their status in the workplace is threatened when individuals engage in diversity work which may contribute to being less likely to value it and a decreased likelihood of viewing those who engage in this work in a positive manner.

The contact status may be best explained by a colorblind orientation towards diversity and lack of intergroup contact. Colorblindness is the belief that racial differences and categories do not matter, should be disregarded and that everyone should instead be treated as an individual (Plaut et al., 2009). The thought behind this approach at the organizational level is that any focus on the differential categorization of individuals into different groups may increase conflict and may also increase prejudice towards marginalized groups (Gündemir et al., 2019). However, research on this ideology has found that it may be harmful for the inclusion and success of individuals from marginalized racial groups. Plaut et al., (2009) found that when majority group members in an organization endorsed a colorblind diversity ideology in their unit, individuals from marginalized racial groups reported reduced psychological engagement. Holoien and Shelton (2012) found a similar decrement in engagement on a cognitive task in which they posited that this decrement was due to more perceived bias from majority group members. Holding a colorblind ideology may thus be one contributor to the contact status of WRID.

Another contributor to this status may be a lack of intergroup contact. The contact hypothesis (Allport, 1954) states that when individuals from different social identities have similar background statuses (e.g., education, wealth), common goals, engage in intergroup cooperation and that societal laws and authorities support this contact, intergroup contact may result in decreased prejudice. A recent meta-analysis (Pettigrew et al., 2011) on intergroup contact has revealed that these conditions are not essential but do indeed facilitate the positive effects of intergroup contact. Pettigrew et al. (2011) also found among other things that positive intergroup contact with one member of a group transferred to positive appraisals of the outgroup more broadly and that even indirect or imagined contact can be effective at reducing prejudice towards outgroups. Lack of intergroup contact may contribute to the contact status as without contact

with other groups the likelihood that one may be aware of societal inequities faced by individuals from marginalized groups is lessened.

I argue that the reintegration status is best explained by Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This theory posits that individuals are motivated to make sure that their groups are perceived positively. When individuals perceive that identity groups they belong to are evaluated negatively, they may experience social identity threat (Walton & Cohen, 2007). This theory is normally applied in explaining the impact of discrimination and exclusion on members of marginalized groups (Davies et al., 2005; Emerson & Murphy, 2014); however, it is possible that White individuals also experience threat to their identities or feel that their identity is devalued. In their chapter, Branscombe et al. (1999) highlight four classes of identity threat. These include: (a) categorization threat or the degree to which one is categorized into a social group against their will, (b) distinctiveness threat or the degree to which being viewed as distinct from one's social group is prevented or undermined, (c) threats to the value of one's social identity in which one's group is devalued as incompetent or immoral, and (d) acceptance threat in which one's position in their own identity group is undermined. Of these classes of social identity threat, I posit that value threat is the driving force behind White individuals experiencing the reintegration phase of WRID. This threat may be due in part to their perceived status loss when diversity work occurs in organizations. Diversity work and initiatives have long been considered cues that impact the identity safety of individuals from marginalized racial groups in the workplace (Welborne et al., 2018; Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008). These same cues that signify safety may simultaneously contribute to feelings of identity threat for individuals with the reintegration status of White racial identity.

I will highlight two ways through which this identity threat may come to fruition. First, the very existence of organizational level diversity work can be seen as a signal that organizations place value on diversity, making room for and considering the needs of individuals who are not White. Organizational valuation of diverse racial groups through this work may result in White organization members perceiving that their racial identity is unrepresented in these efforts and is thus not valued. Furthermore, this threat may be exacerbated by the belief that some individuals have that demographic groups are in competition with other demographic groups such that when other groups gain status, their own group suffers status loss (Sidanius et al., 1994). White individuals, who are generally not hindered from advancement, discriminated against or otherwise disenfranchised from opportunities in the work environment on the basis of their race, may not be attentive of the experiences faced on a daily basis by individuals from marginalized racial groups, nor their advantages they receive as a member of a societally privileged group. Instead, White employees may be more likely to perceive the more salient organizational symbols of inclusion (e.g., diversity initiatives, diversity work) and those with the reintegration status may perceive these symbols as not including them which they may view as a form of status loss. This status loss, then contributes to feelings of threat which may result in the devaluation of diversity work and those who engage in it by proxy. Second, in terms of value threat on a moral dimension, White individuals may wrestle with the realization that they are privileged and may have received unearned benefits due to their racial group membership from harms against other groups by individuals who share their racial identity at timepoints prior and in the present day (Branscombe et al., 1998). Rather than confront this, they may cognitively avoid this and instead resort to reappraising their beneficial societal position through denigrating outgroups and, in essence, blaming them for their lower status in society. Negative intergroup

contact and a lack of positive intergroup contact may contribute to this appraisal (Pettigrew et al., 2014). Vezzali et al., (2017) found that when majority group members experience negative intergroup contact, they were less supportive of social policies aimed at assisting minority groups. In a European sample, Graf et al., (2014) found that negative contact was more influential in shaping majority attitudes towards outgroups but that positive contact was more commonly reported. Because negative intergroup contact could confirm the denigrative coping of individuals with the reintegration status, it too may contribute to said status. Similarly, with a lack of positive intergroup contact to provide information to challenge the views of those with the reintegration status, it is possible that these views may be bolstered. In order to better tease out the valanced effects of intergroup contact, I will consider positive and negative contact with marginalized group members to be separate constructs following the example of previous work in this area (Barlow et al., 2012; Pettigrew, 2008; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2011; see Lolliot et al., 2015 for review)

Thus, in considering these theoretical lenses together, I propose a new, dual process theoretical model to explain the mechanisms through which White employees devalue diversity work and those who engage in it. Drawing from the statuses of WRID, I posit that White individuals who devalue diversity work and those who engage in it may not have high degrees of the “healthier” statuses of Helms’ WRID theory (e.g., pseudo-independence and autonomy) but instead have higher degrees of the contact status and the reintegration status. I posit that holding a colorblind ideology and having a lack of intergroup contact contributes to racial identity unawareness or avoidance (e.g., the contact status of WRID) in which differences between racial groups are not acknowledged. Due to not acknowledging that there are differences in the sociohistorical legacies of different racial groups, individuals with high racial identity

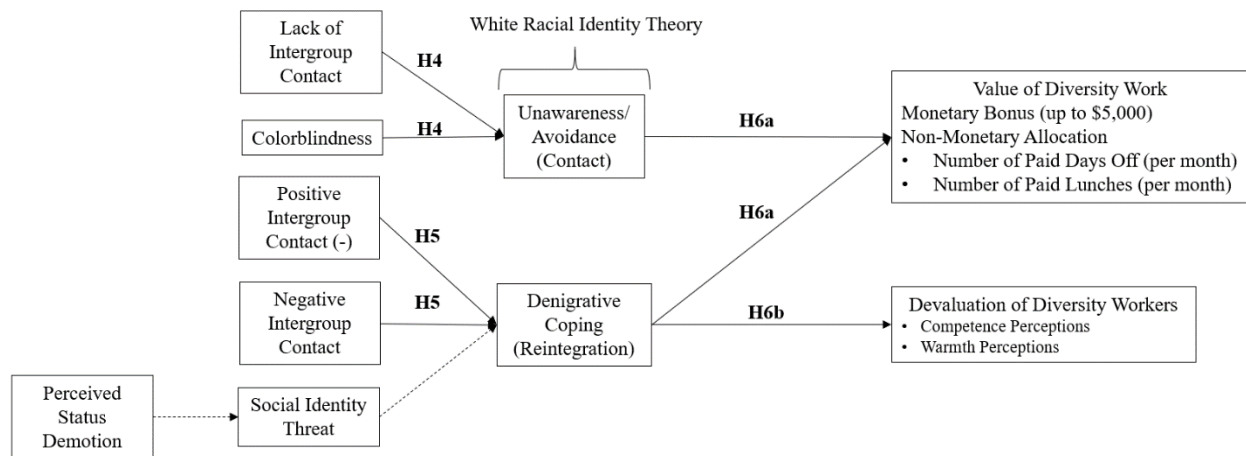
unawareness or avoidance may not see a need for diversity work in organizations, may not see the impact of this work for individuals from marginalized racial groups within their organization, and may not see the value that this work brings to the organization.

Conversely, those high on denigrative coping (e.g., the reintegration status in WRID) not only realize that there are group differences between racial groups but also perceive that there is a loss of status when organizations attempt to move the needle on diversity or inclusion in any form or fashion. This may be due to the fact that White individuals are accustomed to societal systems and processes that were built with their best interests and identity in mind and the benefits they receive exist outside of their conscious awareness. For example, in salary negotiations, it has been posited that women and individuals from marginalized racial identities do not negotiate while men and White individuals do, which contributes to pay inequities. However, this view oversimplifies the unique intersectional barriers faced at the negotiation table. Indeed, recent research suggests that hiring evaluators were less likely to make negotiation concessions to Black applicants who negotiated more (Hernandez et al., 2019). However, individuals high on denigrative coping would view failing to negotiate properly as the primary reason for pay inequities rather than considering the discrimination and bias faced by individuals from marginalized groups in the selection process. When diversity work is proposed or completed in organizations, individuals high on denigrative coping may feel social identity threat. Though this threat differs from that which has been previously defined in the context of marginalized group members feeling devalued in performance settings (Davies et al., 2005), this form of social identity threat nonetheless reveals that White individuals may feel as though their identity is not valued due to their identity group status when diversity work is done in organizations. In the present study, I will consider colorblindness, intergroup contact and the two

“unhealthy” statuses of the WRID model as predictors of perceptions of diversity work and those who engage in diversity work.

Figure 4.

Theory of Diversity Work Devaluation by White Employees Framework



Although the proposed framework in Figure 4 is posited to hold in predicting attitudes towards the valuation of diversity work, it is not thought that this mechanism would influence affiliation oriented OCBOs nor challenge oriented OCBOs as neither of these latter forms of behaviors would have theoretical relationships with the preceding constructs in the model. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H4: Low intergroup contact and endorsing a colorblind orientation will both positively predict unawareness avoidance.

H5: Low positive intergroup contact and high negative intergroup contact with both positively predict denigrative coping.

H6a: Participants higher in unawareness avoidance and denigrative coping will (a) allocate a lower bonus and (b) allocate fewer non-monetary benefits.

H6b Participants higher in denigrative coping will evaluate the person engaging in diversity work as being (a) less competent and (b) less warm compared to those lower on these characteristics.

For the purposes of this dissertation, examination of perceived status demotion and social identity threat will not be directly measured or examined. This is primarily due to the fact that measures of social identity threat are thought to be widely affected by reactivity and may provoke defensive reactions in which those who may hold a high level of identity threat rate themselves as being low on said measure (see Scheepers & Elleners, 2005 for discussion).

In the next section, I will consider the degree to which engaging in diversity work may be valued differently and considered to be differentially fair depending on the racial identity of the person who is engaging in the work.

Differential Valuation of Work by Race

Devaluation of work and wage gaps for in-role work have often been discussed in the context of gender (Reid, 1998) and race (Patten, 2016). White women make an average of 79 cents for every dollar earned by their male counterparts. Asian women (90 cents on the dollar), Black women (62 cents on the dollar), American Indian women (57 cents on the dollar) and Latina women (54 cents on the dollar) all receive differential payment for their work that is differentiated from the amount earned by both White men and women (National Partnership for Women and Families, 2020). Similarly, White men out earn Black and Latino men (Patten, 2016).

Research on executives and employees engaging in diversity valuing behavior sheds further light on the nuanced impact of engaging in diversity-related work specifically as women and members of marginalized racial identities. Hekman et al. (2017) found in both a lab and a

field study that when women and members of marginalized racial identities at the executive level engage in diversity valuing behaviors (e.g., behaviors that increase diversity in their organization through having an equal number of men and women in the organization or a percentage of specific racial groups commensurate with the demographic percentage in the company's surrounding region), they are perceived as less competent and rated as performing worse compared to those who do not engage in diversity valuing behaviors. White men who were executives in their study received no such negative penalty to their perceptions for engaging in diversity work. As mentioned previously, Heckman et al., (2017) posited that these perceptions of individuals from marginalized backgrounds engaging in diversity valuing behavior may be due to aligning themselves with a more stigmatized identity thus making said identity more salient. The salience of the stigmatized identity was argued to be related to negative perceptions of women and marginalized racial identities who engage in diversity work.

Engaging in diversity work as a member of a marginalized racial group may be perceived differently because the work may be seen as more beneficial to that person as opposed to a person in the majority group. Recent research by Gardner and Ryan (2020) revealed that when diversity initiative promoters were Black, they were perceived as more self-interested compared to White promoters. This, in turn, predicted less positive attitudes and less support towards the initiative when the promoter was Black as opposed to White. In a follow up study, they found that when diversity initiative promoters share a demographic characteristic with the group they were promoting, they were perceived as being more self-interested than individuals who were advocating for an initiative for a demographic group outside of their own group. Gardner and Ryan (2020) frame their work in the context of Attribution Analysis of Persuasion Theory (Eagly & Chaiken, 1975; Eagly, Wood & Chaiken, 1978) which states that when a communicator

advocates for a position that they are not expected to given their characteristics or due to elements of the situation, there is a stronger perception that the message said individual is trying to convey is closer to reality while the reverse is said to be true when a communicator advocates for a position that would be expected based on their characteristics.

Although this theory has been used to explain persuasion of messages, the underlying mechanism may be relevant for perceptions of diversity work and those who engage in said work. Indeed, those who are demographically underrepresented engaging in diversity work may be perceived as more self-interested, particularly if they are engaging in this work for their specific demographic group. This perception of self-interest may then lead White employees to devalue diversity work in these instances and may result in White employees implicitly devaluing the work more broadly. This may also impact allocation decisions towards individuals from marginalized identities who engage in diversity work such that they receive lower degrees of recognition or compensation for this work because the work already benefits them. However, when White employees engage in diversity work on behalf of individuals from marginalized racial groups in organizations, the fact that this is considered to be less self-interest based may result in individuals in this racial group being allocated more monetary and non-monetary resources. Considering all things together, it is thus hypothesized that:

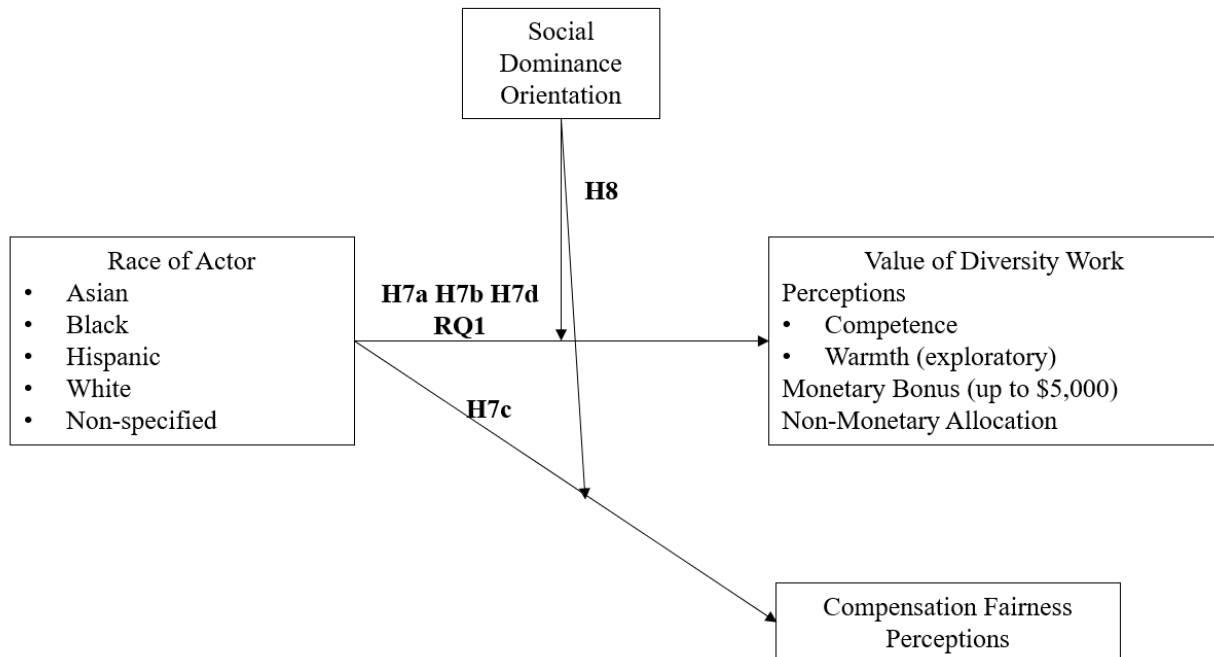
H7: Individuals will (a) allocate a higher bonus, (b) allocate more non-monetary benefits (c) will evaluate compensating for that work to be more fair and (d) evaluate the target as more competent when the person engaging in diversity work is White compared to other racial groups.

In addition, it may also be fruitful to consider whether the warmth perceptions of the person engaging in diversity work differs as a result of race, though this research question will be exploratory as directionality is unclear at present:

RQ 1: Do warmth perceptions of the target engaging in diversity work differ as a result of the target's race?

Figure 5.

Examining the Moderating Effect of Social Dominance Orientation on the Relationship Between Race and Fairness Perceptions and Work Outcomes



Social Dominance Orientation as a Moderator

Social dominance orientation (SDO) represents the degree to which an individual prefers group-based inequality and is comfortable with using force to maintain the inequitable status quo (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). This belief has been linked to higher levels of ethnocentrism, anti-Black racism and being in opposition to policies and practices that promote racial equity (Jost & Thompson, 2004; Pratto et al., 1994; Sidanius, Pratto & Bobo, 1996). Due to the links between

SDO and attitudes that run counter to the purposes of diversity work, it is possible that individuals who are higher in SDO will be less likely to view diversity work as valuable and more likely to perceive that it is unfair to compensate for such work.

H8: The relationship between diversity work and monetary allocations, non-monetary allocations and fairness perceptions will be moderated by SDO such that those who are higher in SDO will (a) allocate a lower bonus, (b) allocate fewer non-monetary benefits, (c) will evaluate compensating for that work to be less fair, and (d) will evaluate the target as less competent compared to individuals lower in SDO.

In review, the goal of this series of dissertation studies is to examine the effects of engaging in extra-role work in organizations, discover whether diversity work is valued differently compared to other OCBOs, and consider factors that may affect the degree to which diversity work is valued differently. For a summary of studies, see Table 3.

Table 3.
Table of Dissertation Studies

Hypotheses	
Study 1	H1: Individuals will (a) allocate a higher bonus, (b) allocate more non-monetary benefits and (c) perceive compensating the extra-role behavior to be more fair when they are rating affiliation-oriented OCBOs compared to challenge-oriented OCBOs and diversity work.

Table 3. (cont'd)

Study 2	<p>H2: Racial minority status will moderate the relationship between diversity work and work outcomes such that individuals who are racial minorities will (a) more time since their last raise and (b) more time since their last promotion when they engage in diversity work compared to White workers.</p> <p>H3: Individuals engaging in diversity work will have (a) a longer time period since their last raise and (b) a longer time period since their last promotion compared to those who engage in other forms of OCBs.</p>
Study 3	<p>H4: Low intergroup contact and endorsing a colorblind orientation will both positively predict unawareness avoidance.</p> <p>H5: Low positive intergroup contact and high negative intergroup contact with both positively predict denigrative coping.</p> <p>H6a: Participants higher in unawareness avoidance and denigrative coping will (a) allocate a lower bonus, (b) allocate fewer non-monetary benefits and c) will evaluate compensating for diversity work to be less fair.</p> <p>H6b Participants higher in denigrative coping will evaluate the person engaging in diversity work as being (a) less competent and (b) less warm compared to those lower on these characteristics.</p> <p>H7: Individuals will (a) allocate a higher bonus, (b) allocate more non-monetary benefits, (c) will evaluate compensating for that work to be more fair (d) evaluate the target as more competent when the person engaging in diversity work is White compared to other racial groups.</p> <p>H8: The relationship between diversity work and monetary allocations, non-monetary allocations and fairness perceptions will be moderated by SDO such that those who are higher in SDO will (a) allocate a lower bonus, (b) allocate fewer non-monetary benefits, (c) will evaluate compensating for that work to be less fair, and (d) will evaluate the target as less competent compared to individuals lower in SDO.</p>

STUDY 1 METHOD

The purpose of the first study was to examine whether there are differences in perceptions between diversity work, affiliation-oriented OCBs and challenge-oriented OCBs broadly.

Participants

For the first study, 328 participants were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk). Screening questions were implemented to determine whether interested participants qualified. All participants indicated that they were at least 18 years of age, American citizens who had been living in the U.S. for the past five years and were fluent in English. All participants also indicated that they worked more than 30 hours per week and were not self-employed. Participants who met all of these criteria were selected to participate in this study. Mturk participants received \$1.65 for their participation in this 10-minute survey which is slightly higher than a rate of rate of \$9.65 per hour for their work in accordance with the State of Michigan's minimum wage.

The 328 participants ($M_{\text{age}} = 41$, $SD = 11.90$) were all full-time employees. With consideration to race and ethnicity, 73.8% were White American, 10.1% were Black American, 7.9% were Asian American, 5.2% were Hispanic or Latino American, 1.2% belonged to two or more racial/ethnic identity groups, 0.9% were American Indian and 0.9% indicated that their identification was not listed and specified in the blank (e.g., human). With consideration to sexual orientation, 88.4% of participants identified as heterosexual, 3% as gay or lesbian, 5.5% as bisexual, 0.6% as asexual 0.3% as pansexual and 1.9% identified as asexual, and 2.1% of participants indicated that they preferred not to answer. With consideration to gender identity, 50.5% identified as men, 48.8% as women, and 0.9% preferred not to answer with no

participants identifying as transgender or non-binary. On average, participants made 60,000-69,000 USD annually and 67.3% completed their bachelor's degree or higher.

Extra Role Work Evaluation Measures

Work Type Manipulation. Participants were randomly assigned to view one of three vignette manipulations depicting an individual engaging in either diversity work, affiliation-oriented OCBOs or challenge-oriented OCBOs. These manipulation types were developed using the item content from OCBO measures and the diversity work measure created for this study (Appendix A).

Evaluation Questions. To examine perceptions of the actor in the vignette, participants completed competence and warmth perception questions. These 12 items were drawn from a pre-existing questionnaire by Fiske et al.'s (2002). Instructions were adapted such that participants were asked about the specific individual portrayed in the scenario rather than about a group of people: "To what extent do you think that the following attributes describe this person?" Using a "1" (Strongly Disagree) to "7" (Strongly Agree), participants rated the actor in the scenario on the following attributes representing competence: Capable, Competent, Efficient, Skillful, Intelligent, Confident; and warmth: Friendly, Well-Intentioned, Trustworthy, Warm, Good-Natured, Sincere. Responses to each subscale were averaged together to create indices of competence and warmth respectively. Higher scores indicated a greater degree of that evaluative perception. These measures exhibited sufficient internal consistency (competence $\alpha = .95$; warmth $\alpha = .95$)

Monetary Allocation. To assess the numerical value that participants place on diversity work, a monetary allocation slider was presented. Participants were asked where they felt the actor completing the extra-role work should receive a monetary bonus (yes/no). To

operationalize value, participants were asked to indicate the amount of bonus monetary compensation they believed should be given to the actors in the vignettes based on the additional extra-role work they engage in. The slider response options ranged from zero dollars to \$5,000 dollars on a continuous scale. The annual salary of the actor in the vignette (\$55,000) was provided as a baseline.

Non-Monetary Allocation. To assess the non-numerical value that participants place on diversity work, two sliders were presented. Participants were asked where they felt the actor completing the extra-role work should receive a non-monetary bonus (yes/no). To operationalize value, participants were asked to indicate the number of days of paid time off per month on a slider from 1-12, and the number of paid lunch passes per month on a slider from 1-12.

Compensation Fairness Perception. To assess the degree to which participants find compensating each of the forms of extra-role work, I adapted the distributive justice subscale from Colquitt (2001) and adapted a single item-stem from Edwards et al., (2006). For the former, participants were asked to respond to four items using a “1” (To a small extent) to “5” (to a large extent) scale. An example item includes: “Does compensating this work reflect the effort put into it?” Responses to these four items were averaged together to create an index of compensation fairness perceptions with higher scores indicating a greater degree of perceived fairness. These items demonstrated sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .93$). For the single item measure, participants were asked to read the following stem: “Some people believe it is more fair or less fair to provide payment for work done in the organization outside of one’s official job—we want to know how much you personally feel this is fair for the work described above,” and asked them to respond to this item using a “1” (Completely Unfair) to “7” (Completely Fair) scale. Responses to this

single item measure served as a secondary index of perceived fairness of compensating extra-role work with higher scores indicating a greater degree of perceived fairness (Appendix B).

Exploratory Individual Differences Measures

Diversity Work Questions. To learn more about the diversity work participants engage in, 10 items were used to assess the degree to which participants engage in diversity work. Item content was drawn from my literature review on diversity work in organizations with a specific focus on work towards the organization rather than the individual (e.g., Leslie, 2019; Ruggs et al., 2018; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1998). Using a “1” (Never) to “5” (Frequently) scale, participants responded to items such as: “Led or co-led a diversity training event or workshop.” These items demonstrated sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .96$). These items were created for this study (Appendix C).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Towards the Organization (OCBO). In order to assess the degree to which participants engage in affiliation-oriented OCBOs, 13 items from the 42 item OCB checklist (Fox, et al., 2011) and the eight-item organizational subscale of the OCBO measure by Lee and Allen (2002) were administered (Appendix D). Participants responded to the first set of items using a “1” (Never) to “5” (Every Day) scale. Example items include: I... “came in early or stayed late without pay to complete a project or task,” and “drove, escorted, or entertained company guests, clients, or out-of-town employees.” For the second measure, participants responded to the item set using a “1” (Never) to “7” (Always) scale. An example item includes: “Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.” Responses to each item were averaged together to create two indices of affiliation oriented OCBOs with the Lee and Allen (2002) measure included to be a more specific index. Higher scores on these

measures indicate engaging in these behaviors to a higher degree. Both measures demonstrated sufficient reliability (Fox et al. $\alpha = .91$; Lee and Allen $\alpha = .93$).

Challenge-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Voice). Challenge-oriented OCBOs were measured using the most prominent conceptualization in the literature (Makenzie et al., 2011) though voice behaviors (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). Participants responded to an edited set of six items using a “1” (Strongly Disagree) to “7” (Strongly Agree). Example items include: “I speak up and encouraged others at work to get involved in issues that affect employees,” and “I communicate my opinions about work issues to others even if my opinion is different from those around me.” Responses to each item were averaged together to create an index of challenge oriented OCBOs. Higher scores on this measure indicate engaging in these behaviors to a higher degree. This measure demonstrated sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .94$) and is available in Appendix E.

Additional Individual Difference Measures

Social Dominance Orientation (SDO). To measure the degree to which individuals prefer hierarchy within society and are not bothered by the oppression of low-status groups, the Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) scale was implemented (Pratto et al., 1994). Participants responded to 16 items using a “1” (Very Negative) to “7” (Very Positive) scale. Example items include: “Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups,” and “Inferior groups should stay in their place.” Responses to each item were averaged together to create a single index of social dominance orientation. This measure demonstrated sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .96$). Higher scores are indicative of a greater degree of social dominance orientation. This measure is available in Appendix F.

Demographic Questionnaire. Lastly, a demographic questionnaire asking about the participants' age, race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, education and occupation were administered (Appendix G). Exploratory MANOVAs were conducted to see whether there were significant differences between demographic groups on key variables (see Table 4). While the overall MANOVA was not significant for gender comparisons on the set of variables (Wilks Lambda = .95, $F(12, 312) = 1.29, p = .23$) the test of between subjects revealed that women perceived the person engaging in extra-role work to be more competent compared to men. The MANOVA comparing employees from marginalized racial groups and White employees on key variables was significant (Pillai's Trace = .13, $F(12, 312) = 3.91, p < .01$). The test of between subjects effects revealed that White employees engaged in more AOCBOs and COCBOs compared to employees from marginalized groups while employees from marginalized racial groups engaged in more diversity work and allocated more paid time off to the person engaging in extra-role work compared to White employees. The MANOVA comparing younger workers (39 and younger) to older workers (40 +) was also significant (Wilks Lambda = .92, $F(12, 314) = 2.41, p < .01$). Younger workers engaged in more diversity work and allocated a greater number of paid lunches and paid time off compared to older workers.

Procedure

Participants completed a series of prescreening questions in order to determine whether they qualified for the study (Appendix H). Qualifying participants were then forwarded on to the informed consent (Appendix I). Participants were randomly assigned to one of three work type conditions and asked to complete monetary and non-monetary allocation questions about the work type and the fairness perception questions and several questions regarding any extra-role work they engaged in. They were also asked to complete a measure of SDO. Lastly, participants

were asked to complete demographic questions before receiving their payment code before being debriefed (Appendix J).

STUDY 1 RESULTS

Data Cleaning

In order to ensure the quality of the data a series of data cleaning steps were completed before analysis. Four-hundred and eighty-nine participants submitted a response to the survey. Participants were removed from the data for the following reasons: 107 participants falsified their responses to the screening questions by entering the survey multiple times and provided different responses in an attempt to qualify for the screening, 50 participants provided a questionable response to our qualitative questions (e.g., gibberish response, non-response, copying and pasting the question into the blank), and four participants failed one of the two attention check questions. In total, 328 participants remained for analysis (see Table 4).

Table 4.*MANOVAs Between Subjects Results for Study 1 Perception and Fairness Outcomes by Demographic Variables*

	Men	Women	White	Marginalized Racial Groups	39 or Younger	40 or Older
	N = 165	N = 160	N = 242	N = 83	N = 173	N = 154
Competence Perceptions	5.98* (1.04)	6.24* (0.97)	6.17 (0.87)	6.02 (1.22)	6.04 (1.07)	6.19 (0.95)
Warmth Perceptions	5.95 (1.01)	6.06 (1.08)	6.05 (0.94)	5.95 (1.18)	5.99 (1.04)	6.02 (1.05)
Distributive Justice	3.97 (1.06)	4.12 (1.06)	4.11 (1.03)	3.88 (1.09)	4.06 (0.96)	4.00 (1.18)
General Fairness	5.69 (1.48)	5.81 (1.68)	5.81 (1.56)	5.64 (1.63)	5.82 (1.38)	5.68 (1.78)
Diversity Work	1.98 (1.13)	1.83 (1.00)	1.81** (1.00)	2.20** (1.21)	2.09** (1.14)	1.70** (0.94)
AOCBO Fox	2.62 (0.83)	2.56 (0.77)	2.64* (0.77)	2.44* (0.87)	2.61 (0.84)	2.55 (0.76)
AOCBO Lee	4.44 (1.55)	4.51 (1.57)	4.63** (1.43)	4.10** (1.83)	4.41 (1.58)	4.54 (1.55)
COCBO	5.05 (1.40)	5.04 (1.55)	5.21** (1.37)	4.63** (1.61)	4.90 (1.42)	5.19 (1.54)
SDO	2.42 (1.23)	2.27 (1.33)	2.38 (1.33)	2.21 (1.09)	2.32 (1.22)	2.36 (1.35)
Monetary Allocation	2001.38 (1539.03)	1722.86 (1313.93)	1855.95 (1375.86)	1960.77 (1626.41)	1998.24 (1440.02)	1715.60 (1444.17)
Paid Lunches	3.73 (3.62)	3.16 (3.20)	3.27 (3.24)	4.01 (3.88)	3.83* (3.33)	3.04* (3.53)
Paid Time Off	2.84 (2.88)	2.49 (2.59)	2.45** (2.51)	3.39** (3.23)	3.17** (2.90)	2.12** (2.47)

Note: * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, AOCBO = affiliation oriented organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization, COBCO = challenge oriented organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization, SDO = social dominance orientation, F value refer to those of the full corrected model; Means are presented in the table with standard deviation in parentheses; Means not sharing a superscript are significant different from each other.

In reviewing the descriptive statistics (see Table 5), an expected pattern of correlations occurred. The ACOBO measures were correlated highly as expected ($r = .61$), general fairness and distributive justice were also highly correlated ($r = .81$), and the warmth and competence perceptions of the person engaging in extra-role work were also correlated highly ($r = .81$) suggesting an overall, positive (or negative) evaluation. The proposed moderator SDO was inversely correlated with all perceptions and outcomes though its relationship with paid time off allocated was non-significant. Interestingly, SDO was positively related to participants engaging in AOCBOs as measured using the Fox et al. (2011) measure but inversely and non-significantly related to participants engaging in AOCBOs as measured using the Lee et al., (2002) measure.

Table 5.
Descriptive Statistics for Study 1

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Competence	6.11	1.01	[.95]											
2. Warmth	6.01	1.04	.81**	[.94]										
3. Distributive Justice	4.04	1.07	.54**	.49**	[.93]									
4. General Fairness	5.75	1.58	.45**	.42**	.81**	[N/A]								
5. Diversity Work	1.90	1.07	-.01	.03	.04	.03	[.96]							
6. AOCBO Fox	2.59	.80	.06	.07	.09	.07	.54**	[.91]						
7. AOCBO Lee	4.47	1.57	.23**	.23**	.18**	.10	.43**	.61**	[.93]					
8. COCBO	5.04	1.48	.16**	.15**	.16**	.11*	.21**	.49**	.72**	[.94]				
9. SDO	2.34	1.28	-.22**	-.19**	-.26**	-.23**	.11	.16**	-.11	-.15**	[.95]			
10. Paid Lunch	3.47	3.45	.03	.11*	.20**	.24**	.19**	.10	.03	.01	-.12*	[N/A]		
11. Monetary	1867.07	1444.89	.21**	.28**	.44**	.44**	.19**	.05	.12*	.08	-.15**	.38**	[N/A]	
12. Paid Time Off	2.70	2.78	.03	.10	.14**	.19**	.36**	.16**	.12*	.04	-.07	.52**	.37**	[N/A]

Note: M = mean, SD = standard deviation, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, reliability presented in brackets on the diagonal. AOCBO = affiliation oriented organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization, COBCO = challenge oriented organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization, SDO = social dominance orientation. Response scale ranges: Competence (1-7), Warmth (1-7), Distributive Justice (1-5), General Fairness (1-7), Diversity Work (1-5), AOCBO Fox (1-5), AOCBO Lee (1-5), COCBO (1-7), SDO (1-7), Paid Lunch (0-12), Monetary Allocation (0-5000), Paid Time Off = (0-12).

Data Analysis

In order to test whether allocation related outcomes and competence perceptions differ as a result of the type of work, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted (see Table 6). The type of extra-role work (Affiliation OCBOs, Challenge OCBOs and Diversity Work) was entered into the model as an independent variable and the allocation-related outcomes, competence and warmth perceptions and the fairness perceptions were entered as dependent variables. The overall MANOVA was significant (Wilks' Lambda = .91; $F(12, 642) = 2.68$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$, $p < .01$) suggesting that the outcomes differed depending on the work condition. Examining the between subjects effects reveal that there were significant differences between groups on warmth perceptions ($F(2, 325) = 7.90$, $p < .01$), the paid lunch allocation ($F(2, 325) = 3.50$, $p = .03$), and the monetary allocation ($F(2, 325) = 5.47$, $p < .01$). To determine which mean differences were driving the effects, a Tukey Post-Hoc test was conducted (see Table 6).

Table 6.*MANOVA Between Subjects Results for Study 1 Perception and Fairness Outcomes by Extra-Role Work Condition*

	Affiliative	Challenge	Diversity Work	Total	Partial Eta ²	F	Sig.
Dependent Variable	N=113	N=105	N=110	N= 328			
Competence Perceptions	6.20 ^a (0.94)	5.99 ^a (1.03)	6.13 ^a (1.07)	6.11 (1.01)	.01	1.28	.28
Warmth Perceptions	6.24 ^a (0.89)	5.70 ^b (1.04)	6.05 ^a (1.12)	6.01 (1.04)	.04	7.90	<.01
Distributive Justice	4.16 ^a (1.00)	3.87 ^a (1.13)	4.06 ^a (1.07)	4.04 (1.07)	.01	2.02	.13
General Fairness	5.90 ^a (1.34)	5.48 ^a (1.76)	5.86 ^a (1.60)	5.75 (1.58)	.02	2.41	.09
Monetary Allocation	2039.60 ^a (1363.16)	1487.90 ^b (1378.57)	2051.76 ^a (1528.64)	1867.07 (1444.89)	.03	5.47	<.01
Paid Lunches	3.63 ^{ab} (3.47)	2.77 ^a (2.88)	3.97 ^b (3.82)	3.47 (3.45)	.02	3.50	.03
Paid Time Off	2.96 ^a (2.85)	2.19 ^a (2.50)	2.92 ^a (2.90)	2.70 (2.78)	.02	2.61	.08

Note: Partial Eta Squared scores and F value refer to those of the full corrected model; Means are presented in the table with standard deviation in parentheses; Means not sharing a superscript are significant different from each other.

This analysis revealed that participants allocated a significantly greater number of paid lunches to the person engaging in extra-role work in the diversity work condition ($M = 3.97$, $SD = 3.82$) compared to the challenge OCB condition ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 2.88$) while neither group differed significantly from the affiliative OCB condition ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 3.47$). It also revealed that participants in the challenge OCBO condition ($M = 1487.90$, $SD = 1378.57$) allocated a significantly lower monetary bonus compared to both the affiliation OBCO condition ($M = 2039.60$, $SD = 1363.16$) and the diversity work condition ($M = 2051.76$, $SD = 1528.64$) though, these latter two conditions were not significantly different from each other. Lastly, this analysis revealed that those in the challenge OCBO condition ($M = 5.70$, $SD = 1.04$) rated the person engaging in the extra-role work as being significantly less warm than those in both the affiliation OCBO condition ($M = 6.24$, $SD = .89$) and the diversity work condition ($M = 6.05$, $SD = 1.12$), though these latter two conditions were not significantly different from each other. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

In order to examine whether participant individual differences influence the relationships between the work types and the outcomes, a series of moderated multiple regression analysis were conducted. The condition type was dummy coded and served as the predictor with affiliation oriented OCBOs serving as the reference variable, SDO was mean centered and was entered in as the moderator and the outcome variables were each entered into their own model (Table 7).

Table 7.*Moderation of Social Dominance Orientation on the Relationship Between Extra-Role Work Condition and Outcomes*

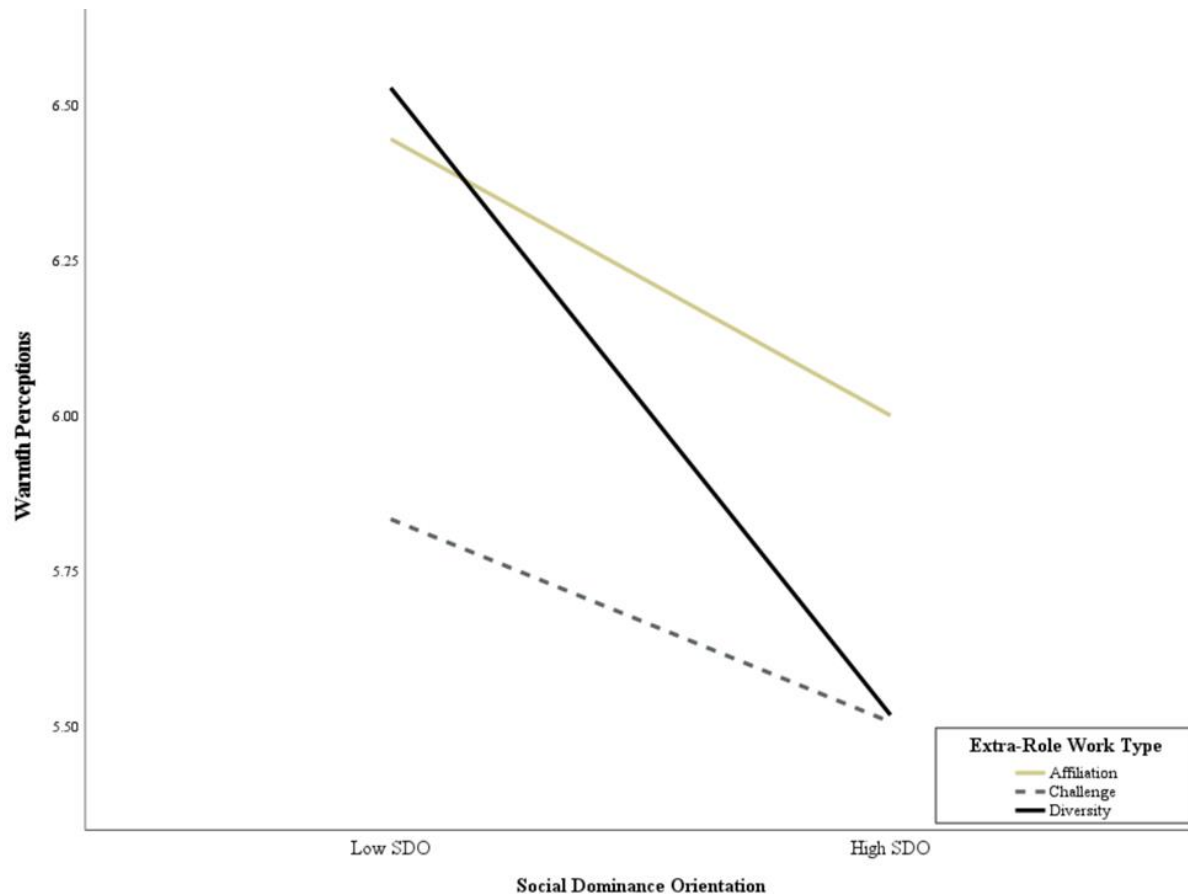
	Competence	Warmth	Distributive Justice	General Fairness	Monetary Allocation	Paid Lunch	Paid Time Off
Step 1							
Dummy Coded Diversity	-.06 (.13)	-.11 (.13)	-.07 (.14)	-.04 (.21)	-.01 (189.50)	.04 (.46)	-.01 (.37)
Dummy Coded Challenge	-.09 (.13)	-.24** (.14)	-.12* (.14)	-.12* (.21)	-.18** (191.23)	-.12 (.46)	-.13* (.38)
R ²	.01	.05**	.01	.02**	.03**	.02*	.02
p of R ² Change	.28	<.01**	.13	.09	<.01**	.03*	.08
Step 2							
Mean Centered SDO	-.10 (.07)	-.10 (.07)	-.21* (.07)	-.15 (.10)	-.12 (96.75)	-.21* (.23)	-.12 (.19)
R ²	.05**	.08**	.08**	.07**	.05**	.03*	.02
p of R ² Change	<.01**	<.01**	<.01**	<.01**	.01*	.04*	.22
Step 3							
Diversity x SDO	-.14* (.11)	-.16* (.11)	-.11(.11)	-.15* (.17)	-.10 (157.21)	.01 (.38)	.05 (.31)
Challenge x SDO	-.07 (.10)	-.01 (.10)	.01(.10)	-.01 (.15)	.05 (141.04)	.14 (.34)	.04 (.28)
R ²	.07**	.10**	.09**	.08**	.06**	.05**	.02
p of R ² Change	.11	.046*	.19	.08	.15	.12	.75

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. SDO = Social Dominance Orientation. All values represent final model Betas from step 3. Values in parentheses are the standard errors of the regression estimates. Step 2 is a regression in which mean centered social dominance orientation is predicting outcome variables. The reference group = 0 is affiliation oriented OCBO.

SDO moderated the relationship between extra-role work and warmth perceptions such that individuals with higher levels of SDO in the diversity work condition rated the person as were less warm than those who were high in SDO in the affiliation OCBO condition. Those with lower levels of SDO in the diversity work and affiliation OCBO conditions rated the person in their scenario as similarly warm (see Figure 6) which partially aligns with hypothesized predictions. Though SDO did not moderate the relationship between condition type and any of the other outcomes in the present study there was a significant and negative main effect of SDO on all outcomes with the exception of paid time off.

Figure 6.

Interaction of Extra-Role Work Condition on the Relationship Between Participant SDO and Warmth Perceptions, Study 1



To see whether participant engagement in extra-role behavior influenced the relationship between the extra-role work conditions and the outcomes, additional, exploratory moderated regression analyses were conducted. Extra-role work was dummy coded with affiliation oriented OCBOs serving as the reference variable. Types of participant extra-role work (e.g., AOCBO Fox, AOCBO Lee, COCBO and Diversity Work) were all mean centered as the moderators. These moderators were entered into their own models along with perspective outcomes. Fox AOCBO moderated the relationship between extra-role work and competence such that those who engaged in high levels of AOCBOs in the challenge OCBO condition, rated the person as being less competent compared to those in the affiliation OCBO condition while those who engaged in low levels of AOCBOs in the challenge OCBO condition rated the person as being more competent than those in the affiliation OCBO condition ($R^2 = .05$, $p < .01$, $F \text{ Change} = 6.56$, $p < .01$, $\beta = -.21$, $SE_b = .17$, $p < .01$). Fox AOCBO moderated the relationship between extra-role work and warmth such that those who engaged in higher levels of AOCBOs in the challenge OCBO condition rated the person as being less warm compared to those in the affiliation OCBO condition ($R^2 = .06$, $p < .01$, $F \text{ Change} = 5.16$, $p < .01$, $\beta = -.14$, $SE_b = .18$, $p < .01$). Those low on AOCBOs in the challenge OCBO condition also rated the person as less warm compared to the affiliation OCBO condition, but this difference was less stark. For figures detailing these relationships, see Figures 7 and 8. Participant responses to the Lee ACOBO measure, COCBOs and diversity work did not moderate the relationships between the conditions and variables examined in this study.

Figure 7.

Interaction of Extra-Role Work Condition on the Relationship Between Participant AOCBOs and Competence Perceptions, Study 1

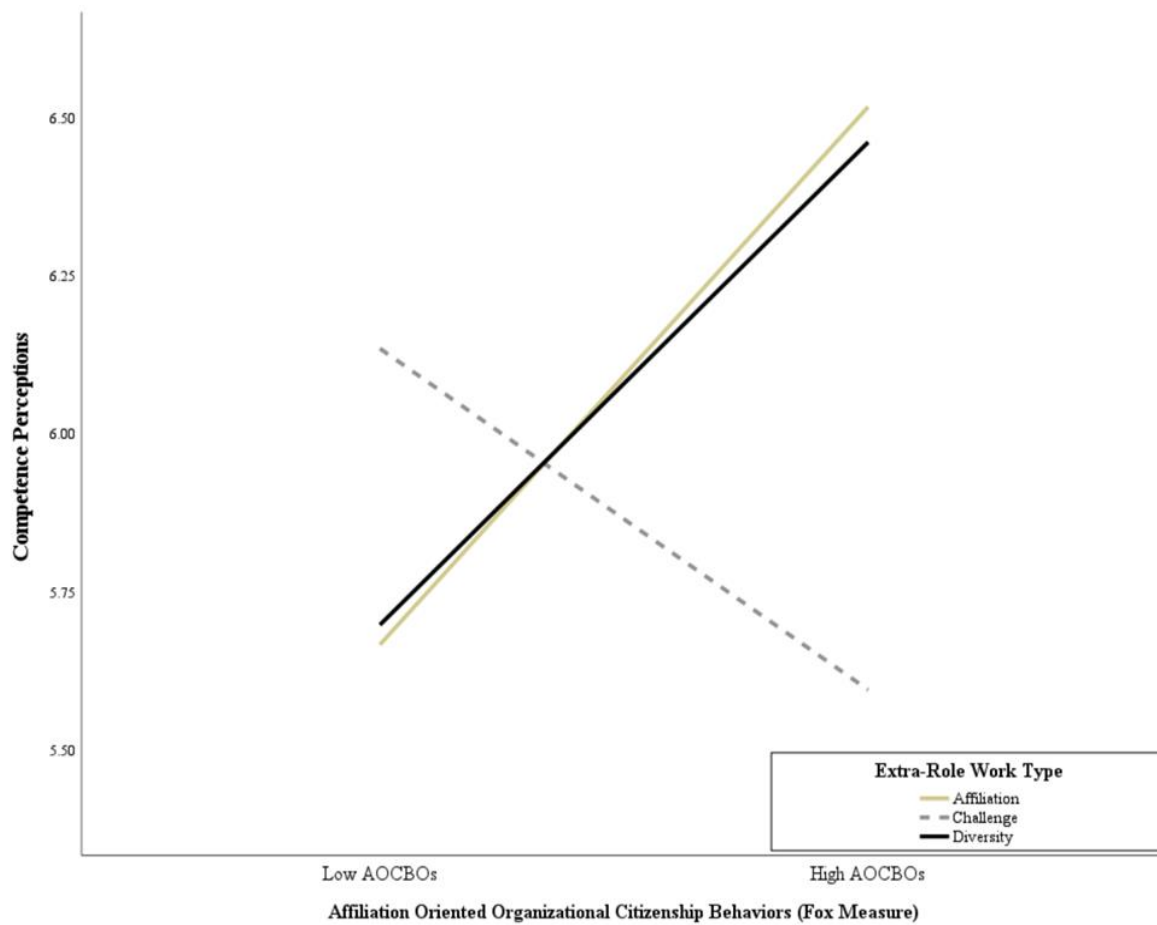
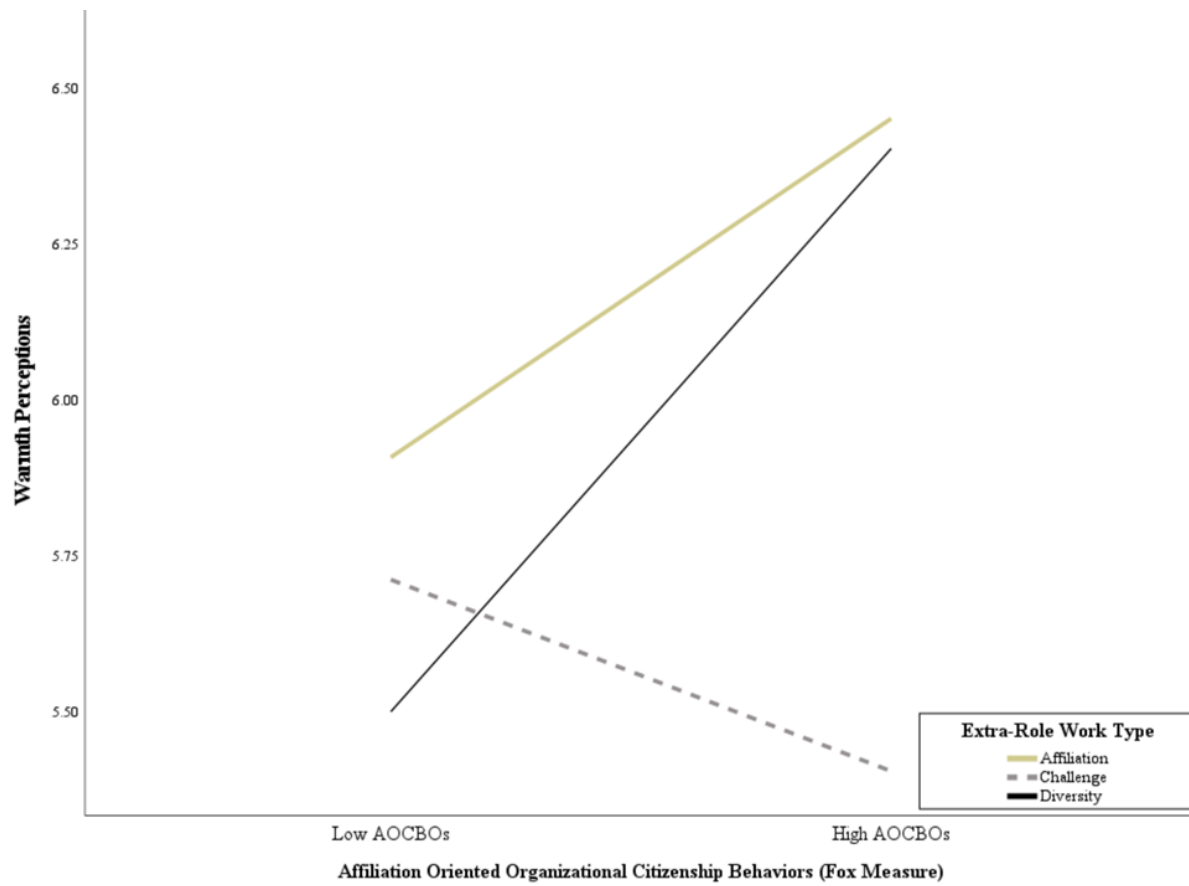


Figure 8.

Interaction of Extra-Role Work Condition on the Relationship Between Participant AOCBOs and Warmth Perceptions, Study 1



STUDY 1 DISCUSSION

Contrary to hypotheses, diversity work was not found to be perceived as significantly different from affiliation oriented OCBOs in terms of actor perceptions and valuation. Rather, affiliation oriented OCBOs and diversity work were found to differ from challenge oriented OCBOs. This may have occurred because the diversity measure created for this study featured forms of diversity work that, in hindsight, may be more affiliation-oriented compared to the challenge-oriented forms of diversity work (see Table 2). While there were no differences between the three groups in terms of competence perceptions, justice and fairness perceptions and the amount of paid time off allocated, participants in the challenge oriented OCBO condition perceived the actor as being significantly less warm and allocated a lower monetary bonus than those in both the affiliation oriented OCBO condition and the diversity work condition. Participants in the diversity work condition allocated a higher number of paid lunches to those in the diversity work condition than those in the challenge OCBO condition but this amount was not significantly different than the amount participants allocated in the affiliation oriented OCBO condition. The relationship between the extra-role work conditions and perception outcomes was moderated by SDO and the participant's own engagement in extra-role work. Specifically, individuals higher in SDO in the affiliation oriented OCBOs condition rated the person as warmer than those who were higher in SDO in the diversity work condition while those lower in SDO rated the individuals engaging in extra-role work in the diversity work and affiliation OCBOs conditions as being similarly warm. Individuals who engaged in higher levels of ACOBOs (using the Fox measure) in the affiliation OCBO condition rated the person as more competent compared to those in the challenge OCBO condition while those who engaged in lower levels of AOCBOs in the challenge OCBO condition rated the person as more competent

than those with lower levels of AOCBOs in the affiliation OCBO condition. Individuals who engaged in higher levels of ACOBOs (using the Fox measure) in the affiliation OCBO condition rated the person as warmer compared to those in the challenge OCBO condition and while this pattern held for those who engaged in lower levels of AOCBOs in the challenge OCBO condition, it was less stark.

These results suggest that, overall, affiliation-oriented diversity work may be perceived as more similar to affiliation oriented OCBOs than challenge oriented OCBOs and that this work is not inherently valued less than other forms of extra-role work.

STUDY 2 METHOD

The purpose of the second study was to examine the effect of doing extra-role work (e.g., affiliation-oriented OCBs, challenge-oriented OCBs and diversity work) on employees' work attitudes and career-related outcomes.

Participants

For the second study, 211 participants were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk). All participants were at least 18 years of age, American citizens who have been living in the U.S. for the past five years and were fluent in English. Participants also reported working more than 30 hours per week and none could be self-employed or work in an official DEI role to qualify. Participants who met all of these criteria were selected to participate in this study. For this study, all participants also indicated that they engaged in at least one form of extra-role work (diversity initiatives at work or affiliative or challenge related OCBOs) in their workplace. Participants who indicated that they engaged in these efforts outside of work were excluded from participation. Lastly, I engaged in purposive sampling such that half of the participants were members of marginalized racial groups and were also a racial minority in their place of work. Mturk participants received \$1.95 for their participation in this 12-minute survey which was slightly higher than a rate of \$9.65 per hour for their work in accordance with the State of Michigan minimum wage.

The 211 participants ($M_{\text{age}} = 37.56$, $SD = 11.78$) were all full-time employees. With consideration to race and ethnicity, 51.2% were White American, 18.0% were Black American, 11.8% were Asian American, 7.1% were Hispanic or Latino American, 8.5% belong to two or more racial/ethnic identity groups, 2.4% were American Indian and 0.9% were Middle Eastern American. With consideration to sexual orientation, 86.3% of participants identified as

heterosexual, 1.9% as gay or lesbian, 8.1% as bisexual, 0.5% as asexual 1.4% as pansexual, and 1.9% of participants indicated that they preferred not to answer. With consideration to gender identity, 41.2% identified as men, 57.8% as women, and 0.9% preferred not to answer with no participants identifying as transgender or non-binary. On average, participants made 60,000-69,000 USD annually and 71.1% completed their bachelor's degree or higher.

Measures

Qualitative qualification check. To ensure that participants qualify for the study, an open-ended question was asked. Participants were asked to detail the extra-role work they engaged in at work and provide examples (Appendix H). This was used as an additional screening technique to detect bot responses as well. Participants were given the option to select which form of extra-role work they engaged in (Diversity work, AOCBOs COCBOs, or more than one). An example of an AOCBO response is: "I have started up a group where workers can come together and discuss their conflicts openly in a safe place. It's an option to work out conflicts outside of going to HR." An example of a COCBO response is: "During one of my team's section meetings, I voiced my concern over a specific way we were handling permit applications in the office. My supervisor explained how we would split up permit applications and I suggested a different method. Essentially, my method was to allow people that were more familiar with the type of project to select which applications they wanted as opposed to being randomly assigned." An example of diversity work is: "Volunteered to sit on a panel to answer questions about diversity in the workplace. As 1 of 5 African Americans in my department, I saw it as an opportunity to speak to and address racial issues some had questions about (BLM, political issues, stereotypes, etc.)." And lastly, an example of engaging in more than one behavior is: "I'm constantly a cheerleader at work, or a "champion for greatness" as we like to

call it. I'm a trainer and enjoy following my rookie graduates and their progress. I've suggested a few changes to procedures, most of which have been implemented.”

Quantitative qualification check. To ensure that participants qualify for the study, a follow up quantitative question was asked. This question asked participants to select where they were engaging in the extra-role work, they described in the previous open-ended question. If any answer other than “at work” was selected, participants were directed to the end of the survey (Appendix H).

Diversity Work Questions. To learn more about the diversity work participants engage in, 10 items from Study 1 were used to assess the degree to which participants engage in diversity work. (Appendix C). This measure demonstrated sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .94$).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Towards the Organization (OCBO). In order to assess the degree to which participants engage in affiliation-oriented OCBOs, 13 items from the OCB checklist (Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler, 2011) and the eight-item organizational subscale of the OCBO measure by Lee and Allen (2002) from Study 1 were administered (Appendix D). Higher scores on these measures indicate engaging in these behaviors to a higher degree. These measures demonstrated sufficient reliability (Fox $\alpha = .87$; Lee $\alpha = .88$).

Challenge-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Voice). Challenge-oriented OCBOs were measured using voice behaviors (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998) that were examined in Study 1. Higher scores on this measure indicate engaging in these behaviors to a higher degree (Appendix E). This measure demonstrated sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .91$).

Months since last raise and promotion. Participants were asked to provide the number of months since they last received a raise and the number of months since they were last

promoted. These numbers were collected to serve as a proxy for career advancement rate (Appendix K).

Demographic and Work Background Questionnaire. Lastly, a demographic questionnaire asking about the participants' age, race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, education and occupation was administered (Appendix G).

Procedure

Participants completed a series of prescreening questions in order to determine whether they qualified for the study (Appendix H). Qualifying participants were forwarded on to the informed consent (Appendix I). If they chose to participate, participants were asked several questions about their experiences engaging in diversity work or OCBs in addition to their work role. Lastly, participants were asked to complete demographic questions before receiving their payment code before being debriefed (Appendix J).

STUDY 2 RESULTS

Data Cleaning

In order to ensure the quality of the data a series of data cleaning steps were completed before analysis. Three-hundred and forty-one individuals submitted a response to the survey. Participants were removed from the data for the following reasons: 88 participants falsified their responses to the screening questions by entering the survey multiple times and providing different responses in an attempt to qualify for the screening, 10 participants provided a questionable response to our qualitative questions (e.g., gibberish response, non-response, copying and pasting the question into the blank), 26 participants did not complete the survey, 2 participants failed the attention check question and four participants falsified their racial identity to qualify but later identified as a different race during the demographic question at the end of the survey (e.g., identifying as “White” in the pre-screening questions and then identifying as “Black” in the demographic questions). In total, 211 participants remained for analysis (103 participants from marginalized racial groups 108 participants from the racial majority group).

Data Analysis

In order to test whether engaging in diversity work and OCBs are related to differential work outcomes, two multiple regression models were conducted. Diversity work, affiliation-oriented OCBs and challenge-oriented OCBs served as predictors in both models and work-related variables serve as outcomes (see Table 8 for descriptive statistics). This analysis accounts for the potential that individuals who engage in one set of behaviors may also engage in one or more of the other forms of behavior which was indeed found to be the case for many participants in this study as 46% of them indicated that they engaged in more than one form of extra-role work. The first model revealed that engaging in affiliation oriented OCBOs positively predicted

time since one's last raise. Individuals who engaged in higher levels of these behaviors had significantly more time since their last raise (see Table 9). The second model revealed that engaging in diversity work was inversely predictive of one's time since last promotion while challenge oriented OCBOs was positively related to time since last promotion (see Table 9). Individuals who engaged in lower levels of diversity work and higher levels of challenge oriented OCBOs had significantly more time since their last promotion. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Table 8.
Descriptive Statistics for Study 2

	Minority		Majority		Total							
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Diversity Work	2.23	.97	1.89	.94	2.06	.97	[.94]					
2. AOCBO Fox	2.81	.71	2.85	.62	2.83	.66	.55**	[.87]				
3. AOCBO Lee	4.66	1.21	5.00	1.08	4.83	1.16	.25**	.48**	[.88]			
4. COCBO	5.05	1.20	5.40	1.13	5.23	1.18	.22**	.40**	.52**	[.91]		
5. Time Since Last Raise	11.41	9.19	13.35	11.83	12.40	10.64	-.16*	.22**	.07	.07	[N/A]	
6. Time Since Last Promotion	25.96	34.79	32.72	37.63	29.42	36.35	-.14*	.02	.01	.12	.24**	[N/A]

Note: M = mean, SD = standard deviation, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, reliability presented in brackets on the diagonal. AOCBO = affiliation oriented organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization, COBCO = challenge oriented organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization, Diversity Work (1-5), AOCBO Fox (1-5), AOCBO Lee (1-5), COCBO (1-7), Time since last raise in months (0-60), Time since last promotion in months = (0-312).

Table 9.*Multiple Regression Analyses with Extra-Role Work Predicting Time Since Last Raise and Time Since Last Promotion*

Predictor	Time Since Last Raise				Time Since Last Promotion			
	B	SE _B	t	Beta	B	SE _B	T	Beta
Diversity Work	.57	.90	.63	.05	-6.98	3.07	-2.27*	-.19*
AOCBO Fox	3.39	1.46	2.31*	.21*	2.45	5.02	.49	.04
AOCBO Lee	-.38	.78	-.49	-.04	-1.89	2.67	-.71	-.06
Challenge OCBO	-.02	.73	-.03	.00	5.45	2.51	2.17*	.18*
R²	.05*				.05**			

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. Values in parentheses are the standard errors of the regression estimates.

To account for potential multicollinearity in the predictors, relative importance analyses were conducted. Using the tool developed by Tonidandel and LeBreton (2015), raw and rescaled relative weights were obtained for each of the different forms of extra role work (see Table 10). In terms of relative weights, engaging in diversity work and the Fox et al., (2011) measure of AOCBOs exhibited the largest weights when predicting time since one's last raise. Diversity work and challenge oriented OCBOs exhibited the largest weights when predicting one's time since last promotion. However, for all of these weights, the confidence interval contained zero, thus, despite the descriptive size of the rescaled weights, these predictors cannot be considered significantly different from each other (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015).

To examine whether different levels of participant individual differences result in different relationships between diversity work and the outcomes, two moderated regression analyses were conducted to test Hypothesis 2. Diversity work was entered into the model as a predictor, racial minority status as it relates to the workplace was entered in as a dichotomous moderator and time since promotion and time since one's last raise were entered into the model as outcomes. The results of both models revealed that racial minority status did not moderate the relationship between diversity work and the two outcomes considered in the present study (see Table 11). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 10.*Relative Weights Analysis of Predictors in Study 2*

Predictor	Time Since Last Raise		Time Since Last Promotion	
	Raw	RS	Raw	RS
Diversity Work	0.01	25.22	0.02	48.55
AOCBO Fox	0.03	66.55	<0.01	5.61
AOCBO Lee	<0.01	4.36	<0.01	3.95
Challenge OCBO	<0.01	3.87	0.02	41.89
R²		0.05		0.05

Note: Raw = raw weights, RS = rescaled weights

Table 11.*Moderation of Racial Minority Status on the Relationship Between Diversity Work and Outcomes*

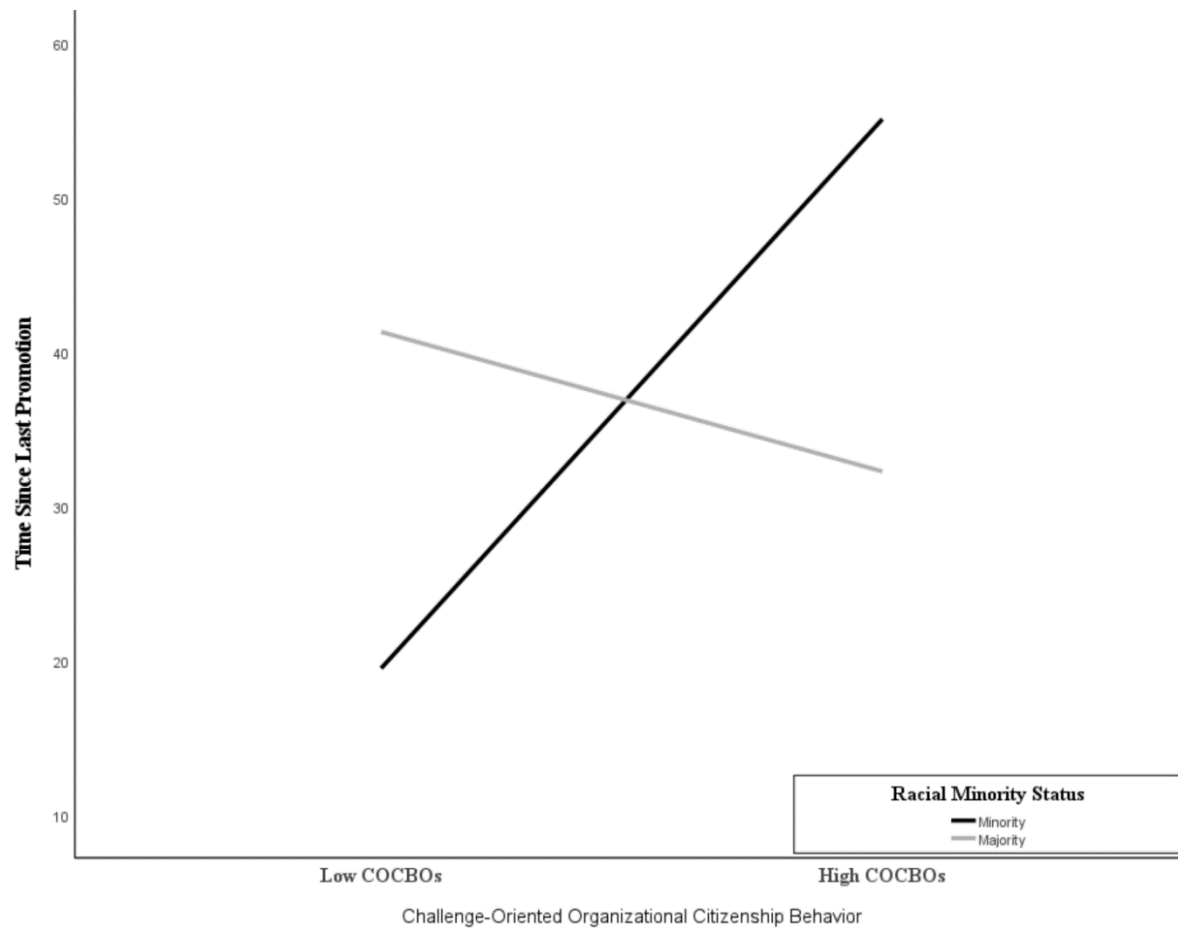
	Time Since Last Raise	Time Since Last Promotion
Step 1		
Mean Centered Diversity Work	.18 (.76)	-.13 (2.61)
R ²	.03*	.02*
p of R ² Change	.02*	.05*
Step 2		
Effects Coded Minority Status	-.12 (.73)	-.07 (2.52)
R ²	.04*	.02
p of R ² Change	.07	.30
Step 3		
Diversity Work x Minority Status	-.02 (.76)	.06 (2.61)
R ²	.04*	.03
p of R ² Change	.81	.41

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. All values represent final model from step 3. Values in parentheses are the standard errors of the regression estimates. Step 1 is a regression in which diversity work is predicting outcome variables. The reference group = 0 is White.

As an additional, exploratory analysis, I considered whether racial minority status moderated the relationship between the other forms of extra-role work and the outcomes. The extra-role work (ACOBFO Fox, AOCBO Lee and COCBO) were each entered into their own models as predictors, racial minority status as it relates to the workplace was entered in as a dichotomous moderator in all three models and time since promotion and time since one's last raise were entered into the three models as outcomes. While the majority of these exploratory moderation analyses were non-significant, minority status emerged as a moderator of the relationship between COCBOs and one's time to promotion (see Figure 9). For minority employees, engaging in higher levels of COCBOs had a longer time to promotion compared to majority employees who engaged in a high level of COCBOs. Conversely, minority employees who engaged in low levels of COCBOs had a shorter time to promotion than majority employees who engaged in low levels of COCBOs ($R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$, $F \text{ Change} = 5.15$, $p < .01$, $\beta = 2.13$, $SE_b = .18$, $p = .02$).

Figure 9.

Interaction of Racial Minority Status on the Relationship Between COBCOs and Promotion, Study 2



STUDY 2 DISCUSSION

The results of Study 2 indicated that individuals who engage in higher levels of affiliation oriented OCBOs (as measured by the Fox et al. (2011) measure) had more time since their last raise and that individuals who engage in lower levels of diversity work and higher levels of challenge oriented OCBOs had more time since their last promotion. Racial minority status did not moderate the relationship between diversity work and the career related outcomes examined in the present study.

These results suggest that engaging in greater levels of diversity work was related to more positive work outcomes in the case of time since last promotion and was not related to worse work outcomes in the case of time since last raise. Thus, contrary to the hypotheses posed, diversity work does not appear to lead to worse career-related outcomes in the case of the present study. As observed in Table 6, individuals in the minority sample tended to have lower times to both raise and promotion which may have impacted the results of this study. Interestingly, minorities who engaged in a greater degree of COCBOs were found to have a longer time to promotion while majority group members who engaged in these behaviors reported less time to promotion while the inverse was true in the case of low COCBOs.

STUDY 3 METHOD

The purpose of the third and final study was to examine whether the race of the person engaging in diversity work impacts perceptions of the work's value and perceptions of the worker. In addition, I aimed to test the Devaluing Diversity Theory presented in this dissertation.

Participants

For the third study, 494 participants were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk). All participants were at least 18 years of age, American citizens who have been living in the U.S. for the past five years and were fluent in English. Participants also reported working more than 30 hours per week and had to identify as White (European heritage). Participants also indicated that they were not self-employed. Participants who met all of these criteria were selected to participate in this study. Mturk participants received \$2.45 for their participation in this 15-minute survey which was slightly higher than a rate of \$9.65 per hour for their work in accordance with Michigan minimum wage.

The 494 participants ($M_{\text{age}} = 38.25$, $SD = 10.42$) were White. With consideration to race and ethnicity, 100% were White American. With consideration to sexual orientation, 86.8% of participants identified as heterosexual, 4.5% as gay or lesbian, 5.3% as bisexual, 0.8% as asexual, 1.6% as pansexual and 1.0% of participants indicated that they preferred not to answer. With consideration to gender identity, 53.6% identified as men, 44.7% as women, 0.2% identified as transgender women, 0.6% identified as non-binary and 0.8% preferred not to answer. On average, participants made 60,000-69,000 USD annually and 62.1% completed their bachelor's degree or higher.

Measures

Diversity Worker Manipulation. To examine whether there was differential valuation assigned to individuals who engage in diversity work by race, I developed an experimental manipulation in which the race of the actor varied but the text description of the person engaging in the work remained the same. Participants were randomly assigned to view one of the five text descriptions with four of them being accompanied by an image of a man in business dress (four race conditions [Asian, Black, Hispanic/Latino, White] and a non-specified condition containing only text for comparison). These images were pilot tested and matched on age and attractiveness. Participants were asked to respond to a series of follow up questions after being presented with the stimuli corresponding to their experimental condition (Appendix A).

Social Dominance Orientation (SDO). To measure the degree to which individuals prefer hierarchy within society and are not bothered by the oppression of low-status groups, the Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) scale from Study 1 was implemented (Pratto et al., 1994; Appendix F). This demonstrated sufficient internal consistency ($\alpha = .96$).

Evaluation Questions. To examine perceptions of the actor in the vignette, participants completed the same competence and warmth perception questions from Study 1 (Fiske et al. 2002). These demonstrated sufficient internal consistency (warmth $\alpha = .94$; competence $\alpha = .94$).

Monetary Allocation. To assess the numerical value that participants place on diversity work, a monetary allocation slider was presented similar to the one described in Study 1.

Non-Monetary Allocation. To assess the non-numerical value that participants place on diversity work, two sliders for paid lunch and paid time off were presented similar to Study 1.

Compensation Fairness Perception. To assess the degree to which participants find compensating each of the forms of extra-role work, the adapted distributive justice subscale from

Colquitt (2001) and the adapted a single item-stem from Edwards et al., (2006) from Study 1 were used. The former measure demonstrated sufficient internal consistency ($\alpha = .92$).

White Racial Identity. Measures of White racial identity have been criticized for low reliability (Choney & Rowe, 1994) or questions regarding validity (Behrens, 1997; Bennett, Behrens, & Rowe, 1993; Choney & Rowe, 1994). Lee et al., (2007) developed a measure designed to address these concerns for the four statuses of the updated version of Helms' (2005) theory known as the White Racial Consciousness Development Scale, Revised (WRCDS-R). While this original measure positioned White identity in relation to experience with Black individuals, this measure has been adapted in the present study so that items referring to Black individuals was broadened to reflect non-White marginalized racial groups broadly. Questions including content regarding slavery were edited to refer to "the past" to apply more broadly across groups. Participants were asked to respond to 22 items (8 avoidance and unawareness; 14 denigrative coping) using a "1" (Strong Disagree) to "5" (Strong Agree) scale that have been adapted. Example items include: "I don't have any non-White friends" (contact / avoidance and unawareness), "Affirmative action is just reverse discrimination" (reintegration / denigrative coping). Responses to each item were averaged together within each subscale to create indices of each construct measured by the WRCDS-R with higher scores being indicative of a higher degree of that construct. I have obtained the measure and permission to use this measure through personal correspondence with Dr. Sang Min Lee, first author of the WRCDS-R validation paper (Appendix L). These two subscales demonstrated sufficient reliability (Avoidance\Unawareness $\alpha = .84$; Denigrative Coping $\alpha = .94$, $r = .34$) and decent to moderate fit when modeled as distinct (CFI = .89, TLI =.88, RMSEA =.08 SRMR = .08).

Colorblind-Orientation. To assess the endorsement of a color-blind ideology, four questions developed by Ryan et al. (2007) were administered. These items were developed following a review of relevant literature on color-blindness as an individual level orientation (Ryan et al. (2007) reviewed Doane & Bonilla-Silva, 2003; Plaut, 2002; Wolsko et al., 2000 among others). Participants were asked to respond to these items using a “1” (Strongly Disagree) to “5” (Strong Agree). These items were as follows: “(1) I wish people in this society would stop obsessing so much about race, (2) People who become preoccupied by race are forgetting that we are all just human, (3) Putting racial labels on people obscures the fact that everyone is a unique individual, (4) Race is an artificial label that keeps people from thinking freely as individuals. Responses to these items were averaged together to create a single index of color-blind ideology. Higher scores were indicative of a greater endorsement of the colorblind orientation ($\alpha = .93$).

General Intergroup Contact Measure. In order to measure the degree to which participants had contact with individuals from marginalized racial and ethnic groups, three items from the quantity subscale of the General Intergroup Contact Quantity and Contact Quality (CQCQ) were adapted (Islam & Hewstone, 1993). Participants responded to three items using a “1” (None at all) to “7” (A great deal) scale. An example item includes: “How much contact do you have with Black people at work?” These items were adapted and increased to 12 total items to reflect contact with statistically prevalent (5% or greater) racial and ethnic identities in the United States including: African American or Black, Asian, Hispanic or Latino and White. Responses to each item reflecting a marginalized identity group were averaged together to create an index of intergroup contact with individuals from marginalized racial and ethnic identities (Appendix M). This measure demonstrated sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .83$).

Valanced Intergroup Contact Measure. In order to measure the degree to which participants reported positive and negative contact with members of marginalized racial and ethnic groups, the Valanced Contact Scale (Barlow et al., 2012) was adapted. This original two-item measure asked participants to respond to the following items using a “1” (Never) to “7” (Extremely Frequently): “On average, how often do you have negative or bad contact with Black people,” and “On average, how often do you have positive or good contact with Black people?”. I expanded the number of questions to eight to reflect contact with statistically prevalent (5% or greater) racial and ethnic identities in the United States including: African American or Black, Asian, Hispanic or Latino and White. Responses to each item reflecting a marginalized identity group will be averaged together within each valence type to reflect indices of positive and negative valence towards individuals from marginalized racial and ethnic groups (Appendix N). These measures demonstrated sufficient reliability and were slightly correlated in the expected direction (negative $\alpha = .74$, positive $\alpha = .78$, $r = -.29$).

Perceived Self and Other Motivation Questions. To assess perceptions of the motivations for engaging in diversity work for the person described in the vignette, participants were asked to respond to six items using a “1” (Highly Unlikely) to “5” (Highly Likely) scale. Three of the items reflected self-oriented motivation: “wanted to look good, wanted to show they were not prejudiced, wanted to show off,” and three of the items reflected other-oriented motivation: “thought it would be helpful, cared about racial minorities, empathized with racial minorities.” Responses to these items were averaged together within each motivation type. Higher scores indicated that participants attributed a greater degree of self-oriented motivation and other-oriented motivation to the actor’s behavior respectively. These measures demonstrated

sufficient reliability (self $\alpha = .74$, other $\alpha = .76$, $r = -.34$) and these subscales are conceptually distinct though they correlate in the expected direction.

Perceived Self-Interest. To measure the degree to which those engaging in diversity work were perceived to self-interested, a measure was adapted from Gerbasi & Prentice (2013) and Tseng & Fan (2011). Participants responded to six items using a “1” (Strongly Disagree) to “5” (Strongly Agree) scale. Example items include: “This person is looking for opportunities to achieve higher social status,” and “This person is protecting his/her own interests above other considerations.” Responses to these items were averaged together to create a single index of perceived self-interest. Higher scores on this measure represent a higher degree of perceived self-interest (see Appendix O). This measure demonstrated sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .92$).

Collective Self-Esteem. To measure the degree to which individuals feel self-esteem with regard to their racial identity, the collective self-esteem scale (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992) was implemented. Participants responded to 16 items that were tailored to refer only to the social group of race using a “1” (Strongly Disagree) to “7” (Strongly Agree) scale. This measure was designed to examine various facets of collective self-esteem including: membership esteem (“I am a worthy member of the social group I belong to”), public collective self-esteem (“Overall, my social group is considered good by others”) private collective self-esteem (“I often regret that I belong to the social group I do” (R)), and importance to identity (“In general, belonging to social group is an important part of my self-image”). Responses to each item were averaged together within each of the four respective subscales. Higher scores were indicative of a greater level of each respective sub-facet of collective self-esteem (Appendix P). These measures demonstrated sufficient reliability (membership $\alpha = .77$, public $\alpha = .72$, private $\alpha = .79$, importance $\alpha = .87$, $r = .27 - .66$).

Demographic Questionnaire. Lastly, a demographic questionnaire asking about the participants' age, race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, education and occupation was administered (Appendix G).

Procedure

Participants completed a series of prescreening questions in order to determine whether they qualify for the study (Appendix H). Qualifying participants were forwarded on to the informed consent (Appendix I). If they chose to participate, participants were randomly assigned to one of the five manipulation conditions. They were then asked to complete the evaluation questions based on the person depicted in the manipulation and asked to allocate benefits for engaging in the diversity work. These measures included self-oriented motivation perceptions, other-oriented motivation perceptions, self-interest perceptions, warmth and competence perceptions as well as the monetary and non-monetary allocation measures. Afterward, participants were asked to complete measures of intergroup contact, colorblindness orientation, White racial identity, social dominance orientation and collective self-esteem. Lastly, participants were asked to complete demographic questions before receiving their payment code before being debriefed (Appendix J).

STUDY 3 RESULTS

Pilot Testing

Prior to data collection for Study 3, pilot testing of pictorial stimuli was completed to be sure that the images selected to represent the individuals engaging in diversity work would be similarly matched across racial groups. Eighty students were surveyed on the attractiveness and age of potential pictures of men of the four different racial backgrounds for this study. Images selected were matched for attractiveness ($M = 3.35-3.59$, indicating a response between “neither like nor dislike” and “like somewhat”) and age ($M = 2.48-2.96$, indicating an age of early to mid-30s). This pilot was completed to remove the potential confound of physical perceptions of those portrayed in the vignette from the study design.

Data Cleaning

In order to ensure the quality of the data, a series of data cleaning steps were completed before analysis. Seven-hundred and thirty-four participants submitted a response to the survey. Participants were removed from the data for the following reasons: 154 participants falsified their responses to the screening questions by entering the survey multiple times and providing different responses in an attempt to qualify for the screening, 40 participants provided a questionable response to our qualitative questions (e.g., gibberish response, non-response, copying and pasting the question into the blank), 26 participants did not complete the survey, 11 participants failed the attention check question and nine participants falsified their racial identity to qualify but later identified as a different race during the demographic question at the end of the survey (e.g., identifying as “White” in the pre-screening questions and then identifying as “Black” in the demographic questions). In total, 494 participants remained for analysis.

Data Analysis

In order to test whether the degree to which diversity work is valued and perceived differs as a result of demographic characteristics, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted as a test of Hypothesis 7 (for descriptives see Table 12). The racial demographic of the person engaging in diversity work served as the independent variable and the perceptions and allocation outcomes was entered in as the dependent variables (see Table 13 for analysis and Table 14 for the analysis including the non-specified race condition).

Table 12.
Descriptive Statistics for Study 3

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Competence	6.22	.87	[.94]											
2. Warmth	6.20	.89	.81**	[.94]										
3. Distributive Justice	3.84	1.20	.47**	.50**	[.92]									
4. General Fairness	5.44	1.76	.40**	.43**	.76**	[N/A]								
5. SDO	2.12	1.19	-.46**	-.45**	-.38**	-.35**	[.95]							
6. Perceived Self-Motivation	2.84	1.00	-.30**	-.35**	-.26**	-.27**	.37**	[.76]						
7. Perceived Other-Motivation	4.53	.58	.56**	.63**	.38**	.33**	-.46**	-.34**	[.76]					
8. Perceived Self-Interest	2.97	.96	-.26**	-.35**	-.27**	-.31**	.39**	.64**	-.32**	[.92]				
9. CSE Membership	4.47	.70	.09*	.13**	.13**	.07	.10*	-.01	.13**	.02	[.77]			
10. CSE Private	5.16	1.23	.01	.02	-.01	-.07	.20**	.00	.03	.04	.57**	[.79]		
11. CSE Public	5.12	1.08	.13**	.15**	.09	.05	-.05	-.11*	.19**	-.08	.36**	.53**	[.72]	
12. CSE Identity	3.43	1.59	-.12**	-.08	-.03	-.10*	.33**	.20**	-.13**	.20**	.42**	.47**	.27**	[.87]

Table 12. (cont'd).

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
13. Unawareness/Avoidance	1.89	.72	-.23**	-.21	-.13**	-.10*	.44**	.26**	-.28**	.27**	.02	.04	-.04	.28**	[.84]								
14. Denigrative Coping	2.51	.96	-.28**	-.32**	-.32**	-.29**	.68**	.34**	-.30**	.33**	.20**	.37**	.09	.30**	.34**	[.94]							
15. Colorblind	3.63	1.31	.00	-.04	-.18**	-.14**	.26**	.12**	-.05	.11**	.07	.24**	.08	.06	.03	.57**	[.92]						
16. Paid Lunches	3.37	3.51	.14**	.12**	.24**	.22**	-.10**	.02	.02	-.05	-.16**	-.19**	-.08	-.09	-.01	-.15**	-.08	[N/A]					
17. Monetary Allocation	1706.23	1464.66	.29**	.30**	.53**	.47**	-.24**	-.18**	.19**	-.19**	.05	-.11**	.01	-.04	-.08	-.25**	-.18**	.34**	[N/A]				
18. Paid Time Off	2.47	2.86	.17**	.12**	.24**	.23**	-.05	-.01	.06	-.03	-.02	-.12**	-.02	.07	.01	-.06	-.07	.56**	.38**	[N/A]			
19. General IC	3.67	1.27	-.02	.00	.04	.01	-.07	.04	.01	.00	-.06	-.10*	-.08	-.10*	-.41**	-.03	.05	.10*	.13**	.12**	[.83]		
20. Positive IC	5.47	1.09	.29**	.32**	.20**	.17**	-.27**	-.10*	.24**	-.15**	.13**	.05	.13**	-.07	-.37**	-.20**	-.06	.01	.19**	.09*	.42**	[.75]	
21. Negative IC	2.34	0.96	-.24**	-.21**	-.17**	-.19**	.28**	.16**	-.18**	.16**	-.11**	-.12**	-.16**	.10*	.17**	.18**	.02	.06	-.04	.08	.05	-.29**	[.78]

Note: M = mean, SD = standard deviation, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, reliability presented in brackets on the diagonal. SDO = social dominance orientation, CSE = collective self-esteem, IC = intergroup contact). Response scale ranges: Competence (1-7), Warmth (1-7), Distributive Justice (1-5), General Fairness (1-7), SDO (1-7), Perceived self-motivation (1-5), Perceived other motivation (1-5), Perceived self-interest (1-5), CSE Membership = Paid Lunch (0-12), Monetary Allocation (0-5000), Paid Time Off = (0-12), General IC (1.11-7), Negative IC (1-6.75) Positive IC (1-7).

Table 13.*MANOVA Between Subjects Results for Study 3 Perception and Fairness Outcomes by Actor Race*

	Asian	Black	Hispanic	White	Total	Partial Eta ²	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Dependent Variable	N=104	N=97	N=89	N=99	N= 389			
Competence Perceptions	6.26 ^a (0.75)	6.35 ^a (0.77)	6.24 ^a (0.84)	6.05 ^a (1.06)	6.22 (0.87)	.02	2.16	.09
Warmth Perceptions	6.22 ^a (0.74)	6.22 ^a (0.81)	6.05 ^a (0.74)	6.11 ^a (1.11)	6.19 (0.87)	.00	.41	.74
Distributive Justice	3.82 ^a (1.28)	3.99 ^a (1.08)	3.78 ^a (1.19)	3.85 ^a (1.18)	3.86 (1.19)	<.01	.56	.64
General Fairness	5.72 ^a (1.79)	5.6 ^a (1.59)	5.35 ^a (1.75)	5.25 ^a (1.79)	5.49 (1.74)	.01	1.59	.19
Perceived Self-Oriented Motivation	2.78 ^a (1.05)	2.63 ^{ab} (0.99)	2.96 ^a (0.97)	3.05 ^{ac} (0.99)	2.85 (1.01)	.03	3.46	.02
Perceived Other-Oriented Motivation	4.55 ^a (0.52)	4.70 ^a (0.42)	4.59 ^a (0.45)	4.31 ^b (0.79)	4.54 (0.58)	.06	8.53	<.01
Self-Interest	2.95 ^a (0.95)	2.99 ^a (1.01)	3.09 ^a (1.00)	3.00 ^a (0.94)	3.01 (0.97)	<.01	.31	.82
Monetary Allocation	1843.00 ^a (1616.29)	1856.14 ^a (1502.48)	1832.49 ^a (1552.90)	1508.57 ^a (1237.09)	1758.76 (1485.60)	.01	1.26	.29
Paid Lunches	3.10 ^a (3.71)	3.44 ^a (3.25)	3.10 ^a (3.71)	3.44 ^a (3.25)	3.41 (3.52)	<.01	.45	.72
Paid Time Off	2.32 ^a (2.69)	2.75 ^a (2.93)	2.56 ^a (2.75)	2.36 ^a (2.88)	2.49 (2.81)	<.01	.50	.68

Note: Partial Eta Squared scores and F value refer to those of the full corrected model; Means are presented in the table with standard deviation in parentheses; Means not sharing a superscript are significantly different from each other.

Table 14.*MANOVA Between Subjects Results for Study 3 Perception and Fairness Outcomes by Actor Race with Non-Specified Condition*

	Asian	Black	Hispanic	White	Non-Specified	Total	Partial Eta ²	F	Sig.
Dependent Variable	N=104	N=97	N=89	N=99	N=103	N= 492			
Competence Perceptions	6.26 ^a (0.75)	6.35 ^a (0.77)	6.24 ^a (0.84)	6.05 ^a (1.06)	6.21 ^a (0.87)	6.22 (0.87)	.01	1.63	.17
Warmth Perceptions	6.22 ^a (0.74)	6.22 ^a (0.81)	6.05 ^a (0.74)	6.11 ^a (1.11)	6.21 ^a (0.95)	6.19 (0.89)	<.01	.31	.87
Distributive Justice	3.82 ^a (1.28)	3.99 ^a (1.08)	3.78 ^a (1.19)	3.85 ^a (1.18)	3.75 ^a (1.25)	3.84 (1.20)	<.01	.61	.66
General Fairness	5.72 ^a (1.79)	5.6 ^a (1.59)	5.35 ^a (1.75)	5.25 ^a (1.79)	5.28 ^a (1.83)	5.45 (1.76)	.01	1.45	.22
Perceived Self-Oriented Motivation	2.78 ^a (1.05)	2.63 ^{ab} (0.99)	2.96 ^a (0.97)	3.05 ^{ac} (0.99)	2.80 ^a (0.94)	2.84 (1.00)	.02	2.72	.03
Perceived Other-Oriented Motivation	4.55 ^a (0.52)	4.70 ^a (0.42)	4.59 ^a (0.45)	4.31 ^b (0.79)	4.50 ^b (0.58)	4.53 (0.58)	.05	6.42	<.01
Self-Interest	2.95 ^a (0.95)	2.99 ^a (1.01)	3.09 ^a (1.00)	3.00 ^a (0.94)	2.81 ^a (0.90)	2.96 (0.96)	.01	1.12	.35
Monetary Allocation	1843.00 ^a (1616.29)	1856.14 ^a (1502.48)	1832.49 ^a (1552.90)	1508.57 ^a (1237.09)	1522.03 ^a (1383.36)	1709.21 (1466.36)	.01	1.51	.20
Paid Lunches	3.10 ^a (3.71)	3.44 ^a (3.25)	3.10 ^a (3.71)	3.44 ^a (3.25)	3.24 ^a (3.47)	3.41 (3.52)	<.01	.38	.82
Paid Time Off	2.32 ^a (2.69)	2.75 ^a (2.93)	2.56 ^a (2.75)	2.36 ^a (2.88)	2.40 ^a (3.05)	2.47 (2.86)	<.01	.38	.82

Note: Partial Eta Squared scores and F value refer to those of the full corrected model; Means are presented in the table with standard deviation in parentheses; Means not sharing a superscript are significantly different from each other.

The overall MANOVA was significant both when the non-specified condition was excluded (Wilks' Lambda = .83; $F(30, 1134) = 2.35$, partial $\eta^2 = .06$, $p < .01$) and when it was included (Wilks' Lambda = .84; $F(40, 1814.38) = 2.08$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$, $p < .01$) suggesting that the outcomes differed depending on the demographic condition. Examining the test of between subjects effects revealed that there were significant differences between groups on perceptions that the actor was self-motivated (non-specified excluded: $F(3, 385) = 3.46$, $p = .02$; non-specified included: $F(4, 487) = 2.72$, $p = .03$) and perceptions that the actor was other motivated (non-specified excluded: $F(3, 385) = 2.76$, $p < .01$; non-specified included: $F(4, 487) = 6.42$, $p < .01$). To determine which mean differences were driving the effects, a Tukey Post-Hoc test was conducted. Both MANOVAs yielded similar post-hoc tukey test results. These analyses revealed the White actor ($M = 3.05$ $SD = 0.99$) was rated as being significantly more self-motivated than the Black actor ($M = 2.78$, $SD = 1.05$) and that the White actor ($M = 4.31$ $SD = 0.79$) was rated as being significantly less other-motivated than all actors from marginalized racial groups (Asian $M = 4.55$, $SD = 0.52$; Black $M = 4.70$, $SD = 0.42$; Hispanic $M = 4.59$, $SD = 0.45$) but did not differ from the non-specified group ($M = 4.50$, $SD = 0.58$) which went against the expected directions outlined in Hypothesis 7 (see Tables 13 and 14).

To examine whether participant individual differences influence the relationships between the demographic manipulation and the outcomes, series of moderated multiple regression analyses were conducted as a test of Hypothesis 8. These models tested whether the participants high on social dominance orientation allocated differential monetary (e.g., the bonus) and non-monetary (e.g., paid time off per month, paid lunches per month) compensation to actors from marginalized racial groups compared to participants who are lower on social dominance orientation. The four specified race condition variables were dummy coded with the 0

values representing the White actor¹. The moderator, SDO, was mean centered prior to these analyses. These models revealed that SDO did not moderate the relationship between the condition type and any of the three allocation outcomes (see Table 15), though there was a significant main effect of SDO on the monetary allocation and the paid lunch such that individuals higher on this characteristic allocated less money for the monetary bonus and fewer paid lunches compared to those lower on SDO. Thus, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

¹ The unspecified race condition was omitted from this analysis.

Table 15.*Moderation of Social Dominance Orientation on the Relationship Between Actor Race and Outcomes*

	Monetary Allocation	Paid Lunch	Paid Time Off
Step 1			
Mean Centered SDO	-.27** (80.09)	-.16* (.20)	-.13 (.16)
R ²	.06**	.01*	<.01
p of R ² Change	<.01**	.02*	.23
Step 2			
Dummy Coded Asian	.09 (170.46)	-.03 (.42)	-.01 (.34)
Dummy Coded Black	.10* (175.02)	.01 (.43)	.05 (.35)
Dummy Coded Hispanic	.08 (179.56)	.04 (.45)	.02 (.36)
R ²	.07**	.01	<.01
p of R ² Change	.10	.70	.65
Step 3			
Asian x SDO	.09 (143.99)	.03 (.36)	.06 (.29)
Black x SDO	-.02 (149.05)	.06 (.37)	.06 (.30)
Hispanic x SDO	-.01 (157.32)	.05 (.38)	.07 (.31)
R ²	.08**	.02	.01
p of R ² Change	.29	.61	.47

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. SDO = Social Dominance Orientation. All values represent final model from step 3. Values in parentheses are the standard errors of the regression estimates. Step 1 is a regression in which social dominance orientation is predicting outcome variables. The reference group = 0 is White.

To test my operationalized theoretical model, path analysis using the lavann package in R was used. Before running these analyses, I used regression analyses to test the relationships between variables in my model. First, I examined the relationships between my exogenous variables and the mediating endogenous variables. In predicting the contact dimension of Unawareness/Avoidance, general contact with non-White individuals emerged as a significant predictor ($\beta = -.42$, $SE = .02$, $p < .01$) while colorblind orientation did not ($\beta = 0.05$, $SE = .02$, $p = .22$) and the model accounted for a moderate percent of the variance ($R^2 = .17$) This provides partial support for hypothesis 4. In predicting Denigrative Coping, negative contact with non-White individuals ($\beta = 0.13$, $SE = .05$, $p < .01$) and positive contact ($\beta = -0.16$, $SE = .04$, $p < .01$) with non-White individuals were both significant predictors and the model accounted for a small percent of the variance ($R^2 = .05$) supporting hypothesis 5.

I then tested the relationships between my endogenous variables and the perception and allocation outcomes. To account for differences in conditions, dummy coded condition variables were entered into the model as controls for all outcomes. As revealed in Table 16, Unawareness/Avoidance significantly predicted both actor perceptions. Individuals higher on Unawareness/Avoidance perceived the actor as less competent and warm than those who were lower on this individual difference. However, Unawareness/Avoidance did not significantly predict any of the allocation-related outcomes. Denigrative Coping significantly predicted all outcome variables with the exception of allocated paid time off (see Table 16) partially supporting hypothesis 6. Individuals higher on Denigrative Coping perceived the actor as less warm and less competent compared to the lower on this individual difference. They also allocated a lower amount for the bonus and fewer paid lunches to the actor compared to the lower on this individual difference.

Table 16.*Regression Analyses of White Identity Predicting Outcomes*

Unawareness Avoidance

	Beta	SE _b	T	sig
Competence	-.23	.05	-5.22	<.01
Warmth	-.21	.06	-4.76	<.01
Monetary Allocation	-.08	91.29	-1.85	.06
Paid Lunch	-.02	.22	-.35	.73
Paid Time Off	.01	.18	.13	.90

Denigrative Coping

	Beta	SE _b	T	sig
Competence	-.29	.04	-6.70	<.01
Warmth	-.33	.04	-7.56	<.01
Monetary Allocation	-.26	66.10	-5.91	<.01
Paid Lunch	-.15	-.15	-3.31	<.01
Paid Time Off	-.06	.13	-1.41	.16

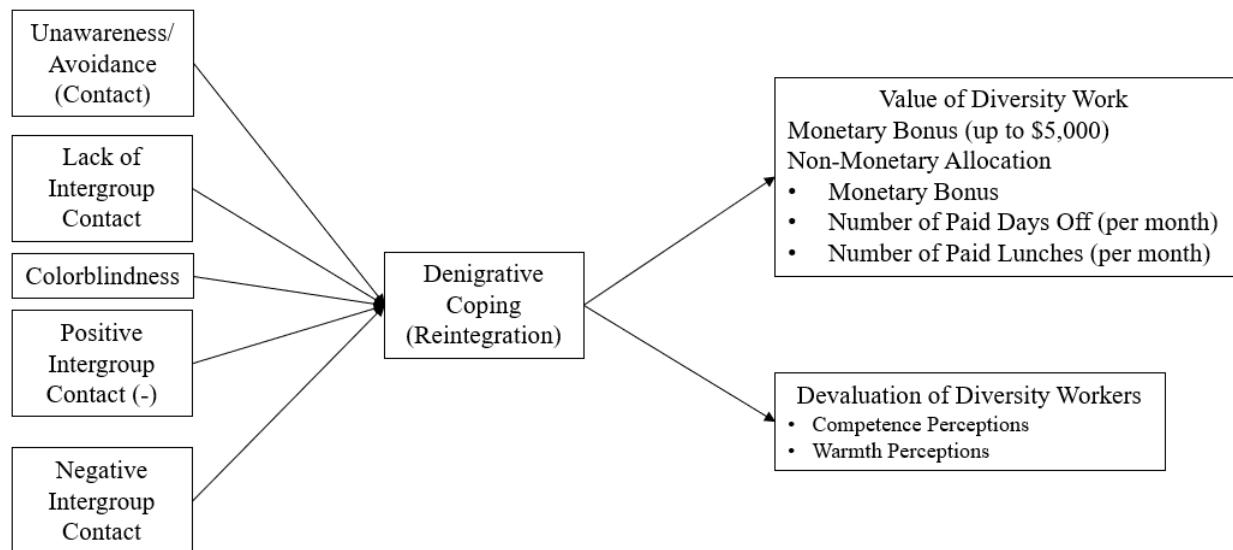
Note: Condition types were included in the model as dummy coded covariates with 0 = the White condition.

To examine the fit of my theoretical model, I conducted a path analysis in R using the `sem` function within `lavaan` (Rosseel, 2012). Due to the fact that responses to the outcomes considered for this model did not differ across conditions (see Table 14), all participant responses were aggregated together to test this model. The model was specified such that (a) the degree of contact with individuals from marginalized racial groups and colorblindness predicted White Identity Contact (or Avoidance/Unawareness), (b) the degree of positive intergroup contact and negative intergroup contact predicted White Identity Reintegration (or Denigrative Coping) and (c) that Denigrative Coping and Avoidance/Unawareness predicted Devaluation of Diversity Work while Denigrative Coping predicted Devaluation of Diversity Worker. This model exhibited poor fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 439.98$, $p < .01$, CFI = .77, TLI = .58, RMSEA = .18, SRMR = .12). Due to the poor fit of the model, there was no further examination of the path estimates.

To examine the relationships within the model that were driving the poor fit, I reviewed the modification indices. Two notable relationships exhibited high modification indices. Specifically, colorblindness predicting Denigrative Coping (MI = 164.90) and Avoidance/Unawareness predicting Denigrative Coping (MI = 36.66). Although there are several valid criticisms of adjusting a model based on the modification indices (MacCallum et al., 1992) these indicated changes do not make substantial changes to the proposed theory. The second model examined (Figure 10 Below) was designed based on the modification indices but also due to post-hoc consideration that Avoidance/Unawareness is another measure of the degree to which participants had contact with non-White individuals. Thus, though it is considered to be a separate dimension of White Racial Identity (Helms, 1990; 2005; Lee et al., 2007) it is similar to the other contact measures. Because other measures of contact were posited to predict

Denigrative Coping, and because the size of the modification index indicated that fit would improve if this change were made, I elected to place Unawareness/Avoidance as a predictor of Denigrative Coping. In addition, the largest modification index suggested that colorblindness should predict Denigrative Coping. Previous research had also suggested that exposure to a colorblind ideology has been linked to greater implicit and explicit bias in White participants (Richeson & Nussbaum, 2004) and it has been linked to decreased sensitivity to racism and discrimination broadly (see Plaut et al., 2018 for discussion). Thus, in alignment with previous research and the modification index revealed in the present study, I elected to place colorblindness as a predictor of Denigrative Coping.

Figure 10.
Updated Theoretical Model



The new model exhibited rather decent fit ($\text{CHI}^2 = 131.83$, $p < .01$, $\text{CFI} = .95$, $\text{TLI} = .90$, $\text{RMSEA} = .09$, $\text{SRMR} = .07$) which allows for interpretation of the corresponding regression estimates (Table 17). Negative contact, colorblindness, lack of contact with non-White individuals and unawareness/avoidance emerged as significant and positive predictors of Denigrative Coping, though positive contact was non-significant. Denigrative Coping

significantly and negatively predicted monetary allocation, number of paid lunches, paid time off as well as warmth and competence perceptions (see Figure 10 and Table 17).

Table 17.*Path Estimates, Standard Errors and P-Values of Final Path Model Linking Individual Differences to Devaluation of Diversity Work*

Path	Estimate	SE	p
Denigrative Coping			
Colorblindness	0.41	0.03	< 0.01
Contact with non-White people	0.07	0.03	0.02
Positive contact with non-White people	-0.05	0.04	0.18
Negative Contact with non-White people	0.09	0.04	< 0.01
Unawareness/Avoidance	0.44	0.05	< 0.01
Monetary Allocation			
Denigrative Coping	-.384.90	66.40	< 0.01
Paid Time Off			
Denigrative Coping	-0.19	0.13	< 0.01
Paid Lunch			
Denigrative Coping	-0.54	0.16	< 0.01
Warmth			
Denigrative Coping	-0.30	0.04	< 0.01
Competence			
Denigrative Coping	-0.26	0.04	< 0.01

Note: SE = Standard error of the estimate.

Exploratory Analyses

To test the exploratory research question of whether the four facets of collective self-esteem were related to outcome variables (monetary allocation, paid lunch, paid time off) a series of multiple regression analyses were conducted. Collective self-esteem facets were entered into the model as predictors while each of the outcomes previously described were entered in as outcomes (Table 18). These analyses revealed that individuals who scored higher on the private subscale allocated significantly less monetary and non-monetary allocations to the actor engaging in diversity work compared to individuals who scored lower on this sub facet. Individuals who scored higher on the membership sub-facet allocated fewer paid lunches compared to those high on this sub-facet. Individuals higher on the identity sub-facet allocated a greater amount of paid time off compared to those lower on that sub-facet. Taken together, these results indicate that when White individuals have a more positive evaluation of their racial ingroup (e.g., the private sub-facet), they tend to allocate fewer monetary and non-monetary resources to the individual engaging in diversity work. White individuals who see themselves as a valuable member of their racial group (e.g., the membership sub-facet), tended to allocate fewer paid lunches to the individual engaging in diversity work. Lastly, White individuals who viewed being White as important to the way they view themselves (e.g., the identity sub-facet) surprisingly allocated more paid time off to the person engaging in diversity work. These findings provide further support for the idea that White individuals' racial identity impacts the degree to which diversity work is valued.

Table 18.*Exploratory Multiple Regression of Collective Self-Esteem Predicting Outcomes*

Dependent Variable	Predictor	B	SE _b	Beta	<i>t</i>
Competence	Membership	.17**	.05	.23**	3.80
	Private	-.10*	.05	-.14*	-2.11
	Public	.11**	.04	.14**	2.67
	Identity	-.09**	.03	-.17**	-3.41
	Model R ²				.07*
Warmth	Membership	.18**	.05	.23**	3.81
	Private	-.11*	.05	-.15*	-2.39
	Public	.13**	.04	.16**	3.07
	Identity	-.08**	.03	-.13**	-2.73
	Model R ²				.07**
Monetary Allocation	Membership	107.80	78.90	.08	1.37
	Private	-259.14**	78.58	-.22**	-3.30
	Public	117.98	72.63	.09	1.62
	Identity	8.29	46.57	.01	.18
	Model R ²				.02*
Paid Lunch	Membership	-.47**	.19	-.15**	-2.54
	Private	-.38*	.19	-.13*	-2.05
	Public	.21	.17	.07	1.24
	Identity	.03	.11	.01	.27
	Model R ²				.05**
Paid Time Off	Membership	-.18	.15	-.07	-1.17
	Private	-.43**	.15	-.19**	-2.83
	Public	.18	.14	.07	1.25
	Identity	.29**	.09	.16**	3.18
	Model R ²				.04**

Note: * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$. SE_b = standard error of the slope.

STUDY 3 DISCUSSION

Counter to hypotheses, the White actor engaging in diversity work was perceived as engaging in the work for more self-oriented compared to the Black actor and was perceived as less other-oriented than the Asian, Black and Hispanic actors in terms of their perceived motivations. SDO did not emerge as a moderator of the relationship between the race of the person engaging in diversity work and the allocation outcomes in the present study. Facets of collective self-esteem were revealed to be predictive of some of the allocation outcomes. Membership CSE was inversely predictive of the number of paid lunches allocated to the actor engaging in diversity work. Identity CSE was positively predictive of the amount of paid time off allocated to the actor engaging in diversity work. Private CSE was inversely related to all three outcomes examined in study 3.

In examining the relationships between elements of White racial identity and the outcomes in this study, Unawareness Avoidance inversely predicted competence and warmth perceptions of the person engaging in diversity work contrary to hypotheses while Denigrative Coping inversely predicted competence and warmth perceptions as well as the amount of monetary allocation for the work and the number of paid lunches, thus partially supporting the hypotheses. The finding regarding Unawareness/Avoidance may be best explained through the lens of formal versus subtle (i.e. less visible or interpersonal) discrimination (Jones et al., 2017) in that individuals higher on this characteristic were found to view the diversity worker more negatively in terms of interpersonal perception but this characteristic was not related to differential allocation outcomes. The modified theoretical model revealed that colorblindness as an orientation, negative contact with non-White individuals, general contact with non-White individuals in terms of quality and unawareness avoidance were all predictive of denigrative

coping. Denigrative coping was in turn inversely predictive of all outcomes. This model provides support for the idea that forms of interracial contact may be unique and contribute to the degree to which White individuals idealize their identity, denigrate individuals in marginalized racial groups and said identity may impact views and of diversity work and the individuals who engage in this work.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The present study examined how diversity work is perceived in comparison to other forms of extra-role work. Though many of the results were counter to hypotheses, this investigation has, nonetheless, yielded findings on this nascent line of research. In Study 1, diversity work, as measured with the items created for this dissertation, was found to be perceived as more similar to affiliation-oriented OCBOs and was found to be perceived as significantly different from challenge-oriented OCBOs in terms of the amount of monetary bonus allotted for the work and the warmth perceptions. SDO moderated the relationship between extra-role work type and warmth perceptions such that individuals higher in SDO rated the person engaging in affiliation oriented OCBOs as being significantly warmer compared to the person engaging in diversity work while those low in SDO rated those engaging in diversity work and affiliation oriented OCBOs as similarly warm. In addition, exploratory analyses revealed that participants own engagement in AOCBOs moderated the relationship between extra-role work type and competence and warmth perceptions of the person engaging in extra-role work such that individuals who engaged in high levels of affiliation oriented OCBOs (as measured by the Fox et al. (2011) measure) rated the person in the affiliation OCBO condition higher on warmth and competence than the person in the challenge oriented OCBO condition though a similar result emerged for the former when AOCBOs were low (though this difference was less stark). When individuals engaged in lower levels of AOCBOs, those in the challenge OCBO condition rated the individual as more competent than those in the affiliation OCBO condition. Study 2 revealed that individuals who engaged in more affiliation oriented OCBOs (as measured by the Fox et al. (2011) measure) also had a longer degree of time since their last raise while those who engaged in lower levels of diversity work and higher levels of challenge oriented OCBOs had a longer

degree of time since their last promotion which was contrary to the hypothesized direction. Exploratory analyses revealed that when racial minorities engaged in higher levels of challenge oriented OCBOs, they reported a longer time to promotion while those who engaged in low levels of challenge oriented OCBOs, reported a shorter time to promotion. Majority group participants' level of challenge oriented OCBOs appeared to differ very slightly between the high and low challenge OCBO levels such that majority group participants who engaged in a higher level of challenge oriented OCBOs had slightly less time to promotion compared to majority group individuals who engaged in low levels. Lastly, the results of Study 3 revealed that those assigned to the White actor diversity work condition, rated said actor as higher on self-oriented motivation (compared to the Black actor) and lower on other-oriented motivation compared to the Asian, Black, and Hispanic actors. The modified theoretical model revealed that White participants' relationship with their own identity impacted the perception and allocation outcomes. Various forms of contact with marginalized racial groups (negative contact and general/close contact, unawareness/avoidance) along with holding a colorblind orientation were predictive of denigrative coping which was, in turn, inversely predictive of all outcomes. In addition, exploratory analyses revealed that facets of collective self-esteem predicted several of the perception and allocation outcomes in Study 3 with Private CSE being inversely predictive of all three outcomes. I will discuss findings in depth in the sections to follow.

The Impact of Extra-Role Work Type on Perceptions and Allocation Outcomes

Study 1 examined the relationship between extra-role work and outcomes related to the value of the work, the fairness of compensating the work and warmth and competence perceptions of the person engaging in the work. Ultimately, hypothesis 1 was not supported in that individuals in the diversity work condition allocated a greater number of paid lunches

compared to those in the challenge oriented OCBO condition and did not differ significantly on this outcome from the affiliation oriented OCBO condition and the monetary allocation did not differ significantly between the affiliation oriented OCBO condition and the diversity work condition, though participants in both conditions allocated significantly more than the challenge OCBO condition. In addition, participants rated those who engaged in diversity work and affiliation oriented OCBOs as similarly warm while those in the challenge oriented OCBO condition rated the person engaging in that work as significantly less warm. At first glance, it may appear as though diversity work was perceived as being more similar to affiliation oriented OCBOs. However, a post-hoc examination of Table 2 (which was created following the completion of data analysis) resulted in the realization that the measure of diversity work created for this study may have included only affiliation-oriented diversity work while challenge oriented diversity work was omitted from the present study.

When SDO was entered in as a moderator, the relationship between diversity work and warmth perceptions emerged such that while warmth perceptions decreased for all forms of extra-role work for high SDO individuals compared to low SDO individuals, this dip was significantly lower for diversity work such that the rating was more akin to challenge oriented OCBOs. Thus, while hypothesis 1 was not supported, the exploratory moderator of SDO revealed that there may be certain individual differences that impact the view of individuals who engage in diversity work. Even though the present study examined affiliation oriented diversity work, those high in SDO still perceived the person engaging in this work as significantly less warm. Thus, future work on additional measures of biases may be particularly helpful for examining whether certain other individual differences may influence one's perceptions of diversity work. Similarly, individual differences in behavior were found to impact perceptions of

the person engaging in extra-role work. Those who engaged in high levels of affiliation oriented OCBOs (as measured by Fox et al., 2011) rated the person engaging in affiliation oriented OCBOs as being more competent than those in the challenge condition while those in the challenge oriented OCBO condition who were low on AOCBOs rated that person as more competent than those who were low on AOCBOs in the affiliation OCBO condition. Those who engaged in higher levels of AOCBOs in the affiliation OCBO condition rated the person engaging in the work as more warm than those high on AOCBOs in the challenge OCBO condition. While this pattern of results held when AOCBOs were low, the differences were less stark. These results suggest that the behavior of the person evaluating other's engagement of extra-role work may impact their views of other people who engage in extra-role work but not necessarily the degree to which they feel that the person should be compensated for their extra-role work. These findings align with the propositions of the similarity attraction hypothesis (Byrne, 1971) which states that people tend to like and view others positively if those said others are similar to the person making the evaluation. One of the explanations often associated with this hypothesis is that people enjoy the company of others like themselves because it allows for the validation of one's own worldview or way of thinking (Ries & Shaver, 1988). Thus, it is possible that individuals who engaged in more AOCBOs viewed those engaging in similar behaviors more positively due to the fact that they saw these individuals as being similar to themselves. It may also be possible that those who engaged in more AOCBOs were rated more positively due to the fact that these behaviors may have more to do with helping others and being a "good" person. This also aligns with previous work that found that morality is considered to be key for interpersonal evaluations such that those who are perceived as more moral are also more liked and respected (Hartley et al., 2016).

The Impact of Racial Minority Status on Perceptions of Worker and Career Outcomes

The purpose of the second study was to examine the effects of engaging in diversity work on career outcomes compared to other forms of extra-role work (hypothesis 3) and examine whether racial minority status moderated the relationship between engaging in diversity work and the career outcomes (Hypothesis 2). This study revealed that individuals who engage in higher levels of affiliation oriented OCBOs had a longer time since their last raise while those who engaged in more diversity work had a shorter time since their last promotion, thus not supporting hypothesis 3. Post-hoc explanations for this finding are that those who engage in affiliation oriented OCBOs may be doing so at the expense of the quality of their core-task performance. Although staying late and engaging in additional work such as entertaining company guests is helpful to the organization overall (Organ, 1988) it may deplete the worker's cognitive resources resulting in decrements in in-role work.

However, this explanation begs the question of why this effect was found for affiliation oriented OCBOs and not challenge oriented OCBOs nor diversity work. For challenge oriented OCBOs, it is likely that, given item content for the measure used for this study, that very few if any of these behaviors were done outside of a normal business day and that their occurrences would be brief. For diversity work, it is likely that creating trainings or leading events would result in heightened periods of engaging in this work both during and outside of work hours, but perhaps there is a greater degree of structure in planning *when* this work will take place. Affiliation oriented OCBOs may have the dual characteristics of being less planned and may be more likely to pop into one's schedule compared to the other forms of work, and similar to diversity work (but different from challenge OCBOs) this work takes place over longer periods of time. Being unable to plan for this work may increase its disruption to one's regular work

cycle, thus increasing the time to one's raise. Similarly, this work may have been unrelated to promotion because it may be viewed as communal in nature whereas challenge oriented OCBOs and diversity work as measured in the present study contained behaviors that are more associated with some forms of leadership (see Lord et al., 2017). Diversity work being inversely related to one's time since their last promotion was particularly perplexing. Upon review of the descriptive statistics by sample, it is possible that there was a sample effect of this finding. Individuals who were marginalized racial groups and minorities in their workplace descriptively had lower times to their last raises and promotions compared to White workers who were also the majority in their workplace. Those in the former sample also engaged in more diversity work. Thus, this finding may have been an effect of sample. Alternatively, it may suggest that individuals who engage in higher levels of diversity work may do so as they advance along corporate lines. As one moves up the ladder at work, they may be expected to engage in more diversity work, or they have more control over their time and can allocate more of it to diversity work without being penalized for doing so.

While racial minority status did not moderate the relationship between diversity work and the outcomes, an interesting exploratory moderation effect was found such that when racial minorities engaged in a low level of challenge oriented OCBOs, they had a lower time to promotion compared to White, majority group members. However, when racial minorities engaged in a high degree of challenge oriented OCBOs, they had a higher time to promotion compared to White, majority group members. Thus, while challenge oriented OCBOs were related to a greater time to promotion in general according to the multiple regression results, the moderation analysis revealed that racial minorities' career advancement rates may be particularly harmed by engaging in behavior that may even be characterized as agentic. Although not a direct

comparison, research on women in leadership has long considered whether some individuals face backlash for engaging in behavior associated with a societal role that one does not inhabit. Role congruity theory posits that when one does not act in accordance with what is presumed of their societal role they are perceived negatively (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Wood 2012). Thus, because the societal role of women was thought to be associated with more communal behaviors and less associated with leadership, it has been posited that these two factors would work against women in leadership roles, women who engaged in more agentic behaviors and women who held both non-stereotypical characteristics (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Rudman & Phelan, 2008) though more recent work has considered more nuance in these discussions (e.g., Rosette & Tost, 2010 discussion of women's leadership advantage and the intersectional advantage of agentic behaviors of Black women in leadership positions in Livingston et al., 2012). Although there is no direct research that considers the impact of role congruency or role incongruency on the treatment of marginalized racial groups, the recent agentic-communal model of advantage and disadvantage offers a potential explanation (Rucker et al., 2018). This model suggests that communality is associated with individuals who are societally marginalized (e.g. lower power, lower-class, women, non-White individuals) while agency is associated with those who are societally advantaged (e.g., higher-power, higher-class, men and White individuals). Considering this model in conjunction with role congruity theory, it is possible that when individuals categorized into marginalized racial groups engage in agentic behavior such as COCBOs, they are viewed negatively for doing so because that is incongruent with the behavior deemed acceptable for members of said group in the larger society. More research is needed to examine whether this is the case.

The Role of White Identity on Perceptions of Diversity Work and Allocation Outcomes

Study 3 tested the proposed theory of devaluation of diversity work and its relationship with the perception and allocation outcomes (Hypotheses 4-6), examined whether the race of the person engaging in diversity work impacted perception and allocation outcomes (Hypothesis 7), and examined whether the relationship between diversity work and the outcomes was moderated by SDO (Hypothesis 8). Hypotheses 4 received partial support in that general contact with non-White individuals did predict unawareness/avoidance but this was not predicted by colorblindness. Hypothesis 5 was supported in that both positive and negative contact with marginalized racial groups significantly predicted denigrative coping in the expected directions. Hypothesis 6 was partially supported such that individuals high on unawareness/avoidance did perceive the actor as less warm and competent than those low on this characteristic, though this characteristic did not predict allocation outcomes. Denigrative coping predicted both perception variables and allocation outcomes in the expected direction with the exception of the paid time off allocation in the regression (though it was found to be predictive in the path analysis). Although the original proposed model exhibited poor fit, examination of the modification indices presented theoretically plausible adjustments to be made, including the shift of colorblindness to a predictor of denigrative coping and the suggestion that the unawareness / avoidance construct was similar enough to the other contact measures that it too would serve better as a predictor of denigrative coping. Making these adjustments resulted in a well-fitting model in which the predictive relationships for denigrative coping mirrored the multiple regression results. These results provide preliminary evidence for the idea that White individual's own racial identity impacts their view of people who engage in diversity work and the degree to which this work should be valued.

Counter to Hypothesis 7, the White actor was perceived as more motivated for self-oriented reasons than the Black actor and less oriented for other-oriented reasons compared to actors of all other race. These results were particularly surprising given that previous research found that White individuals are perceived as less self-interested when advocating for diversity initiatives compared to Black diversity initiative advocates (Gardner & Ryan 2020) though this prior work was more centered around direct persuasion in favor of a diversity initiative rather than garnering responses about the diversity work the target completed. In the present study, it is possible that the White target engaging in this work was viewed less positively due to the perceived attempt at being a “White savior” or was viewed as opportunistically profiting from the heightened importance of diversity and inclusion in organizations as an attempt to get ahead. This assertion and the findings in the present study do align with upcoming research that compared White allies and Black self-advocates attending a racial justice event. This research found that White allies are perceived as significantly less moral, less authentic and less principled compared to the Black self-advocates (Ballard et al., under review). One other reason why this finding may have occurred in the present study may be due to the historical effects brought on by the sea change in racial justice following the murder of George Floyd in the summer of 2020. This may be particularly salient in the present study given that the Black actor was rated highest on mean warmth and distributive justice perceptions in terms of allocating any form of payment, was perceived to be the least motivated for self-oriented reasons, the most motivated by other-oriented reasons and was allocated the highest amount of all mean outcomes descriptively compared to other groups. Counter to Hypothesis 8, SDO did not moderate the relationship between conditions and outcomes in the present study. This suggests that individuals’ allocation decisions were not influenced by this particular characteristic. Future

work would do well to consider whether there are other individual differences that may influence differential distribution depending on the race of the person engaging in diversity work.

Differential Findings for Fox et al., 2011 and Lee et al., 2002 AOCBOs

Of note, the two measures of the same construct used in the present study yielded differential relationships with the outcomes. Specifically, the Fox et al. (2011) measure was related to outcomes and yielded relationships more frequently than the Lee et al. (2002) measure. Though the latter was included to ameliorate concerns about the degree to which the Fox et al. (2011) measure was concrete, upon reviewing the items within the Lee et al. (2002) it was revealed that the measure may have contained construct contamination. One item within the Lee et al. (2002) measure contained content that may be better characterized as challenge oriented OCBOs (“Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization”) while such content was removed in advance from the Fox measure. However, upon completing post hoc analyses, in which the item in question was removed, the results did not change. Indeed, the correlation between both renditions of the Lee et al., (2002) measure in which the questionable item was removed and the one in which it was not was almost 1 (Study 1 $r = .995$, Study 2 $r = .991$). This resulted in considering alternative explanations for the differences in the measures. Items within the Lee et al. (2002) may have asked for participant responses at a higher level of abstraction than the Fox et al. (2011) measure. The former asked whether an individual engaged in a behavior towards the whole organization rather than whether they engaged in specific behaviors that benefited the organization. Thus, the Lee et al., (2002) measure may have been more difficult to respond to given the increased level of abstraction.

Limitations and Considerations

While the present work has contributed to knowledge surrounding the perceptions and allocation outcomes related to different forms of extra-role work, this study is not without limitations. Specifically, data in all three studies were cross-sectional and solicited self-reported information during a time of civil unrest and pandemic stressors, there were a limited number of outcomes considered in the present study, there were also a limited number of hypothesized moderators and the measures of White identity included in Study 3 did have a number of questions posed about them in the previous research literature.

Cross-sectional data limits the ability of researchers to make causal attributions between any variables. Although examining the relationship between various forms of extra-role work and the outcomes in the present study yielded informative results, it cannot be said that predictors had a casual relationship on outcomes. In addition, the fact that all data were self-reported may have resulted in social desirability biases or other self-perception biases influencing the results. Lastly, these data were collected following the racial justice protests following the murder of George Floyd during the summer of 2020 and in the middle of the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. I would be remiss to fail to mention that these historical effects may have impacted participant responses to measures and stimuli presented in this dissertation research.

The present series of studies considered very few outcomes related to engaging in extra-role work. Study 2 particularly only examined the career-related outcomes of time to promotion and time to raise. It is highly possible that examination of other outcomes would yield different results. For example, more affective outcomes may have been impacted as a result of engaging in higher levels of diversity work. For the present studies, these outcomes were omitted from consideration due to the inability to distinguish affective outcomes like turnover intentions,

burnout, and job satisfaction from the history effects added by the collection of data during the COVID-19 pandemic which has been demarcated as a time of greater stress in general but also in the workplace (Kamal et al., 2020). At a later time, consideration of the relationship between different forms of extra-role work and affective outcomes is warranted.

In addition, the overall effect sizes of R^2 and Eta^2 in the set of present studies are small (often $\sim .05$; Cohen, 1988), suggesting that there are many omitted additional variables to consider in predicting construct space in the outcomes examined. Though the goal was to examine a theoretically linked, parsimonious set of predictors to engage in one of the first quantitative investigations of diversity work, its impact on career outcomes and how it is perceived and valued, it is possible that parsimony resulted in excluding other relevant variables. Future studies could include additional measures of work behaviors such as additional facets of job performance to account for the additional variance that remained unexplained and consider whether there are other individual differences that would better predict extra-role work behaviors.

These studies also examined a limited number of theoretically hypothesized moderators. It is possible that variables other than SDO and racial minority status impact the relationships between extra-role work and the outcomes examined in these studies. Indeed, through exploratory analyses, it was revealed that participants' engagement in extra-role work did moderate some relationships in the present study. Beyond this, these studies did not examine the role of organizational level variables as moderators of the relationships between predictors and the outcomes which may have been particularly helpful in study 2. For example, the organization's climate for diversity may be a particularly impactful organizational level moderator to consider as well as leadership support for diversity work. High quality climate for

diversity within organizations may signal that diversity and inclusion are valued and thus that any work conducted in service of these aims is valued (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Hofhuis et al., 2016; Leslie, 2019). Thus, organizational climate for diversity may moderate the relationship between employee's perceptions and the outcomes such that when said climate is good, individuals who engage in more diversity work would report better career outcomes (e.g., less time to raise and promotion) while those who engage in less diversity work would either not report better career outcomes or report worse when diversity climate is good. In a study of diversity management in the hospital setting, Dansky et al., (2003) found the degree to which leaders were sensitive to diversity (defined as "an organizational cognition, a mental model that influences how senior executives interpret the organization's environment," p. 245) influenced the relationship between external strategic orientation and diversity management practices such that leaders low on diversity-sensitive orientation were less likely to engage in good diversity management practices if the organization held an external strategic orientation (Dreachslin, 2007). Thus, leadership characteristics may influence other elements of diversity and inclusion as well, particularly whether they support the work being done and allocate resources for this work and rewards for doing this work.

Lastly, a number of items related to White racial identity and intergroup contact were questioned in terms of validity and reliability. As mentioned previously, White racial identity theory (Helms, 2003) has been critiqued on several fronts. One involves failing to describe the process through which this identity is formed and, instead, focusing on White individuals' attitudes towards other racial groups (Rowe et al., 1994). Second, there has been little evidence supporting the statuses presented in the theory (Rowe, 2006) with four dimensions emerging empirically (Lee et al., 2007). Lastly, it has been critiqued for failing to contain information

related to living an anti-racist life (Miller & Fellows, 2007). Outside of the theoretical concerns, measures of White racial identity have historically suffered from low reliability (Choney & Rowe, 1994) or questions regarding the validity of available measures (Behrens, 1997; Bennett, Behrens, & Rowe, 1993; Choney & Rowe, 1994). For the present study, I elected to use the measure developed by Lee et al., (2007) after an extensive search for measures with higher quality psychometric characteristics. In their original study and in the present study, the measure exhibited sufficient reliability and there was factor analytic evidence that the two factors of interest were distinct. Thus, although measures of these constructs overall have been questionable at best, the present study made use of one of the highest quality measures available.

Similarly, measures of intergroup contact were selected following an extensive search (see Lolliot et al., 2015 for discussion). To measure the valanced effects of intergroup contact, positive and negative contact with marginalized group members were operationalized as separate constructs following the example of previous work in this area (Barlow et al., 2012; Pettigrew, 2008; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2011). Similarly, a measure of general contact (neighbors, friends, and coworkers) was included to capture a different facet of contact. While these measures were brief and only accounted for participant responses with the most demographically prevalent marginalized racial groups in the United States, these measures did demonstrate sufficient reliability.

A final measurement limitation involved the realization the measure of diversity work created for the present study may be best characterized as a measure of affiliation-oriented diversity work. When these studies were conceptualized, it was believed that diversity work would inherently challenge the status quo either directly by calling for change through the creation of organizational structures or events in order to be more inclusive for members of

marginalized groups. However, upon further reflection, the behaviors included in the measure seemed to align more with the conceptualization of affiliation oriented OCBOs which may have accounted for the relationship between diversity work and this particular form of OCBOs in the present study. Only after the completion of data analysis was it considered that some forms of diversity work would be more similar to challenge oriented OCBOs such as calling for a systematic change in the selection system to make procedures more inclusive or suggesting changes to HR reporting systems and structures designed to address discrimination in the workplace (see Table 2, which was created following the completion of data collection). As illustrated by these examples, such challenge-oriented forms of diversity work would be likely to (a) be more time consuming, (b) require a higher level of organizational influence and (c) be rarer. Individuals may more frequently have opportunities to engage in challenge-oriented diversity work at the individual level. For example, behaviors like challenging the perpetrators of discrimination or reporting perpetrators to HR would be possible at the individual level. Future research could continue to expand on the notion that perhaps, as with other OCBOs, diversity work may be both affiliative and challenge oriented.

Future Directions

There is a myriad of future directions that may further inform research beyond the present series of studies. First, future research could help elucidate additional theoretical conceptualizations of diversity work. Although this was post-hoc consideration, this work considered diversity work from the perspective of OCBOs and highlighted ways in which diversity work may theoretically be affiliation oriented and challenge oriented (Table 2). This work prepared a measure that leans heavily affiliation oriented but future research could consider the development of a measure of more challenge-oriented diversity work or use items from other

constructs that may best exemplify challenge-oriented diversity work behaviors. One example is that of the oppositional courage measure by Thoroughgood et al., (2020) which could be altered to measure this behavior on behalf of marginalized racial groups. This measure features behaviors such as: “confront prejudiced behavior toward LGBTQ+ employees, despite potentially significant consequences to themselves,” which could serve as challenge-oriented diversity work. In addition to addressing questions of measurement, future research in this vein could examine the relationship between the challenge-oriented diversity work and challenge oriented OCBOs and whether these two forms of extra-role work are perceived similarly or different and whether they are related to different outcomes to build upon the present study.

As a second line of future research, considering the emotional toll of diversity work on those who engage in it and a specific examination of whether this toll may be particularly deleterious for members of underrepresented marginalized racial groups in the work environment is much needed. In the popular press and some research, recent articles have considered two types of tolls including (a) representation burnout which is defined as “the stress, fatigue and exhaustion of being the only person of a particular identity within a certain environment,” (Pollack, 2019) and (b) other forms of stressors from engaging in the work such as burnout and microaggressions in a sample of diversity educators (Miller et al., 2018). Very recent research presented at the 2021 conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology did indeed find that for DEI professionals that role ambiguity, role conflict and subjective experiences of tokenism were all positively related to exhaustion and cynicism and inversely related to professional efficacy (Kisamore & Pemberton, 2021). Future research would do well to consider the interactive effects of representation burnout and engaging in diversity work to examine whether these effects compound and predict work outcomes such as turnover, job satisfaction and work engagement.

In addition, the consideration of the emotional toll of engaging in the work could be a fruitful moderator to consider for future studies on the relationship between extra-role work and career or job-related outcomes. Lastly, comparing the impact of extra-role work and in-role diversity work on emotion-related outcomes could yield additional knowledge.

Examining the impact of engaging in diversity work longitudinally may yield useful results. All data in the present studies provided a cross-sectional snapshot on the influence of engaging in diversity work with self-reported outcomes by participants. Although outcomes were selected to be more objective and less impacted by the ongoing historical effects, a longitudinal investigation would allow researchers to examine whether there are different points in one's career in which engaging in diversity work not only does not negatively impact career outcomes, but actually assists with career advancement. For example, an individual may be penalized for engaging in this work early on while those in advanced leadership positions may be viewed positively for engaging in some forms of affiliation-oriented diversity work (see Bolino et al., 2013).

CONCLUSION

The present investigation examined the perceptions, value and career impacts of engaging in extra-role work with a particular focus on how diversity work is perceived as similar to and different from affiliation and challenge oriented OCBOs. Through this work, it was revealed the diversity work is viewed similarly to affiliation oriented OCBOs, although this may be due to the types of diversity work considered in the present study. In addition, how White people conceptualize their own identity was found to impact perceptions of the person engaging in diversity work and the allocation outcomes. Future empirical research on the organizational factors influencing the value of diversity work, studies examining more specifically challenge oriented diversity work (e.g., reporting instances of bias and discrimination, calling out the perpetrator) and research considering more affective outcomes are much needed and would greatly contribute to this line of research.

APPENDICES

Appendix A.

Work Type Manipulations

STUDY 1

Please read the following description about work done **outside of one's work role** by an employee in your workplace.

Affiliation Oriented OCBO

This person tends to put in extra work outside of work hours to complete a project. They volunteer for extra work and use their own supplies to complete work. They help new employees become acclimated to the work environment and will entertain company guests and out of town clients for the organization. They have also tried to recruit other people to come work for your organization. They speak well of your employer in front of others. They do all of these things very well.

Challenge Oriented OCBO

This person tends to speak up and make recommendations about issues at work. They get involved in issues that affect the quality of work life and share ideas for new projects in your organization. They also encourage other people to get involve in issues that affect employees. Even if their opinion is different from other people in your work environment, this person will communicate their opinion with others. They do all of these things very well.

Diversity Work OCBO

This person tends to voluntarily help design diversity training workshops and workplace events related to diversity and inclusion. On occasion they also lead these events. They also mentor employees from racial and ethnic minority groups and serve on task forces related to increasing inclusion in the organization. They lead career development workshops aimed at increasing equity for racial and ethnic minorities and actively work to recruit these individuals to your organization. They do all of these things very well.

Appendix A. (cont'd)

STUDY 3

Please read the following description about work done **outside of one's work role** by an employee in your workplace.



Chen tends to voluntarily help design diversity training workshops and workplace events related to diversity and inclusion. On occasion he also leads these events. Chen also mentors employees from racial and ethnic minority groups and serves on a task force related to increasing inclusion in the organization. He leads career development workshops aimed at increasing equity for racial and ethnic minorities and actively works to recruit these individuals to your organization. He does all of these things very well.



Carlos tends to voluntarily help design diversity training workshops and workplace events related to diversity and inclusion. On occasion he also leads these events. Carlos also mentors employees from racial and ethnic minority groups and serves on a task force related to increasing inclusion in the organization. He leads career development workshops aimed at increasing equity for racial and ethnic minorities and actively works to recruit these individuals to your organization. He does all of these things very well.



Clarence tends to voluntarily help design diversity training workshops and workplace events related to diversity and inclusion. On occasion he also leads these events. Clarence also mentors employees from racial and ethnic minority groups and serves on a task force related to increasing inclusion in the organization. He leads career development workshops aimed at increasing equity for racial and ethnic minorities and actively works to recruit these individuals to your organization. He does all of these things very well.



Chase tends to voluntarily help design diversity training workshops and workplace events related to diversity and inclusion. On occasion he also leads these events. Chase also mentors employees from racial and ethnic minority groups and serves on a task force related to increasing inclusion in the organization. He leads career development workshops aimed at increasing equity for racial and ethnic minorities and actively works to recruit these individuals to your organization. He does all of these things very well.

Chris tends to voluntarily help design diversity training workshops and workplace events related to diversity and inclusion. On occasion he also leads these events. Chris also mentors employees from racial and ethnic minority groups and serves on a task force related to increasing inclusion in the organization. He leads career development workshops aimed at increasing equity for racial and ethnic minorities and actively works to recruit these individuals to your organization. He does all of these things very well.

Appendix B.
Distributive Justice Subscale

Colquitt (2001)

Using the scale provided, how fair do you feel it is to compensate this work that has been done outside of one's work role?: "1" (to a small extent) to "5" (to a great extent) scale.

- Does compensating this work reflect the effort this person put into it?
- Is it appropriate to compensate the work that has been completed?
- Does compensating this work reflect what this person has contributed to the organization?
- Is compensating this work justified, given the performance of the person who completed it?

Appendix C.

Diversity Work Questions²

Question Stem: How often have you voluntarily done each of the following things on your present job?

(“1” = Never, “2” = Rarely “3” = Sometimes, “4” Often “5” = Frequently)

1. Voluntarily planned or designed a diversity training event or workshop
2. Attended employee resource group, business resource group or affinity group meeting for members of racial or ethnic minorities
3. Voluntarily planned or designed a diversity related special event at work
4. Served on a diversity task force or committee
5. Worked on efforts related to recruiting racial or ethnic minorities to your organization
6. Participated as a mentor in a formal mentoring program for racial and ethnic minority groups at work
7. Actively participated in a diversity training session
8. Led or co-led a career development session for members of racial or ethnic minority groups
9. Led or co-led a diversity training event or workshop
10. Led or co-led employee resource group, business resource group or affinity group meeting for members of racial or ethnic minorities

² Items for making a formal company policy about commitment to diversity, creating a zero tolerance policy towards harassment, examining the climate for diversity and having commitment from top management to reduce biases were not included due to the fact that only employees in high positions would be likely to have the option to engage in these behaviors. Participation in a formal mentoring program was included because formal mentoring could be an organization level initiative.

Appendix D.
Affiliation-Oriented OCBO Measures

Fox & Spector 2011

Question Stem: How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?
("1" = Never, "2" = Once or Twice, "3" = Once or Twice Per Month, "4" Once or Twice Per Week "5" = Every Day)

Items 5 and 6 appear to be challenge items so they were removed from this measure for the purposes of this dissertation.

1. Drove, escorted, or entertained company guests, clients, or out-of-town employees.
2. Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.
3. Helped new employees get oriented to the job.
4. Used own vehicle, supplies or equipment for employer's business.
5. Came in early or stayed late without pay to complete a project or task.
6. Volunteered for extra work assignments.
7. Tried to recruit a person to work for your employer.
8. Worked weekends or other days off to complete a project or task.
9. Brought work home to prepare for next day.
10. Volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time.
11. Said good things about your employer in front of others.
12. Gave up meals and other breaks to complete work.
13. Volunteered to work at after-hours or out-of-town events.

Lee et al., 2002

Question Stem: How often do you engage in each of the behaviors listed below with respect to your place of work?

("1" = Never, "7" = Always)

1. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
2. Keep up with developments in the organization.
3. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
4. Show pride when representing the organization in public.
5. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
6. Express loyalty toward the organization.
7. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
8. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

Appendix E.
Challenge Oriented OCBO Measure

LePine & Van Dyne (1998)

Question Stem: At work I...

“1” (Strongly Disagree) to “7” (Strongly Agree) response options

1. Develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect my work group
2. Speak up and encourage others in the work group to get involved in issues that affect the group
3. Communicate my opinions about work issues to others in my work group even if my opinion is different and others in the group disagree with me
4. Keep well informed about issues where my opinion may be useful to my work group
5. Get involved in issues that affect the quality of work life in my work group
6. Speak up in my work group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures

Appendix F.

Social Dominance Orientation Scale

Pratto et al., 1994

Instructions: "Which of the following objects or statements do you have a positive or negative feeling towards? Beside each object or statement, select a number from '1' to '7' which represents the degree of your positive or negative feeling." The scale was labeled *very positive* (7), *positive* (6), *slightly positive* (5), *neither positive nor negative* (4), *slightly negative* (3), *negative* (2), and *very negative* (1).

1. Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups.
2. In getting what you want, it is sometimes necessary to use force against other groups.
3. It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others.
4. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups.
5. If certain groups stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems.
6. It's probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom.
7. Inferior groups should stay in their place.
8. Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place.
9. It would be good if groups could be equal.
10. Group equality should be our ideal.
11. All groups should be given an equal chance in life.
12. We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups.
13. Increased social equality is beneficial to society.
14. We would have fewer problems if we treated people more equally.
15. We should strive to make incomes as equal as possible.
16. No one group should dominate in society.

Appendix G.
Demographic and Work Background Questions

Have there been any changes in your normal work due to the pandemic?

- Yes, I have a new job/place of employment
- Yes, my hours have increased
- Yes, my hours have decreased
- Yes, I am currently working from home when I was not before
- No, there have not been any changes in my work

Did you participate in any marches or public protests related to racial injustices?

- Yes
- No

Did you participate in any of the following activities after the rise of public protests (June-Present)?

- Posted on social media my views regarding these events
- Engaged in discussions with family and friends regarding these events
- Read books or other material regarding racism
- Donated to racial justice organizations
- Volunteering in racial justice organizations

What is your age in years? (please type your answer below)

How would you describe your gender identity?

- Man
- Woman
- Transgender Man
- Transgender Woman
- Nonbinary
- Not Listed (please specify if you prefer) _____
- Prefer not to answer

Which of these categories best describe you?

- Lesbian
- Gay
- Bisexual
- Pansexual
- Asexual
- Not Listed (please specify if you prefer) _____
- Prefer not to answer

Which of these categories best describe you (select all that apply)?

- American Indian or Native Alaskan
- Asian (Far East, North Asia, Southeast Asia, and the Indian subcontinent)
- African American, Black, Afro-Caribbean, African
- Hispanic or Latino or Spanish Origin of any race
- Middle Eastern (Middle East, North Africa)
- White (Western, Eastern, Northern and Southern Europe; any European Heritage)
- Multi-racial
- Not Listed (please specify if you prefer) _____

Which the following statements best describes the characteristics of others in your workplace:

- Most people in my workplace share my racial or ethnic background
- Most people in my workplace do NOT share my racial or ethnic background

Do you work part-time or full-time?

- Part-Time (20 hours a week)
- Full-Time (35+ hours per week)
- Unemployed

How many hours do you work per week?

- Fill in the blank

Which industry do you work in?

How long have you worked at your current job (in years)?

How long have you worked in your current industry (in years)?

During the last three months, what percentage of your work has been working remotely?

- Less than 10%
- 10%
- 20%
- 30%
- 40%
- 50%
- 60%
- 70%
- 80%
- 90%
- 100%

What is your total household income?

- Less than \$10,000
- \$10,000 to \$19,999

- \$20,000 to \$29,999
- \$30,000 to \$39,999
- \$40,000 to \$49,999
- \$50,000 to \$59,999
- \$60,000 to \$69,999
- \$70,000 to \$79,999
- \$80,000 to \$89,999
- \$90,000 to \$99,999
- \$100,000 to \$149,999
- \$150,000 or more

Education- What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? If currently enrolled, highest degree received.

- No schooling completed
- Elementary to 8th grade
- Some high school, no diploma
- High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent (for example: GED)
- Some college credit, no degree
- Trade/technical/vocational training
- Associate degree
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Professional degree
- Doctorate degree

Appendix H.

Qualification and Attention Checks

Attention checks included in longer item sets like OCBO checklist items, Voice questions and SDO.

- “Please select “2” to show you are paying attention
- “Please select “7” to show that you are paying attention
- “Please select “3” to show that you are paying attention

Qualification check questions

- OCB content drawn from Podsakoff et al., 2014
 - Some people engage in behaviors in their workplaces that are not part of their job. Please read the following descriptions and indicate whether you engage in any of the following behaviors OUTSIDE of your official role while at work:
Voluntarily helping others with or preventing problems at work (like altruism or kindness, courtesy, peacekeeping and cheerleading)
Making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree
Engaging in work related to increasing diversity and inclusion
 - I engage in more than one of these behaviors
 - I engage in none of these behaviors
- You mentioned that you engaged in the following behavior(s)
 - [behavior will be piped in via Qualtrics piped text]
 - Please provide a specific example of a time you engaged in this behavior at work (1-2 sentences required).
- Where did you engage in the behaviors you just described?
 - School
 - Home
 - Work
 - Another place
- Do you work in a role that specializes in diversity, equity or inclusion (DEI)?
 - Yes
 - No

Pre-screening questions

- Have you lived outside of the U.S. for the past 5 years? (R)
- Please select the option that best describes your fluency with regard to the English language.
- Are you 18 years of age or older?
- Do you work more than 30 hours a week?
- Are you a robot?
- Are you self-employed?

Appendix I.
Informed Consent Form for All Studies

STUDY 1 CONSENT FORM

Research Participant Information and Consent Form

Study Title: Examining the Effects of Engaging in Extra-Role Work in Organizations

Researcher and Title: Lauren Collier, Graduate Student, Ann Marie Ryan, PhD

Department and Institution: Psychology, Michigan State University

Contact Information: colli719@msu.edu

Sponsor: None

BRIEF SUMMARY

You are being asked to participate in a research study. Researchers are required to provide a consent form to inform you about the research study, to convey that participation is voluntary, to explain risks and benefits of participation including why you might or might not want to participate, and to empower you to make an informed decision. You should feel free to discuss and ask the researchers any questions you may have.

You are being asked to participate in a research study of work done in addition to one's formal job role in organizations. Your participation in this study will take about 10 minutes. You will be randomly assigned to view a description of work done outside of one's official work role and to share your perceptions of this work and what types of things you feel should be given to individuals who do this work. We will also ask you to answer questions about your personality and demographics.

The most likely risks of participating in this study are minimal in that we are only asking you about your perceptions of positive extra-role work like helping others and speaking up to improve things in your organization.

You will not directly benefit from your participation in this study. However, your participation in this study may contribute to the understanding more about perceptions of extra-role work, what people receive for this work and what people feel that this work is worth in organizations.

PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

The purpose of this research study is to learn more about the work people do that is not part of their work role in the organization.

WHAT YOU WILL BE ASKED TO DO

After you read this form, and if you agree with its contents, you will be forwarded on to the main study. In this study, you will be randomly assigned to view a description of work done outside of one's official organizational role to help the organization. We will then ask you to answer questions about your perceptions of this work and what you feel an individual who does this work should receive or not receive for doing this work. We will then ask you questions about

your personality. Lastly, we will ask you questions about your demographic information and work background before providing a final page of the survey with information about our study and additional resources for you if you would like to learn more about research in this area. You are free to skip any questions and participation is only expected to be 10 minutes.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS

You may not benefit personally from being in this study. However, we hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study because this research will help us learn more about what positive work done in addition to one's official role is worth.

POTENTIAL RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks to participating in this study.

PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

This study is confidential. Although we collect your MTurk ID for the purposes of compensating you, after data collection is completed your ID will be removed from your responses. Your answers will only be associated with an anonymous ID. To help us protect your confidentiality, please do not write or give your name or any other identifying information during the study. All data will be stored on the hard drive of a secure computer and will only be accessed by trained experimenters. Data will be stored for five years after the publication of research stemming from this project---as specified by the American Psychological Association.

YOUR RIGHTS TO PARTICIPATE, SAY NO, OR WITHDRAW

You have the right to say no to participate in the research. You can stop at any time after it has already started. There will be no consequences if you stop and you will not be criticized. You will not lose any benefits that you normally receive.

COSTS AND COMPENSATION FOR BEING IN THE STUDY

There are no costs to participating in this study. Participants who meet the qualifications will receive \$1.90 for participation in this 10-minute study. This exceeds the minimum wage for work in the State of Michigan. To be sure that work is compensated fairly we review responses to make sure that participants qualify for the study and provide quality responses. Reasons why a participant would not receive compensation are outline below Please read them thoroughly to decide whether you would like to participate in the study.

Compensation Rules (PLEASE READ)

The following are reasons why we would not be able to compensate you for your participation. By following these compensation rules, we hope to be as fair as possible to survey respondents who meet the study criteria, who access the survey only once, and who provide quality data for our study. Please note:

- If you do not include your MTurk ID in the online survey we cannot identify you and so you will not be compensated if you fail to correctly enter your Mturk ID in the online survey. If we have no record of your Mturk ID in our data, we cannot compensate you.

- If you are not eligible to take this research survey based on the prescreening questions, we cannot compensate you for your participation. The quality of our scientific study depends on participants meeting these criteria. If we find that you have re-entered the survey multiple times after initially failing the prescreening questions, we also cannot compensate you.
- If your survey responses include poor qualitative (written) responses, we cannot compensate you for your participation. Poor quality qualitative responses include, but are not limited to, nonsensical text or lines copied and pasted from other internet sources. The rigor of our scientific study depends on high quality data.
- If your survey responses include poor quantitative (bubbles) responses, we cannot compensate you for your participation. Poor quality quantitative responses include, but are not limited to, selecting the same numerical answer choice over and over again (e.g., 3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3) and answering in a way that does not make psychological sense given the questions asked. The rigor of our scientific study depends on high quality data.
- If you type the wrong survey code into the Mturk survey code box, we cannot compensate you for your participation as we cannot ensure you are a human participant who is eligible for this research survey.
- If you fail the CAPTCHA check, we cannot compensate you for your participation as we cannot ensure you are a human participant who is eligible for this research survey.
- If you do not correctly answer attention check items, we cannot compensate you for your participation as we cannot be sure you have provided quality data.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Your Mturk ID is collected as part of the research to help us compensate you and to be sure you qualify for the study. This information that identifies you will be removed immediately following data collection and will not be used or distributed for future research studies.

CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have concerns or questions about this study, such as scientific issues, how to do any part of it, or to report an injury, please contact the researcher (Lauren Collier: 316 Psychology Rd, Room 262, East Lansing, MI 48824, colli719@msu.edu).

If you have questions or concerns about your role and rights as a research participant, would like to obtain information or offer input, or would like to register a complaint about this study, you may contact, anonymously if you wish, the Michigan State University's Human Research Protection Program at 517-355-2180, Fax 517-432-4503, or e-mail irb@msu.edu or regular mail at 4000 Collins Rd, Suite 136, Lansing, MI 48910.

DOCUMENTATION OF INFORMED CONSENT.

Selecting “I Agree” and entering today’s date below means that you voluntarily agree to participate in this research study. If you do not agree, please exit out of this tab in your browser at this time.

I Agree

Date_____

You will be given a copy of this form to keep. Please email Lauren Collier at colli719@msu.edu for a copy of this form.

STUDY 2 CONSENT FORM

Research Participant Information and Consent Form

Study Title: Examining the Effects of Engaging in Extra-Role Work in Organizations

Researcher and Title: Lauren Collier, Graduate Student, Ann Marie Ryan, PhD

Department and Institution: Psychology, Michigan State University

Contact Information: colli719@msu.edu

Sponsor: None

BRIEF SUMMARY

You are being asked to participate in a research study. Researchers are required to provide a consent form to inform you about the research study, to convey that participation is voluntary, to explain risks and benefits of participation including why you might or might not want to participate, and to empower you to make an informed decision. You should feel free to discuss and ask the researchers any questions you may have.

You are being asked to participate in a research study of work done in addition to one’s formal job role in organizations. Your participation in this study will take about 12 minutes. You will be asked to share about work you do in addition to your official work role and whether you have been compensated for this work over the course of this survey and answer questions about your personality and demographics.

The most likely risks of participating in this study are minimal in that we are only asking you about your perceptions of positive extra-role work like helping others and speaking up to improve things in your organization.

You will not directly benefit from your participation in this study. However, your participation in this study may contribute to the understanding more about perceptions of extra-role work, what people receive for this work and what people feel that this work is worth in organizations.

PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

The purpose of this research study is to learn more about the work people do that is not part of their work role in the organization.

WHAT YOU WILL BE ASKED TO DO

After you read this form, and if you agree with its contents, you will be forwarded on to the main study. In this study, you will be asked to share information about the work you do that is outside of your official work role and describe how you feel about this work. We will then ask you questions about any career-related positive events that have occurred and about how you feel about your job overall. Lastly, we will ask you questions about your demographic information and work background before providing a final page of the survey with information about our study and additional resources for you if you would like to learn more about research in this area. You are free to skip any questions and participation is only expected to be 12 minutes.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS

You may not benefit personally from being in this study. However, we hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study because this research will help us learn more about what positive work done in addition to one's official role is worth.

POTENTIAL RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks to participating in this study.

PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

This study is confidential. Although we collect your MTurk ID for the purposes of compensating you, after data collection is completed your ID will be removed from your responses. Your answers will only be associated with an anonymous ID. To help us protect your confidentiality, please do not write or give your name or any other identifying information during the study. All data will be stored on the hard drive of a secure computer and will only be accessed by trained experimenters. Data will be stored for five years after the publication of research stemming from this project---as specified by the American Psychological Association.

YOUR RIGHTS TO PARTICIPATE, SAY NO, OR WITHDRAW

You have the right to say no to participate in the research. You can stop at any time after it has already started. There will be no consequences if you stop and you will not be criticized. You will not lose any benefits that you normally receive.

COSTS AND COMPENSATION FOR BEING IN THE STUDY

There are no costs to participating in this study. Participants who meet the qualifications will receive \$1.90 for participation in this 12-minute study. This exceeds the minimum wage for work in the State of Michigan. To be sure that work is compensated fairly we review responses to make sure that participants qualify for the study and provide quality responses. Reasons why a participant would not receive compensation are outline below Please read them thoroughly to decide whether you would like to participate in the study.

Compensation Rules (PLEASE READ)

The following are reasons why we would not be able to compensate you for your participation. By following these compensation rules, we hope to be as fair as possible to survey respondents who meet the study criteria, who access the survey only once, and who provide quality data for our study. Please note:

- If you do not include your MTurk ID in the online survey we cannot identify you and so you will not be compensated if you fail to correctly enter your Mturk ID in the online survey. If we have no record of your Mturk ID in our data, we cannot compensate you.
- If you are not eligible to take this research survey based on the prescreening questions, we cannot compensate you for your participation. The quality of our scientific study depends on participants meeting these criteria. If we find that you have re-entered the survey multiple times after initially failing the prescreening questions, we also cannot compensate you.
- If your survey responses include poor qualitative (written) responses, we cannot compensate you for your participation. Poor quality qualitative responses include, but are not limited to, nonsensical text or lines copied and pasted from other internet sources. The rigor of our scientific study depends on high quality data.
- If your survey responses include poor quantitative (bubbles) responses, we cannot compensate you for your participation. Poor quality quantitative responses include, but are not limited to, selecting the same numerical answer choice over and over again (e.g., 3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3) and answering in a way that does not make psychological sense given the questions asked. The rigor of our scientific study depends on high quality data.
- If you type the wrong survey code into the Mturk survey code box, we cannot compensate you for your participation as we cannot ensure you are a human participant who is eligible for this research survey.
- If you fail the CAPTCHA check, we cannot compensate you for your participation as we cannot ensure you are a human participant who is eligible for this research survey.
- If you do not correctly answer attention check items, we cannot compensate you for your participation as we cannot be sure you have provided quality data.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Your Mturk ID is collected as part of the research to help us compensate you and to be sure you qualify for the study. This information that identifies you will be removed immediately following data collection and will not be used or distributed for future research studies.

CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have concerns or questions about this study, such as scientific issues, how to do any part of it, or to report an injury, please contact the researcher (Lauren Collier: 316 Psychology Rd, Room 262, East Lansing, MI 48824, colli719@msu.edu).

If you have questions or concerns about your role and rights as a research participant, would like to obtain information or offer input, or would like to register a complaint about this study, you may contact, anonymously if you wish, the Michigan State University's Human Research

Protection Program at 517-355-2180, Fax 517-432-4503, or e-mail irb@msu.edu or regular mail at 4000 Collins Rd, Suite 136, Lansing, MI 48910.

DOCUMENTATION OF INFORMED CONSENT.

Selecting “I Agree” and entering today’s date below means that you voluntarily agree to participate in this research study. If you do not agree, please exit out of this tab in your browser at this time.

I Agree

Date _____

You will be given a copy of this form to keep. Please email Lauren Collier at colli719@msu.edu for a copy of this form.

STUDY 3 CONSENT FORM

Research Participant Information and Consent Form

Study Title: Examining the Effects of Engaging in Extra-Role Work in Organizations

Researcher and Title: Lauren Collier, Graduate Student, Ann Marie Ryan, PhD

Department and Institution: Psychology, Michigan State University

Contact Information: colli719@msu.edu

Sponsor: None

BRIEF SUMMARY

You are being asked to participate in a research study. Researchers are required to provide a consent form to inform you about the research study, to convey that participation is voluntary, to explain risks and benefits of participation including why you might or might not want to participate, and to empower you to make an informed decision. You should feel free to discuss and ask the researchers any questions you may have.

You are being asked to participate in a research study of work done in addition to one’s formal job role in organizations. Your participation in this study will take about 15 minutes. You will be randomly assigned to view a description of work done outside of one’s official work role and to share your perceptions of this work, the person doing the work and what types of things you feel should be given to individuals who do this work. We will also ask you to answer questions about your personality and demographics.

The most likely risks of participating in this study are minimal in that we are only asking you about your perceptions of positive extra-role work like helping others and speaking up to improve things in your organization.

You will not directly benefit from your participation in this study. However, your participation in this study may contribute to the understanding more about perceptions of extra-role work, what people receive for this work and what people feel that this work is worth in organizations.

PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

The purpose of this research study is to learn more about the work people do that is not part of their work role in the organization.

WHAT YOU WILL BE ASKED TO DO

After you read this form, and if you agree with its contents, you will be forwarded on to the main study. In this study, you will be randomly assigned to view a description of work done outside of one's official organizational role to help the organization. We will then ask you to answer questions about your perceptions of this work, the person who does the work and what you feel an individual who does this work should receive or not receive for doing this work. We will then ask you questions about your personality. Lastly, we will ask you questions about your demographic information and work background before providing a final page of the survey with information about our study and additional resources for you if you would like to learn more about research in this area. You are free to skip any questions and participation is only expected to be 15 minutes.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS

You may not benefit personally from being in this study. However, we hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study because this research will help us learn more about what positive work done in addition to one's official role is worth.

POTENTIAL RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks to participating in this study.

PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

This study is confidential. Although we collect your MTurk ID for the purposes of compensating you, after data collection is completed your ID will be removed from your responses. Your answers will only be associated with an anonymous ID. To help us protect your confidentiality, please do not write or give your name or any other identifying information during the study. All data will be stored on the hard drive of a secure computer and will only be accessed by trained experimenters. Data will be stored for five years after the publication of research stemming from this project---as specified by the American Psychological Association.

YOUR RIGHTS TO PARTICIPATE, SAY NO, OR WITHDRAW

You have the right to say no to participate in the research. You can stop at any time after it has already started. There will be no consequences if you stop and you will not be criticized. You will not lose any benefits that you normally receive.

COSTS AND COMPENSATION FOR BEING IN THE STUDY

There are no costs to participating in this study. Participants who meet the qualifications will receive \$2.40 for participation in this 15-minute study. This exceeds the minimum wage for work in the State of Michigan. To be sure that work is compensated fairly we review responses to make sure that participants qualify for the study and provide quality responses. Reasons why a participant would not receive compensation are outline below Please read them thoroughly to decide whether you would like to participate in the study.

Compensation Rules (PLEASE READ)

The following are reasons why we would not be able to compensate you for your participation. By following these compensation rules, we hope to be as fair as possible to survey respondents who meet the study criteria, who access the survey only once, and who provide quality data for our study. Please note:

- If you do not include your MTurk ID in the online survey we cannot identify you and so you will not be compensated if you fail to correctly enter your Mturk ID in the online survey. If we have no record of your Mturk ID in our data, we cannot compensate you.
- If you are not eligible to take this research survey based on the prescreening questions, we cannot compensate you for your participation. The quality of our scientific study depends on participants meeting these criteria. If we find that you have re-entered the survey multiple times after initially failing the prescreening questions, we also cannot compensate you.
- If your survey responses include poor qualitative (written) responses, we cannot compensate you for your participation. Poor quality qualitative responses include, but are not limited to, nonsensical text or lines copied and pasted from other internet sources. The rigor of our scientific study depends on high quality data.
- If your survey responses include poor quantitative (bubbles) responses, we cannot compensate you for your participation. Poor quality quantitative responses include, but are not limited to, selecting the same numerical answer choice over and over again (e.g., 3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3) and answering in a way that does not make psychological sense given the questions asked. The rigor of our scientific study depends on high quality data.
- If you type the wrong survey code into the Mturk survey code box, we cannot compensate you for your participation as we cannot ensure you are a human participant who is eligible for this research survey.
- If you fail the CAPTCHA check, we cannot compensate you for your participation as we cannot ensure you are a human participant who is eligible for this research survey.
- If you do not correctly answer attention check items, we cannot compensate you for your participation as we cannot be sure you have provided quality data.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Your Mturk ID is collected as part of the research to help us compensate you and to be sure you qualify for the study. This information that identifies you will be removed immediately following data collection and will not be used or distributed for future research studies.

CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have concerns or questions about this study, such as scientific issues, how to do any part of it, or to report an injury, please contact the researcher (Lauren Collier: 316 Psychology Rd, Room 262, East Lansing, MI 48824, colli719@msu.edu).

If you have questions or concerns about your role and rights as a research participant, would like to obtain information or offer input, or would like to register a complaint about this study, you may contact, anonymously if you wish, the Michigan State University's Human Research Protection Program at 517-355-2180, Fax 517-432-4503, or e-mail irb@msu.edu or regular mail at 4000 Collins Rd, Suite 136, Lansing, MI 48910.

DOCUMENTATION OF INFORMED CONSENT.

Selecting "I Agree" and entering today's date below means that you voluntarily agree to participate in this research study. If you do not agree, please exit out of this tab in your browser at this time.

I Agree

Date _____

You will be given a copy of this form to keep. Please email Lauren Collier at colli719@msu.edu for a copy of this form.

Appendix J.
Debriefing Form for All Studies

Debriefing Form

Thank you for participating in our study. This form is designed to provide you with information about the purpose and importance of this study.

The purpose of this study was to learn more about compensation individuals receive for engaging in different types of work that are not part of their formal job roles. In some industries this is referred to as service work, organizational citizenship behaviors or helping behaviors. We also wanted to learn what people felt would be fair to compensate people for this work or if any compensation would be considered fair.

To read more about how work of this type has been discussed, please see the websites below:

- <https://hbr.org/2018/07/why-women-volunteer-for-tasks-that-dont-lead-to-promotions>
- <https://www.cnbc.com/2018/08/27/why-women-should-stop-volunteering-for-non-promotable-tasks-at-work.html>
- <https://www.nytimes.com/2020/10/12/business/corporate-diversity-black-employees.html>

The experimental design was relatively straightforward and is of the type often encountered in psychological research. Although there are no or few projected risks for participants completing this study, we wanted to provide additional resources that can be found below:

[American Psychological Association: Coping with Workplace Stress](#)
[CDC: How to Cope with Job Stress During the COVID-19 Pandemic](#)

National suicide hotline (phone: 1-800-273-8255)

Emergency number (phone: 911)

Additionally, if you have questions or concerns regarding this study, please do not hesitate to contact the investigators. Additionally, if you would like more information about the study or have further questions about it, please feel free to contact:

Lauren Collier, Department of Psychology, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824,
e-mail: colli719@msu.edu.

OR

Ann Marie Ryan, Ph.D., Department of Psychology, Michigan State University, East Lansing,
MI 48824, phone: 517-355-0203, e-mail: ryanan@msu.edu

Appendix K.
Months Since Last Raise and Promotion

Instructions: Please type your answers to the following questions into the blanks below.

- How many months has it been since your last raise at work?
- How many months has it been since your last promotion?

Appendix L.
White Racial Consciousness Development Scale Revised

Lee et al., (2007)

Choose the response option that most fits you or your experience. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; and, 5 = Strongly Agree (SA).

1. I have had little or no contact with Non-White individuals other than seeing them at work.
2. Non-White individuals should not be allowed to continue in school unless able to perform at the same level as Whites.
3. I greatly enjoy cross-racial (involving Non-White and White individuals together) activities and I try to participate in them often.
4. Reverse discrimination is a big problem for White individuals in America.
5. I do not understand why Non-White individuals are so resentful of White people.
6. I am afraid that minorities are taking over American society.
7. I have lived in close proximity to Non-White individuals.
8. Non-White individuals have brought many of their problems on themselves.
9. I have Non-White friends.
10. Non-White individuals are responsible for their lot in life.
11. The past was a long time ago, Non-White people should just get over it.
12. I have never had much contact with Non-White individuals.
13. Racism continues because Non-White individuals dwell on the past.
14. In America, people pretty much decide their own fate.
15. I would feel uncomfortable living near Non-White individuals.
16. If Non-White individuals weren't so lazy, they wouldn't be in the position they're in.
17. There are more Non-White individuals on welfare than Whites.
18. I do not have any Non-White friends.
19. Affirmative action is just reverse discrimination.
20. If Non-White people wanted to change things, they could take action themselves.
21. I feel comfortable when I am in close contact with Non-White people.
22. Non-White individuals must get over the past so that we can move on.

Appendix M.
Intergroup Contact Quantity Scale

Islam & Hewstone (1993)

Instructions: Please answer the questions provided honestly and accurately.

Scaled from “1” = none at all to “7” = a great deal

How much contact do you have with Asian people?

1. At work
2. As neighbors
3. As close friends

How much contact do you have with Black people?

1. At work
2. As neighbors
3. As close friends

How much contact do you have with Hispanic or Latinx people?

1. At work
2. As neighbors
3. As close friends

How much contact do you have with White people?

1. At work
2. As neighbors
3. As close friends

Appendix N.
Valanced Intergroup Contact Measure³

Barlow et al., (2012)

Instructions: Please answer the questions provided honestly and accurately.

Scaled from “1” Never to “7” Extremely Frequently

1. On average, how often do you have negative or bad contact with Asian people?
2. On average, how often do you have positive or good contact with Asian people?
3. On average, how often do you have negative or bad contact with Black people?
4. On average, how often do you have positive or good contact with Black people?
5. On average, how often do you have negative or bad contact with Hispanic or Latinx people?
6. On average, how often do you have positive or good contact with Hispanic or Latinx people?
7. On average, how often do you have negative or bad contact with White people?
8. On average, how often do you have positive or good contact with White people?

³ These items will assess global perceptions toward statistically prevalent marginalized racial groups in America as well as White people and may thus not be reflective of actual contact but rather perceived contact from the perspective of the participant.

Appendix O.

Measure of Perceived Self Interest

Adapted from Gerbasi & Prentice (2013) and Tseng & Fan (2011)

Instructions: Please respond to the following statements openly and honestly.

Scaled from “1” Strongly Disagree to “5” Strongly Agree

1. This person is looking for opportunities to achieve higher social status.
2. This person is looking for ways to get ahead.
3. This person is keeping an eye out for his/her interests.
4. This person, by and large, is pursuing his/her own interest.
5. This person is protecting his/her own interests above other considerations.
6. This person is acting self-interestedly.

Appendix P.
Collective Self-Esteem Scale

Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992

Instructions: We are all members of different social groups or social categories. For the following questions, we would like you to consider your membership in your racial or ethnic group and respond to the following statements on the basis of how you feel about that group and your membership in that group. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these statements; we are interested in your honest reactions and opinions.

Scaled from “1” Strongly Disagree to “7” Strongly Agree

1. I am a worthy member of the social group I belong to.
2. I often regret that I belong to the social group I do.
3. Overall, my social group is considered good by others.
4. Overall, my group membership has very little to do with how I feel about myself.
5. I feel I don't have much to offer to the social group I belong to.
6. In general, I'm glad to be a member of the social group I belong to.
7. Most people consider my social group, on the average, to be more ineffective than other social groups.
8. The social group I belong to is an important reflection of who I am.
9. I am a cooperative participant in the social group I belong to.
10. Overall, I often feel that the social group of which I am a member is not worthwhile.
11. In general, others respect the social group that I am a member of.
12. The social group I belong to is unimportant to my sense of what kind of a person I am.
13. I often feel I'm a useless member of my social group.
14. I feel good about the social group I belong to.
15. In general, others think that the social group I am a member of is unworthy.
16. In general, belonging to my social group is an important part of my self image.

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