2015

Use of Flexible Work Arrangements by Race and Ethnicity: Examining the Mediating Role of Organizational Diversity Climate Perceptions

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Walden University
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Abstract

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Imani S. Owens

M.A., The University of Chicago, 1998

B.A., Duke University, 1996

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Doctor of Philosophy

Organizational Psychology

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Abstract

This study investigated whether women of color faced additional challenges in using flexible work arrangements (FWAs) when workplaces lacked an affirming diversity climate. Researchers found that use of FWAs was associated with organizational climate, race was correlated with diversity climate perception, and diversity climate perceptions were associated with organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction and retention. Limited empirical evidence existed that demonstrated that race/ethnicity predicted use of FWAs or that diversity climate mediated this relationship. This quasi-experimental study examined the hypotheses that (a) race/ethnicity predicted diversity climate perceptions, (b) race/ethnicity predicted use of FWAs, and (c) diversity climate mediated the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs. This approach addressed the problem of limited empirical evidence to support claims that lack of affirming diversity climate contributed to fewer racial/ethnic minorities using FWAs. A sample of women in professional labor industries was recruited using LinkedIn.com and an online university's research participant pool (N=114); these participants completed an anonymous, online survey. Regression results indicated that race/ethnicity predicted diversity climate perceptions of inclusive climate and equal access; race/ethnicity did not predict diversity climate perceptions of identity freedom. Hierarchical multiple regression results indicated that race/ethnicity did not predict use of FWAs, nor did diversity climate mediate this relationship. When used to create wellness programming, including FWAs, these findings could spur positive social change by creating sustainable work environments where employees feel their racial/ethnic identity is affirmed.

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Dedication

To my dear husband, of 18 years and counting...you have never doubted my potential for success, and for 22 years until this very day, you have never stopped loving and supporting me. I look forward to the next 22 and more. I love you dearly.

Acknowledgements

I wish to express a heartfelt thank you as well as acknowledge the support from my committee, Dr. Cardenas, Dr. Chappell, and Dr. Davis, for the time you have taken away from your families and loved ones to concern yourself with my pursuit. Your support is greatly appreciated, and quite simply I could not have accomplished this without you. I especially thank, Dr. C., for taking on this project and continuing to support it throughout the years it took to complete. I also would like to acknowledge Dr. Natalie Wolfson, Dr. Scott Tonidandel, and Dr. Kristin Shockley for their support with this project.

I must also thank Dr. Heidi Marshall and my former coworkers in the Walden University community for your encouragement, as well as my many class/residency-mates who took time to encourage me throughout my journey.

I must thank my beautiful friends for their unwavering love. I am blessed beyond measure to have you in my life, and although I could not always speak with you when I wanted, I appreciate you being there when I needed you most. I must also thank my dear friend who is no longer here to share this accomplishment with me, but I appreciate her encouragement and unwavering belief that I would accomplish this.

I thank my mother and siblings and their respective helpmates (my adopted siblings) my sibling-in-laws, for their expressions of pride and faith. Thank you to my sis-in-law for the chocolate pie. Thank you to my aunt who never forgot to send an encouraging word on my birthday. Most important, thank you so much for your prayers!

I especially thank my children who have patiently waited for this "dissertation-thing" to end, but in their own way told me they were proud of my endeavor.

I am also thankful for the enduring love of my husband.

This dissertation would not have been completed if it were not for your love and support. Thank you all so very much!

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

For women with families, lack of work flexibility leads to barriers to career advancement, as well as an inability to improve quality of life. Over the past 4 decades, women have participated in the workforce in unprecedented numbers (White House Council on Women and Girls [WHC], 2011). Many of them have supplied income that was essential in providing for their families, regardless of marital status. Flexible work arrangements (FWAs) have functioned as necessary support systems that enabled employees to care for their families and simultaneously provide economic benefits. FWAs, which are also known in the literature as alternative work arrangements, encompass the various types of formal and informal practices and policies that permit employees to alter their work schedule, work location, or deliverables to meet job expectations (Shockley & Allen, 2007).

Successful implementation of work flexibility programs has offered employees more flexibility in managing their personal and professional spheres without demanding that one receives more attention than another. Employers have directly benefited from increasing their attention to employee wellness through work flexibility programs (Halpern, 2005; Kossek & Distelberg, 2009). Not only have employees perceived a greater sense of balance, but they have also demonstrated greater organizational commitment, as well as increased job satisfaction (Golden, 2008). Within professional and industrial sectors, FWAs have also given employees the ability to continue their educational pursuits in hopes of creating opportunities for career advancement (WHC,

2011; Women of Color Policy Network, NYU Wagner [WCPN], 2011). Some have even used flextime to gain new skills that could be applied on the job (WHC, 2011).

Despite a trending shift to nontraditional work schedules, women of color have not benefited as much from these programs. In the U.S. workforce, for example, African American women, more than any other racial or ethnic group, are more likely to participate in the labor force, followed by Latinas, Asian Americans, and European Americans respectively (Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 2011). According to Golden (2001a), non-European Americans, however, are 50–60% less likely to have access to work flexibility. Census data results reiterated this finding after Golden's (2010a) analysis. Although roughly 29% of full-time employees reported having access to work flexibility programs, only 21% of African American and Latina women were able to adjust their work schedule compared to 30% of European American and Asian American women ([USDL, 2004). High participation rates, however, have not improved access to FWAs for employees of color.

Some have argued that women of color tend to hold lower-skilled positions that offer little autonomy in altering their work schedule (Kossek & Michel, 2011; Lung, 2010; McCrate, 2002). Additionally, women of color employees typically work in industries which severely limit the types of flexibility programs that are offered to employees, and some employers are less likely to provide flexibility for additional training and educational pursuits (WCPN, 2011). As a result, low-wage employees compared to higher paid employees are not afforded the benefits that would enable them to manage personal time, including family illness or a crisis. Lower-skilled employees often receive fewer days of paid time (McCrate, 2002), and in effect lack of flexibility

has a devastating impact on advancing careers or improving economic conditions for low-wage families (WCPN, 2011).

Despite glaring differences between low-wage and higher paid employees of color, occupational differences alone have not fully explained variations in access or differences in use of this benefit. When researchers have examined differences in access within similar vocations, racial disparities have remained (McCrate, 2005). Within the workplace, African Americans, when compared to other ethnic groups, are less able to determine when they work and are more likely to have rigid schedules (McCrate, 2005). Stereotypes about people of color, including the belief that they need to be supervised in-person because they lack sufficient motivation or a strong work ethic, factors into whether an individual would receive access to flexible benefits (McCrate, 2005; McMenamin, 2007).

Although flexibility has become more of an accepted workplace practice, researchers have voiced a more troubling concern. Some have argued that despite an increase in access to—as well as use of – FWAs, a negative organizational diversity climate has discouraged women of color from using these benefits, even when formally available (Blake-Beard, O'Neill, Ingols, & Shapiro, 2010). Given these concerns, this study will investigate how diversity climate, as well as the intersection of race and gender, influence the use of flexible work benefits within companies that provide such benefits. In doing so, the study addresses a void within work–family research, as well as work-life balance and work-life integration literature.

In this chapter, background literature regarding flexible work and professional working women is discussed, as well as information regarding organizational approaches

to flexible work and the issues that have emerged with this sector. Following this discussion the key terms, purpose statement, research questions and hypotheses, and the nature of the study are provided. The underlying theoretical frameworks are also discussed in addition to the assumptions for this study. The chapter concludes with an explanation of how this study is significant within current work family literature as well as social change implications.

Definition of Key Terms

Employees, Women of color. For the purposes of the study, employees and/or women of color refers to employees who self-report as African American (non-Hispanic), Asian American (including those with origins from the Indian subcontinent), Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Latino or Hispanic, Native American or American Indian, and Other. These categories are currently used by the U.S. Census Bureau (see http://www.census.gov/population/race/about/) which relies on self-report for racial identification.

This technique is not without controversy. Pope-Davis and Liu (1998) argued that categorization by the U.S. Census Bureau was historically embedded in the racial, social, and class politics of clearly identifying who was-and was not-European American. Having a status of "White," they contended, could refer to class status as much as it was a reference for physical features. Historically, within the United States having a status of "White" provided social and economic stature (Pope-Davis & Liu, 1998). Currently, Arab Americans as well as those of Middle Eastern and North African descent have been excluded from a distinctive category and placed in the same racial category as European Americans; yet, post-9/11, some have faced issues of hypervisibility not only because of

their ethnicity but also due to religious practices (Grossman, 2011). Despite the heightened incidences of discrimination, the U.S. Census Bureau does not currently provide separate racial classification for these individuals. Within this study, despite the controversy, the use of these categories underscores the purpose of this study to focus on racial minorities but it will not address racial minorities who may also face discrimination related to their religious practices. The topic is beyond the scope of this study, and hence the study will use the categories that are currently employed by the U.S. Census Bureau (see http://www.census.gov/population/race/about/).

Diversity climate. Diversity climate refers to an aggregated construct in which an environment or set of environments are examined in conjunction with psychological perceptions relevant to visible minorities and women (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Kossek, Zonia, & Young, 1996). Diversity climate references attitudes held by women and minorities regarding formal policies, such as those found in human resource practices, as well as informal policies such as those demonstrated by supervisors (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000).

Flexible work arrangements. Flexible work arrangements which are also known as alternative work arrangements in the literature encompass the various types of policies or procedures-both formal and informal-that permit employees to alter schedules, work location, as well as deliverables to meet job expectations (Shockley & Allen, 2007). They can include varying employee shifts, permitting telecommuting, job sharing, compressed work weeks, and reduced workloads. FWAs will refer to organizational use of these arrangements as tactical initiatives to address overall objectives and employee needs. In this study they are considered components of work-life balance initiatives. Work-life

balance describes the attempt by employees and organizations to integrate work and personal domains and potentially reduce conflict between the two spheres. Traditionally, the discussion of FWAs has been referred to as family-friendly, work-family, or work-life initiatives (Lewis, 2003). The reference to FWAs builds upon traditional use, but it will also encompass those employees who wish to integrate aspects of work and personal life, regardless of marital status, or family situation.

Hypervisibility. According to Blake-Beard and Roberts (2004), hypervisibility describes a heightened visibility that people of color and women face as members of a nondominant group that can affect interactions between members as well as non-members. Being visible, or invisible as may be required by an individual's environment, can influence management of physical and verbal behavior within social and professional circles. Despite limited investigation in work-family research, this study will employ the use of this term that continues to be used by impression management scholars.

Organizational culture and organizational climate. Organizational culture and organizational climate are often used interchangeably in work-family literature. In this study, organizational culture will refer to the shared norms, beliefs, assumptions, and values that shape policies, initiatives, systemic structures, and workplace practices. Organizational climate refers to the perceptions of organizational culture and can encompass both individual and group levels of perception; thus, it encompass it is a less static construct than organizational culture in which several climates can be present at any given time within a workplace.

Background

The Emergence of Flexible Work

In her 2004 presidential address to the American Psychological Association (APA), Diane Halpern noted how the U.S. workforce had changed. She cited the influx of married, mostly middle-income, European American women in the workforce during the 1970s and 1980s as a primary source for this change (Halpern, 2005; see also Buzzanell et al., 2005, and Smithson & Stokoe, 2005). According to Halpern (2005), the influx resulted in a more diversified workforce–in the sense that a greater percentage of women were now a part of it. Greater participation, Halpern (2005) noted, spurred hope that women would finally achieve equitable pay and opportunities within the workplace. When women entered the workforce, however, many entered as mothers. Halpern reported that as of 2002, 66% of married women employed outside of the home had children under the age of 2, and 60% of married women employed outside of the home had children under the age of 1.

In 2013 the BLS reported that women comprised nearly half (46.8%) of the U.S. civilian workforce, and the most recent report from the WHC noted that the employment participation rate of women increased from 32% in 1948 to 61% in 1997 (WHC, 2011). Approximately 70% of working women are employed and have children under the age of 18, with approximately 61% having children under the age of 3 (Women's Bureau, USDOL, 2013). Many workplace policies, however, still reflect traditional career models, in which women remain at home to care for children and other dependents. Despite the trend of working mothers remaining stable for most of the 1990s, most employers failed to integrate parenting with traditional pathways for career advancement (Halpern, 2005).

Many still wrongly believed that mothers worked because they were "obsessed" with their careers or were "addicted to consumerism" (Halpern, 2005, p. 403). Some employers held onto myths that married women, in particular, were shirking responsibility for childrearing, which in effect harmed young children, despite consistent findings in research that this was not a valid concern (Buzzanell, Meisenbach, Remke, Liu, Bowers, & Conn, 2005; Halpern, 2005).

Most working mothers worked to support nondiscretionary household expenses, such as the mortgage and groceries (Halpern, 2005). Most were low-wage earners, and those that were middle-income lived in dual-earner families that lived paycheck-to-paycheck. They could not sustain a life-changing event, such as death or illness of a spouse. In many ways, Halpern (2005) contended, mothers were helping their children by working, because they kept the family out of poverty, created access to adequate health care, and improved the emotional well-being of their children.

Women, regardless of marital status, were juggling more responsibilities for home and for work; yet, they were doing so with fewer familial resources, such as grandmothers and aunts, who could assist with child or dependent care (Blake-Beard, O'Neill, Ingols, & Shapiro, 2010; Loder, 2005). In her address, Halpern (2005) pushed employers to abandon outdated, individual-based career models and embrace the notion of the working family. In sum, employers needed to recognize the multiple roles women often hold as primary caregivers and employees–many of whom shoulder the burden of housework and family-related responsibilities (Buzzanell et al., 2005).

Flexible Work: A Return on Investment for Organizations and its Employees

Halpern (2005) argued that companies could directly address employee needs by implementing family-responsive benefits and family-friendly policies. Doing so would also benefit the "bottom line." The Families and Work Institute reported that organizations that have implemented policies experience greater employee productivity and less employee absenteeism (Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005; Matos & Galinksy, 2011b). Family-friendly initiatives, such as FWAs, have also provided a direct return on investment, and some have argued that they have offered a potential bridge between work and life that could reduce stress for employees (Nord, Fo, Phoenix, & Viano, 2002; Robinson, 2005).

Since Halpern's 2005 address, technology has changed when and where employees work. Technology has enabled FWAs to become a more common aspect of the workplace especially within large organizations (Lewis, 2003; Litrico & Lee, 2008). In response to a growing need for family-responsive benefits, more employers have adopted flexibility arrangements for working parents who want to balance their multiple roles within the workplace as well as within the family.

To retain talented employees, as well as avoid the high costs associated with recruitment and hiring, many large employers have eagerly implemented various forms of work-life balance initiatives such as FWAs. Not having a work-life balance program, or in the very least, initiatives for a developing such a program, has resulted in employees looking for new jobs, taking on second jobs, or completely dropping out of the workforce (Hewlett, 2007).

Turnover in any company can be costly, especially given the expenses of training an individual for a particular job (Hewlett, 2007). Companies have had little choice but to work with employees and find solutions that support the career and personal development of all employees. Various types of FWAs including flexible scheduling arrangements and alternative work arrangements (such as telecommuting, job sharing, compressed work weeks, and reduced workloads), have been pivotal to these initiatives. A variety of options has allowed more employees to participate in company-sponsored wellness programs (Hewlett, 2007; Kelly & Kalev, 2006; Litrico & Lee, 2008).

Professional women with children, as well as their spouses, have directly benefited from policy changes (Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011; Smithson & Stokoe, 2005); survey research has indicated that this shift towards providing flexible benefits is not a fad (Litrico & Lee, 2008; Matos & Galinsky, 2011b). Even at lower-income levels, workplace flexibility has been beneficial. The ability to work a different shift has created greater flexibility for employees to address childcare or dependent care needs (Halpern, 2005; McMenamin, 2007). Work-life balance options for low-wage earners continue to be a challenge that has not been fully addressed by most companies. When they have been offered, benefits that have allowed employees to address child and dependent care needs have fostered environments where low-wage earners are able to sustain employment for longer periods (Henly & Lambert, 2003; Hennessy, 2009). Workplace flexibility has thus created avenues for a variety of employees to address work-family conflicts. It has also permitted employers to design benefits that appeal to employees while benefiting the bottom line.

The USDL (2004) reported that approximately 30% of employees, both hourly and salaried, had access to work flexibility, in which they could alter their work hours on a routine basis. National surveys also indicated that employers were more likely than in previous years to offer some form of flexibility (Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005). With nearly 87% of employees desiring more flexible options (Galinsky, Peer, & Eby, 2009), this trend is not likely to wane.

The Significance of Operational Support on Use of FWAs

Although FWAs have become common aspects of professional workplaces, contextual factors have often influenced their success. Many alternative work programs have often been designed with few policy goals regarding how these arrangements would affect organizational objectives or benefit employees (Kossek & Lee, 2008; Lewis, 2003). Many organizations have had no blueprints for implementing successful programs, and at times have even neglected to consult employees regarding needs or desires (Kossek & Lee, 2008; Lewis, 2003; Nord et al., 2002; Robinson, 2005).

Limited training has left managers unable to effectively supervise tasks, manage productivity, and monitor performance (Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011; Kossek & Lee, 2008; Robinson, 2005). Lack of organizational support for employees has fostered misperceptions regarding availability of benefits and has affected perceptions of fairness (Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Kossek & Distelberg, 2009; Parker & Allen, 2001). Although implementation of work flexibility remains a growing trend, the successes of these programs have been tempered–and at times sabotaged–by lack of effective formal supports.

Industry-specific features such as the amount of task-interdependence has also determined when and where programs are implemented (Parker & Allen, 2001; Robinson, 2005). Variation in whether employers provide flexibility has often been determined by occupation and organizational tasks (Golden, 2001b; McMenamin, 2007). For example, employees of manufacturing firms are less likely to have access to scheduling flexibility on a routine basis because of the nature of the work. Teachers and educators are also less likely to have access to scheduling flexibility because of the inherent need to be present once the children arrive (McMenamin, 2007). Some jobs, hence, do not lend themselves for all types of work flexibility. FWAs could become a source of internal conflict if the type of work is not congruent with implementing an alternative arrangement. Perceived advantages for some also foster a climate in which FWA benefits are perceived as unfair.

The Significance of Individual Perceptions of Organizational Fairness on Use of FWAs

When flexible work was first conceived within corporations, flexible benefits originally addressed family needs as part of work-life balance programs (Lewis, 2003); however, organizational leadership at times neglected to provide alternatives to employees without children. In a culture of overwork, perceptions that flexible benefits were only available to families with children led to backlash (Judge & Colquitt, 2004). Some employees perceived the benefits as unfair and responded with networks such as The Childfree Network (Fost, 1996; Judge & Colquitt, 2004) which advocated work-life balance for single (i.e., without spouse or partner) employees as well as employees without children. Research indicated, however, that employees perceived fewer justice

violations when treatment from management was regarded as fair and consistent (Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Robinson, 2005).

Perceptions of fairness also indicated that communication from organizational leaders or representatives mediated effects of justice violations (Hewlett, 2007; Judge & Colquitt, 2004). Parker and Allen's (2001) study underscored that perceptions of fairness regarding access impacted the success of flexible work programs. Lack of access as well as poor perceptions regarding the fairness of access to these programs induced stress for employees as well as negatively affected organizational productivity (Lewis, Gamble, & Rapoport, 2007; Parker & Allen, 2001). Ultimately, the overall climate was negatively impacted by perceptions that some employees received preferential treatment. When coupled with organizational cultural expectations of work before all other commitments, this tempered the success of FWAs.

The Significance of Organizational Culture on Use of FWAs: Face Time

Workplaces have used FWAs to address employee concerns of balancing work and family commitments, as well as employee desires to integrate work with other aspects of life (Lewis, 2003). Many flexible programs in corporate environments, however, have been sabotaged by informal workplace expectations (Kossek, & Michel, 2011; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). In her 1995 study that focused on the office environment of engineers, Perlow noted that "face time," or being visible in the office, was perceived by employees as well as managers as directly and positively related to career success.

Perlow (1995) continued that face time encompassed the notion that employees were to be (a) visible in the office, (b) committed to working, regardless of the number of

hours required, and (c) committed to prioritizing work over any other commitments, by being regularly available regardless of the amount of working hours—or the costs to the individual and their family (Lewis, Gamble, & Rapoport, 2007). The result was that employees who used benefits, such as telecommuters and employees with nontraditional work schedules, felt added pressure to perform because of misperceptions that they were not really working (Hewlett, 2007; Robinson, 2005). Peer-pressure to be visible in the office cultivated misperceptions that those who were working hard were the ones in the office. Hence, these perceptions promoted an informally accepted work culture that discouraged use of FWAs (Blake-Beard, O'Neill, Ingols, & Shapiro, 2010; Kossek & Lee, 2008; Lewis, Gamble, Rapoport, 2007).

Some researchers argued that misperceptions such as these damaged the relationships that should have been preserved through FWAs (Hewlett, 2007; Robinson, 2005). Lack of effective and formal policies regarding how to use FWAs, how to manage employees who were not in the office, coupled with a lack of effort to enhance team morale between those in the office and those who were not, encouraged perceptions of inequity (Kossek & Lee, 2008; Lewis, Litrico, & Lee, 2008; Robinson, 2005). Regardless of how many hours an employee logged away from the desk, perceptions by colleagues that a peer was shirking responsibilities or failing to demonstrate appropriate face time fostered perceptions of preferential treatment (Lewis, 2003; Lewis, Gamble, & Rapoport, 2007; Robinson, 2005). A climate of face time, thus, undermined a positive organizational culture in which leadership sought to provide alternative working options to their employees. When this type of climate was reinforced by peers, as well as managers, all employees were expected to prioritize work over personal and family

objectives; workers were, thus, expected to sacrifice their family needs for the needs of the organization.

Hypervisibility, Race, Gender: Considering the Problem of Face Time

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether an organization's diversity climate contextually mediates use of flexible benefits by women of color when access to these benefits is supported by typical industry-based tasks and respective employers. Negative organizational culture, as well as subsequent climates, influenced employees to forego use of benefits even when the overall organizational culture supportive culture, through business objectives, vision statements, and human resource policies (Perlow, 1995).

Other researchers have voiced a more troubling concern. Blake-Beard, O'Neill, Ingols, and Shapiro (2010) claimed that in a climate where a culture of diversity has not been established and promoted as a valued resource, women of color may have been discouraged from using the benefits despite availability due to their visible status as a person of color. Blake-Beard et al. (2010, p. 43) contended that face-time expectations created additional challenges for women of color due to "hyper-visibility." Hypervisibility encompassed the notion of heightened visibility of an individual due to skin color or gender. Notable visibility due to personal characteristics impacted how individuals managed their daily interactions with others as well as their personal behavior.

Within the workplace, individuals aimed to manage their sense of professionalism through deliberate image construction that ultimately improved appearances of "competence and [good] character" (Roberts, 2005, p. 687) through contextually

appropriate behavior, personal traits, and physical appearance (e.g., conservative dress and clothing in an office setting). Group membership, Roberts noted, potentially complicated this task; members had to actively consider how their group identification as well as affiliation influenced others' perceptions. Although most professionals consider their professional image, being a member of a visible racial/ethnic group meant considering others' perceptions of traits, behavior, and appearance that countered the normative behavior and attitudes of the majority racial/ethnic group (Cox, 1994; Roberts, 2005).

Work protocols, such as the informal expectations of face time, required that employees manage how visible (or invisible) they were within the workplace (Blake-Beard & Roberts, 2004). Physical visibility had to be managed in terms of how many absences were taken, but Blake-Beard and Roberts (2004) also contended that participation in conversations and personal actions also had to be managed (Blake-Beard & Roberts, 2004; Roberts, Roberts, O'Neill, & Blake-Beard, 2008). Persons of color, they noted, could not appear to be too aggressive, overbearing, or dominating, because these types of traits fed negative racial stereotypes. Failing to speak-up or be assertive, however, rendered an individual invisible in important conversations that determined power structures (Roberts et al., 2008).

When an employee used benefits, particularly flexible scheduling, Blake-Beard, O'Neill, Ingols, and Shapiro (2010) argued that she had to manage use in relation to others' perceptions of her, perceptions that were often influenced by gender and racial stereotypes as well as biases associated with visible racial/ethnic status. Because of these expectations, they argued that employees of color became discouraged from using

flexible scheduling arrangements (Blake-Beard et al., 2010). In effect, they contended, informal practices within the workplace-coupled with social and historical effects of racism and sexism-diminished the positive aspects of employees participating in a workplace benefit. The present study builds upon this framework and considers the theme of managing visibility, or hypervisibility, as a fundamental tenet in understanding threats and barriers to flexible benefit use when an organization's diversity climate is not conducive to using these benefits.

Statement of the Problem

As noted above, FWAs have become common aspects of the workplace; yet, organizational climate issues, particularly informal policies such as face time, have undermined organizational work-life balance initiatives (Lewis, Gamble, & Rapoport, 2007). Studies have investigated how organizational culture, as well as climates within the culture, has impacted benefit usage (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). In environments perceived as nonsupportive, use is low despite formal implementation of flexible scheduling programs. Others have contended that face-time expectations coupled with lack of cultural support have fostered additional challenges for women of color. Due to their "hyper-visibility" within the workplace (Blake-Beard, O'Neill, Ingols, & Shapiro, 2010, p. 43) using benefits has to be managed with racial stereotypes and informal expectations due to group membership. Despite increased research, many studies have ignored factors that influence use. More specific, they have failed to address the intersections of race and gender with workplace climate; hence, they have failed to understand whether perceptions of diversity climate have impacted flexible-scheduling usage by women of color.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to (a) whether race/ethnicity affected diversity climate perceptions, (b) the relationship between an individual's race/ethnicity and the use of FWAs, and (c) whether perceptions of an organization's diversity climate mediated this relationship. By focusing on perceptions of organizational diversity, as they relate to workplace climate, the study explored implications for how employees, especially employees of color, manage work-family issues. Lastly, the study addressed a gap in the literature on attitude formation for employees of color and how attitudes influence use of work flexibility programs. In this study, race/ethnicity was the independent variable; use of FWAs was the dependent variable and diversity climate functioned as the mediator.

Nature of the Study

This quantitative study used regression analysis and focused on the relationship between the independent variables, race and diversity climate, and the dependent variable, use of FWAs. The main purpose of regression analysis is to determine the predictors of a dependent variable. Determining reliable predictors is critical to developing a meaningful model that can be used for making inferences (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Scores are obtained through Likert-scale scores and demographic variables. Comparisons are made between groups, in which survey research is used to (a) collect pertinent demographics and (b) to assess attitudes about organizational diversity climate. Data collection via surveys has traditionally offered advantages for collecting information regarding opinions, attitudes, and perceptions (Creswell, 2003).

Previous research has indicated that women, particularly those with young children, desire and use flexible benefits more than men (Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005; Kossek & Distelberg, 2009); thus, this study focused on both visible racial/ethnic women as well as non-ethnic women. Lastly, FWAs tend to be more available in mid-to-large-sized firms that offer task-interdependent work. Because of this aspect, professional women who work in professional settings are the focus for the study. The nature of this study, as well as its methodology, are elaborated in Chapter 3.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

As noted above, the purpose of this study was to investigate how an individual's racial/ethnic status affected use of FWAs when examining diversity climate as a mediating framework. Thus, the following research questions functioned as guides for inquiry and for generating hypotheses:

Research Question 1: Would race/ethnicity predict perceptions of diversity climate?

$H_0$1: Race/ethnicity would not significantly predict perceptions of diversity climate.

$H_1$1: Race/ethnicity would significantly predict perceptions of diversity climate.

Research Question 2: Would race/ethnicity predict use of FWAs?

$H_0$2: Race/ethnicity would not significantly predict use of FWAs.

$H_1$2: Race/ethnicity would significantly predict use of FWAs.

Research Question 3: Would perceptions of diversity climate mediate the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs?

$H_0$3: Perceptions of diversity climate would not significantly mediate the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

$H_1$3: Perceptions of diversity climate would significantly mediate the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical constructs that served as a relevant framework for this study include (a) diversity climate, (b) organizational climate and organizational culture, (c) and (c) face time and the construct of hypervisibility.

Diversity Climate

Diversity climate extends organizational climate because it refers to psychological perceptions relevant to women and visible minorities. The literature has focused on attitudes and perceptions about organizational practices and policies (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Mor Barak et al., 1998). More recent literature on diversity climate has included items that assess perceptions about qualifications for women and minorities, perceptions of recruiting and retention, as well as efforts to promote diversity. Researchers have found that diversity climate influences work attendance (Avery, McKay, Wilson, & Tonidandel, 2007) as well as retention (McKay et al., 2007).This is elaborated in Chapter 2.

In this study, diversity climate was assessed by evaluating individual perceptions of organizational climate. The focus of this study was to evaluate individual perceptions of whether an organization is perceived as putting forth significant effort towards promoting and supporting diversity through adequate policies and training efforts. The theoretical framework is pivotal in understanding whether climate is a mediating factor in

benefit use by visible minorities. More discussion on the role of diversity climate in influencing individual and organizational outcomes follows in Chapter 2.

Organizational Climate and Culture

In work–family literature, organizational culture and organizational climate are often used interchangeably. This is a problem and it may be due in part to how organizational climate and organizational culture have been used interchangeably in previous literature. A search of PsycINFO and PsycARTICLES databases, for example, yielded 144 results when the keywords *organizational climate, work,* and *family* were used; yet only 4 articles actually featured organizational climate as a measure within their analysis. Most referenced work on organizational culture, and PsycINFO results often listed organizational climate as a key term, even when organizational culture was examined.

Despite how researchers have defined and used these constructs, important distinctions are often recognized in management literature; this study will distinguish between climate and culture. Organizational culture refers to the group practices of an organization or the shared norms, beliefs, assumptions, and values that shape policies, initiatives, systemic structures, and workplace practices (Denison, 1996; Lyness, Thompson, Francesco, & Judiesch, 1999; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 2004). Organizational climate refers to the perceptions of collective norms and values that influence attitudes and behavior within the workplace (Denison, 1990).

Given the commonly used definition of organizational culture, this study supports the notion that organizational culture is inherently a group phenomenon, in which

information regarding a group is used to provide a general understanding of its collective characteristics, norms, and values (Denison, 1990). It is integral in understanding how employers and employees value workplace flexibility, because it provides a basic understanding of whether flexible benefits are offered, whether employees have access to these benefits, and how management promotes work flexibility and family-friendly policies (Kossek & Distelberg, 2009).

Organizational culture does not assess how employees perceive their environment, benefit systems, or access to opportunities within these systems. Employers and employees often have different perceptions regarding what benefits are available and who has access to them (Kossek & Michel, 2011). This study deliberately examined organizational climate as a meaningful way to assess employee perceptions of racial diversity and how these perceptions influence attitudes, beliefs, and behavior that affirm or the overall work culture. More discussion on organizational climate and culture as the basis for diversity climate will follow in Chapter 2.

Organizational Culture and its Impact on Use of FWAs

This study expanded on research which suggested that organizational culture and organizational climate impact benefit use. The relationship between organizational culture and flexible benefit use has been well-established in work-family literature. The notion that organizational culture should be examined as a factor that could affect usage of family-friendly benefits was first proposed by Thomas and Ganster (1995), who suggested that organizational support, especially supervisor-based support, were essential in reducing work-family conflict. They found that reinforcement of support through employee assistance programs and insurance benefits alleviated strain and stress that

exacerbated to conflict between work and home-life. Supervisors were equally essential in reducing conflict, they concluded.

Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness's study (1999) supported Thomas and Ganster's findings (1995) a few years later when they investigated the impact of organizational culture on family-friendly workplace practices as a multileveled effect. The authors developed a highly influential measure of workplace culture that built on the theoretical models for organizational culture developed by Schneider and Reichers (1983) and Denison (1996). Based on the notion that organizational culture influenced employee attitudes and behavior, Thompson et al. (1999) hypothesized that employee attitudes and perceptions of work culture influenced family-friendly benefit use. Through their measure, which assessed three levels of workplace culture, they found that perceptions of a supportive work culture significantly influenced benefit use. A supportive work culture, they argued, alleviated employee concerns regarding lack of career advancement for using such benefits. Both supervisor and organizational support were, thus, necessary in encouraging flexible benefit use. Simply providing benefits, they concluded, did not alleviate work-family conflict.

Because of these research studies, subsequent research was directed towards understanding how contextual factors, such as organizational culture and organizational climate, significantly impacted use of benefits (Hewlett, 2007; Kossek & Lee, 2008; Lewis, 2003; Robinson, 2005). Very little evidence emerged, however, that explained whether racial minorities, who were less likely to have access to flexible work (McMenamin, 2007), were similarly affected. From Thomas and Ganster's (1995) study as well as Thompson et al.'s (1999) study, researchers learned that a work culture that

prioritized work roles over personal or family roles shaped subsequent climates. In effect, it regulated individual behavior as well as influenced individual perceptions regarding appropriate use of flexible benefits. More discussion on the effect of organizational culture on individual behavior within a framework of positive and negative diversity climate follows in Chapter 2.

Face Time and Hypervisibility

Face time, as noted above, encompassed the notion that employees should demonstrate their commitment to the company as well as dedication to their careers through working long hours (Perlow, 1995, 1998). The informal requirement of face time as an accepted cultural practice of the office, however, prohibited employees from feeling as if it were safe to use benefits. As a result, benefits that were formally offered as an attempt to help employees manage their work and family spheres were ineffective. The main issue of this investigation was that face time expectations may be confounded when considering gender and race due to the visibility, or hypervisibility, of women and persons of color in the workplace. The notion of managing personal visibility as an additional aspect that influences behavior within the workplace serves as a framework for exploring the concept of diversity climate and its subsequent effects. In Chapter 2, this concept is discussed further in the review of the literature and relevant instruments.

Assumptions

This study assumed that participants were willing to provide truthful information regarding personal identity and work life. Given the concerns of revealing racial and gender identity within the workplace, lack of response must also be considered carefully within the context of this study. As noted by Blake-Beard and Roberts (2004), visibility is

a constant concern for minorities within the workplace. It must be carefully managed in a manner that is mindful of real and perceived constraints. Accordingly, this study assumed that participants socially and culturally identified with the visible racial and/or gender identity that is prescribed by others.

Scope, Delimitations, and Limitations

Socio-economic Status

This study was not without limitations. It did not fully explore issues of class that are a key component to understanding the success behind work-life balance programs that work. Compared to professional female workers, low-income female workers, regardless of race, face different issues such as the need for more hours to increase income, as well as the need to have more control of their work schedule to plan care for their children (Kossek & Distelberg, 2009).

Existing literature has examined diversity climate in blue-collar settings; however, the tendency has been to examine professional organizations. For the purposes of this study, examining professional workers and their respective industries has the advantage of examining diversity climate in environments where organizations have often spent time and money addressing diversity (Gonzalez & DeNisi 2009); therefore, one can examine the effectiveness of programs in relation to benefits that are provided. In contrast, low-income workers often work in industries where fewer resources have been made available to adequately address diversity in the workplace (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Kossek & Distelberg, 2009). Although there is a great need to address issues of class and diversity climate, as well as issues of class as they relate to access of FWAs, this aspect was outside the scope of this study.

Age and Generational Gaps

In addition to the above, differences in generational use were not incorporated Although these issues were acknowledged, a thorough treatment was not within the scope of this study.

Gender

Women were the focus of this investigation; yet, the study did not intend to frame the discussion as a problem relevant to women only. According to Smithson and Stokoe (2005), both women and men regarded use of flexible work as benefits relevant solely to females. These perceptions, they noted, were often fueled by stereotypes, which, whether consciously or unconsciously, foster a nonsupportive working environment, and, as a consequence, organizational based, family-friendly programs are rendered ineffectual.

Women are not the only population affected by the lack of benefits, adequate access to these benefits, or the inability or unwillingness of employers to adequately address employee needs. The perception that flexible benefits are for women only has actually countered the effectiveness of the family-friendly initiative for fathers with children (Hewlett, 2007; Smithson & Stokoe, 2005). Because literature indicated that women typically addressed dependent care needs more often than men, as well as valued the need for flexible work, they were the focus of the study.

The need to understand the impact of gender and how it affects flexible benefit utilization still exist in work-family literature. In order to expand the framework of work-family research, some have called for the degendering of work-family conflict (Leslie & Manchester, 2011), and some have called for researchers to avoid framing work-family issues as women's issues.

A study conducted by Smithson and Stokoe's (2005) revealed, however, that perceptions of fairness were indicators of flexible benefit use, and perceptions of fairness should be managed by senior leaders. Senior leaders, they concluded, needed to be capable of promoting equality. Minimizing gender differences at the expense of disregarding diverse aspects of the workforce such as motherhood and womanhood, failed, as Smithson and Stokoe (2005) noted, to promote equality. More important, it downplayed historical effects of sexism and discrimination within the world of work (Williams, 2007; Williams, Manvell, & Borenstein, 2006) in which organizational power structures marginalized women's roles within the workplace and minimized not only the visible importance of women but also their strategic importance as diverse contributors to the overall organizational objectives (Simpson & Lewis, 2005).

Although the participants in Smith and Stokoe's (2005) study did not believe that family-friendly programs were solely for women, their interviews with men and women at this firm indicated that benefits were more likely perceived as issues relevant to women, and, thus, women had to accommodate this stereotype when using flexible, family-responsive benefits. Previous research, indicated that use of FWAs would hinge on whether organizational leadership promoted a work culture that clearly articulated the purpose of FWAs and how perceptions of justice were being addressed.

Self-Selection Bias

This study recruited participants from LinkedIn.com, an online social media site for professional employees. This site provides a convenient method for recruiting professional working women who may be employed at companies that provide flexible

benefits to their employees. Participation with the site is completely voluntary and does not represent employees who do not choose to actively participate.

The study also recruited from the Walden University Participant Pool. The Participant Pool contains Walden University students, faculty, and community members—some of whom are employed in professional occupations. Walden caters to working professionals who are interested in furthering their education without limiting their career choices. The University has also been recognized for their commitment to diversity in higher education for the number of racial minority students in graduate level programs. Because this study focused on diversity and working professionals, as well as working women, this site provides an additional method for data collection by providing a pool of possible participants relevant to the study.

Participants had the option to choose to participate based upon their personal evaluation of whether they met the initial criteria for the study. When participants are allowed to evaluate whether they will participate in a study, there is a very high chance that their participation may be correlated with the participant's ideological interest in the topic of the study (Bethlehem, 2010; Gronau, 1974; Heckman, 1976; Olsen, 2008) and therefore produce systematic bias in the results. All surveys contain some measure of self-selection bias that must be considered as a limitation for empirical studies.

Location

An additional limitation of this study was that it focused on working conditions in the United States. Cross-cultural comparisons regarding flexible work were not thoroughly addressed, although research is clearly needed in this area (Poelmans, Chinchilla, & Cardona, 2003). As Lewis, Gamble, and Rapoport (2007) noted, at some

point researchers would need to address international concerns; otherwise, work-life balance literature would risk portraying work-family interfaces as a primarily individual concern that affects families rather than as a fundamental need to address the cultural meanings behind the notion of work (Lewis, Gamble, & Rapoport, 2007).

Race and Other Considerations

The goal of this study was to understand how diversity climate mediated use of FWAs when examining race and ethnicity. Race in the context of the U.S. is a highly conceptual framework often used for a variety of levels of categorization; yet, the meaning does not always adequately describe the ethnic and cultural aspects of an individual—or a group. Pope-Davis and Liu (1998, para. 6) best addressed this problem when they stated, "Ironically, it is the attempt to only focus on race as a singular construct that has led to the various definitions, to the exclusion of gender, sexuality, ethnicity, social class and culture." This aspect has made race a complicated, but nevertheless, essential variable in psychological research. Given the purpose of this study, race/ethnicity was an essential variable that helped address the lack of intersection with the main purpose of identifying the effects of race on work experiences.

An obvious limitation, as noted by De Cieri, Cox, and Fenwick (2007), was that researchers are often bound by the very framework they wish to analyze. Even the terms that are used–such as race and ethnicity-are byproducts of particular perspectives. There are times when it may not always be possible to transcend biases inherent in interpretation; yet researchers are obligated to make a consistent effort to present information without overgeneralizing or overascribing traits and characteristics.

Significance of the Study

The amount of literature regarding work-life balance, and more specifically, use of FWAs, has increased, and the topic has ultimately expanded into its own discourse. Despite this development, intersections of race, ethnicity, and gender continue to be ignored. There remains a greater need to expound on notions of work-life balance as they relate to women of color employees. Most samples are overwhelmingly European American and female (80–90%), and thus issues related to ethnic minority populations are not fully understood.

This has implications for positive social change. Organizations can signal commitment to diversity in the workplace by enforcing affirmative action policies, creating inclusion programs, maintaining equal employment opportunity, and in essence, sustaining the formal and informal support structures that are essential to maintaining this commitment. Organizations that fail to provide a positive climate that promotes diversity are more likely to affect the well-being of all employees and hence create a barrier to productivity and positive morale (McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2007).

Lack of inclusive research also influences the success of work flexibility. If researchers neglect to explore issues relevant to women of color, then the effectiveness of flexible work will be limited. Researchers, as well as practitioners, will fail to understand whether interventions that promote balance actually work for women of color and whether they are indeed the same for non-minorities. With an impending talent shortage as well as the projected growth of minorities in industries other than services (Meinert, 2011), this has major implications for effective human resource planning. FWAs have been touted as a social solution for sustaining the workforce (Lewis, Gamble, &

Rapoport, 2007; Hewlett, 2007; Shellenbarger, 2006). Equally, they have provided a strategic link in staff planning by helping human resource administers understand the needs of the workforce. Without this understanding, it will become increasingly impossible to sustain the organization.

Summary and Transition

FWAs signal the changing nature of work. They underscore how, over the last few decades, workplaces have adapted to technological advances, as well as to the changing demographics of the workforce. Increased availability also highlights the need to find ways to manage boundaries that have become more permeable with technological advances. With an impending talent shortage (Hewlett, 2007; Meinert, 2011; Shellenbarger, 2006), FWAs provide workers and employers with practices that can foster better outcomes for both businesses and employees.

Despite the prevalence of work-life balance initiatives, including flexible work schedule benefits, a need to understand challenges that threaten to limit successful implementation of FWAs within organizations and to diminish access to employees who need programs such as these to successfully meet demands on the job and at home still exist. According to the literature, access to FWAs may be intricately tied to race and gender. Lack of benefit usage, or underutilized benefit usage, may indicate that workplaces need to enforce affirmative action policies as well as recommit to diversity training and inclusion practices. There is a gap in the literature that prevents a more thorough understanding of the structural and relational supports, such as a climate for diversity, which ensure access and hence success. This study addressed these issues.

Chapter 2 provides a review of existent literature regarding the relationship between organizational diversity climate, race, and use of FWAs. As noted above, previous work-family literature has tended to emphasize the importance of organizational culture in benefit usage; however, this study focuses on the impact of organizational climate and how this construct may be more useful in understanding the psychological ramifications that accompany the hypervisibility status of minorities within the workplace.

Chapter 3 discusses the research design for this study. In this chapter, the sample population, ethical considerations, instruments of the measured constructs, methodology, and data analysis techniques will be outlined. It also underscores the importance of hierarchical multiple regression as a useful statistical technique for understanding relationships between the variables within this study.

Chapter 4 includes a discussion of the results for this study. Hypothesis testing is reviewed in addition to a discussion and summary of results. Regression analysis along with a complete description of the sample will also be included.

Chapter 5 provides a summary as well as conclude the study. Limitations of the study are reviewed and discussed, as well as recommendations for further study. Most important, social change implications in relation to employees and employer needs are discussed.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether race/ethnicity affected diversity climate perceptions. It also examined the relationship between an individual's race/ethnicity and the use of FWAs, as well as whether perceptions of an organization's diversity climate mediated the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

Discussions regarding a climate for diversity as a factor in whether an employee feels comfortable in using a flexible work benefit have emerged in the literature (Blake-Beard, O'Neill, Ingols, & Shapiro, 2010); yet, there is very little evidence demonstrating that organizational diversity climate functions as a mediator for use of FWAs when an employee's racial/ethnic status is considered. Few studies have investigated whether a relationship exists, and more studies are needed—for researchers as well as practitioners—to clarify the relationship between organizational diversity climate and use of FWAs. Empirical studies are particularly needed to help clarify whether diversity climate is a strong mediator and in what contexts.

The underlying issue is that race may influence use when diversity climate is negative; yet, the effect may be more pronounced when there is a negative climate for racial diversity. To examine this relationship, the chapter reviews the relationship between race/ethnicity and diversity climate that has been previously explored by scholars, and then it explains for how this relationship is important to use of FWAs. The chapter is organized into three parts: a review of the conceptual development of diversity climate as a variable; the relationship between race and diversity climate, as well as the

importance of race in work-family literature studies; and a review of the potential relationship between diversity climate, race, and use of FWAs.

Strategies for Literature Search

What follows is a review of the literature that assists in understanding the relationships between organizational diversity climate, race and use of FWAs. Thorough searches were performed using electronic databases, including psychology databases including PsycINFO, PsychBOOKS, and PsycARTICLES. Because this study focused the family and work interface, searches were also completed in SocINDEX, Gender Studies, Business Source Complete databases, Emerald Management, Academic Search Premier, ProQuest Central, Dissertations and Theses, and Dissertations and Theses at Walden University. Search terms that were used included *diversity climate, organizational climate, organizational culture, hypervisibility, work flexibility, flexible work scheduling, flexible work arrangements, alternative work arrangements, family responsive benefits,* and *telecommuting*. Because work flexibility has been researched by many of the same scholars from 1990 to 2014, using the keywords, *Ellen Kossek, Tammy Allen, Kristin Shockley, Ellen Galinsky, Jeremy Hayman,* and *Susan Eaton*, also yielded useful results. The search for material included peer-reviewed articles, books, trade publications, and dissertations.

Literature searches were conducted to determine what factors had affected benefit use in workplaces; how race was used as a variable in qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods studies; how diversity climate was defined in the literature; the relevance of social identity as well as intergroup theory in developing the concept of diversity climate; the overall themes found when examining diversity climate; the relationship between

diversity climate and organizational climate; how organizational climate related to organizational culture; the concept of hypervisibility; overall themes found when examining work flexibility; and finally gaps in current research regarding work flexibility, as well as regarding diversity climate.

The Challenges of Defining Diversity Climate as a Construct

As noted earlier, the purpose of this study is to investigate whether diversity climate has a mediating effect on use of FWAs when examining race. In the literature, the term diversity climate described employee perceptions of how an organization valued diversity. Within the literature diversity climate was described as an extension of the organizational climate construct; yet, it incorporated the psychological perceptions of women and visible minorities (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Kossek & Zonia, & Young, 1996). Perceptions were influenced by contextual, as well as individual factors that ultimately shaped employee attitudes and behavior (Kossek & Zonia, 2003; Kossek, Zonia, & Young, 1996).

Blake-Beard, O'Neill, Ingols, & Shapiro (2010) argued that hypervisibility of racial/ethnic employees in a negative diversity climate fostered an environment where use of benefits by racial/ethnic employees triggered stereotypical views. Employees, particularly women of color, avoided use of benefits rather than directly address stereotypes. This study investigates the legitimacy of these claims and potentially provides a framework for understanding the conditions in which those claims are supported. Two models for diversity climate have shaped subsequent research, and they will provide a useful context for the study.

Defining Diversity Climate

Cox's (1994) IMCD model. Cox (1994) developed a model for diversity climate or the interactional model for cultural diversity (IMCD) that encompassed interactional but separate dimensions, including individual, group and intergroup factors, as well as organizational factors that influenced individual career outcomes and organizational effectiveness. Cox's (1994) diversity climate model contained four individual levels; these included personal identity, prejudice, stereotyping, and personality type. Three intergroup levels, including cultural differences, ethnocentrism, and intergroup conflict were present in his model, and four organizational levels which included organizational culture and acculturation process, structural integration, informal integration, and institutional bias were also integral to Cox's model.

A distinguishing feature was that Cox (1994)'s model relied heavily on assumptions found in organizational culture theories; thus, his model encompassed not only various levels of analysis, but also entailed processes that built and maintained a culture, as well as subcultures, within an organization. His discussion on acculturation processes was indicative of his efforts to clarify the association between those individuals who were historically, heavily influenced by social and political aspects, and, thus, he emphasized the importance of race and gender within society, as well as the workplace.

Acculturation methods involved an exchange of the shared norms, beliefs, and values which formed organizational culture to new members of the organization through a socialization or training process. Cox explained that the goal of the organization was to create a fit between the organization, its existing members, and the newcomers (Cox, 1994). For European American women and people of color, acculturation fostered a

problematic existence when acculturation was unidirectional (Bell, 1990; Cox, 1994; Kamenou, 2008). Organizational culture was shaped primarily from perspectives of the majority European American male culture, Cox (1994) argued, and an immediate contrast became evident for racial minorities and European American women. He noted that European American women attempted to behave less feminine, by avoiding the appearance of being vulnerable and less competent. Cox (1994) also argued that racial minorities attempted to assimilate by integrating into organizational culture to deliberately downplay cultural and racial differences. This creates a phenomenon Cox (1994, p. 58) termed, "biculturalism." Biculturalism fostered a split existence in which an individual was forced to exhibit a primary work identity that did not always reconcile or overlap with their nonwork identity. Cox (1994) explained that individuals were, thus, forced to choose between two nonequivalent cultural groups. The ultimate cost, he argued, was the individual suffered some level of personal identity loss that eventually influenced an individual to leave the organization.

Over time, the organization paid for multiple losses as businesses without a supportive culture suffered high turnover among racial minorities as well as European American women outside of childbearing years (Cox, 1991, 1994). Lack of support, he noted, also affected productivity, absenteeism, and work quality. As a result a culture that failed to support racial, ethnic, and gender diversity directly affected organizational outcomes including individual career development and organizational effectiveness. Developing a positive diversity climate, he argued, thus, benefited organizations.

Given the zeitgeist of the 1990s, Cox's efforts supported the notion of developing a multicultural organization (Cox, 1991) that would support the various cultural

elements–even those beyond race and gender–in a manner that ultimately supported employees and bolstered the organization. Like many researchers of the time (Thomas, 1990; Vaughn, 1990) his objective was to provide an analysis of diversity that demonstrated how lack of support affects the bottom line. By developing this model he hoped to spur research in this area, as well as provide practical assistance to diversity trainers and managers.

Relevance to the study. Cox's model (1994) spurred research (as will be discussed later in the chapter); yet, despite his efforts, his model was criticized as extremely broad (Kossek, Zonia, & Young, 1996). Hicks-Clarke and Iles (2000) wrote years later that Cox's (1994) model was an effective attempt to promote the business case for diversity within the U.S.; yet, his model contained too many indicators that would not establish empirical evidence for adequately measuring diversity climate. Despite criticism Cox's model continued to be referenced in the literature as a general theory for understanding how diversity impacts businesses; thus, his model has remained relevant.

Cox's (1994) model underscored that there were differences in how racial minorities in professional settings, particularly women, experienced work, and this experience at times was vastly different from their European American and/or male coworkers. If racial/ethnic employees understood work as a bifurcating process as Cox (1994) asserted, then examining how employees perceived diversity climate of an organization mattered. A bifurcation experience potentially influenced not only how employees perceived their place of employment but also how they viewed using a benefit. If they perceive that use would call attention to their difference, or their lack of

assimilation into the overall work culture, then usage of this benefit would be affected even when available. In this study, this aspect is the primary focus of investigation.

Kossek and Zonia's (1993) research. Although Cox's IMCD model was criticized for being too broad, Kossek and Zonia's (1993) description for diversity climate provided a direction for developing indicators for researchers that desired more empirical evidence that diversity climate was a significant factor with definitive workplace outcomes. They described diversity climate as an aggregated construct in which an environment or set of environments were examined in conjunction with psychological perceptions relevant to visible racial minorities and European American women.

In their study, Kossek and Zonia (1993) built upon Schneider and Reichers's (1983) construct of organizational climate which defined organizational climate as the perceptions of collective norms and values. They proposed that diversity climate encompassed attitudes and perceptions of organizational policies, practices, shared beliefs and norms that formed organizational culture relevant to racial, ethnic, and gender diversity. They also incorporated Alderfer and Smith's (1982) foundational theory on intergroup relationships in which they claimed that individuals used socially constructed meanings to shape personal identity, including racial and gender identity. Lastly, they proposed that diversity climate also encompassed various levels of interaction between majority and minority racial/ethnic groups. The authors interpreted the notion of climate as an atmosphere that spawned out of organizational culture and at times existed with other climates or as multiple layers of a climate.

Given their adaptation of Alderfer and Smith's (1982) work, Kossek and Zonia (1993) focused their study on relationships between racial and gender group membership. Tenure or position (referred to as level) within the organization were also considered, as were perceptions of organizational diversity climate and racial heterogeneity. Using exploratory factor analysis-a customary practice to determine factors (Mertler & Vannatta, 2009)-the authors developed scales by examining 20 items related to diversity in which, after applying oblique rotation, four factors that accounted for 66% of the variance were retained. These included Factor 1, Value efforts to promote diversity; Factor 2, Qualifications of racioethnic minorities; Factor 3, Qualifications of [European American] women; and Factor 4, Departmental support for women and racioethnic minorities (Kossek & Zonia, 1993, p. 72).

Using a sample of 1,507 faculty and academic staff of a public university, the authors ran a three-way ANOVA with gender, race, and level (position) as independent variables and the previously mentioned factors as dependent variables to examine interaction effects on the scales. After running final regression analyses, they found that gender, race, and level were related to how individuals perceived climate within the organization. In this particular sample, racial minorities compared to European American men and women valued diversity promotion efforts by the organization. European American women when compared to European American men, who were in the majority at this institution, valued promotion of diversity more.

Perceptions of competence and access to opportunities were also evaluated. Racial minorities rated the qualifications of racial/ethnic faculty higher compared to European Americans, and European American women rated the qualifications of female

faculty as higher compared to European American men. Finally, European American men believed that European American women and racioethnic minorities had an equal chance of receiving support from the organization when compared to European American women and minorities. Through their study, they found that an individual's identity heavily influenced how much one valued an organization's attempts to promote diversity. More important, perceptions of capability were also linked to racial identity and gender. Their study demonstrated that bias was still a problem even within organizations that heavily promoted positive aspects of diversity.

One of the most significant aspects of Kossek and Zonia (1993) study was that they examined the effects of contextual factors, such as gender and racial heterogeneity within units, as well as the effects of group membership when examining survey responses. They noted that group membership was a better indicator of attitudes regarding diversity as well as how much diversity was valued; thus, their results provided a better understanding of how perceptions of diversity climate differ by gender and race. Second, by combining perceptions of diversity as a climate of an organization–and hence an aspect of organizational culture–they helped define how employees interpret and react to organizational culture. Lastly, they established a measure to assess diversity climate.

Their study was not without limitations. Although more racially diverse than most workplaces, research in a variety of behavioral areas demonstrated that college campuses did not always provide representative samples (Triandis, 2000), and this setting may have framed the types of responses they received. Despite the work setting, they found some aspects that indicated that racism and sexism were still present on campus. Given that their sample was highly educated, this finding was surprising for the authors, as they

acknowledged that they expected individuals in this environment to appreciate efforts towards diversity (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Kossek, Zonia, & Young, 1996).

One additional limitation was that they realized the terminology used in the survey affected some responses. Characteristic of the times, they did not distinguish between "minority women" and "White women" when using the term *women*. They made assumptions that the term would be understood as referring to European American women and that the term minority would be understood as referring to minority men and women. The authors supplied information regarding their race and gender as well as their position level, as they noted that they were "untenured White women" (Kossek & Zonia, 1993, p. 74). During the 1990s, diversity studies, in general, often failed to make this important distinction (Thomas, 1990; Koonce, 2001). Their study provided much needed direction for developing indicators of diversity climate; yet, their failure to properly reflect on their own perceptions regarding race and gender underscored important flaws in the study that would have to be overcome by other researchers.

Examining how one viewed race and gender, as well as majority and minority status, within an organization was extremely important in understanding individual attitudes regarding diversity climate; yet, it was also vital to anticipate the importance of self-identification in group membership. Despite Cox's (1994) broad framework for examining diversity climate, his work incorporated self-identification as important aspect of understanding cultural identification as an identification process with a group that went beyond physical features. Failing to understand that racial/ethnic minority women still saw themselves as women highlighted one of the most important tasks for researchers to address when assessing diversity climate.

Relevance to the study. Despite limitations, Kossek and Zonia's (1993) research built a foundation for how a climate of positive diversity was related to organizational outcomes. Much of the early research on diversity focused on managing the sheer numbers of minorities and European American women entering the workforce (Thomas, 1990; Vaughn, 1990). The value of Kossek and Zonia (1993), as well as Cox (1994), demonstrated why researchers should do more than address increasing numbers. If an organization was to be competitive and effective, then it had to create conducive climates where access to opportunities was deemed as fair and organizational members were viewed as competent without bias and prejudice.

Most important, their study underscored the need to address climate as a context of analysis. Although Cox's (1994) model provided a framework for understanding that organizational culture affected benefit use, Kossek and Zonia's (1993) work provided a context for understanding the employee perspective. Their perspective remains a relevant framework for exploring how climate impacts attitudes, perceptions, and behavior. Furthermore, the authors described diversity climate as a type of climate that could exist within a variety of climates as well as within an overall organizational culture.

Because this study proposes that diversity climate is a mediator that affects the interaction between race and use of FWAs, their study provides a relevant framework for exploring how diversity climate could affect individual perceptions and behavior. This study, however, extends the concept of diversity climate. It incorporates the notion of employee perceptions of diversity climate; however, it moves beyond assessing the presence of diversity climate. Not only does it assess diversity climate, it also focuses on organizational outcomes that are affected by those perceptions.

Comparing Kossek and Zonia (1993) to Cox (1994). Kossek and Zonia (1993) as well as Cox (1994) deliberately distinguished their definitions of diversity climate. Cox (1994) acknowledged Kossek and Zonia's (1993) description but argued that his examined the impact of multidimensional aspects of cultural diversity and identity as well as the significance of organizational environment on individual and organizational outcomes. Kossek, Zonia, and Young (1996) later noted that Cox's (1994) description was much broader than theirs. They differed from Cox (1994) in that they did not separate individual or group level of analysis with sublevels. They also believed diversity climate stemmed from individual perceptions that were a result of direct and indirect factors of group membership and indicators of an organization's commitment to diversity. Perceptions ultimately shaped group behavior and perceptions of organizational diversity climate.

Although they had differences, both models shared some similarities. Both regarded diversity climate as an essential aspect of organizational effectiveness. They contended that organizational climate in conjunction with individual, psychological perceptions of climate shaped individual reaction to an organization's diversity climate, as well as group interactions within a climate. Beliefs regarding formal policies, they continued, such as those found in human resource practices, as well as informal policies such as those demonstrated by supervisors (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000) shaped employee attitudes regarding fairness that inherently influenced an employee's belief regarding an organization's commitment to diversity. All authors thus articulated that diversity climate was in a sense a barometer for perceived support for racial and gender diversity, and perceived access to opportunities within an organization.

Measuring diversity climate, including using the correct level of analysis, proved to be a challenging task for many researchers who relied upon Kossek and Zonia's (1993) as well as Cox's (1994) IMCD model for diversity to inform their efforts to understand diversity climate in various contexts. Despite their differences, as well as difficulties by researchers to converge these two perspectives, the positive impact of Cox's (1994) model as well as Kossek and Zonia's (1993) work remained pivotal to advancing discussion in research on diversity and diversity climate.

Developing a Model

After Cox's (1994) development of IMCD as well as Kossek and Zonia's (1993) groundbreaking study, research on organizational diversity climate has focused on several outcomes. Investigations have included individual-level outcomes such as employee job satisfaction, career satisfaction (Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000; Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein, 2011) as well as empowerment (Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein, 2011).

Research has also focused on organizational-level outcomes such as absenteeism (Avery, McKay, Wilson, Tonidandel, 2007), organizational commitment and organizational attachment (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein), employee retention (McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007), racial heterogeneity of organizations (Herdman & Capehart-McMillan, 2010; Kossek & Zonia, 1993) and unit sales performance (McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2009). Previous research has indicated that positive perceptions of organizational diversity climate are associated with positive outcomes for organizations as well as individuals (Cox, 1994; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Kossek, Zonia, & Young, 1996; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009).

Although there were several studies that intentionally focused on diversity climate as an influential variable on organizational outcomes, this review focuses on the most relevant pieces to the study.

Measuring Diversity Climate

Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman's (1998) measure. One of the most useful works following the earliest investigations on diversity climate was a study conducted by Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman (1998) that used a large electronics company (N=2686) to examine differences in diversity perceptions between gender and between races. The authors noted that the company openly supported diversity as evidenced through the company's vision and mission statements. They argued that individual perceptions of policies and organizational actions would be heavily influenced, and impossible to separate, from affiliation with an identity group.

Building upon Alderfer and Smith's (1982) social identity and intergroup relations theories the authors claimed that identity had two components which included the obvious physical attributes of a person and the constructed aspects of an individual that embraced social definitions and determined group affiliation. Like Cox (1994), they contended that being a part of a racial or ethnic minority group produced different experiences within the workplace. These experiences were largely determined by a culture of diversity and inclusion; group affiliations determined various levels of personal interaction. Group interaction, or lack of interaction that marginalized minorities, particularly women, would regulate climate even with policies in place that specifically addressed and promoted diversity.

Based on existing literature, they hypothesized that diversity climate perceptions would have more meaning to these populations, because historically they had been denied access to employment and promotion opportunities. They speculated that European American women and minorities, both male and female, would be more sensitive to company-based diversity policies, and, in general, racial minorities would be more concerned with diversity than their European American coworkers. Their argument was that an organization's diversity climate would be positive only if these groups viewed that access to opportunities within the organization was relatively fair for all. If perceptions of fairness were negative, they contended, then an organization's diversity climate would be viewed less favorably.

Prior to sampling, the authors discussed items to be considered for the measure they were developing with a group of racially and gender diverse subject matter experts that included human resource managers, project managers, mid-level managers, and line workers. Interviews were also conducted. This approach led to the testing of 23 items, and exploratory factor analysis was used to develop the model. Using a fairly large sample, they used principal component analysis with varimax rotation in which four components emerged (accounting for 57.1% of the variance). These included organizational fairness; organizational inclusion; personal diversity value; and personal comfort with diversity.

After conducting a MANOVA for the overall scale, they found that men compared to women in the organization believed that the organization was doing enough to promote diversity. Also, European American men compared to racial minorities and European American women believed that the organization had a positive diversity

climate and was more inclusive. This result supported Kossek and Zonia's (1993) findings; yet, their results featured an industrial setting rather than a university environment. Some have argued that industrial settings are less homogenous and therefore provide more meaningful areas for evaluation (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Triandis, 2000).

Their results also indicated that there were differences in perceptions between European Americans, Asian Americans, and Latinos, the most significant differences were found between European Americans and African Americans; however, the authors indicated that one of the limitations of their measure was that it only addressed global perceptions of diversity climate, as opposed to more specific measures that may have been more sensitive to differences between racial groups. Finally, the authors had hypothesized that women of color would be more disadvantaged. In their sample, women of color, specifically Asian and African Americans, believed they were more disadvantaged than European American women or men, or men who were racial minorities.

Relevance to the study. Their study marked an important milestone in diversity climate literature. Previous literature had focused on indicators of diversity climate; yet, Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman (1998) found that perceptions of fairness, as well as perceptions of inclusion–an organizational factor not specifically addressed prior to this study–heavily influenced individual perceptions of the organization's diversity climate. Developing a measure that included not only perceptions of diversity efforts but also perceptions of organizational fairness provided a new link to understanding what influences perceptions of global diversity climate.

According to the authors, group interaction issues served to be a limitation of the study. They were limited in what types of demographic questions they could ask. Group membership questions were not always answered, and a nonresponse had to be understood in the context of attempts to achieve maximum anonymity. The authors were also concerned with potential mistakes that could lead to identification, particularly since results were shared with senior management. Despite this, their measure has remained one of the most significant models for measuring diversity climate even in current literature (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009).

The results of their study underscored that racial minorities were more likely to value diversity efforts; they were also likely to evaluate diversity efforts differently from their European American coworkers because of the value placed on diversity promotion and inclusion efforts. As the authors noted, perceptions of the efforts, or the climate, would be positive or negative, only if the groups perceived these efforts as a means to fair access to job aspects (i.e., promotion, and use of flexible benefits). Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman's (1998) study demonstrated, however, that exclusion from informal aspects such as group interaction also determined perceptions of climate.

Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman's (1998) findings underscore a larger concern; as Cox (1994) noted above, a lack of inclusion in informal networks had lasting consequences on individual outcomes such as career advancement. More significant, this aspect does not solely foster negative outcomes for individuals. As noted by Cox (1994) negative climate influenced organizational outcomes through high turnover and poor performance. The current study proposes that quality of life outcomes for employees may

be affected when organizational diversity climate is negative by investigating whether diversity climate mediates use of FWAs when examining race.

Measuring Perceptions of Diversity Climate across Racial Groups

Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman's (1998) work spawned further research in diversity climate, although articles specifically examining diversity climate did not appear for another ten years. McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, and Hebl (2007) examined perceptions of diversity climate's effect on retention and used the measure developed by Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman (1998). Based on racial identity theory which stated that the notion of self was intricately tied to group membership (Phinney, 1992), the authors proposed that racial identity was more of an important determinant in whether diversity climate would be valued. African Americans, they speculated, would value diversity more, and hence place higher importance on diversity climate-even more than Latinos and European Americans.

Like Cox (1994) as well as Kossek and Zonia (1993) they hypothesized that dissatisfaction with an organization's climate would have individual and organizational outcomes, especially organizational commitment. They proposed that negative diversity climate would lead to higher levels of turnover particularly for African American men and women when examining organizational commitment as a mediator, and the results of their study supported their main hypothesis. After controlling for tenure and position within the organization, they found that diversity climate perceptions for African American women and men were related to turnover intentions, as well as levels of organizational commitment.

Diversity climate perceptions accounted for 15% of the variance for African Americans, as opposed to 7% for European American men, 7% for European American women, and 4% for Latinos (McKay et al., 2007). Their results underscored the need for the company to continue to promote diversity. They also highlighted that not all racial groups responded similarly to diversity promotion efforts, as well as supported previous literature in finding differences between European American men and women. African Americans viewed climate more negatively, and this affected commitment levels and eventually led to higher turnover. Latino members were not as affected in this sample, and the authors speculated that there were "differences in experiences" (McKay et al., 2007, p. 55) within the organization that affected perceptions.

This study served to empirically investigate variance in diversity climate perception that underscore what McKay et al. (2007) referred to as "differences in experiences," (McKay et al., 2007, p. 55). The sample for this study targeted women who are considered ethnic minorities (Cox, 1994; Kossek & Zonia, 1993) and a protected class within the workplace. Examining diversity climate perceptions assisted in contrasting the experiences of using flexible work across racial lines. This study thus aided in understanding whether work experiences for visible racial minorities were different from those of European American women when examining a quality of life work benefit – namely FWAs. Both undergo a bifurcation process according to Cox (1994); yet, researchers argued that an employee's racial minority status specifically affected perceptions of fairness, inclusion, and access-all of which impacted perceptions of diversity climate.

Diversity Climate as a Multidimensional Construct

Gonzalez and DeNisi's (2009) work. The need to understand whether diversity climate was a multidimensional, interactional construct presented an opportunity to reexamine Cox's (1994) initial IMCD model. Gonzalez and DeNisi (2009) argued that diversity, as a concept, needed to be understood as an inherently personal yet simultaneously collective phenomenon in which members had regularly varying experiences. Minorities did not always feel disturbed by lack of inclusion, they noted, but they tended be more aware regarding differences from their majority coworkers. This perception of difference contributed to how employees categorized their work experience. This perspective represented a slight shift from Cox's (1994) bifurcation argument that noted that minorities typically experienced the competing aspects of upholding their work and cultural identities. Gonzalez and DeNisi's (2009) perspective challenged this response as an automatic process; yet, they had to contend that the very nature of diversity produced awareness of differences between people.

Despite this difference from Cox (1994), the authors did support his argument that the nature of racial and gender diversity within workplaces had to account for the power structure inherent in historical contexts of the U.S. workforce. Because of power structures inherent in group interactions, they contended that diversity climate should be examined at both the individual and organizational level. Their study examined whether race was related to organizational outcomes such as turnover, attachment, commitment, and performance when examining diversity climate as a moderating factor; hence, they incorporated perceptions of fairness as well as unit composition.

This was one of the first studies to address the effects of diversity climate on a group level in which performance was measured as a return on profit, return on income, and productivity. They sampled 26 restaurant chains, and after controlling for tenure and position, they found that when racial heterogeneity was high, diversity climate was perceived as a problem only when perceived support for diversity, via the organization and among peers, was low. Dissimilarity, thus, negatively affected turnover, commitment, and organizational attachment when diversity climate was perceived as negative by employees. Additionally, as found in other studies, women were more affected than men.

Relevance to the study. Gonzalez and DeNisi's (2009) study reiterated the need to understand relational effects on climate, including diversity climate which over time affected the general organizational culture. Equally important, they reiterated the need for researchers to intentionally examine demographics and diversity climate. Gonzalez and DeNisi (2009) noted that more research was needed to understand how contextual factors such as a culture of inclusion may be related to individual diversity climate perceptions and what potential organizational outcomes, including loss of productivity and revenue, might result from these relationships.

Kossek and Zonia (1993) as well as Cox (1994) developed models to explain and assess diversity climate. Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman (1998) developed a scale to measure diversity climate as it relates to differences by gender and race. Although previous studies such as McKay et al. (2007) examined diversity climate outcomes, Gonzalez and DeNisi's (2009) study first explored diversity climate as a moderating variable, and, hence, their method called attention to the nonstatic aspect of climate.

Schneider & Reichers (1983) claimed climate was more of a temporary aspect of the workplace. More important, their study moved diversity climate literature beyond assessment and evaluation, because they explored the effects of poor diversity climate within the workplace on the organization as well as the employee.

The study addressed the call for additional research that would assist understanding of how a culture of inclusion affects organizational outcomes by exploring the mediating effect of diversity climate on organizational outcomes. In situating diversity climate as a mediating variable, the approach is to assess the strength of this relationship while encompassing the contextual aspects of organizational diversity climate that affect positive and negative conditions and ultimately affect outcomes within the workplace.

Race and its Relevance to Organizational Diversity Climate

The premise of this study is that diversity climate may mediate benefit usage when group membership is considered. In previous studies, group membership has emerged as a strong determinant in perceptions of diversity climate. As noted earlier, Kossek and Zonia's (1993) study indicated that race was a factor that affected how diversity climate was perceived. For example, within their study, European American men believed that support for diversity, including formal affirmative action programs, was adequate and that all employees had equal access to career opportunities. European American men in this sample, however, were more likely to believe that European American women and minorities occupied fewer tenured positions due to lack of skills (Kossek & Zonia, 1993).

In Kossek and Zonia's (1993) study, discrimination was viewed as less of a threat; yet, concerns of competence were raised more among European American men relative to European American women, racial/ethnic minority men, and minority women. Their research demonstrated that differences in perception regarding support diversity climate efforts, including affirmative action, signaled differences in perception regarding the need to address or counter gender and racial discrimination.

Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen's (1997) work also supported a relationship between race and diversity climate that was established in Kossek and Zonia's (1993) study. Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen's (1997) organization-wide research on perceptions of affirmative action/equal opportunity programs (AA/EO) used a large government agency that had eleven sites located nationwide. The authors investigated whether there were racial/ethnic, as well as gender, differences in perceptions of level of support for AA/EO (N = 9, 314). They hypothesized that there would be differences in perception of support between European American women, Asians [hereinafter referred to as Asian Americans], and the African Americans and Hispanic group. In this study African Americans and Hispanics were grouped together due the fact that no differences in perception were seen between the two groups in a pilot. After controlling for age, tenure, and organizational hierarchy, mean levels supported their hypothesis that group membership affected perceptions of support for AA/EO.

The authors also contended that the African Americans and Hispanic group, as well as Asian Americans, and European American women were more likely to experience some level of organizational discrimination; yet, they noted that because racial/ethnic minorities experienced different types of discrimination compared to

European American women that justice perceptions will be affected differently, in which justice perceptions for European American women would align more with European American men. Thus, they investigated whether there were links between these perceived differences in support with individual perceptions of career support and organizational justice, as well as general levels of satisfaction and loyalty to the organization.

The authors' results supported their second hypothesis that positive perceptions of organizational justice and available career opportunities were moderated by group membership. Evidence also supported that this relationship was stronger for European American women, the African American and Hispanic group, and Asian American men and women; yet, their findings also surprisingly revealed that this relationship existed for European American men as well. Consequently, their final hypothesis that a negative relationship would exists between support for AA/EO and overall satisfaction and loyalty for European American men was not fully supported. Their final hypothesis was supported for the African American and Hispanic group, but not for European American women or Asian Americans.

Relevance to the study. This study proposes that minorities perceive diversity climate differently from nonminorities and that these differences in perception may have broader organizational effects. Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen (1997) provided evidence that minorities tended to value organizational diversity efforts, such as AA/EO programs, compared to nonminorities (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2007; Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998). Their research supports the notion that group differences in perceptions exists regarding diversity promotion efforts, and it provided support to Kossek & Zonia's (1993) research, as well as Cox's (1994) work, that

differences in perception regarding promotion efforts could lead to differences in perception regarding overall climate for diversity.

They also established that perceived support affected individual- and organizational-level outcomes, namely loyalty and satisfaction, for certain racial and ethnic groups relative to non-ethnic groups. Although they noted that differences existed between European American women, Asian Americans and the African American and Hispanic group, their research underscored the importance of understanding differences in reactions to perceptions of support. Their findings indicate that broader organizational outcomes such as flexible benefit use need to be examined within this context. Their work highlighted that a need to investigate whether different groups experience different types of discrimination and whether this perception of discrimination in relation to support has broader consequences for racial/ethnic minorities still exist.

Why Race Matters

The study of race within workplaces has surrounded issues of affirmative action, racial diversity, and a climate for diversity. Essentially the literature has addressed how race affects workplace experiences. Research has indicated that race is a factor that affects how workplace climate is perceived (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2007; Mor Barak, Cherin, Berkman, 1998)**.** Two areas of relevance to this study are discussed below.

Supervisor Support

Hopkins's (2002) work. Race has been examined as a situational aspect that potentially influences whether employees receive supervisor (also referred to as relational) support — a key component in whether employees use benefits at all (Kossek

& Distelberg, 2009; Kossek & Lee, 2008). Hopkins (2002), for example, investigated whether race was a factor in seeking a supervisor's help when family problems arose. Hopkins (2002) found that African American women were less likely to seek help from their supervisor when the supervisor was not the same race or gender.

Most employer-based FWAs are made between supervisor and employee, regardless of organizational policy (Lewis, 2003; Kossek & Lee, 2008). Her findings underscore that race and gender are relevant factors in considering whether an employee will ask for supervisor support. Support in Hopkins (2002) study focused on the ability to approach a supervisor with personal information during times of family crisis. During a crisis, Hopkins (2002) noted that an FWA would be temporarily established in which the employee would be permitted to vary their work hours or work load requirements.

Relevance to the Study. In this study, the central purpose is to investigate whether race influences participation in either supervisor-established or organizational-established arrangements that are more routine; thus, it directly addresses how race might influence the establishment of an FWA to address quality of life issues that were not explored in Hopkins (2002) investigation.

Perceptions of Family Responsive Benefits and Organizational Fairness

An employee's race has also affected perceptions of the fairness of benefits. Parker and Allen's (2001) study regarding perceptions of fairness of family responsive benefits, for example, revealed that minorities when compared to nonminorities regarded flexible benefits as fair.

Parker and Allen's (2001) work. Parker and Allen's (2001) examination of individual and situational factors as they relate to perceptions of fairness regarding work-

family benefits provided an example of issues that emerged when employees used flexible benefits. Their study found that flexible benefits were not always viewed as fair within the office, and the added effect of face-time expectations served to increase mistrust. Expectations of face time from organizational leaders, as well as peers, thus, created a climate which dictated flexible benefit use.

Using a sample of 283 employees who represented a variety of organizations, Parker and Allen found that favorable perceptions of work-family benefits depended highly on personal perspective. Using hierarchical multiple regression, the authors loaded individual variables including the demographic statistics of gender and parental status first; then situational variables including organizational size, productivity, and whether the organization primarily featured work that was task interdependent were loaded. Personal use, race, and benefit availability variables were controlled throughout the experiment and later used for comparison purposes.

They found that parental status was not a significant factor in predicting perceptions of the workplace unless the parent had children under the age of six. Their research also showed that those with jobs that required more task interdependence (i.e., team and group work projects) did not have a less favorable opinion of work-family benefits. Finally, they determined that employees of organizations that had well-developed procedures for productivity maintenance in conjunction with work-family benefits perceived benefits more favorably.

As expected, those that used the benefits perceived the programs more favorably. To their surprise, minorities and younger workers had more favorable perceptions compared to their older and/or European American coworkers. Parker and Allen (2001)

speculated that these two groups actually benefited more from work-family policies because of dependent care services that were provided but conceded that more research was needed. The authors also speculated that minorities within this sample may have benefited more directly from organizational family-friendly policies; however, they also noted that more research was needed to understand the nature of this relationship.

Relevance to the study. Perceptions of fairness extend from perceptions of access (McMenamin, 2007; Parker & Allen, 2001). Although racial and ethnic employees tend to have fewer opportunities to establish FWAs (McCrate, 2002; McMenamin, 2007; WCPN, 2011), this does not indicate that these employees do not desire access to benefits that could improve quality of life (Avery & McKay, 2007). This study acknowledges that access to FWAs impacts perceptions of fairness, and perceptions of fairness are influenced by perceptions of access. Additionally, this study proposes that racial and ethnic minorities may perceive access as limited in a negative diversity climate. It also considers that members of the majority may perceive minorities as receiving unfair treatment if these members were to participate in flexible programs; yet, a thorough investigation is needed to understand the nature of this relationship. Although Parker and Allen's 2001 study addressed perceptions of fairness, it did not delve into potential barriers that could influence use even when access to FWAs was encouraged by organizational leadership.

What was gleaned from Parker and Allen's (2001) work was that minorities compared to nonminorities tended to value benefits. Additionally, race influenced perceptions of fairness regarding the availability and use of family-friendly benefits such as work flexibility arrangements. An employee's racial identity could amplify negative

consequences for using benefits (Avery & McKay, 2007) or affect perceptions of fairness (Parker & Allen, 2001). There was little support within work-family literature that suggested that differences in consequences had been thoroughly explored within work-family research. By examining race and ethnicity, the present study explores whether perceptions of organizational climate is affected when a supportive organizational culture exists. More important, the present study addresses the need for further research regarding racial/ethnic perceptions of FWAs, as well as explores potential barriers that affect access to FWAs.

Exploring the Relationship between Race/Ethnicity and Use of FWAs: Considering the Mediating Effect of Diversity Climate

Studies on diversity climate have focused on individual-level as well as organizational-level outcomes as previously outlined in this chapter. Previous literature has underscored how organizational climate impacts experiences for all workers, as well as affects organizational outcomes Because of the type of discrimination that minorities received, however, racial minorities were more likely to evaluate an organization's commitment to diversity, and the climate for diversity, through a lens of their personal experiences that shaped the importance of diversity within the workplace (McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2009). Despite a growing understanding on how race impacts perceptions of overall climate in general, and diversity climate in specific, few studies have linked race and climate perceptions to use of flexible benefits.

Race, Diversity Climate, and Work-Family Literature

As described in Chapter 1, the problem in understanding explicitly how diversity climate impacts the work-family relationship may be due in part to how organizational

climate and organizational culture have been used interchangeably in previous literature. In work-family literature, the relationship between organizational culture and benefit use has been well established (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999); yet, neither organizational climate nor diversity climate has been examined thoroughly in work-family literature (Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001).

Kossek, Colquitt, and Noe's (2001) work. One notable exception was a bidirectional study conducted by Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe (2001) that examined the impact of work climates on family concerns, as well as family climate for work concerns, and their overall impact on employee decisions for elderly and childcare. Work and family climates were examined as moderators on decisions regarding care for family members, in which they explored a climate for sharing concerns and a climate for making sacrifices. A climate for sharing concerns involved employees sharing concerns regarding family issues with coworkers and supervisors, and employees sharing concerns regarding work issues with family members. The authors hypothesized that in an environment where the employee felt unencumbered for sharing concerns, the employee would exhibit better work performance, as well as improved well-being; thus, work and family climate concerns had an inverse relationship to work-family conflict. They also speculated that less work-family conflict would lead to improved work-family integration regarding care decisions.

A climate for making sacrifices required employees to prioritize one role over the other. When work required employees to sacrifice the importance of family roles, family role performance, they noted, suffered; equally when family roles were more demanding work performance was sacrificed. Many employees, they noted, were expected to

sacrifice family importance. When climate sacrifice expectations were low, the authors hypothesized that work-family conflict would also be lower. Additionally, caregiving decisions were expected to not be adversely affected.

Using a public university in the Midwest, the authors randomly sampled 20% of the workforce (N = 490). They controlled for age, gender, marital status, and the number of children living at home as they conducted hierarchical multiple regression analyses. After testing for the direct effects of climate (loaded in Steps 5 and 6) a positive sharing family climate was positively related to positive work performance, positive family performance and well-being. A positive sharing work climate was also related to positive work performance. As expected, a climate emphasizing work sacrifice or family sacrifice was positively related to work-family conflict, and negative well-being.

Despite the results, the hypothesis that work and family climates moderated caregiving decisions was not supported, and the authors concluded that additional research was needed to understand the distinct needs of elder versus childcare. Because eldercare often involved a more radical change for adult caregivers, in which they experienced the decline of health of their elder relative, they recommended that future studies should treat these types of care as two separate phenomenon in order to truly understand the effect of climates.

Relevance to the study. What was most significant about this study was that it examined the effect of different types of climate (as opposed to organizational culture) on issues relative to work and family spheres. In doing so, the authors considered the importance of individual psychological climate that interacts with aspects of organizational culture. They did not, however, explore issues relative to diversity climate

and race. Although family climates were considered, cultural considerations and expectations were not flushed out in this study. Lastly, different perceptions of climate relative to race were not examined.

An Unexplored Relationship

A review of previous literature on work flexibility, the interface between work and family, and diversity climate, revealed a need to explore whether negative aspects of workplace culture, as well as negative aspects of workplace climate, were the only factors that affected use of FWAs and, hence, quality of life issues for employees. Previous literature also did not explain what factors affected use of FWAs by minorities. Previous research showed that climate was perceived differently when comparing racial groups, yet whether perceptions of organizational diversity climate mediated the relationship between use of FWAs and race/ethnicity had not been fully explored.

Why Diversity Climate Matters: Understanding Implications for Social Change

A review of the literature reveals that there is a need to explore as well as connect diversity climate to larger human resource practices, relational support, and climate factors that affect the interface between work and family. The need to investigate intersections of race and gender on flexible benefit usage as a potential outcome still exist, and although diversity climate literature has alluded to the notion that negative climate may have a greater impact on racial minorities, research produced inconsistent results when different levels of diversity climate were measured. As noted earlier, Hopkins (2002) suggested that there may be cultural barriers for women of color, especially African Americans and Latinas, which lowered their likelihood to seek help

from supervisors – especially male supervisors; yet, this study focused on the individual's helping behaviors rather than organizational culture or diversity climate as factors.

When considering Hopkins (2002) study as noted earlier, in which racial/ethnic females were less likely to request help from a supervisor that was a nonminority during a family crisis, as well as Perlow's (1995) assertions that successful careers are made by being in the office, race and ethnicity become problematic. Using FWAs as a racial/ethnic female may have more negative consequences. This study regards gender as a contributing factor in whether perceptions of fairness are considerations for use of FWAs; yet, it also proposes that race or ethnicity within a negative diversity climate potentially amplifies negative effects of using FWAs.

A literature review indicated that both individual and contextual factors were moderators; yet, additional research is warranted to determine how race, ethnicity, and gender may affect use when diversity climate is positive or negative. It is important to understand the extent and degree with which diversity climate affects this relationship. Ascribing characteristics to racial groups as was explored in Hopkins (2002), or relegating use as solely a demographic phenomenon, does not account for perceptions of support that go beyond relational aspects of an organization. As seen in the diversity climate, flexibility, and work-family literature, relational supports are essential in understanding organizational outcomes; yet, these relationships exists within larger organizational contexts.

As corporate offices have sought to retain talent, FWAs became common features of the workplace (Hewlett, 2007). Human resource professionals as well as workforce researchers touted these interventions as necessary aspects that would bridge the road

between home and life spheres (Halpern, 2005; Lewis, 2003; Lewis, Litrico, & Rapoport, 2007; Sullivan & Smithson, 2007). When contextual factors were supportive, flexibility, as well as positive, diversity climate had the effect of providing sustainable support for employees while also strengthening the company through reduced turnover and more engaged employees (Cox, 1994; Kossek, Markel, & McHugh, 2003; McMenamin, 2007). The study sought to understand whether support in the form of providing flexible benefits in a diversity affirming climate contributes to employee perceptions and ultimately understand the impact of perceptions on use.

In the literature, flexibility had direct, and wider, social implications, as well. When employers provided alternative scheduling it allowed employees more time to focus on educational pursuits or additional on-the-job training (WCPN, 2011). As noted in Chapter 1, women represented nearly half of the U.S. workforce and provide essential income to their families (Halpern, 2005). Thus, flexible work broadened opportunities for career advancement that directly contributed to the well-being of families.

Without a broader perspective within this discussion, work-family literature has failed to adequately address race and gender within the social, political, and historical contexts that have shaped the role and meaning of work today. FWAs have been touted as a social solution for sustaining the workforce during an impending talent shortage (Galinsky, Peer, & Eby, 2009; Shellenbarger, 2006; Williams, 2007) particularly for corporations. Neglecting to explore issues relevant to women of color perpetuates a gap in the literature that could address how FWAs could become more effective solutions for today's workforce (Avery & McKay, 2007; Blake-Beard, O'Neill, Ingols, & Shapiro, 2010; Eby, Casper, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007).

In Chapter 3, the methodology and the research design for measuring diversity climate, race/ethnicity and gender, as well as use of FWAs will be discussed. More information will follow regarding the sample and methods of data collection.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

FWAs have become common aspects of the workplace (Lewis, 2003). Despite the prevalence of work-life balance initiatives, Blake-Beard, Ingols, O'Neill, & Shapiro (2010) suggested that there were disparities in the use of flexible work benefits, such as FWAs, when examining use by racial group due to hypervisibility within the workplace. Blake-Beard et al. (2010) argued that face time fostered greater challenges for racial and ethnic employees. Benefit use, they claimed, remained intricately related to an organizational culture that valued and promoted a positive diversity climate.

Previous research supported the notion that minorities, including women, often experienced more challenging work environments in which they were regarded as less qualified because of their race/ethnicity and/or their gender (Cox, 1994; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein, 2011). Research also emerged that demonstrated that when organizational culture was permissive of this type of climate towards women and minorities, a climate that did not affirm diversity diminished organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009), and retention (McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007).

This study investigated (a) whether race/ethnicity affected diversity climate perceptions, (b) the relationship between an individual's race/ethnicity and the use of FWAs, and (c) whether perceptions of an organization's diversity climate mediated this relationship.

The purpose of this chapter is to highlight the approach to this research purpose. In this chapter, I include the research design and approach, as well as a description of the

setting and sample. Data collection and analysis plans have also been included. Instrumentation and relevant materials that were used to examine this relationship are discussed, and I have outlined the plans used to protect human participants throughout data collection.

Research Design and Approach

Given the overall objective of the study, I used a quantitative, correlational design in which a hierarchical multiple regression technique was employed for the overall model, and regression analyses were used to examine race/ethnicity as a predictor for each subfactor of the mediating variable. Multiple regression techniques have been used for many different types of analyses, and researchers have used it to predict changes in a dependent variable or to examine the strength of relationship beyond what would normally occur by chance between independent and dependent variables (Grimm & Yarnold, 1995; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

A hierarchical multiple regression (also referred to as sequential multiple regression in statistical analysis literature [Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007]) has the added benefit of allowing the researcher to decide which order the predictor variables are entered into the model. When the researcher believes there is substantial evidence for sequentially entering variables into the model, as opposed to entering all predictors at the same time, then this technique, in essence, allows the researcher to view the unique effect of each predictor, or a set of predictors, on the criterion (Petrocelli, 2003; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The researcher, thus, decides the order that the predictors will be analyzed.

This method is intentionally used to prioritize the order of analysis with the goal of understanding whether each predictor, or set of predictors, that is entered after the

initial set increases the model's ability to predict the criterion variable (Petrocelli, 2003; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This type of regression can also be used to partial out the variance in the dependent variable that is related to the entered predictor, or set of predictors (Grimm & Yarnold, 1995). Despite the value of this technique, Petrocelli (2003, p. 11) cautioned that researchers should a use a "theoretically based plan" to establish the order that variables are entered into the model.

For this study, the sequential regression provided the added advantage of examining the individual contributions of the demographic and control variables prior to incorporating the effects of the mediator. (The controls are explained in the next section.) This technique also provided an opportunity to prioritize the entry of the race/ethnicity variable and diversity climate as a mediating variable in the final step. Doing so permitted a unique examination of the effect of diversity climate on use of FWAs while controlling for the effect of race. Entering diversity climate in the final step permitted me to examine the effect of diversity climate beyond other demographic control variables, as well as view the changes (if any) in use of FWAs after the effect of race had already been analyzed.

The assumptions of all regression analyses include the notion that (a) the independent variables have a linear relationship to the dependent variables, (b) each observed value is generated from separate individuals, (c) variables, as well as distribution errors, are distributed normally, and (d) that the measurement of prediction errors produces the same amount of standard deviations for every dependent variable score (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Independent Variable

The independent variable was race/ethnicity. Race/ethnicity membership has correlated with perceptions of diversity climate for some groups more than others, particularly African Americans (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; McKay et al., 2007; Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein, 2011) and women (Kossek & Zonia, 1993). As noted in the literature review when examining organizational outcomes such as turnover intention and employee retention (McKay et al., 2007), organizational commitment (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009), absenteeism (Avery, McKay, Wilson, & Tonidandel, 2007), and workplace attitudes (Wolfson et al., 2011) the significance of demonstrating or signaling a positive racial environment was more pronounced for certain racial/ethnic groups compared to others.

Mediating Variable

Because this study attempted to investigate whether diversity climate mediated the relationship between race and use of FWAs, I anticipated conducting a mediation analysis as outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) as well as Kenny (2012). Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1176) argued that when a variable "intervened" between the relationship of the independent (IV) and dependent variables (DV), then the intervening variable had a mediating effect between the IV and DV. The authors noted four requirements for a variable to function as a mediator. These included the following:

1. The IV was correlated with the DV, and therefore, there was a direct effect between the IV and DV.

2. The IV was correlated with the mediating variable; therefore, the IV had a direct effect on the mediating variable.

3. When the DV was regressed on both the IV and mediating variable, the mediating variable remained correlated with the DV.

4. The correlation, or total effect, between the IV and the DV was 0, or significantly less, when the mediating variable was entered into the model.

Some scholars criticized that Baron and Kenny's (1986) original test for mediation would not, in some instances, be able to hold alpha errors to a minimum (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) explained that repeated test for significance as required by repeated applications of regressing a dependent variable onto the independent variables to test each mediation effect increased the likelihood of a false negative Type I error, or the conclusion that there was not an effect when there was one. Or, they noted, it increased the likelihood that there was a false positive Type II error, or the conclusion that there was an effect when in fact there was not.

In this study, Baron and Kenny's (1986) application of mediation analysis was not applied because assumptions were not met for mediation. Analysis results are discussed further in Chapter 4.

Statistical Control

Gender. The main statistical control for this study was gender. Gender was central for several reasons. Within the literature, respondents typically reported that division of labor within the home remained unequal despite advances of women in the workplace. Married women who worked outside of the home, for example, reported that they maintained primary responsibility for household chores as well as care for children and elders (Kossek & Distelberg, 2009; Smithson & Stokoe, 2005; Stone, 2007). More

recent studies showed that men and women were likely to have equal access to work flexibility (McMenamin, 2007; Matos & Galinsky, 2011b); yet, equal access did not always translate into use. Organizational climate undermined an individual's ability to use benefits in organizations as well as industries that formally, and informally, upheld traditional gender role expectations (Clawson, Gerstel, & Crocker, 2009; Williams, 2007; Williams, Manvell, & Borenstein, 2006).

Research also indicated that women were more likely to value work flexibility as an option (Hewlett, 2007; Parker & Allen, 2001; Shockley & Allen, 2007). Some researchers indicated that within professional settings women were more likely than men to participate in employer-based work flexibility programs (Kossek & Distelberg, 2009); however, work-family research over the last decade indicated that women were more likely to value work flexibility compared to men (Hewlett, 2007; Shockley & Allen, 2007). The value placed on work flexibility benefits within the workplace was most likely due to work-family conflict experienced at home, as women were more in dual-earner families were more likely than men to manage the bulk of family care and household responsibilities (Smithson & Stokoe, 2005; Stone, 2007).

Finally, the goal of this study was to understand whether diversity climate had a mediating effect between race and use of FWAs. Given the dissonance previously mentioned in work-family literature regarding the effect of gender of use of FWAs, it was important to minimize the potential effect of other factors, such as gender, that could limit an understanding of whether this relationship was supported.

Additional controls. For this study, additional controls included tenure (i.e., length of time worked at a company) and parental status. The goal was to remove

conflicting explanations for variance in use of FWAs. These variables were selected because research indicated that they could account for variance when considering the frequency of use of flexible benefits, or the level of access to both informal and formal types of flexible work (Eaton, 2003; Kossek & Distelberg, 2009; McMenamin, 2007; Parker & Allen, 2001). A review of the literature also revealed that tenure influenced perceptions of diversity climate (Wolfson et al., 2011). Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen (1997) found that perceptions of commitment to affirmative action initiatives were also influenced by tenure.

Using hierarchical multiple regression analysis allowed for this unique variance between the independent variables of race/ethnicity and diversity climate and the dependent variable, and use of FWAs, to be examined more closely. It allowed me to identify whether there was a mediating effect when considering diversity climate perceptions.

Methodology

Population

According to the 2008 National Study of the Changing Workforce conducted by the Families and Work Institute (Matos & Galinksy, 2011a), professional employees were more likely to have access to workplace flexibility, including sick leave, and the ability to shift from full-time to part-time work than non-professionals. Professional employees were defined as employees whose primary job duties included "financial, legal, technical, or scientific advice and services," (Matos & Galinsky, 2011a, p. 1) Matos and Galinsky (2011a) reported that professional employees were mostly female, European American, married, a parent of children under the age of 18, worked regular

shift hours, and had an income of more than $25/hour. The Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor (2013) estimated that women comprised slightly more than 57% of the workforce. Approximately 73 million were employed in the United States in which 74% worked full-time (more than 35 hours) and 24% worked part-time. Most (approximately 41%) worked in management and professional sectors. Approximately 46% of Asian American women, 41% of European American women, and 34% of African American women worked in management and professional sectors. Latina women worked mostly in service sectors (approximately 33%) (Women's Bureau, USDOL, 2011).

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

For this study, I used a non-probability, convenience sampling technique in which women-both ethnic minorities and non-ethnic minorities who work in professional sectors of the workforce were recruited to participate via LinkedIn.com and the Walden Participant Pool. Linked is a social networking site used mainly by professionals to network and/or recruit for jobs and career connections. Respondents were purposefully screened for eligibility. Participants were eligible if they reported that they were a woman, at least 18 years of age, and were working in the United States. Participants were also screened for variances in office settings. Respondents who worked only in home-based offices without additional employees or were self-employed were eliminated. A final screening question eliminated those who did not have access to FWAs in their place of employment.

Specifying race and ethnicity. To determine race and ethnicity, respondents were asked to self-report their race and ethnic group affiliation. Options were based on

the U.S. Census Bureau classification system and included European American, non-Hispanic, African American, non-Hispanic, Latina, Asian American (including those with origins from the Indian subcontinent), Native American/Pacific Islander, and Other (for a description of how categories are created, please see http://www.census.gov/population/race/about/). People who selected "Other" did not have a write-in option for explanation. Because the purpose of the study was to examine a relationship between race, diversity climate, and use of FWAs, respondents who did not self-report their race and ethnicity were designated as ineligible.

LinkedIn.com has several diversity-related as well as professional working women group pages, which I used to recruit participants. A link was also created to access the survey on my personal page. The Walden Participant Pool is a University-based, community of nearly 5000 research volunteers. Walden University has been recognized as one of the top 100 universities in awarding degrees to racial and ethnic minorities in a variety of fields (see www.http://diverseeducation.com/top100/). Walden caters to working professionals who are interested in furthering their education without limiting their career choices, and students typically continue to work while obtaining their degree.

Sample size. Based on Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) suggestions for testing both the overall correlation as well as the individual predictors in a regression analysis (assuming a medium effect size, where $N \geq 104+m$, and m represents the number of predictors), the sample size for alpha level .05, two-tailed test, is 106 participants. After using sample size calculators (see http://www.stattools.net and http://www.danielsoper.com.), sample size results were 61 and 100 participants

respectively. Using Cohen's (1992) power analysis tables, with a 95% confidence interval, a moderate correlation (r =.3), and power at .8, sample size for a multiple regression analysis with two predictors was 84 cases. Because there was little difference between the Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007, p. 123) rule of thumb and Cohen's power analysis, I used the larger sample size of 106 to ensure that correlations between the IV and mediating variable can be analyzed appropriately in this analysis.

Research indicated that women, particularly those with young children, tended to take advantage of benefits more than men (Kossek & Distelberg, 2009). Mostly professional women took advantage of benefits compared to low-income women who were more likely to be hourly workers with less access to these types of benefits (Golden, 2008; McCrate, 2002; McMenamin, 2007). Given these aspects, women in professional industries were the focus for the study.

Setting

The purpose of the study was to investigate whether an individual's racial/ethnic status affects FWA benefit use when examining organizational diversity climate as a mediating factor. FWAs tended to be more available in mid-to-large-sized organizations that offered task-interdependent work (Parker & Allen, 2001). Smaller organizations were more likely to provide FWAs on an informal basis rather than lose an employee (Matos & Galinsky, 2011b); however, employee use was more visible and therefore may have more consequences for use (Parker & Allen, 2001). Individuals in professional organizations that had a strategic organizational plan for providing flexible work benefits were the ideal individuals for this sample. Employees were a part of an organization that

had a flexible benefits program that was available to all eligible full-and part-time and employees (Golden, 2008; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009).

Recruitment Procedures and Data Collection

Approval to recruit participants was first obtained from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (# 02-20-14-0109265) and granted until February 19, 2015. A convenience sampling technique was used in which racial/ethnic minority women and nonracial/ethnic minority women who worked in professional industries were recruited to participate in an anonymous, online, 47-item survey. Participants were recruited via LinkedIn, a professional, social networking website, and the Walden University Participant Pool, a University-based community of approximately 5,000 research volunteers who participate in online research. A link was created to access the survey online which was hosted by SurveyMonkey.com (http://www.surveymonkey.com) an encrypted, web-based, survey hosting service. Participants accessed the link from my personal LinkedIn page available from http://www.linkedin.com/imaniowens/in/ and the link was included in postings to LinkedIn networking groups which permitted postings for social and/or promotional materials from March until August of 2014. Participants were informed of their right to voluntarily consent to participation and of their right to withdraw at any time without penalty. No participant was paid or provided an incentive for their participation.

Groups were targeted for postings based on race/ethnicity and gender. Some examples of the groups that received postings included the following:

- Black Career Women's Network
- Black Professional Women

- African American Women in Science, Technology, Math & Engineering
- Women in Science, Engineering, and Technology
- Connect: Professional Women's Network CITI
- Association of Women in Science
- Latino Professionals
- National Association of Asian American Professionals
- Asian American HR Professionals
- National Latina Business Women's Association
- Native American Recruitment Network
- Native Americans in Energy
- American Indian Science and Engineering Society
- Indian Women Workforce
- Professional Women of Color Network, and
- Women in National Association Asian American Professionals

Industry specific groups within LinkedIn such as Diversity and Cross-Cultural Professionals, were also targeted for postings as deemed appropriate. A complete listing of groups that received postings is available in Appendix C. A recruitment post was listed for several months and was often re-posted either daily, weekly, or biweekly.

Additional participants were recruited using Walden University's Participant Pool. Permission was obtained to post a recruitment letter on the site, and the Participant Pool administrator handled distribution and frequency of posts which included the same external link to the survey in the LinkedIn.com posting. Participants were informed of

their right to voluntarily consent and of their right to withdraw at any time without penalty. Participants were not paid or provided an incentive for their participation.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Diversity climate perceptions. The Climate for Diversity Scale (Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein, 2011) was administered. The authors developed a scale that built upon previous work by Chrobot-Mason and Aramovich (2008) which reorganized the six dimensions of Cox's (1994) interactional model for cultural diversity (IMCD) into four. Wolfson et al.'s (2011) scale contains 12 items which were divided into three of Chrobot-Mason and Aramovich's (2008) dimensions, or subfactors: (a) two items to measure identity freedom (α = .76), (b) seven items to measure inclusive climate (α = .87), and (c) three items to measure equal access (α =.59). Survey items included "I can fit in without changing who I am;" "I have sometimes been singled out because of the demographic group I belong to;" and "Minority input [was] effectively considered at all levels in the organization," (Wolfson et al., 2011, p. 176).

Scale responses were scored on a 5-point scale with a score of 1 indicating strong disagreement with the statement and a score of 5 indicating strong agreement with the statement. The scale measured individual perceptions of the ability to be herself, the level of inclusive climate of the organization, and access to opportunities. Higher scores for the Identity Freedom subfactor indicated an agreement with the perception that respondents did not feel pressured into changing who they were to fit in because of their racial/ethnic identity. Higher scores on the Equal Access subfactor indicated agreement that minorities had equal access to opportunities within their respective organization. Lower scores on the Inclusive Climate subfactor indicated that respondents perceived greater ability to

have input in their daily work interactions. Items were reverse coded for analysis. The scale was originally used (Wolfson et al., 2011) to measure a racially diverse sample of workers at 5 different types of organizations, such as a non-profit women's shelter and a telecommunications company, in a metropolitan, urban area.

The Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale (α =.91) was developed by McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, and Hebl (2007) to survey managers regarding diversity climate perceptions. The scale contained 9 items and was also used to capture perceptions of broader organizational indicators that influenced organizational climate. Questions addressed whether employees believe the organization was recruiting from "diverse sources," whether the organization "publicize[d] diversity principles," and whether the "top leaders [of their organization were] visibly committed to diversity," (McKay et al., 2007, p. 61). Scale responses were scored on a 5-point scale with a score of 1 indicating that the organization was "well below expectations" for the employee and a score of 5 indicating that the organization was "well above expectations" for the employee. Higher scores indicated that an organization greatly supported diversity.

In this study, diversity climate was assessed by items from the Climate for Diversity Scale developed by Wolfson, Kraiger, and Finkelstein (2011), and from items from the Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale developed by McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl (2007). Although this concept has typically been measured by assessing perceptions of fairness, more current research has addressed notions of identity as a part of diversity climate measures. For the purposes of this study, diversity climate was used as an aggregated concept that addresses individual perception of organizational factors that address diversity.

Use of FWAs. Varying approaches have been used to measure use of FWAs, and this has caused great difficulty in gaining a broader understanding of what flexible benefit use entails and how it should be measured (Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011). For the purposes of this study flexible work encompassed the combined concepts of use of FWAs as defined by Eaton (2003) as well as Shockley and Allen (2007; 2009). Flexible work included flextime options such as reduced work load, reduced work hours, changes in the starting and stopping times in a work schedule, job-sharing, and flexible workplace options such as working from home (Shockley & Allen, 2007; 2009).

The Flexible Work Arrangement Utilization Scale (α =.83) developed by Shockley and Allen (2009) was used to measure FWAs use in terms of flextime. Scale items were used to measure flextime participation on college campuses during the spring and fall semesters (Shockley & Allen, 2009). For example, one item asked, "My start and stop times on campus frequently change," (Shockley & Allen, 2009, p. 136). Scale items when used in this study were modified so that they were appropriate for employees who did not work on college campuses. The previous item, for example, was modified to state, "My start and stop times at work frequently change." Another item stated, "I tend to keep a consistent set of hours on campus." This item was modified to state, "I tend to keep a consistent set of hours at work." Scale responses were scored on a 5-point Likert scale with a score of 1 indicating strong disagreement with the statement and a score of 5 indicating strong agreement with the statement.

Race/Ethnicity. This variable was originally coded and consisted of six levels (0 = European American, non-Hispanic; 1 = African American, non-Hispanic; 2 = Latina; 3 = Asian American (including those with origins from the Indian sub-continent); 4 =

Native American/Pacific Islander; 5 = Other) and the selection of levels is consistent with demographic data collected by other recent studies regarding race and diversity climate in the literature (see Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007). For analysis, the variable was dummy-coded for two variables 0 = European American and 1 = non-European American.

Control Variables: Individual-based

Parental status. Women with children under the age of 18 tend to use as well as desire benefits more than women without children (McMenamin, 2007; Parker & Allen, 2001). Women were asked to self-report whether they had children under the age of 18. The variable was dummy-coded based on their response. For the analysis, the variable consisted of two levels (0 = no children or no children under the age of 18, 1 = under age of 18).

Tenure. This variable was dummy-coded and consisted of four categories. These include 0–5 years, 5–10 years, 10–15 years, and 15 years or more. Tenure correlated with use of FWAs in previous studies (Parker & Allen, 2001). In the literature, tenure also influenced access to benefits as well as how frequently they were used (McCrate, 2002).

Age. Age of the participant was self-reported and initially contained six categories (1 <= 20, 2 = 21–30, 3 = 31–40, 4 = 41–50, 5 = 51–60, 6 => 60). This practice was consistent with Parker and Allen's (2001) research which found generational differences in use of FWAs. For analysis, this variable was dummy-coded to four levels to account for differences in respondent age, with 1 <= 30, 2 = 30–40, 3 = 41–50, 4 => 50.

Control Variables: Situational

Organizational size. This variable was dummy-coded and consisted of three levels (1 = small, less than 250 employees; 2 = medium, between 251 and 500 employees, and 3 = large, over 500 employees). These levels were consistent with the indicators available in literature (Eaton, 2003). Matos and Galinsky's (2011b) research on employer-based work flexibility programs indicated that an organization's size affected whether flexible benefits were offered either formally or informally. Most small organizations (less than 50 employees) did not offer benefits formally, but offered informal use as needed for their employees (Eaton, 2003).

Organizational type. This variable was dummy-coded and consisted of three levels (1 =public, non-profit, or government (non-education); 2 =education (public or private); and 3 =corporate. Educational settings, including higher education, typically have flexible work options that significantly differ from other professional workplaces due to different industry demands (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; McMenamin, 2007). Public and corporate settings were also separated to control for potential differences in budget allocations for to workplace health and well-being programs.

Demographics

Relationship status. This variable was dummy-coded and consisted of two levels (0 = single; 1 = spouse/partner). The variable was collected via self-report data on the survey.

Educational attainment. This variable was dummy-coded and consisted of six levels (1 = no high school diploma, 2 = high school diploma or equivalent, 3 = some college, 4 = undergraduate degree, 5 = some graduate work, 6 = master's degree, and 7 =

doctoral degree). Use of this variable and its levels are consistent with the literature (Kossek & Zonia, 1993). Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein (2011) noted that educational attainment influenced perceptions of diversity climate. Those with less educational attainment were more likely to rate perceive less support for diversity (Parker, Baltes, & Christiansen, 1991).

Employment status. In this study, full-time and part-time employees were eligible to participate. Full-time employees and part-time employees were defined as permanent employees who were eligible for participation in their organization's benefit programs.

Type of organizational benefit. This variable contained five separate variables, schedule control, reduced workload, reduced hours; working from home; and job-sharing, and dummy-coded with each item consisting of two levels (0 = no; 1 = yes). This information was collected to describe characteristics of the sample to understand what types of benefits were available to participants, which can vary by organization (Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011).

Data Analysis Plan

Data were obtained through Likert-scale scores, as well as through demographic variables. Participant demographics were essential and included race/ethnicity, age, relationship status, parental status, educational attainment, industry, tenure, and income. Survey research has traditionally offered proven advantages for collecting information (Sudman & Bradburn, 1982). The use of surveys to examine diversity climate perceptions, and use of FWAs, and demographical data has also been well established in the literature; thus, this technique was also used for this study.

Regression analyses were performed to test whether race/ethnicity predicted each subfactor of diversity climate, and a hierarchical (sequential) multiple regression was conducted to test whether perceptions of diversity climate mediated use of FWAs by race/ethnicity. Prior to the analysis, categorical control variables of age, tenure, organizational size, organization type, and parental status were dummy-coded 0 and 1 for two-level variables or one category was designated as the reference group for categories with more than two levels for entry into the regression model. The race/ethnicity variable was collapsed to 2 categories, European Americans and non-European Americans, for entry into the model.

Data were also screened for missing values and accuracy using SPSS 21.0 distribution and EXPLORE modules. Missing values were found and values were then examined for patterns such as whether the same question was not answered. Results are discussed in Chapter 4. The respondent's race/ethnicity was also considered in this examination for patterns in unanswered questions, and missing data were treated using the standard SPSS 21.0 replace the series mean default procedure for missing values.

Data were examined for outliers using Mahalanobis's distance with $p < .001$ criterion, as well as an examination of *z*-scores for individual scale items, ensuring that *z*-scores did not exceed ± 3.29, to evaluate the data set for outliers. A Shapiro-Wilks test, as well as residual plots, were used to evaluate assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Results are described in Chapter 4.

Given the purpose of this study, the following hypotheses were tested to address the main research questions as stated below:

Research Question 1: Would race/ethnicity predict perceptions of diversity climate?

$H_0$1: Race/ethnicity would not significantly predict perceptions of diversity climate.

$H_1$1: Race/ethnicity would significantly predict perceptions of diversity climate.

Research Question 2: Would race/ethnicity predict use of FWAs?

$H_0$2: Race/ethnicity would not significantly predict use of FWAs.

$H_1$2: Race/ethnicity would significantly predict use of FWAs.

Research Question 3: Would perceptions of diversity climate mediate the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs?

$H_0$3: Perceptions of diversity climate would not significantly mediate the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

$H_1$3: Perceptions of diversity climate significantly would mediate the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

Threats to Validity

Researchers who use quantitative analysis typically understand that error, both random and nonrandom, is a fundamental part of testing and scientific inquiry (Mertler & Vannatta, 2010). Having results that are not only statistically significant but also applicable to analysis depends heavily on minimizing internal and external threats to validity (Lipsey & Wilson, 1993). Researchers have to ensure that they are meeting the basic assumptions for hypothesis testing. Others have argued that making sure that the variables being examined best fit that particular parametric (or nonparametric) test is

another avenue for achieving not only reliable and valid data but also results that impact applicability beyond the experiment (see Micceri, 1989; Reid, 2006).

With this consideration, one possible threat to the study is self-selection bias. When participants are allowed to decide when and if they will participate, there is a chance that their participation may correlate with the participant's personal identification with the topic of the study, such as ideological interest or strong opinions regarding the topic (Bethlehem, 2010; Gronau, 1974; Heckman, 1976; Olsen, 2008). This type of decision making produces systematic bias within the results. All surveys contain some measure of self-selection bias that must be considered as a limitation for empirical studies.

A main concern with self-selection bias is the potential effects of lack of representativeness within the sample (Olsen, 2008). There is also the potential for undercoverage in terms of race/ethnicity; because of this concern, the researcher purposefully recruited on a variety of LinkedIn.com professional group pages that were based on race/ethnicity to mimic the demographic characteristics of LinkedIn.com in addition to the similarities found in the United States professional workforce. Demographic results and sample representativeness are further discussed in Chapter 4.

An additional consideration is that this survey is being administered online and, similar to traditional paper survey instruments, is relying on the validity of self-report data. Screening questions have been incorporated to encourage truthful responses; however, participants may not be truthful in response to their gender or their race/ethnicity which may lead to measurement error. Lack of privacy while completing

the survey online could also potentially influence responses that could lead to measurement error.

Additionally, because the survey is being administered online participants may also be subjected to a variety of distractions, both controllable and incontrollable ones, and may not be completely engaged while completing the survey due to efforts to multitask. One study found that the perception of feeling distracted while completing an online survey was also related to age where middle-aged participants compared to than younger participants were more likely to feel distracted while completing an online survey if they were also doing other activities such as checking email on their computer or phone (Zwarun & Hall, 2014). Despite this concern, the same study also noted that when participants accounted for their activities, feelings of distraction decreased (Zwarun & Hall, 2014). The threat should be acknowledged, however, because a factor such as individual differences could highly influence engagement with the task of completing the online survey.

One final consideration is the potential threat involves language translation. The survey will not be translated into any other languages. None of the instruments used in this study have been validated for use in other languages; thus, due to resource and time constraints the survey will only be offered in English. Much of the research on diversity climate has proceeded in this manner, with exception of Gonzalez and DeNisi (2009). They conducted their research in manufacturing industries as opposed to more traditional professional industries. Despite this justification for translating the survey into Spanish, they did not note significant differences in responses related to the translation; thus, my study will not incorporate this change.

Ethical Procedures

Institutional Review Board Approval

Because human participants were used in this study, the researcher successfully completed the National Institutes of Health (NIH) training course for Protecting Human Research Participants (Certification No. 1277377). Additionally, appropriate approval was obtained from the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB); the approval number for this study was 0220140109265. Permission to collect data expired on February 19, 2015. Informed consent was received from all participants, and participants were provided with information for the Walden University contact person should an issue arise from their participation in the study. (See Appendix C for a copy of the consent form.) Permission to post the study on the Walden University Participant Pool study description board was also obtained after IRB approval.

Anonymity and Confidentiality

The study was conducted using SurveyMonkey.com, a web-based survey hosting site. To further increase anonymity, as well as minimize the possible negative consequences that could occur with a security breach of SurveyMonkey's databases in which a participant's personal information was leaked, participants were not asked to provide their name, job title, place of employment, or email address.

Additionally, internet protocol (IP) addresses can lead to traceable user data; thus, the researcher disabled this feature in SuveyMonkey's survey collection database. Each participant was also given an identification number and was not identified through personal information during the data collection and data analysis process. Because

personal identifiers were not collected during the survey administration, it was not necessary for the researcher to strip the survey of personal information.

Data Storage

Data were collected using a direct URL to the survey. SurveyMonkey.com uses SSL/TSL encryption to collect data and does not use the collected data (i.e., responses) for any other purpose except storage and distribution to the owner of the data. After collection, responses were exported using a private, password-protected internet connection as an electronic file to an external drive. The file is password-protected and stored on an external drive. The survey was closed after data collection. The study will be deleted after the dissertation is completed, although a copy may remain on their servers up to 90 days upon cancellation as required by law.

Ethical Concerns

The researcher aimed to consider whether participants would have to re-consider experiences that could be perceived by some individuals as negative or if participants had experiences that contributed to negative perceptions of diversity climate. Due to the fact that participants were asked to consider their perceptions of racial diversity initiatives within their organization, participants were advised to discuss matters with their HR representative on the consent form as necessary. They were also were notified on the consent form that the survey did not serve as a vehicle to address these concerns. Finally, if a respondent self-reported her age as less than 18 years, she was barred from participation; the survey window automatically closed.

Dissemination of Findings

Appropriate venues to disseminate findings for this research include Walden University's poster sessions that are held twice a year. Other appropriate venues would include the North Carolina Industrial-Organizational Psychology biannual meetings and the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) Annual Meeting. A poster presentation will be conducted for each meeting. These meetings would provide a great opportunity to disseminate relevant information and contribute to scholarship in the field of organizational psychology. Summary findings will be distributed to participants that requested them.

Summary

This study investigated whether race/ethnicity predicted diversity climate, the relationship between race/ethnicity and flexible benefit use, and whether perceptions of diversity climate mediated this relationship. The research design, as well as the selection of measures and instruments, addressed this approach. The design also underscored the goal of addressing the lack of empirical evidence to support claims that race may be a factor in determining benefit use, particularly when facets of organizational climate were considered. Results of this study are reported and discussed in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

This study investigated (a) whether race/ethnicity affected diversity climate perceptions, (b) the relationship between an individual's race/ethnicity and the use of FWAs, and (c) whether perceptions of an organization's diversity climate mediated this relationship. The purpose of this chapter is to report and discuss the results of this study. Recruitment procedures for creating the sample, data collection methods and instruments, and a summary of the results from the hypotheses tested are discussed below.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to (a) investigate whether race/ethnicity affected diversity climate perceptions, (b) to examine the relationship between an individual's race/ethnicity and the use of FWAs, and (c) to understand whether perceptions of an organization's diversity climate mediated the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs. The questions that functioned as guidelines for inquiry were does race/ethnicity predict how diversity climate is perceived or how FWA is used? Additionally, do perceptions of diversity climate mediate the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs? Research Question 1 generated the following hypotheses:

$H_0$1: Race/ethnicity does not significantly predict perceptions of diversity climate.

$H_1$1: Race/ethnicity significantly predicts perceptions of diversity climate.

The hypotheses for Research Question 2 were the following:

$H_0$2: Race/ethnicity does not significantly predict use of FWAs.

$H_1$2: Race/ethnicity significantly predicts use of FWAs.

Lastly, hypotheses for Research Question 3 were as follows:

$H_0$3: Perceptions of diversity climate do not significantly mediate the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

$H_1$3: Perceptions of diversity climate significantly mediate the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

Data Collection, Response Rate, and Time Frame

Data were collected for approximately 5 months (March–August, 2014) via SurveyMonkey. There were no discrepancies between the recruitment and data collection plans described in Chapter 3. No adverse effects were reported. SurveyMonkey recorded 189 responses via the researcher's LinkedIn page and the volunteers of Walden University's Participant Pool.

Unlike a controlled employment environment or surveys e-mailed to a specified number of recipients, promoting the survey through LinkedIn and Walden University's Participant Pool created an environment where there was no way to know how many people viewed the link and did not respond. One other limitation of confirming response rate was that there was no indicator of how participants received the survey, so it is unknown how many of the 189 responses were directly from LinkedIn and how many were from the Walden Participant Pool. Because of this response rate cannot be accurately calculated.

What was known was that SurveyMonkey.com calculated 189 respondents from March to July 2014 from LinkedIn and Walden University’s Participant Pool combined. Of these 189, 60.5% (or 115) respondents met eligibility requirements and completed the survey which created the study's sample.

Sample Demographics and Representativeness

Participations rates by race/ethnicity are detailed on the next page in Table 1, Sample Demographics, as is information regarding the age, relationship and parental status, highest level of educational attainment, and income for the respondents. Please continue to the next page to review Table 1.

Table 1

*Sample Demographics (*N *=115)*

Characteristic	*n*	%
Race/ethnicity		
European American, non-Hispanic	48	41.7
African American, non-Hispanic	50	43.5
Latina, or Hispanic origin	7	6.1
Combined categories of Asian, Asian American &	8	7.0
Native American, Alaska Native, Pacific Islander[a]	--	--
Other[b]	2	1.7
Age (in years)		
18-30[a]	14	12.2
31-40	34	29.6
41-50	43	37.4
51-60	16	13.9
60+	8	7.0
Relationship status		
Single	29	25.2
Married or in a relationship	86	74.8
Parental status		
Under age 18	54	47.0
Children 18+/no children	59	51.3
Did not respond	2	1.7
Educational level completed		
Some college	8	7.0
Undergraduate degree	25	21.7
Some graduate work	16	13.9
Master's degree	46	40.0
Doctoral degree	20	17.4
Income ($)		
20,000 – 39,999	7	6.1
40,000 – 59,999	12	6.1
60,000 – 74,999	10	8.7
75,000 – 99,999	25	21.7
100,000 – 149,000	28	24.3
150,000 – 199,999	12	10.4
200,000 or more	18	15.7
Did not respond	3	2.6

[a] To protect identities for the few individuals who responded in these categories, the totals were combined for reporting.

[b] Respondents were allowed to select "Other" if categories did not fit their personal identification description; they were not requested to specify what "Other" meant.

For this sample, the highest participation rate was from African American women (43.5%) followed by European American, non-Hispanic women with 41.7% of respondents. Asian Americans, Native Americans, Pacific Islanders were not well-represented (7%) in this sample even with a combined rate, despite Asian American women representing 48% of women in the managerial and professional sectors within the U.S. workforce (Bureau of Labor Statistics, USDOL, 2014). Latinas also had a lower participation rate of 6.1% which was not representative of the 26% of women working in managerial sectors of the workforce (Bureau of Labor Statistics, USDOL, 2014).

Age, parental status, and relationship status. Approximately 68% of the women who responded were between the age of 31 and 50 years and married or in a relationship (74.8%). The sample was also divided almost equally between those with children under the age of 18 years of age (51.3%) and those without (47%). A little less than 2% did not report whether they had children.

Educational attainment and income. Demographic results also indicated that approximately 71% had completed some level of graduate work, and many had attained a master's (40%) or doctorate degree (17.4%). The majority of the sample (74.7%) earned an annual income over $75,000, with approximately 50% earning $100,000 or more. Three percent did not respond to this question.

Industries and work. For this sample, most women worked full-time (93%) for large organizations that employed over 500 people (73%). Roughly 31% worked 30 or more hours per week, and approximately 64% worked more than 40 hours per week. Most worked for corporations (53.9%), but those who worked in private and public

education were also represented (17.4%). Public, non-profit agencies were represented in this sample as well (28.7%). A variety of professional industries were represented in this sample and are detailed in Figure 1.

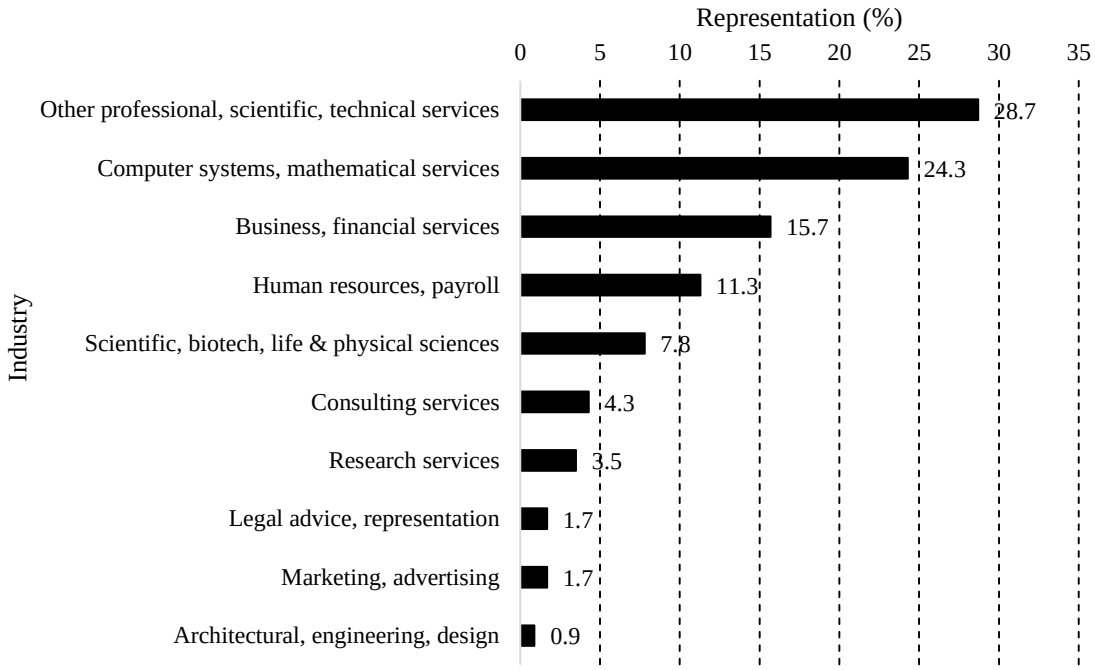


Figure 1. Representation by work industry type.

The majority of the sample selected the "Other" category (28.7%) for the work industry type item. The survey did not have a write-in option for participants, so it was difficult to determine what industries were actually represented. The next largest industry was computer systems and mathematical services (24.3%).

Job tenure and types of work arrangement. Most respondents had worked at their organization for more than 5 years (54.8%). Approximately 25% of these respondents had worked from 5 to 10 years; roughly 15% had worked from 10 to 15 years; and approximately 15% had worked more than 15 years at the same organization.

Despite the high level of tenure with this group, there were still many respondents (45.2%) who had worked for less than 5 years.

Lastly, respondents participated in various work arrangements, including changing their start and stop times of their work day (89.6%), reducing their work hours (58.3%), reducing their workload through an arrangement with their supervisor (46.1%), working from home (80.9%), and job-sharing with one or more coworkers (20%). Participation rates by race/ethnicity are detailed below in Table 2, Self-reported Participation Rates of FWA by Race.

Table 2

Self-reported Participation Rates of FWA Usage by Race/Ethnicity (N = 115)

Type of flexible work arrangement	European Am. (n = 48)	African American (n = 50)	Latina (n = 7)	Asian Am., Pac. Islander, & Native American (n = 8)	Other (n = 2)
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
Changing start/stop times	44 (91.7)	43 (86.0)	6 (85.7)	8 (100)	2 (100)
Reduced workload	18 (37.5)	27 (54.0)	2 (28.6)	4 (57.1)	0 (0)
Reduced hours	25 (52.1)	34 (68.0)	2 (28.6)	4 (50.0)	2 (100)
Work from home	43 (89.6)	37 (74.0)	5 (71.4)	7 (87.5)	1 (50.0)
Job sharing	8 (16.7)	10 (20.0)	2 (28.6)	1 (12.5)	2 (100)

Respondents were permitted to select more than one arrangement. As noted above, most respondents made arrangements by changing the starting and stopping times of their day or by working from home. An examination of cross-tabulated data revealed that African American participants represented half of the respondents who reported using a reduced workload or reduced work hours arrangement compared to other

participants; yet, like the sample, slightly more than half (52.1%, N = 113) did not have children under the age of 18. It is not certain from the data whether other factors such as elder or extended family care contributed to higher use of these two particular benefits, as respondents were not surveyed for this information. Further discussion will follow in Chapter 5 regarding potential factors that could have led to this difference in the sample.

Results

Four regression analyses were conducted to test whether race/ethnicity predicted perceptions of diversity climate. A hierarchical (sequential) multiple regression was conducted to test whether race/ethnicity predicted use of FWAs, and whether perceptions of diversity climate mediated use of FWAs by race/ethnicity. As noted in Chapter 3, categorical variables were dummy-coded or contrast coded depending on the number of levels for the variable. The race/ethnicity variable was collapsed to 2 categories, European Americans and non-European Americans, for entry into the model.

Data were also screened for missing values and accuracy. Missing values were found for six cases (one item each) for the Diversity Climate Scale (Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein, 2011) and for one case for the Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale (McKay et al., 2007). Values were examined for patterns such as whether the same question was not answered for all seven surveys and the following was determined:

- Two respondents did not answer the question regarding inclusive conversations in the office (see Question 17 in Appendix B);
- Two did not answer the questions about certain demographics being treated better (see Question 14 in Appendix B);

- One did not answer regarding opportunities for minority employees (see Question 13 in Appendix B);
- One did not answer regarding minority input being valued (see Question 19 in Appendix B), and
- One respondent did not answer the question regarding whether the workgroup has a diverse climate perspective (see Question 28 in Appendix B).

The respondent's race/ethnicity was also considered in this examination for patterns in unanswered questions, but no patterns were found. Four European Americans, 2 African Americans, and 1 Latina participant did not answer one question on their survey.

Data were examined for outliers using Mahalanobis's distance with $p <$ .001criterion, as well as an examination of z-scores for individual scale items, ensuring that z-scores did not exceed +/-3.29. One case beyond the critical value was eliminated from the data set, leaving 114 cases for analysis. A Shapiro-Wilks *W* test for normality revealed a significant result for the identify freedom subfactor of Diversity Climate led to the reflection and logarithmic transformation of the identity freedom subfactor for Diversity Climate (Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein, 2011) to improve normality. Skewness for this variable prior to the log transformation was –1.33 and was reduced to 0.016 after the transformation (and reverse reflection). All other variables indicated normal distribution, with nonsignificant values. A visual inspection of a scatterplot matrix and graphed residual plots of each variable, as well combined predictors and criterion variables indicated linearity and homoscedasticity for the model.

After conducting the sequential regression analysis, an examination of collinearity tolerance for the IV and mediator, as well as the controls, showed all variables in the

model were above .1; none were lower than .232, and the variance inflation factor was below 10 for all variables in the model. None were higher than 4.3; thus, lack of multicollinearity was confirmed. The subfactor, identify freedom (log), accounted for the highest variance inflation factor value. Results are listed in Table 3, Means, SDs, and Intercorrelations for Predictors and Criterion Variables.

Descriptives

Descriptive analysis for the independent and dependent variables can be found in Table 3, Means, SDs, and Intercorrelations for Predictors and Criterion Variables.

Table 3

Means, SDs, and Intercorrelations for Predictors and Criterion Variables (N = 114)

	Variable	M (SD)	Diversity climate-identity freedom (log)	Diversity climate-inclusive climate	Diversity climate-equal access	Organizational diversity climate	Use of flexible work arrangements	Race/ Ethnic.
1.	Diversity climate-identity freedom (log)	-1.62 (0.27)	--					
2.	Diversity climate-inclusive climate	23.80 (6.07)	-.481**	--				
3.	Diversity climate-equal access	10.45 (2.63)	-.435	.661**	--			
4.	Organizational diversity climate	28.84 (7.53)	-.537**	.678**	.753**	--		
5.	Use of flexible work arrangements	11.50 (3.84)	.141	-.040	-.007	-.039	--	
6.	Race/ ethnicity	--	.142	-.225*	-.236*	-.224*	.025	--

Note. Diversity climate subfactors included variable 1, identity freedom (log), variable 2, inclusive climate, and variable 3, equal access as described in "The relationship between diversity climate perceptions and workplace attitudes" by N. Wolfson, K. Kraiger, and L. Finkelstein, 2011, *The Psychologist-Manager Journal,14*, pp. 161-176. *p < .05, 2-tailed. **p < .01, 2-tailed.

Prior to the analysis correlation was examined for each of the predictor and criterion variables to check for multicollinearity. A significant, but small correlation was observed between race/ethnicity and the diversity climate subfactors, inclusive climate and equal access, as well as between race/ethnicity and organizational diversity climate. No correlation was noted between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

Analysis

Outcomes of race/ethnicity on diversity climate. To test Hypothesis 1 and address the research question regarding whether race/ethnicity predicted perceptions of diversity climate, four separate regression analyses were performed to determine whether race/ethnicity predicted each subfactor for individual indicators of diversity climate perceptions (identity freedom, inclusive climate, and equal access) as well as the broader organizational diversity climate measure.

Regression results indicated that, for this sample, race/ethnicity was a significant predictor of the subfactors, inclusive climate $R^2 = .050$, $R^2_{adj} = .042$, $F(1, 112) = 5.96$, $p = .016$, equal access $R^2 = .056$, $R^2_{adj} = .047$, $F(1, 112) = 6.60$, $p = .011$; it was also a predictor for the broader measure of organizational diversity climate perceptions $R^2 = .050$, $R^2_{adj} = .042$, $F(1, 112) = 5.94$, $p = .016$. Race/ethnicity accounted for 5% of variance in perceptions regarding inclusive climate; and 5.6% of variance in perceptions regarding equal access to opportunities. Additionally, race/ethnicity accounted for 5% of variance in perceptions regarding organizational diversity climate. Race/ethnicity was not a significant predictor for the log of identity freedom subfactor, $R^2 = .020$, $R^2_{adj} = .011$, $F(1, 112) = 2.29$, $p = .133$, and only accounted for only 2% of variance in diversity

climate perceptions regarding identity freedom. Results are listed in Table 4, Regression Analyses Predicting Diversity Climate Race/Ethnicity.

Table 4

Regression Analyses Predicting Diversity Climate from Race/Ethnicity

Predictor	ΔR^2	*B*	β	t-value	*p*
	Identity freedom subfactor				
Race/ethnicity	.020	.078	.142	1.51	.133
	Inclusive climate subfactor				
	.050	–2.72	–.225	–2.44	.016*
	Equal access subfactor				
	.056	–1.24	–.236	–2.57	.011*
	Organizational diversity climate				
	.050	–3.397	–.224	–2.438	.016 *

*p < .05, 2-tailed, 95% confidence interval.

Results indicated a small but significant positive correlation between race/ethnicity and the diversity climate subfactor, equal access, supporting the predicted direction between race/ethnicity and some of the subfactors for diversity climate, indicating that the relationship between race/ethnicity and diversity climate perceptions was not due chance and that women of color were more likely to negatively perceive lack of equal access to work opportunities. Results also indicated a small but significant positive correlation between race/ethnicity and the diversity climate subfactor, inclusive climate, indicating that the relationship between race/ethnicity and perceptions of inclusive climate were not due to chance and that women of color were more likely to negatively perceive a lack of inclusive workplace climate.

The broader measure of organizational diversity climate factor was also positively correlated with race/ethnicity, indicating that this relationship was not due to chance and that women of color were more likely to perceive a lack of organizational diversity

climate. Correlation results partially supported regression analyses for equal access and inclusive climate as well as the organizational diversity climate; thus, Hypothesis 1 that stated that race/ethnicity predicted some aspects of perceptions of diversity climate for this sample was partially supported; race/ethnicity did not predict lack of identity freedom and thus supported the null of Hypothesis 1.

Outcomes of race/ethnicity on use of FWAs and mediation analysis of diversity climate between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs. A hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test whether perceptions of diversity climate mediated use of FWAs when examining race/ethnicity. The assumptions for a hierarchical multiple regression analysis were the same as those for a multiple regression analysis and were examined. These included the following: (a) the independent variables had a linear relationship to the dependent variables, (b) each observed value was generated from separate individuals, (c) variables, as well as distribution errors, were distributed normally, and (d) that the measurement of prediction errors produced the same amount of standard deviations for every dependent variable score (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Using hierarchical multiple regression analysis permitted the unique variance between the independent variable, race/ethnicity, the mediator, diversity climate, and the dependent variable, and use of FWAs, to be examined more closely. It also allowed for identification regarding whether there was a mediating effect when considering diversity climate perceptions. The model followed assumptions for mediation analysis as outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) as well as Kenny (2012). Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1176) argued that when a variable "intervened" between the relationship of the independent (IV) and dependent variables (DV), then the intervening variable had a mediating effect

between the IV and DV. The authors noted four requirements for a variable to function as a mediator. These included the following:

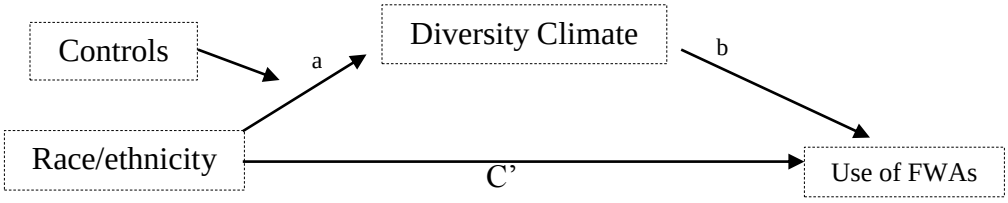
1. The IV would correlate with the DV, and create a direct effect between the IV and DV.

2. The IV would correlate with measures of the mediating variable and create a direct effect between the IV and mediating variable.

3. When the DV was regressed onto IV and the mediator, the mediating variable would remain correlated with the DV, and

4. The correlation, or total effect, between the IV and the DV, would be 0, significantly less, when the mediator was added to the model.

A diagram of the model is included below in Figure 2.



Note. Controls consisted of age, tenure, parental status, organizational size, and organizational type.

Figure *2.* Mediation model between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

To address Hypothesis 2 and research question two regarding whether race/ethnicity significantly predicted use of FWAs, variables were entered in two steps. Control variables, age, tenure, organizational type, organization size, and parent with child/children under 18 were entered in Step 1 to control for variance caused by variables known to influence flexible benefit use, $R^2 = .058$, $R^2_{adj} = -.097$, $F(16, 97) = .373$, $p =$

.986. In Step 2, race/ethnicity (European Americans and non-European Americans) was entered in addition to the controls, $R^2 = .060$, $R^2_{adj} = –.106$, $F(17, 96) = .362$, $p = .990$. Results indicated that the initial model with the controls only accounted for 5.8% of the variance in use of FWAs. The results of Step 2 indicated that race/ethnicity only contributed to 6% of the variance and, therefore, did not account for significant additional variance in use of FWAs in this sample.

To address Hypothesis 3, as well as the final research question regarding whether the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs was mediated by diversity climate, both organizational diversity climate and the subfactors, log identify freedom, equal access, and inclusive climate, were entered in Step 3, $R^2 = .105$, $R^2_{adj} = –.099$, $F(21, 92) = .516$, $p = .957$. After controlling for potentially confounding variables in Step 1, and race/ethnicity in Step 2, results indicated that diversity climate did not function as mediator when use of FWAs was regressed onto race/ethnicity. Additionally, results with all variables entered in the model only accounted for 10.5% of the variance; thus, the model did not significantly predict use of FWAs. A summary of results is listed in Table 5, Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting FWA Use from Race/Ethnicity and Diversity Climate on the next page.

Table 5

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Use of FWAs from Race/Ethnicity and Diversity Climate

Predictor	ΔR^2	*B*	β	t-value	*p*
Step 1	.058				
Control variables[a]					
Organizational type					
Public vs. private				.	
Public vs. educ.					
Organizational size		-.571	-.074		.574
Small vs. medium		-.238	-.024	-.563	.849
Small vs. large				-.191	
Age		-.535	-.038		.748
Age < 30 vs. age30s		-1.11	-.128	-.323	.284
Age < 30 vs. age40s				-1.08	
Age < 30 vs. age50+		-.929	-.111		.527
Tenure		.013	.002	-.635	.993
Tenure < 5 vs. 5-10yr		.232	.024	.009	.890
Tenure < 5 vs. 10-15yr				.138	
Tenure < 5 vs. 15+yr		-.035	-.004		.972
Children under 18		.745	.069	-.036	.534
		.913	.085	.623	.485
		.444	.057	.700	.614
				.506	
Step 2	.060				
Control variables[a]					
Race/ethnicity		.395	.051	.479	.633
Step 3	.105				
Control variables[a]					
Race/ethnicity		.310	.040	.367	.714
Diversity climate-identity freedom (log)		3.752	.265	2.030	.045*
Diversity climate-inclusive climate		-.032	-.050	-.309	.758
Diversity climate-equal access		-.066	-.045	-.251	.802
Organizational diversity climate		.080	.156	.764	.447

[a] Control variables included age, tenure, organizational type, organizational size, and children under 18 parental status.
*p < .05, 2-tailed, 95% confidence interval.

The model as proposed did not meet all of the requirements for mediation analysis. The independent variable (IV) correlated with two of the subfactors of the mediating variable. Race/ethnicity significantly correlated with diversity climate subfactors inclusive climate, $r = –.225$, $p = .016$ and equal access, $r = –.236$, $p = .011$. Race/ethnicity also significantly correlated with organizational diversity climate, $r = –.224$, $p = .016$); however the diversity climate perception, log identity freedom, $r = .142$,

p = .133, did not significantly correlate with race/ethnicity. Regression analysis indicated that race/ethnicity significantly predicted diversity climate for this sample. The IV did correlate with the dependent variable and thus indicate a direct effect between the IV and DV. Race/ethnicity did not, however, have a correlation with use of FWAs (r = .025, p = .791), and Step 2 of the hierarchical regression analysis confirmed that race/ethnicity did not significantly predict use of FWAs. The final entry of the diversity climate perceptions measures into the hierarchical regression analysis confirmed that diversity did not mediate the effects between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs. The regression coefficient for the mediation model with all variables entered was not significantly reduced; nor did the model demonstrate the capacity to predict use of FWAs by race/ethnicity and perceptions of diversity climate.

Summary

Results indicated that race/ethnicity significantly predicted the organizational measure of diversity climate, as well diversity climate subfactors equal access and inclusive climate. When the potentially confounding variables of age, tenure, organizational type, organization size, and parent with child/children under 18 were held constant, however, race/ethnicity did not significantly predict use of FWAs. Additionally, diversity climate did not significantly predict use of FWAs, nor did it mediate the (nonsignificant) relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

In sum, in response to Research Question 1 regarding whether race/ethnicity predicted diversity climate perceptions, the analysis for this sample did not support the null hypothesis. In response to Research Question 2 regarding whether race/ethnicity predicted use of FWAs, the analysis for this sample supported the null hypothesis.

Finally, in response to Research Question 3 regarding whether diversity climate perceptions mediated the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs, the analysis supported the null hypothesis. In Chapter 5, the results as it relates to the literature for diversity climate and flexible work are interpreted further

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether race/ethnicity affected diversity climate perceptions. The study also attempted to examine the relationship between an individual's race/ethnicity and the use of FWAs and whether perceptions of an organization's diversity climate mediated the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs.

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize, highlight, and interpret the findings presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 contains a summary and interpretation of findings; it also covers limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research. The chapter concludes with a discussion of implications for social change, as well as conclusion of the study.

Summary and Interpretation of Findings

The model included an individual's race/ethnicity as a predictor of diversity climate perceptions, as well as a predictor of use of FWAs. The model proposed that an individual's perception of an organization's diversity climate would mediate the relationship between use of FWAs and an individual's race/ethnicity. In addition to the predictor and mediator, the model controlled for potential confounding variables such as tenure, age, organizational size, type of organization, and whether or not the individual had children under the age of 18 years of age. These specific control variables were selected, because previous research has found them to be correlates of use of FWAs. Three research questions were investigated in this study:

1. Did race/ethnicity predict diversity climate perceptions?

2. Did race/ethnicity predict use of FWAs?

3. Did perceptions of diversity climate significantly mediate the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs?

The findings are discussed in the sections that follow.

Diversity Climate Perceptions as an Outcome of Race/Ethnicity

Results of the analysis for Question 1 indicated that race/ethnicity was a predictor of certain aspects of diversity climate for this sample. Initial regression models for race/ethnicity and the inclusive climate and equal access diversity climate subfactors for Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein's (2011) Diversity Climate Scale, as well as the overall organizational measure, Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale (McKay et al., 2007) indicated a small but significant correlation that predicted diversity climate. The fitted model for race/ethnicity and the identity freedom diversity climate subfactor of the Diversity Climate Scale (Wolfson et al., 2011) was not significant and accounted for variance in this diversity climate subfactor only slightly more than chance. With adjusted r-squared values being very close to the initial r-squared values (please see Chapter 4 for results) there is confidence in the generalizability of this association.

As measured by the Climate for Diversity Scale (Wolfson et al., 2011), race/ethnicity did not predict lack of identity freedom perceptions. Employees did not perceive a lack of identity freedom. The identity freedom subfactor addressed whether participants perceived being able to fit in and express themselves in their workplace, and participants responded positively for those two items. This result was a departure from Cox’s (1994) bifurcation argument two decades earlier that stated that minorities

typically experienced the competing aspects of upholding their work and cultural identities.

One consideration regarding differences in diversity climate perceptions may surround how identity freedom, the subfactor that was tied to fit and freedom of expression, has been used as a selection tool for hiring practices, as well as a tool for maintaining fit throughout an employee's tenure (Swider, Zimmerman, & Barrick, 2015). The person-organization fit concept describes the notion of matching organizations and employees who have similar values and goals via employee interviews (Cable & Judge, 1997). For the sample, participants expressed strong agreement with their ability to fit into organizational culture, as well as express themselves. This result may signal changes in work practices that have increased efforts to recruit and retain talented employees, and as a result.

As measured by the Climate for Diversity Scale (Wolfson et al., 2011), race/ethnicity predicted negative inclusive climate. Participants perceived that their workplaces lacked an inclusive climate. This subfactor measured whether respondents felt excluded from their coworkers or sensed that others were intolerant of racial/ethnic diversity. Results were indicative that women of color in this sample perceived a lack of inclusion in their workplace and held stronger perceptions of being excluded from important conversations or events within the workplace because of their race/ethnicity.

Additionally, race/ethnicity predicted negative perceptions of how some groups were treated. Respondents perceived unfair treatment due to membership in a particular demographic group or inequitable access to workplace opportunities, which was measured by the third subfactor, equal access, of the Climate for Diversity Scale

(Wolfson et al., 2011). This result supported concerns raised by Gonzalez and DeNisi (2009) who noted that although minorities did not always feel disturbed by lack of inclusion in the workplace, they were more likely to be aware of differences from their majority coworkers. These differences in perception influenced how employees perceived their work experience.

Lastly, race/ethnicity predicted perceptions of organizational diversity climate. The Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale (McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007) measured whether respondents perceived that their workplace was actively meeting or exceeding their expectations regarding hiring individuals with diverse backgrounds, training individuals in leadership to effectively manage diversity, and fostering a positive work climate for diversity by promoting values and encouraging communication. Results indicated that women of color were more likely to perceive a less affirming climate compared to nonminoritites.

The findings of this study support results found in Wolfson et al. (2011) and McKay et al. (2007), as well as Kossek and Zonia's (1993) findings two decades earlier which indicated that racial status was more likely to correlate with perceptions of diversity climate, and that racial/ethnic minorities would place greater emphasis on the importance of diversity promotion efforts and strategies.

Use of FWAs as an Outcome of Race/Ethnicity

Results of the analysis for Question 2 indicated that race/ethnicity was not a predictor for use of FWAs for this sample and confirmed the lack of correlation for race/ethnicity as a predictor. Although the model included the removal of potentially confounding variables in Step 1, the controls accounted for only a small influence on use

of FWAs. Even with the controls held constant, race/ethnicity added little explanation for use of FWAs by participants.

Although some racial/ethnic groups had limited representation, results still indicated that FWAs were being used by all racial groups represented in this sample. Most participants reported that they used schedule adjustments, or more specifically, changed their work day start and stop times, as the main resource for flexible work, regardless of their race/ethnicity. Working from home was the second most commonly used option across demographic groups. The results of this study did not support previous research that noted that race affected perceptions of fairness regarding the availability of flexible benefits (Parker & Allen, 2001) or that the visible nature of an employee's race could foster negative consequences for using those benefits (Avery & McKay, 2007; Blake-Beard et al., 2010).

An examination of cross-tabulated data indicated that African American, non-Hispanic, women used reduced work load or an arrangement for fewer work hours with their supervisor more than other groups in this sample. This finding may support Parker and Allen's (2001) results that indicated minorities employees had more favorable perceptions of family-friendly programs compared to their older and/or European American coworkers. They speculated that these two groups actually benefited more from work-family policies, because of dependent care services, and that minorities in particular, may have benefited more directly from organizational family-friendly policies. With a sample almost evenly distributed between those with children and those without, it is difficult to confirm whether having children substantiated the reasons that African Americans in this sample used these types of benefits more. Parker and Allen (2001)

noted that more substantial research was needed in this area to confirm these results, and the need to understand how individuals are using flexibility benefits will be discussed in the Recommendations section that follows.

Although Parker and Allen (2001) refer to the organizational support employee receives, personal support may also explain how some employees perceived a supportive environment for use of FWAs; most employer-based FWAs are made between supervisor and employee regardless of organizational policy (Lewis, 2003; Kossek & Lee, 2008). Race has been found to influence whether an employee seeks a supervisor's help when family problems arose (Hopkins, 2002). Hopkins's research found that African American women were less likely to seek help from their supervisor in adjusting schedules or work load during a crisis situation when the supervisor was not the same race. Based on concerns raised in Hopkins (2002) study, findings for this study, supported the hypothesis that race/ethnicity predicted perceptions of diversity climate. Race/ethnicity did not predict use of FWAs for this sample, however. The findings for this study may support previous literature that found that relationships with a supervisor may play a greater role in use of FWAs (Lewis, 2003; Kossek & Lee, 2008); yet, more research is needed to determine whether these relationships could reduce perceptions of a lack of inclusive climate and lack of equitable treatment, as well as promote a sense of identity freedom (Wolfson et al., 2011).

The findings of this study may also offer support for previous literature which argued that perceptions of organizational fairness contributed to notions of organizational justice, and, hence, positive perceptions of fairness make use of FWAs appear more equitable regardless of the employee using them (Lewis, Gamble, & Rapoport, 2007;

Parker & Allen, 2001), and that organizational leadership had a major role in conveying a perception of fairness (Hewlett, 2007; Judge & Colquitt, 2004). These results also support the notion that organizational culture, when positive, influences how employees perceive their workplace, including their access to benefits and opportunities (Kossek & Michel, 2011; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Given the findings of this study which did not confirm a relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs, more research may be needed to understand whether supervisor support increases perceptions of support for diversity climate as well as use of FWAs.

Diversity Climate as a Mediator When Use of FWAs is an Outcome of Race/Ethnicity

The hypothesis that diversity climate mediates the relationship between use of FWAs and racial status and/or ethnic group membership was not supported. Race/ethnicity significantly correlated with the individual subscales (Inclusive Climate, and Equal Access) of the Diversity Climate Scale (Wolfson et al., 2011) and the organizational diversity climate items for the Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale (McKay et al., 2007); further examination with regression analysis revealed a significant relationship between race/ethnicity perceptions of diversity climate. Race/ethnicity did not correlate with use of FWAs; however, nor did it predict use of FWAs, despite removal of potentially confounding variables.

Results from this study this differed previous literature that found that diversity climate significantly affected organizational outcomes. McKay et al. (2007) viewed the relationship of diversity climate and employee retention, and results indicated that African Americans were more likely to perceive a less affirming climate for diversity

compared to other racial/ethnic groups, which had a negative impact on organizational outcomes, such as retention. Perceptions of diversity climate were not compared between racial/ethnic groups; yet, this study supports the notion that racial/ethnic minority status may play a greater role in how one perceives diversity climate.

The results of this study also differed from previous literature that found that race was a significant factor in use of FWAs. Parker and Allen's (2001) work indicated that minorities compared to nonminorities tended to value benefits. Race also influenced perceptions of fairness regarding the availability and use of family-friendly benefits such as work flexibility arrangements. Additional literature noted that an employee's racial identity could amplify negative effects of using benefits (Avery & McKay, 2007) or affect perceptions of fairness (Parker & Allen, 2001).

Blake-Beard, O'Neill, Ingols, & Shapiro (2010) further elaborated on the problem of negative perceptions of diversity climate when they contended that hypervisibility of racial/ethnic minority employees in a nonaffirming diversity climate fostered an environment where use of flexible benefits by minority employees triggered stereotypical views. Women of color employees, thus, avoided using flexible benefits to avoid confronting their visibility in context of negative stereotypes. Results for this study indicated that employees of color perceived a less affirming climate for diversity more than European American employees, despite respective organization type or size. The effect of a negative diversity climate mediating use of use of FWAs by race, however, was not observed. Results, thus, indicated that use of FWAs was not impeded by perceptions of diversity climate for women in this sample.

Although this study did not affirm the relationship between race/ethnicity and use of FWAs was mediated by diversity climate, the results do raise the question of whether women with higher educational attainment, and therefore higher skills and income, can support career choices that allow them to be a part of workplaces that place higher premiums on fostering better climate for all employees. One of the main challenges for this study was increasing racial/ethnic representativeness within the sample. The sample contained a higher participation rate for women of color compared to European American, non-Hispanic women, with the highest participation rate by African American, non-Hispanic women. This aspect differed when racial/ethnic composition was compared to other studies on flexible work benefits and FWAs.

The Families and Work Institute's *Workplace flexibility among professional employees* report (Matos & Galinsky, 2011a) found that professional employees in the U.S. were more likely to be female, European American, and married with children under the age of 18 compared to non-professional employees. Studies regarding utilization of FWAs (e.g., Parker & Allen, 2001; Shockley & Allen, 2010) also had samples where the racial/ethnic composition was similar to ones highlighted in the 2011 Families and Work Institute report (Matos & Galinsky, 2011a).

The racial/ethnic makeup of this sample mimicked user characteristics found by polls regarding LinkedIn users. Duggan and Smith (2013) found that 30% of African Americans, non-Hispanic, polled used LinkedIn.com compared to 22% of European Americans, non-Hispanic, and 13% for those of Latino or Hispanic origin. (Asian Americans, Pacific Islanders, and Native Americans were not included in the 2013 Duggan and Smith poll.) In this sample, Asian Americans, Pacific Islanders, Native

Americans along with Latinas were not well-represented compared to the estimates provided by the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor (2013), in which 48% of Asian American women and 26% of Latina women work in high-wage management, professional, and similar industry sectors.

These differences in racial/ethnic representation may underscore the unique attributes of LinkedIn.com users in particular, and professional employees in general. Recent polls indicated typical LinkedIn.com users were between the ages of 35-54 years-old (Carlson, 2012; Duggan & Smith, 2013). Most had household incomes of $75,000 or more, and most obtained a college or an advanced degree (Carlson, 2012; Duggan & Smith, 2013). Despite using two sources for data collection, participants for this study were, comparatively, a highly-educated group, mostly between the ages of 31- and 50-years-old, whose household incomes were $75,000 or more.

This study did not address issues of class, or socioeconomic status, because of the nature of the study, but the median income for participants may underscore what was noted in the literature; these participants face different issues in using FWAs compared to women in low-income positions (Kossek & Distelberg, 2009). They may also have more access, and more important, control over the types of FWAs that are used. Although this study needs to be replicated to truly measure the impact of representativeness, what is evident is that this sample had different attributes than what was found in previous literature.

Despite the finding that race/ethnicity did not predict use of FWAs; nor did diversity climate mediate this use when examining race/ethnicity, the findings did support the notion that women of color place more importance on supportive environments that

promote and affirm diversity climate, particularly in areas of inclusion and equal access to opportunities. Examining limitations of this study may help explain some of the differences in findings. More recent findings which are discussed in the recommendations may also offer further explanation.

Limitations

A limitation of the survey design (see Appendix B) for this study was that there was no write-in option to capture the industry for when "Other" was selected; thus, interpretation of use by industry was less meaningful. There were many professional industries represented in the sample. Most participants worked for corporations (53.9%); yet, no write-in option was provided for participants to indicate the industry. This was a limitation of the survey design, because the industry for the majority of participants (28.7%) was unspecified. Comparisons regarding use of FWAs by industry were more difficult to interpret.

This also led to difficulty in examining whether different types of FWAs used were based on industry-specific aspects and challenges. Based on results, one could not identify whether the industries represented included those that had definitive talent shortages or were one that were more likely to offer certain FWA benefits over others. Industries with talent shortages, for example, have increased the amount of flexible work options for their employees despite a major economic recession (Matos & Galinsky, 2014). To be more meaningful to the overall landscape on flexible work research this study would need to be clearer in identifying industry differences, as this aspect has a great impact on how employees use their benefits (McMenamin, 2007) and whether supervisors play a greater role in facilitating use of them (Breaugh, & Frye, 2008;

Hopkins, 2002; Kossek & Distelberg, 2009). The need for this consideration is further discussed in the Recommendations section that follows.

Additionally, the race/ethnicity description, "Other," on the survey (see Appendix B) did not have a write-in option; thus, two respondents could not appropriately self-report for this category. This contributed to a limitation in interpreting results, and understanding representativeness in the sample, as noted earlier.

Recommendations

The Relationship(s) of Demographics and FWA Use

Individual demographics. Although the results of this dissertation did not include factors that significantly predicted use of FWAs, results underscored the need to understand which demographic differences influence use of FWAs. The *2014 National Study of Employers* (Matos & Galinsky, 2014) noted that demographic factors, such as the percentage of women, as well as the percentage of racial/ethnic minorities in the workplace, predicted the amount of flexible work used in the workplace. Organizations that had more racial/ethnic minorities and women in leadership positions demonstrated more workplace flexibility. Future research should, thus, continue to focus on demographic factors as potential predictors.

Gender. Replication of this study should also include men to identify potential differences of use based on gender. Previous research indicated that gender played a role in use of FWAs (Smithson and Stokoe, 2005) as well as the value of FWAs to quality of life at work (Kossek & Distelberg, 2009; Smithson & Stokoe, 2005; Stone, 2007). Additionally, gender could create an amplified negative effect regarding use of FWAs when considering both race and gender in the context of an affirming climate for

diversity (Blake-Beard et al., 2010; Cox, 1994; Kossek & Zonia, 1993). Results for this study indicated that a broader understanding of the effects of diversity climate as it relates to use of FWAs may have been better understood with the ability to compare use across genders. Given the overall policy changes regarding use of FWAs and social acceptance of men using FWAs in the last decade (McMenamin, 2007; Matos & Galinsky, 2011b), future research should consider this as a pathway to understanding use via demographic differences and should be explored in further detail.

Type of employee. An examination of use of FWAs based on demographics would also be useful for a different type of employee in broader work settings. Because this study focused on professional employees and professional work settings, full and part-time professional employees were recruited from research, scientific, computer, banking, managerial and other professional sectors. Gonzalez & DeNisi (2009) noted that a major limitation of existing literature on diversity climate tended to focus on organizational outcomes in professional settings. Much of this had to do with researchers knowing that resources, financial and otherwise, had been used to support programs, evaluations measures, and training to address diversity efforts (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009).

This shortcoming also existed in literature regarding work flexibility. Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews (2011) noted that literature regarding flexibility had a narrow focus that needed to be addressed if researchers were to understand the impact-and employers were to understand the value of work flexibility (Kossek & Distelberg, 2009). Research that could inform practice might help improve barriers to developing broader work flexibility options in settings that have traditionally been more resistant, such as

manufacturing and unionized workplaces (Tahmincioglu, 2015), as well as in workplaces that have higher concentrations of hourly-waged workers (Golden, 2000; Kossek & Distelberg, 2009).

Measuring and Understanding Work Flexibility Use

One concern raised at the beginning of the dissertation was that definitions of flexible work often varied in the literature, and researchers typically used a variety of approaches to identify, define, and measure use of FWAs (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013; Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011). Kossek et al. (2011) added that the lack of consistency hindered understanding of flexible work definitions, as well as a lack of understanding in how employees were using flexible options. Allen et al., (2013) added that lack of delineation between work completed in flexible locations and work completed at flexible times has limited a broader understanding of work flexibility as a concept. A replication of this study should consider this measurable aspect as another means of understanding work flexibility use.

Kossek et al. (2011) also noted that a consistent effort to understand work flexibility was further hampered by the vast differences in (a) offerings of flexible benefits, (b) access to these benefits, and (c) variations in use of flexible work in organizations that are equally as diverse. Contextual factors that affect one organization do not apply to another, and as a result, researchers are not always able to develop generalizable models that measure successful implementation of work flexibility programs (Kossek et al., 2011; Shockley & Allen, 2007).

Although this study focused more on issues concerning perceptions of use, it was not immune to the challenges of trying to define and relatively measure use of FWAs.

Lack of industry identification for a large portion of the sample lessened the impact of understanding industry-based issues that support or hinder FWAs. This study should be replicated as an examination of those who use FWAs with a clear means of identifying the industry, the types of benefits offered as well as frequency of use. Frequency of use was not measured and prevented a greater understanding of how often and perhaps why used a reduced work load or work hour arrangement. The researcher had to speculate how individuals use this option and remain integral to their workplace. A measure of frequency in selecting this option would have assisted in understanding why certain segments may have identified greater use of one option over other options and whether individual differences may have played a greater role in frequency of use. Research has indicated that individual differences may have a greater impact than initially realized in use of FWAs, but more research is needed to understand this impact (Shockley & Allen, 2010).

Some have argued that indices that provide a more standardized measure or set of measures to understanding what use of FWAs-and the barriers to use-means for employees (Kossek et al., 2011) is also necessary. These concerns have also been echoed by other researchers who have noted that there is a need to develop more standardized measurement indices that can account for variance in flexible work use (McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, Brown, & Matz-Cotsa, 2012) especially as it relates to use by demographic differences. Results of this study indicate that a more standardized instrument might have been useful in flushing out differences in use; thus, a replication of this study should consider this aspect as well.

Because there is a continued need for researchers to provide action-oriented, relevant research, and there is a continued need to provide guidelines to practitioners in search of strategies for implementing successful programs on a local scale (Grawitch & Barber, 2010; Grawitch, Maloney, Barber, & Yost, 2011), identifying factors that aid in (a) understanding variances in use, (b) perceptions of use, (c) and actual accessibility to programs, remains a valid focal point for future research.

Understanding Diversity Climate and Organizational Outcomes

Local, stratified samples. This study should be replicated among professionals who are not connected to social media or online research pool sites. For example, it would also be useful if these factors were examined across organizational departments in a single organization to expand understanding of localized effects of diversity climate and its impact on specific organizational outcomes. Research has shown that diversity climate perceptions can function as a response to the overall community demographics that affect the heterogeneity and the perceptions of diversity promotion efforts within an organization (Pugh, Dietz, Brief, & Wiley, 2008), which has implications for organizational outcomes such as turnover (Singh & Selvarajan, 2012) and recruitment (Avery, Volpone, Stewart, Luksyte, Hernandez, McKay, & Hebl, 2013).

Research has also indicated that diversity climate has a broader impact on organizational outcomes such as performance which has implications for service and bottom-lines in client-based industries (King, Dawson, West, Gilraine, & Bastin, 2011). Replicating this study on a local scale would foster a better understanding of diversity climate's influence on organizational outcomes, particularly for practitioners. Conducting this study on a more local scale may offer insight on how different racial/ethnic groups

view and value diversity climate promotion efforts, as well as why employees do or do not use a flexible benefit. This could provide a more meaningful analysis for employers, particularly in industries that are facing talent shortages and need to leverage diversity to recruit candidates.

Representativeness. Studies regarding racial/ethnic diversity climate also contended with lack of representation or underrepresentation across racial/ethnic groups (e.g., Wolfson et al., 2011). This aspect was not unanticipated based on previous literature in diversity climate as well as FWAs; however, underrepresentation for certain groups highlights how within-group comparisons are minimized when representativeness is an issue. It also underscores concerns with overgeneralizing racial/ethnic experiences and minimizes understanding potential differences in how racial/ethnic diversity promotion efforts are valued by group in the literature (McKay et al., 2007; Ruggs, Hebl, Law, Cox, Roehling, Wiener, & Barron, 2013). Future research should continue to investigate concerns of hypervisibility (Blake-Beard & Roberts, 2004; Blake-Beard et al., 2010) and lack of affirmation for diversity climate as a potential hindrance to use of flexible benefits, especially within local organizations where community heterogeneity and other social aspects may have a larger impact on organizational outcomes.

Implications for Social Change

FWAs signal the changing nature of work in which availability of flexible benefits has demonstrated how workplaces have adapted to the technological advances of the 21st century as well as the demands of a rapidly changing workforce. What is also evident with this sample is that women in professional sectors are making career decisions that incorporate flexibility as a main theme; thus, satisfaction from work

flexibility options is related to a conscious choice to manage personal interaction with her respective workplace, as well as a her career and work goals (Shapiro, Ingols, O'Neill, & Blake-Beard, 2009).

The hypothesized link between use of FWAs and lack of affirming diversity climate could not be confirmed with the results of this study. The results of this study indicate that FWAs are being implemented, and used, and that FWAs have become more of the norm within professional workplaces. This particular finding in some ways reiterates implications for establishing supportive workplaces. There was also approximately 54% of respondents that worked for corporations, approximately 29% who worked for public non-profits, and approximately 17% who worked for private and public education sectors. All employees, regardless of the type of organization, reported using FWAs, which may indicate perceived support for organizational climate in use; however, support for inclusion and equal access to opportunities may be areas that organizations have not been as successful in developing strategies to address. Additionally, even with strategies in place, organizations may still struggle with supporting the appropriate channels for communication of these strategies that affect individual perception.

Although significant predictors were identified for negative diversity climate, diversity climate did not mediate use FWAs when examining race/ethnicity. The results indicate that employees will use FWAs in environments that are deemed conducive. More research is still needed to understand factors that contribute to use as well as the impact of affirming diversity climate.

More research is also need that focuses on understanding how employees use work flexibility to improve the quality of their life—whether through increased career and job autonomy or as an effort to balance work and family demands—remains. It remains equally important to understand whether the intersections of gender and race give rise to differences in use of work flexibility due to intolerant organizational culture and climate. It is also important to investigate whether lack of affirming diversity climate as a known antecedent of turnover and retention (McKay et al., 2007), organizational attachment (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009), and a sense of empowerment (Wolfson et al., 2011) hinders sustainable workplaces. This investigation was beyond the scope of this dissertation; yet, the implications for understanding the impact of positive perceptions of diversity climate as a potential link to understanding use of FWAs within professional organizations should not be disregarded.

Research has indicated that job seekers continue to apply for positions where their personal identity (i.e., racial/ethnicity, gender) are affirmed and possibly recognized (Avery et al., 2013). Employees are interested in working at places that can affirm their sense of identity, support their need for personal autonomy, and assist their overall well-being. Although researchers have continued to debate the effectiveness of flexible work programs (Allen et al., 2013), recent reports have indicated that employee interests for flexible work, via flexible place or time, have not waned (Matos & Galinsky, 2014).

Conclusion

The purpose of this dissertation was to address an empirical gap in the literature regarding the effect of perceptions of diversity climate, at both the individual and organizational levels, as well as race/ethnicity on use of FWAs. The dissertation also

addressed a gap in the literature regarding the lack of inclusion of women of color in flexible work literature and the negative impact that could emerge if the quality of life needs addressed by use of FWAs were not fully understood for this segment of the workforce. When research is not conducted, regardless of the results or outcomes, it limits access to information that could inform the research community, as well as practitioners who develop policy, advise senior management, and/or institute rules of practice.

The results for this study demonstrated support for the association of race/ethnicity and diversity climate, but hypotheses that race/ethnicity and use of FWAs and the mediation effect of diversity climate on the association race/ethnicity and use of FWAs were not supported. The results of this dissertation may underscore the point raised by Blake-Beard et al., (2010) that supportive workplaces encourage use of work flexibility and may reduce the impact of racial/ethnic visibility when perceptions of climate are affirming. Researchers and practitioners face numerous challenges to build a sustainable workforce as well as sustainable workplaces. Part of this challenge has to include investigating what makes these efforts difficult for both the organization and the employee. Including employees of color in these examinations is paramount to understanding how to foster sustainable workplaces through various forms of organizational support to the workforce.

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Appendix A: Recruitment Letter

Hello,

I am inviting working women of all races and ethnicities, who use flexible work benefits to participate in a research project. I would greatly appreciate your participation in an anonymous, online survey regarding your opinion about your employer's commitment to diversity. This survey also asks about your personal flexible work arrangement use.

Procedures & Privacy

The survey takes approximately 25 minutes to complete. No identifying information, such as name, job title, or place of employment will be collected. Your participation ends once the survey is completed. If you wish to receive a copy of summary results, then please contact me directly.

Participation is completely voluntary. If you have questions or concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me.

To learn more click here: https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/Diversity_FWA_Survey
(You may also copy the survey link to your web browser.)

Your participation is an important part of this project. Thank you in advance for your interest!

Sincerely,

Imani Owens
Doctoral Student,
Walden University
imani.owens@waldenu.edu

Appendix B: Diversity Climate FWA Survey Instrument

Introduction

The following information represents a shell of the original Diversity Climate Flexible Work Arrangements Survey Instrument hosted by SurveyMonkey.com.

Diversity Climate Flexible Work Arrangements Survey

*1. ELECTRONIC CONSENT[1]: Please select your choice below.

By clicking on the agree button I am maintaining that:
I have read the above information.
I voluntarily agree to participate.
I am at least 18 years of age.

If you do not wish to participate in this study, then please decline participation by selecting "Decline" below.

- o Agree
- o Decline

Please answer the following questions. (Participants selected “Yes” or “No” to the following questions and statements.)

*2. I am at least 18 years of age.
*3. I am a woman.
*4. Are you currently working in the United States?
*5. Do you work solely in a home-based office?
*6. Are you self-employed?

Participants selected “Yes” or “No” to the following questions:

*7. The company that I am employed with provides flexible work arrangements or flexible work benefits to its employees. Examples of benefits include the following:

Changing the start and stop time for one's work day,
Reduced work load arrangement with supervisor,
An arrangement to reduce work hours per week with a supervisor on a short-- or long--term basis,
Working from home occasionally or routinely, and

[1] Asterisks indicate a question that required a response.

Appendix B: Diversity Climate FWA Survey Instrument Continued

Working part-time with another coworker such that the job duties are shared on a short- or long-term basis.

*8. I use flexible work benefits or flexible work arrangements. Examples of benefits include the following:

Changing the start and stop time for one's work day,
Reduced work load arrangement with supervisor,
An arrangement to reduce work hours per week with a supervisor on a short- or long-term basis,
Working from home occasionally or routinely, and
Working part-time with another coworker such that the job duties are shared on a short- or long-term basis.

Now please answer some questions about how you feel at your workplace. Please rate whether you agree with the following statements. (Participants rated their responses using a 5-point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. All items were rated from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.)

9. "I can fit in without changing who I am."

10. "I feel free to express ideas."

11. "I have sometimes been unfairly singled out because of the demographic group I belong to."

12. "Prejudice exists where I work."

13. "At work, minority group members receive fewer opportunities."

14. "Where I work, members of some demographic groups are treated better than members of other groups."

15. "Where I work, people are intolerant of people from different backgrounds."

16. "There are tensions between members of different groups in this organization."

17. "I feel included in casual conversations with members of other demographic groups."

18. "Most levels of this organization are diverse in terms of group membership."

19. "Minority input is effectively considered at all levels in the organization."

Appendix B: Diversity Climate FWA Survey Instrument Continued

20. "All employees are included in social functions regardless of their demographic group membership[2]."

Thank you. Now please rate your agreement with the following statements about your workplace. (Participants rated their responses using a 5-point Likert scale from well below expectations to well above expectations. All items were rated from 1=well below expectations to 5=well above expectations.)

21. "My organization is recruiting from diverse sources."

22. "My organization offers equal access to training."

23. "My organization has open communication on diversity."

24. "My organization publicizes diversity principles."

25. "My organization offers training to manage diverse populations."

26. "My organization respects perspectives of people like me."

27. "My organization maintains a diversity-friendly work environment."

28. "My workgroup has a climate that values a diverse perspective."

29. "My organization's top leaders are visibly committed to diversity.[3]"

30. What description best describes the type of organization or company you work for?

- Public
- Education (private or public)
- Corporate

[2] Questions 9-20 were taken from the *Diversity Climate Scale* developed by Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein, 2011. Instrument is based upon Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2008. Used and reprinted with permission. Further reproduction is prohibited without permission.

[3] Questions 21-29 were taken from *The Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale* developed by McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, and Hebl (2007). The instrument is in the public domain. Permission to use was granted by Dr. Patrick McKay and Dr. Scott Tonidandel.

Appendix B: Diversity Climate FWA Survey Instrument Continued

31. How would you describe your organization?

- Small, less than 250 people
- Medium, 251 to 500 people
- Large, 500 or more people

32. What type of benefits are available at your organization? (Please check all that apply.)

Changing the start and stop time for one's work day,
Reduced work load arrangement with supervisor,
An arrangement to reduce work hours per week with a supervisor on a short-- or long--term basis,
Working from home occasionally or routinely, and
Working part--time with another coworker such that the job duties are shared on a short-- or long-term basis.

33. How would you describe your job industry? Participants selected one of the following occupations:

- Legal advice and representation
- Business and financial services
- Human resources and payroll
- Architectural, engineering, and specialized design
- Computer systems and mathematical services
- Consulting services
- Research services
- Scientific and technical (including biotech, life, and physical sciences)
- Marketing and advertising services
- Other professional, scientific, and technical services

34. How long have you worked for your organization?

- 0-5 years
- 5-10 years
- 10-15 years
- 15 years or more

Appendix B: Diversity Climate FWA Survey Instrument Continued

35. How many hours per week do you work?

- 10-20 hours/week
- 20-30 hours/week
- 30-40 hours/week
- 40 or more hours/week

36. Are you employed?

- Full-time
- Part-time

Almost finished...Please answer the following questions about your work habits. (All items were rated on a 5 point Likert scale with 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.)

37. "I usually work outside of 'traditional' work hours."

38. "My work hours vary from day to day."

39. "My start and stop times for my job frequently change."

40. "I tend to keep a consistent set of hours at my job[4]."

Participants answered the following questions:

*41. Please indicate your race/ethnicity:

- White, non-Hispanic origin (A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa)
- Black or African American (A person having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa)
- Latina or Hispanic-origin (A person having Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin, including Mexican, Mexican-America, Chicano, Puerto Rico, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Salvador, Columbia, etc.)

[4] Questions number 37-40 were adapted from the *Flexible Work Arrangement Use* assessment in Shockley & Allen (2010) with permission.

Appendix B: Diversity Climate FWA Survey Instrument Continued

- Asian, or Asian American (A person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent including, for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam)
- Native American or Alaska Native (A person having origins in any of the original peoples of North and South America including Central America and who maintains tribal affiliation or community attachment)
- Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, other Pacific Islands)
- Other

42. Do you have children under the age of 18?

- Yes
- No

43. Please indicate your age below.

- 18-20
- 21-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- Over 60

44. Would you describe yourself as...

- Single
- Married/In a relationship (I have a spouse, partner, or significant other.)

45. Please indicate the highest education attained below.

- No high school
- High school diploma or equivalent
- Some college
- Undergraduate degree
- Some graduate work
- Master’s degree
- Doctoral degree

Appendix B: Diversity Climate FWA Survey Instrument Continued

46. What is your annual household income?

- Less than $20,000
- $20,000 to $39,999
- $40,000 to $59,999
- $60,000 to $74,999
- $75,000 to $99,999
- $100,000 to $149,999
- $150,000 to $199,999
- $200,000 or more

47. Do you wish to withdraw from this study?

- I wish to withdraw from this study.
- Please submit my answers.

Thank you for being a part of this study.

You are finished!

Appendix C: *Complete Listing of Solicited LinkedIn Groups by Type*

Groups by Race/Ethnicity & Gender	Professional /Special Interests Groups	Personal Affiliation Groups
AAAIM - The Association of Asian American Investment Managers	Academy of Management	Alumni & Friends of North Carolina School of Science & Mathematics
African American Female Leaders	Analytics Group IQ Workforce	Duke University Alumni Network
African American Women in Science, Tech, Math & Engineering	Association for Institutional Researchers	Master's of Arts Program in Social Sciences, The University of Chicago Alumni Network
American Indian Science and Engineering Society	Biotechnology Diversity Professionals Network	Organization Development Network
American Indian Science and Engineering Society	Business Analytics	Psi Chi International Honor Society
Asian American HR Professional Network	Business Intelligence	Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychologists
Asian American Investment Professionals	Consulting Psychology	The University of Chicago Alumni Network
Association for Women in Science	Diversity & Cross Cultural Professionals	Triangle Organizational Development Network
Black Career Women's Network	Diversity A World of Change	Walden Organizational Psychology
Black Industrial Organizational Psychology Exchange	Diversity and Inclusion Programs for Women in Business	Walden University
Black Professional Women	Diversity Professionals	Walden University Alumni
Black Professionals Network	Doctoral Students & Practitioners	Walden University Careers

Appendix C: *Complete Listing of Solicited LinkedIn Groups by Type Continued*

Groups by Race/Ethnicity & Gender	Professional /Special Interests Groups	Personal Affiliation Groups
Connect: Professional Women's Network CITI	Employee Engagement/Work-Life Balance/Fun in Life	Walden University Doctoral Study Group
Diversity Woman-Leadership & Executive Development	Global Diversity & Inclusion	
Employee Engagement-Women in the Workplace	Greater Raleigh Chamber Working Mothers	
Hispanic Professionals (National Society for Hispanic Professionals, nshp.org)	Harvard Business Review	
Indian Women Workforce	Higher Ed Jobs	
Latino Professionals	Human Resource Professionals	
National Association of Asian American Professionals	I/O Careers Network	
National Latina Business Women's Association	Online Adjunct Professionals	
Native American Recruitment Network	Open Networker.com	
Native Americans in Energy	Psychology in HR (Organizational Psychology)	
Network of Black Business & Professional Women	Questionnaire Co-op for Students	
Professional Women of Color Network	Raleigh Femfessionals	
The Black Professionals Network	Research, Methodology, & Statistics	
Woman2WomanLink (or w2wlink.com)	Society for Consulting Psychology	
Women in National Association of Asian American Professionals	Workforce Analytics & Workforce Planning	

Appendix C: *Complete Listing of Solicited LinkedIn Groups by Type Continued*

Groups by Race/Ethnicity & Gender	Professional /Special Interests Groups	Personal Affiliation Groups
Women in Science, Engineering, and Technology		
Women of Color Attorneys		
Women of Color Network		
Womenalia USA		
WomenSuite		
Young Professional Women of Color Network		

Appendix D: Permission for Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale (Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein, 2011)

PERMISSION TO USE THE DIVERSITY CLIMATE PERCEPTIONS SCALE

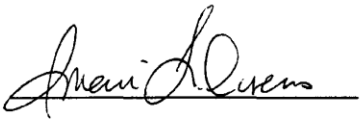
With permission, I, Imani S. Owens, would like to use these items under the following conditions:

1. I will only use the instrument for the sole purpose of conducting the expressed research study.
2. I will not sell or use it for compensation or curriculum-based activities.
3. I will include the appropriate copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
4. I will send one copy of my research study, as well as reports, articles, and any related material that use the obtained survey data to you promptly to your attention.

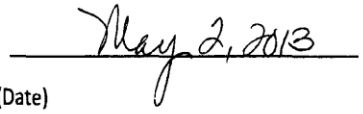
Working Title: Race/Ethnicity and Employee Work Scheduling Benefits: Examining Diversity Climate Perceptions as a Mediating Variable

Advisor: Dr. Rebekah Cardenas

Brief Description of Study: This dissertation will investigate the relationships between flexible work arrangement (FWA) usage, racial/ethnic minority status, and organizational diversity climate perceptions. Several studies have noted the importance of organizational climate in influencing benefit usage. FWAs have become common aspects of the workplace; yet, informal policies such as 'face time' have undermined organizational work-life balance initiatives. In environments perceived as non-supportive, benefit usage was low despite formal implementation of flexible scheduling programs. Some have also argued that 'face time' expectations created additional challenges for women of color due to their "hyper-visibility" within the workplace. Using benefits has to be managed with racial stereotypes and informal expectations due to group membership. Despite increased research many studies have neglected to address the intersections of race and gender with workplace climate; hence, they have failed to capture how perceptions of workplace climate, particularly diversity climate, have impacted benefit usage by minority women.



(Signature)



(Date)

Imani S. Owens, M.A.

(Printed Name)

Affiliation:
Graduate Student,
Organizational Psychology Ph.D. Program
College of Behavioral & Health Sciences
Walden University
Minneapolis, MN

Appendix D: Permission for Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale (Wolfson, Kraiger, & Finkelstein, 2011) Continued

PERMISSIONS (Continued)

I hereby acknowledge that I have the right to grant the permission requested in this agreement. I am the owner of the copyright in such of the Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale. I hereby grant to Imani S. Owens the right to use the Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale under the expressed conditions of this agreement.

(Signature) 5-7-13 (Date)

Natalie Wolfson (Printed Name)

I would like the following acknowledgement to be included in which the instrument is used (Please indicate.): This measure is based on one used by Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich (2008).

Appendix D: Permission for Flexible Work Arrangement Use Scale (Shockley & Allen, 2009)

Please note all personal information has been redacted.

Student:	**Imani Owens, Doctoral Student, Organizational Psychology program**
Student ID:	[redacted]
RE:	IRB Application for Use of FWAs by Race and Ethnicity: Examining the Mediating Role of Organizational Diversity Climate Perceptions

Attn: IRB Committee

Below is the correspondence regarding the *Flexible Work Arrangements Use Scale* (Shockley & Allen, 2009). There are 4 items in this scale, and all items will be used with some modification. Dr. Shockley has granted permission for use and modification for the study.

Imani Owens < [redacted] > Thu, Jun 20, 2013 at 10:52 AM

To: [redacted]

Dear Dr. Shockley,

I am a doctoral student at Walden University, and I am completing requirements for my dissertation. It is currently titled Race/Ethnicity and Employee Work Scheduling Benefits: Examining Diversity Climate Perceptions as a Mediating Variable. Dr. Rebekah Cardenas of Walden University is my committee chair.

For this research study, I would like to use the four items in the FWA Use Measure that you and Dr. Allen developed for your study as featured in the article, Investigating the Missing Link in Flexible Work Arrangement Utilization (2009). I have attached a Permissions Letter for your review. A brief description of my dissertation is included in the letter.

I would be happy to discuss any questions or concerns, or if you need additional information please feel free to email me at [redacted] or call [redacted] (Eastern Standard Time).

If you are able to grant permission for this measure, I would greatly appreciate if you would indicate this with your signature on the attached Permissions Form. The form can be scanned and returned via email, or if you wish to return this via postal mail, then please let me know I would be happy to accommodate this request.

I sincerely appreciate your time and consideration.

Appendix D: Permission for Flexible Work Arrangement Use Scale (Shockley & Allen, 2009) Continued

Best regards,

Imani Owens

Imani S. Owens, M.A.
Graduate Student,
Organizational Psychology Ph.D. Program
Walden University [redacted]

Kristen Shockley Thu, Jun 20, 2013 at 10:57 < [redacted] > AM
To: Imani Owens < [redacted] >

Imani,

It is fine for you to use the measure.

Here are the items

Please refer to Shockley, K.M., and Allen, T.D. (2009). Investigating the missing link in flexible work arrangement utilization: An individual difference perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 76*, 131-142 for original items.

Kristen M. Shockley, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor of Psychology
Baruch College, City University of New York
[redacted]