

**HOW ORGANIZATIONAL DIVERSITY CUES AFFECT CAREER-RELATED
OUTCOMES: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF BELONGING**

SHERYL CHUMMAR

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

GRADUATE PROGRAM IN
HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
YORK UNIVERSITY
TORONTO, ONTARIO

April, 2024

© Sheryl Chummar, 2024

Abstract

Advancing existing literature, this dissertation bridges social psychological and organizational research by investigating how belonging mediates the relationship between organizational diversity cues and career-related outcomes, with a specific focus on the underrepresentation of racialized groups in senior organizational roles. Specifically, I address fundamental research questions surrounding the mediating role of belonging through the impact of two organizational diversity cues, perceived workplace racial discrimination and racial/ethnic representation, on individuals' sense of belonging at work and the subsequent implications of belonging on individuals' career aspirations, turnover intentions, and job application intentions. In the first study, a field investigation explores the effects of perceived workplace racial discrimination on belonging for lawyers in medium to large-sized law firms in Canada. The findings reveal a compelling negative association between perceived workplace discrimination and belonging, with organizational justice emerging as a critical explanatory factor. Moreover, belonging is identified as a predictor for both career aspirations and turnover intentions. Sequential mediation analyses emphasize the robustness of these relationships. Results of the second study, an experimental exploration, affirm a positive connection between racial/ethnic representation and belonging, highlighting the mediating role of belonging in the relationship between representation and job application intentions, as well as career aspirations. Interestingly, the studies unveil moderating effects based on race/ethnicity, particularly pronounced for racialized individuals. Synthesizing the findings from both studies, belonging emerges as a pivotal psychological process mediating the influence of perceived workplace racial discrimination and racial/ethnic representation on career

aspirations and turnover intentions. Furthermore, the inclusion of a diverse sample comprising both White and racialized individuals allows for a nuanced examination of the moderating effects of race/ethnicity. The theoretical and practical implications of this research extend to the realm of workplace equity, diversity, and inclusion. By understanding organizational antecedents of belonging and its subsequent effect on the career aspirations and intentions of individuals, we gain additional insights into addressing underrepresentation and fostering inclusive environments.

Acknowledgements

I am beyond grateful to my supervisor, Dr. Marie-Hélène Budworth, whose steadfast support, expert guidance, and insightful feedback have been the cornerstone of this dissertation. Your wisdom and dedication to excellence has profoundly shaped me, both personally and professionally. I also extend my heartfelt thanks to my committee members, Dr. Sabrina Deutsch Salamon and Dr. Mark Podolsky, for their invaluable contributions to the theoretical development, research design, and scholarly rigor of this project. Your commitment to me has never wavered, and for that I am deeply appreciative. Thank you to my examiners, Dr. Soo Min Toh and Dr. Brent Lyons, for their rigorous review, constructive feedback, and valuable suggestions.

I would like to acknowledge my father, Harry Smits, whose enduring legacy of hard work, resilience, and determination continues to inspire me. Through the completion of this dissertation, I have tried to model these values for my own children. To my husband, Noble Chummar, and my children, Charlotte, Rose, and Lionel. You are the wind in my sails and the reason for everything I do. Your unconditional love, support, and belief in my abilities have been the driving force behind this achievement. Thank you for never giving up on me.

A special thank you to the law firms, lawyers, and law students who generously contributed their time, expertise, and insights to this research. Your participation and collaboration have enriched the discourse and expanded the horizons of this dissertation. Lastly, I would like to acknowledge the inner strength and clarity that my faith has provided me. It has been a source of resilience and inspiration, guiding me through challenges and reminding me of the values that drive my work.

Table of Contents

| | |
|---|------|
| Abstract..... | ii |
| Acknowledgements..... | iv |
| List of Figures..... | vii |
| List of Tables..... | viii |
| Chapter 1: Introduction..... | 9 |
| Chapter 2: Literature Review..... | 16 |
| Existing Empirical Research on Sense of Belonging..... | 22 |
| Belonging in Educational Settings..... | 22 |
| Belonging in Organizational Settings..... | 27 |
| Belonging and Organizational Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion..... | 29 |
| Chapter 3: Theory and Hypotheses..... | 36 |
| Racial/ Ethnic Discrimination and Sense of Belonging- An Identity Perspective..... | 36 |
| Racial/ Ethnic Discrimination and Sense of Belonging- A Justice Perspective..... | 41 |
| Sense of Belonging and Career Related-Outcomes..... | 48 |
| Racial Discrimination and Career Related-Outcomes: Organizational Justice and Belonging as Sequentially Mediating Variables..... | 55 |
| Racial/Ethnic Discrimination and Sense of Belonging- The Moderating Role of Individual Need to Belong (NTB)..... | 59 |
| Racial/Ethnic Representation and Sense of Belonging..... | 61 |
| Racial/Ethnic Representation and Sense of Belonging- The Moderating Role of Individual Need to Belong (NTB)..... | 65 |
| Racial/ Ethnic Representation and Career Aspirations- Sense of Belonging as a Mediating Variable..... | 68 |
| Chapter 4: Study 1- Methodology, Results, and Discussion..... | 71 |
| Multimethod Research Design..... | 71 |
| Methods- Study 1..... | 72 |
| Procedure and Sample..... | 73 |
| Measures..... | 78 |
| Analytical Strategy..... | 82 |
| Results- Study 1..... | 85 |
| Cross- sectional data analysis..... | 85 |
| Matched Data Analysis..... | 103 |
| Discussion- Study 1..... | 112 |
| Chapter 5: Study 2- Methodology, Results, and Discussion..... | 116 |
| Methods- Study 2..... | 116 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Procedure and Sample..... | 116 |
| Measures | 119 |
| Analytical Strategy..... | 122 |
| Results- Study 2 | 123 |
| Discussion- Study 2 | 143 |
| Chapter 6: General Discussion..... | 146 |
| Theoretical Implications | 150 |
| Practical Implications..... | 160 |
| Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research..... | 163 |
| Chapter 7: Conclusion..... | 169 |
| References..... | 171 |
| Appendices..... | 197 |
| Appendix A: Ethics Approval..... | 197 |
| Appendix B: Study 1 Scales | 198 |
| Appendix C: Study 2 Scales | 201 |
| Appendix D: Study 2 Press Releases | 203 |

List of Figures

Figure 1: Study 1- Model

Figure 2: Study 1- Hypothesis 2, moderation analysis graph (discrimination * race/ethnicity)

Figure 3: Study 1- Hypothesis 5, sequential mediation analysis (career aspirations as outcome)

Figure 4: Study 1- Hypothesis 6, sequential mediation analysis (turnover intentions as outcome)

Figure 5: Study 2- Model

Figure 6: Study 2- Hypothesis 8, moderation analysis graph (condition * race/ethnicity)

Figure 7: Study 2- Hypothesis 9, moderated moderation analysis graphs (NTB and race/ethnicity as moderators)

List of Tables

- Table 1:** Study 1- Means, standard deviations, and correlations
- Table 2:** Study 1- Means and standard deviations by gender and race/ethnicity
- Table 3:** Study 1- Hypothesis 1 summary of analyses
- Table 4:** Study 1- Hypothesis 2 summary of analyses
- Table 5:** Study 1- Hypothesis 3 summary of analyses
- Table 6:** Study 1- Hypothesis 4 summary of analyses
- Table 7:** Study 1- Hypothesis 7 summary of analyses
- Table 8:** Study 1- Means, standard deviations, and correlations for matched dataset
- Table 9:** Study 2- Means, standard deviations, and correlations
- Table 10:** Study 2- Means and standard deviations by experimental condition
- Table 11:** Study 2- Hypothesis 8 ANOVA results
- Table 12:** Study 2- Hypothesis 8 regression results with control variables
- Table 13:** Study 2- Hypothesis 9 summary of analyses
- Table 14:** Study 2- Hypothesis 9 moderated moderation results
- Table 15:** Study 2- Hypothesis 10 mediation results, general job application
- Table 16:** Study 2- Hypothesis 10 mediation results, job application intentions
- Table 17:** Study 2- Hypothesis 10 moderated mediation results, general job application
- Table 18:** Study 2- Hypothesis 10 moderated mediation results, job application intentions
- Table 19:** Study 2- Hypothesis 11 mediation results, career aspirations
- Table 20:** Study 2- Hypothesis 11 moderated mediation results, career aspirations
- Table 21:** Summary of hypotheses and results

How organizational diversity cues affect career-related outcomes: The mediating role of belonging

Chapter 1: Introduction

Despite a rich history of research examining the sources of persistent labour market inequality, scholars continue to grapple with understanding why racialized groups remain underrepresented at senior levels of organizations. Recent data underscores the ongoing nature of the issue, revealing a disproportionately low number of top executive positions held by racialized individuals in the US (Paikeday & Qosja, 2023), and underrepresented groups continue to under-earn White colleagues (Miller, 2020). In Canada, a similar trend persists, with data indicating significant underrepresentation of racialized communities in director and executive roles (Cukier et al., 2020; Longpré- Verret & Richards, 2021). While management researchers continue to examine organizational factors underlying the slow rate of change in racial composition of senior roles within organizations, few have connected empirical examination of this issue with the social psychological literature on the need for belonging (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). This oversight presents a unique opportunity to address underrepresentation through a new theoretical lens, specifically by positioning belonging as an explanatory framework through which organizational diversity factors influence employees' career-related outcomes and trajectories.

Beyond management and organizational research, the concept of belonging has served as a critical lens through which researchers have examined and addressed issues of underrepresentation across other social contexts. For example, research has established that belongingness affects people's achievement motivation in schools (Cohen & Garcia, 2008; Good et al., 2012; Murdock-Perreira et al., 2019; Walton & Cohen, 2007), with increased belonging resulting in greater persistence and decreased dropouts rates. Moreover, research has shown that belonging is signaled by cues in the school environment (Cheryan et al., 2009; Gaucher et al.,

2011; Howansky et al., 2022; Murphy et al., 2007). Indeed, the social and educational psychology literature has demonstrated that belonging can be undermined by contextual factors such as gendered underrepresentation (Veldman et al., 2021) and, subsequently, that lowered belonging negatively impacts interest and intentions to stay for female students within STEM fields (Master et al., 2016). However, while this body of research has significantly contributed to our understanding of social dynamics and inclusion within other domains, researchers have not yet thoroughly applied these insights to the issue of racial underrepresentation within organizational settings. These insights provide an important framework for understanding how organizational diversity cues may affect career-related outcomes, with belonging playing a key mediating role.

Therefore, this dissertation makes meaningful contributions to both the literature on belonging at work and the literature on organizational diversity and inclusion. First, this dissertation brings together social psychology and organizational research by bridging the social psychological literature on belonging with the examination of two organizational diversity factors that influence the career aspirations and turnover intentions of employees. There are myriad explanations posited for the continued issue of racial/ethnic underrepresentation at senior levels in organizations, including recent work on development networks (Chanland & Murphy, 2017), racial bias (Obenauer & Langer, 2019), as well as systemic issues with recruitment, training, and internal policies (Dobbin & Kalev, 2022). However, a review of the literature demonstrates this dissertation is among a nascent effort to introduce belonging into the management discourse surrounding underrepresentation.

Second, this dissertation adds to existing literature on how contextual cues influence belonging, expanding beyond the current focus on gender and STEM domains. Within both educational and organizational studies, the focus of belonging research, thus far, has centered mainly on gender and STEM (Murphy et al, 2007; Pietri et al., 2019), but recent work has advocated for greater attention within diversity scholarship on the unique differences that characterize race versus gender relations (Martin, 2023). Thus, the current research extends our current understanding of belonging beyond gender-specific aspects.

Third, this dissertation identifies two distinct organizational diversity cues as antecedents of belonging: workplace racial discrimination and racial/ethnic representation. In doing so, this research advances an emerging body of research recognizing the important role that diversity cues play in shaping marginalized employees' experiences, and specifically, of feelings of belonging at work. In addition, the paper broadens the traditional focus of existing research by including a diverse sample encompassing both White and racialized individuals. This inclusive approach extends our understanding of belonging as a mediator, particularly by highlighting how its influence varies across populations, based not only on gender, but also on race/ethnicity, contributing nuanced insights to our existing body of knowledge.

Finally, this dissertation contributes to the literature on workplace discrimination and further advances our understanding of belonging at work by integrating social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) with the literature on organizational justice. As an established social and educational psychology concept, the belongingness literature has primarily relied on social identity theory as the overarching framework. However, this approach does not fully account for the established theoretical ties between fairness and belonging (Gillespie & Greenberg, 2005). Accordingly, the organizational context presents an opportunity to integrate additional

theoretical explanations, such as organizational justice theory (Cropanzano et al., 2007), for the observed phenomena and anticipated relationships between perceived discrimination, organizational justice and belonging. While extensive research has established the detrimental effects of discrimination in the workplace (Triana, et al., 2021), the effects of workplace racial discrimination on an individual's sense of belonging has not been thoroughly explored. This study introduces a novel perspective by investigating this relationship, thereby contributing a new dimension to existing research.

Specifically, this dissertation poses the following research questions:

1. How do organizational diversity cues relate to an individual's sense of belonging at work?
2. How does an individual's sense of belonging relate to career aspirations and intentions?
3. Does belonging play a mediating role in the relationship between organizational diversity cues and career-related outcomes? Further, do justice and belonging sequentially mediate this relationship?
4. Do individual differences in the "need to belong" influence the effect of organizational diversity cues on belongingness?

This paper examines two distinct organizational diversity cues: perceived workplace discrimination and racial/ethnic representation. Diversity cues, a multifaceted concept used by social psychologists and organizational scholars, have been studied by those who are interested in their effects on a variety of outcomes, including absenteeism (Avery et al., 2007), and identity threat (Kroeper et al., 2022; Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008), as well as perceived organizational fit and perceived work performance (Wilton et al., 2020). The choice to examine these two

variables is informed by the literature. Within the framework of organizational diversity cues, both racial discrimination and racial/ethnic representation play pivotal roles in shaping perceptions of inclusivity and equity within the workplace. Drawing on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), greater levels of racial discrimination serve as a negative cue, signalling systemic barriers and inequities that undermine the social identity and sense of belonging of minority groups. Conversely, greater levels of racial/ethnic representation act as a positive cue, aligning with individuals' social identities and affirming their membership within the organization. The presence of diverse racial representation not only fosters a sense of inclusion but also enhances intergroup relations and cooperation, as individuals perceive their group interests as aligned with organizational goals. Understanding the influence of these two variables through the lens of social identity theory provides critical insights into the complexities of belonging and career-related outcomes.

Empirically, the relevance of these two variables has been demonstrated in existing research through their relationships with key individual-level, career-related outcomes. For example, gender and racial discrimination have long been linked to career aspirations (Evans & Herr, 1994), career satisfaction (Shum et al., 2020), career progression (Goddard & Wilson, 2009), and subjective career success (Herrbach & Mignonac, 2012; Park et al., 2017), as well as anticipated occupational barriers (Constante et al., 2021). Similarly, gender and racial/ethnic representation have been linked to career intentions (Biggs et al., 2018; Wong et al., 2022), perceived career prospects (Foley et al., 2002), professional development opportunities (Murphy et al., 2007; Hentschel et al., 2021), and female and racialized applicants' willingness to apply to jobs (Kazmi et al., 2022). Furthermore, a recent Canadian research project found that biased employment practices and poor representation in senior roles create a “vicious cycle in the legal profession”

and contribute to feelings of being unfairly treated, unsupported, socially excluded and a “perpetual foreigner” (Law Society of Alberta, 2021).

The persistent underrepresentation of racialized individuals in senior organizational roles underscores the need for a deeper examination of the factors influencing career trajectories within marginalized communities. Studying career-related outcomes, like career aspirations and turnover intentions, is important because it can provide valuable insight into why marginalized individuals may follow divergent career paths. This line of inquiry not only sheds light on potential disparities in career aspirations and expectations but also highlights the implications for the representation of racialized groups in senior management roles. A limited pool of underrepresented talent available and aspiring to senior management roles underscores the urgency for continued research into the drivers of career aspirations and intentions (Barbelescu & Bidwell, 2013; Brands & Fernandez-Mateo, 2017; Minefee et al., 2018). Consequently, researchers advocate for continued examination of the factors influencing the career aspirations and intentions of underrepresented communities to enhance their participation in senior organizational roles (Brands et al., 2017; Mau & Li, 2018; Sellars et al., 2022). In my dissertation, I delve deeper into these factors and examine how organizational diversity cues, particularly perceived workplace discrimination and racial/ethnic representation, influence belongingness and subsequently impact career-related outcomes among marginalized communities. By bridging social psychology with organizational research and integrating theoretical frameworks such as social identity theory and organizational justice, my study offers a novel perspective on the issue of underrepresentation and provides actionable insights for fostering workplace inclusivity and equity.

In practical terms, this paper serves organizations seeking to improve equity, diversity, and inclusion within their ranks as they direct their attention to the roles of discrimination, underrepresentation, and organizational justice in fostering workplace belongingness within their employees. Furthermore, this paper demonstrates the importance for organizations to consider workplace belongingness as an issue in the self-selection of racialized employees within their recruitment and promotion processes. Researchers have long focused on discrimination and bias in recruitment *into* the organization, often ignoring how people move through the firm up to its highest level, thereby losing out on the benefit of diverse recruitment practices altogether. As external and internal job seekers aim for different career objectives and/or choose to “opt out” of competitive selection processes, organizations cannot tap into the complete pool of talent (He et al., 2021). According to Brands et al. (2017), the problem of underrepresentation forms a circular dilemma and is necessarily “chicken and egg”: without greater representation at the highest levels, few individuals will likely be able to persist in such careers; yet, without the advancement of racialized communities, it is difficult to significantly increase representation of these groups at the top. Understanding the organizational factors that affect belongingness and how belonging influences the self-selection decisions of racialized groups can help understand why underrepresentation is perpetuated. Moreover, it can help create interventions and solutions that bring more representation into the executive pipeline, the judiciary, and the boardroom. By acknowledging the circular nature of underrepresentation as both shaping and influencing individuals' sense of belonging, this dissertation aims to untangle the complex interplay between these phenomena and contribute to a deeper understanding of the underrepresentation puzzle.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

What is Belonging?

Belonging, as articulated by Baumeister and Leary (1995), aligns closely with the tenets of Social Identity Theory (SIT), which posits that individuals derive a significant portion of their identity from their affiliation with social groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Baumeister and Leary (1995) suggest that belonging is not merely a desire but a fundamental human motivation, analogous to the need for food and water. From an SIT perspective, belonging serves as a crucial mechanism through which individuals define themselves within their social contexts, directing their behavior, cognition, and emotional responses (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Although initially framed in terms of forming one-to-one close relationships, our understanding of belonging has evolved beyond a simple summation of the number and/or quality of relationships one has within a space into more of a general inference of the fit between oneself and a setting (Allen et al., 2021a). Although the quality of relationships is valuable and may be a source of belonging, it is notable that quality of fit or potential of fit is drawn not only from these relationships but also from cues, events, and experiences within the domain in question (Walton & Brady, 2017). In fact, people may experience a sense of belonging even in settings where they do not yet have strong relationships and, conversely, may experience a lack of belonging in settings where friends are, indeed, present. Accordingly, in this dissertation, belonging extends beyond the quality and quantity of relationships, and relies on Walton and Brady's (2017) definition, which refers to a feeling of "being accepted, included, respected in, and contributing to a setting, or anticipating the likelihood of developing this feeling" (Walton & Brady, 2017, p. 272). Aligning with SIT's emphasis on the importance of social identity in shaping individuals' perceptions of belonging and attachment to groups, Walton and Brady (2017) argue that

individuals assess their fit and belonging within the social world through implicit concerns about commonality, value, and authenticity. In summary, belonging refers to an individual's subjective experience of being accepted, valued, included, and connected to a particular social group, community or organization. It encompasses feelings of social connectedness, acceptance, and identification with others, as well as a sense of fitting in and being valued for one's contributions and attributes within that context.

The construct has evolved since Baumeister and Leary's (1995) initial conceptualization and has also been described in various studies as both an experienced sense of belonging and an anticipated sense of belonging in a future-oriented domain. A review of the literature suggests that studies of belonging and anticipated belonging rely on a similar paradigm and differ simply in their operationalization of the measure. In experimental work, sense of belonging is captured in a hypothetical, anticipatory way; while field research is focused mainly on the present, measuring current or experienced feelings of belonging. If a distinction is noted, it is most likely to highlight the temporal difference of present vs. future than to offer any major theoretical difference between the two. For example, in a study on race and belonging in schools, the authors focus on what they outline as two different aspects of belonging: (a) "anticipated belonging"- that is, students' anticipated belonging in a future educational context, and (b) "experienced belonging"- that is, the extent to which students feel belonging within a current educational context (Murphy & Zirkel, 2015, p.6). This approach reflects how the authors tested their hypotheses- with Study 1 employing an experimental, quantitative approach to examine the relationship between anticipated belonging and academic outcomes among stigmatized and non-stigmatized students and Studies 2 and 3 using a field survey/longitudinal study design to build upon Study 1 and explore how students' actual (not anticipated) belonging in school affects their

goals, aspirations, and performance in school. This approach is similarly reflected in many of the studies I have reviewed in this section and for clarity, I have mentioned where the authors have used anticipated belonging in their work. Consistent with scholars in social psychology (Belanger et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2013; Veldman et al., 2021), educational psychology (LaCrosse et al., 2021, 2020; Murphy & Zirkel, 2015), and organizational psychology (Gaucher et al., 2011; Hentschel et al., 2021), my own research will reflect the general pattern in the literature by using both belonging and anticipated belonging in my study designs where appropriate.

People gauge their belonging by looking to both the social context and themselves. According to Walton and Brady (2017), people assess their fit with and belonging in the social world through an array of implicit worries and questions, such as:

- Do I have anything in common with people here?
- Are people like me valued here, or devalued?
- Can I be me here?

Through these implicit worries, people tune themselves to specific cues and events that address their concerns about belonging within the environment in question. Stigmatization can give rise to belonging uncertainty (Walton & Cohen, 2007). In this state, members of socially stigmatized groups are more uncertain of the quality of their bonds and, thus, more sensitive to social belonging. Belonging uncertainty goes beyond a concern about the ambiguity of one's social ties (Crocker et al., 1991) and may take the form of a broad-based assessment by an individual that "people like me do not belong here" (Walton & Cohen, 2007, p.83). This resonates with SIT's assertion that threats to social identity can trigger belonging concerns and impede individuals' motivation and performance (Cohen & Garcia, 2008).

Aligned closely with SIT, Cohen and Garcia (2008) present a model of identity engagement, which explains how the intersection between identity and belonging can have important consequences for individuals. They propose that motivation often depends on whether an endeavor is linked to one's sense of social identity and feelings of belonging. For example, one's family, racial or ethnic group, or religious affiliation may be an important source of social identity. The identity engagement model describes how a salient social identity can trigger psychological threat and belonging concerns. These concerns then manifest themselves in the potential for performance decrements. In some cases, all that is required to trigger belonging uncertainty is an event that implies a lack of social connectedness. For example, in two experiments testing how belonging uncertainty undermines the motivation and achievement of people whose group is negatively characterized in academic settings, students were led to believe that they might have few friends in an intellectual domain (Walton & Cohen, 2007). Whereas White students were unaffected, Black students (stigmatized in academics) displayed a drop in their anticipated sense of belonging and potential. Similar effects have been found for women in math (Good et al., 2008; Good et al., 2007), and in other situations where negative characterizations of valued social identities can be threatening and so undermine positive outcomes. Aligned with SIT, the above-mentioned research demonstrates a key idea within the sense of belonging literature, which suggests that individuals categorize themselves and others into various social groups, such as race, gender, or occupation. These group memberships influence how individuals perceive themselves and others, as well as their sense of belonging in different situations. Although it may seem identical for all those in it, a situation, setting, environment, classroom, or workplace may differ radically for different groups of people due to the social identities they hold (Cohen & Garcia, 2008). This understanding underscores the

importance of considering the diverse perspectives and experiences of various social groups within a given context.

As research on belonging in organizations has progressed, scholars have sought to distinguish it from other organizational behaviour and management constructs. For example, conceptual work has emphasized organizational identification and belonging as related but distinct constructs (Edwards & Peccei, 2007), where organizational identification comprises both a cognitive component (i.e. sharing of values and goals between the individual and organization), and an affective component (i.e. a sense of belonging to or membership in the organization). This is also reflected in recent conceptual work by Rogers and Ashforth (2017) who highlight that organizational identification has been historically described partly in terms of a sense of belonging (e.g. Ashforth & Mael, 1989) and suggest that respect in the workplace fosters identification with the organization, through the satisfaction of the need to belong. Similarly, belonging has been connected with the literature on inclusion. For example, in their study of the relationship between expectations of organizational mobility and employee job performance, Pearce and Randel (2004) created and tested a new concept, namely “Workplace Social Inclusion (WSI),” as a mediating variable in this relationship. Their conceptualization of WSI included the extent to which employees have social ties with others and are socially included by others in their workplace. This conceptualization underscores the importance of internal ties and quality of relationships to the fostering of a sense of belonging. It doesn’t, however, extend beyond social ties and relationships to include other facets of belonging such as utility or shared values.

Scholars have further established the distinction between organizational belongingness and organizational commitment (Merriman, 2010); while commitment is linked to more exchange-based factors and behavioural components associated with the notions of commitment,

and identification and belongingness both concerning the extent to which an individual acknowledges a sense of oneness with the organization, belonging also captures an individual's perceptual assessment of relational value in the eyes of others and the organization. In this conceptualization, belonging also refers to the extent to which individuals think their presence matters to the organization; knowing one's role is important to the organization (Merriman, 2010). This is echoed by qualitative work on the dimensions of belonging that include "utility" or "the group member's belief in the inherent value of their contributions" (Steele, 1996, p. 266). While commitment, cohesion and group membership may be an important part of belonging, it differs from identification by including feelings of being valued, trusted, effective and treated fairly as a member of the organization. In other words, I may identify with my organization while sharing in its goals and values, but do I feel included? Do I feel valued? Do I feel useful? These are important, relational elements of belonging.

The foundational work by Baumeister and Leary (1995) and subsequent research thereafter highlight belonging as a fundamental human motivation, echoing social identity theory's (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) emphasis on social affiliation in shaping identity and underscoring how individuals assess their belonging through concerns about commonality and value. Moreover, the exploration of belonging uncertainty among stigmatized groups and the intersection between identity and belonging further illustrate the importance of social identity in shaping belonging experiences. As researchers delve into organizational belongingness, the distinctions drawn between belonging, commitment, and identification emphasize the role of social identity in determining belonging perceptions. In sum, integrating social identity and belongingness theories provides a comprehensive understanding of the complex dynamics of

belonging across contexts, highlighting the intertwined nature of social identity and belonging in shaping individual experiences.

Existing Empirical Research on Sense of Belonging

Our understanding of the need to belong has not only been shaped by our understanding of social identity and the theoretical work detailed above, but also by decades of empirical research. Over the last 25 years, scholars across various disciplines have provided evidence that not only supports the notion that the need to belong is pervasive and powerful, but also that it underlies all kinds of social phenomena (Gabriel, 2020). Scholars have suggested that the need to belong in human motivation is rampant and is relevant for all academic disciplines that study human behaviour (Allen et al., 2021a). According to a recent review article, there has been exponential growth in interest in the need to belong, as it moves from an ancillary theory to a foundational theory in social psychology research (Gabriel, 2020). In addition, scholars suggest that research on belonging now has an important role to play in addressing some of society's most complex challenges (Allen et al., 2021a), and that “we can increase our understanding of a broad range of social psychological phenomena by examining the role that the need to belong plays in those phenomena” (Gabriel, 2020). In efforts to understand the essential role of belonging, this construct has been studied within various settings and environments. As such, the following sections explore how belonging has been examined within three specific areas that are relevant to this research paper: educational settings, organizational settings, and in the context of organizational diversity, equity, and inclusion.

Belonging in Educational Settings

A large focus of the belonging literature has been within educational psychology and is often oriented around the terms “school belonging,” and “university or college belonging” (Allen

et al., 2021b; Arslan, 2021; Pittman & Richmond, 2007). In sociology of education, sense of belonging is defined as a “psychological sense of identification and affiliation with the campus community” (Bodamer, 2021, p.458). In other words, sense of belonging at school is defined by how students subjectively feel a part of their school community, and specifically relate to a student’s feelings of being accepted, respected, and valued by peers and teachers. Past empirical studies have highlighted the consequences of belonging for students. In particular, research has shown that school belonging is positively related to academic achievement (Allen et al., 2018; Freeman et al., 2007; Goodenow & Grady, 1993; McMahon et al., 2009) and psychological well-being (Arslan & Allen, 2021; Matthews et al., 2014; Shochet et al., 2011). School belonging has also been linked to greater self-esteem (Peng et al., 2019) and lowered school dropouts (Uslu & Gizir, 2017). Importantly, recent research shows that a sense of school belonging is a significant predictor of future employment, education, and training (Parker et al., 2022).

Less attention has been paid to studying the antecedents of school belonging, but recent work has shown that weaker quality of relationships predicts disparities in sense of belonging among law school students. A study of sixty-eight American law schools showed that law students of colour and first-generation college students reported weaker relationships in law school, lower grades, and lower school satisfaction (Bodamer, 2021). These recent results are unsurprising, given that previous school belonging research has demonstrated that race and ethnicity play a large part in how students perceive and interpret their school environment (Gray et al., 2018). Stigmatized social identity groups are at a heightened risk of receiving disconfirming messages about whether they fit within academic spaces (Cook et al., 2012) thus the literature shows that race and identity are critical for understanding patterns of belonging, motivation, and performance (Gray et al., 2018; Walton & Cohen, 2011). For example, Black

Americans are often stigmatized in academic settings, leading them to be aware of, and concerned with, circumstances that could threaten their sense of school belonging (Walton & Cohen, 2007). When people see an environment as threatening rather than safe, they tend to become vigilant; chronically alert to cues that could signal threat (Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008), so researchers have sought to test interventions that may insulate individuals' sense of belonging. For example, Cook et al. (2012) tested how a brief 'values-affirmation' exercise affected students' psychological experience and the relationship between psychological experience and environmental threat over two years. The results suggest that values affirmation can buffer individuals' sense of belonging from environmental threat during the developmental transition from middle school to high school.

A large body of research has explored the effects of belonging on women in STEM educational settings. Women are often stigmatized in STEM settings, leading them to be aware of, and concerned with, circumstances that could threaten their sense of belonging in these programs (Good et al., 2007). In studying why women opt out of math programs, researchers have shown the power of sense of belonging to predict both men's and women's intention to remain in the math domain, even after controlling for other belonging-related constructs (Good et al., 2012). The importance and relevance of this study lies in its demonstration of the mediating effects of sense of belonging in the relationship between the perceptions of stereotyping and women's academic achievement and intentions. While previous studies focused primarily on consequences for student achievement, the findings of this study show that sense of belonging can not only undermine an individual's performance in a domain, but also their desire to continue in that domain in the future. Furthermore, these findings contribute to the literature on continued underrepresentation of marginalized groups by showing how lowered sense of

belonging may be one of the reasons women choose to drop out of math courses, affecting their long- term trajectory in a STEM career.

More recent work on contextual influences has investigated how sense of belonging is cued not only by the people in a particular role, but also by the affordances of the role and associated opportunities for goal pursuit (Belanger et al., 2020). In several studies, the researchers showed that perceiving more communal opportunities in STEM settings was associated with heightened belonging for female students. In addition, experimentally manipulating collaborative activities in a science lab increased anticipated belonging in the lab and fostered interest, particularly among female students. Various physical features of the setting can also signal belonging. For example, Master et al. (2016) demonstrated that the physical classroom environment can communicate stereotypes (using photographs of Star Wars/ Star Trek items vs. non-stereotypical items like nature pictures), and that the environment can alter one's belonging and interest in computer science. Similarly, Cheryan et al. (2017) studied how a masculine culture can signal a lower anticipated sense of belonging to women than men in certain STEM fields like computer science, engineering, and physics. These studies build on previous belonging research by extending beyond the influence of 'who' is present in a setting to other cues, such as 'what' is being done, 'how' it is being done, and 'why' it is being done (Belanger et al., 2020).

Educational psychology research also focuses on one's anticipated belonging in a particular domain. For example, LaCosse and colleagues (2020) investigated the impact of a social belonging intervention on anticipated belonging in college- level STEM courses for high- school students for whom English is a second language. Using data from 12,000 STEM- interested students, results revealed that the intervention increased students' anticipated sense of

belonging suggesting that anticipated belonging is a potentially understudied barrier to creating a multilingual and diverse STEM workforce. Using an experimental design, researchers examined whether including identity-safety cues in course syllabi could improve female college students' anticipated belonging in STEM courses and found that identity- safety cues positively impacted participants' anticipated belonging, regardless of course instructor gender. Further research on gender and anticipated belonging in STEM has found that anticipated belonging in a STEM field plays a pivotal role in pursuing that field (Veldman et al., 2021). A sample of 343 high-school girls in STEM-focused university tracks showed that different anticipated belonging comparisons across STEM fields, suggesting that it is not just about the level of anticipated belonging within a particular field but also about the level of anticipated belonging in comparison to another.

As noted above, the literature is heavily focused on the challenges faced by women, especially in STEM fields, where they often experience stigmatization and threats to their sense of belonging. This work underscores the importance of fostering a sense of belonging to mitigate disparities and encourage underrepresented groups to persist in their chosen fields. While much of the literature has concentrated on gender, recent research has begun to explore the intersection of belonging, race, and identity. In this dissertation, I advance the state of existing literature by moving beyond the current focus on gender and STEM domains and examine the effects of two organizational diversity cues related to race and ethnicity: workplace racial discrimination and racial/ethnic representation. The parallels between the experiences of gender marginalization and racially marginalized groups underscore the interconnectedness of these issues, however more comprehensive research is needed to that addresses the unique challenges faced by individuals navigating other marginalized and/or multiple layers of identity, including race and ethnicity.

As research on belonging has gained traction in social psychology and educational settings, organizational and management scholars have looked to apply this construct and its related interventions to the workplace. Accordingly, in the next sections I will review the empirical literature on belonging in organizational settings generally, and in the context of organizational diversity, equity, and inclusion.

Belonging in Organizational Settings

Within the organizational sphere, researchers have explored the effects of belonging on individual workplace behaviors. For example, a study of 141 supervisor-subordinate dyads found that interactional fairness positively predicted employee belongingness, and that employees show more helping (interpersonal citizenship) behaviour when they have a stronger sense of belonging at work (Kyei-Poku, 2014). In this study, feelings of belongingness were conceptualized as relating to “belongingness at work” and were measured using three items based on Godard (2001), with a sample item, “I feel quite isolated from others at work (reverse coded).” Drawing from the group engagement model of justice, scholars found that belongingness mediated the negative relationship between abusive supervision and workplace safety behaviours (Yang et al., 2020).

Additionally, another study of 237 employees tested organization-based self-esteem as a mediator between organizational supports and organizational deviance (Ferris et al., 2009).

Although the researchers did not explicitly measure ‘belongingness,’ they draw upon a “belongingness theory framework” (p.279) and argue that since the need to belong motivates individuals to monitor their environment for cues to their level of inclusion/exclusion, indices of organizational support take on a heightened relevance. When low levels of support are detected, organization-based self-esteem levels decrease, thwarting one’s need to belong. A negative

impact on belonging impairs self-regulatory ability, resulting in deviant behaviour. A multi-source field study applied belongingness theory to examine whether thwarted belonging predicts interpersonal work behaviours that are self-defeating (Thau et al., 2007). In this case, thwarted belonging is defined as the perceived discrepancy between one's desired and actual levels of belonging with respect to one's coworkers. Data from 130 employees and their supervisors demonstrated that employees who perceive greater levels of desired coworker belonging than actual levels of belonging were more likely to engage in interpersonally harmful behaviours and less likely to engage in interpersonally helpful behaviours.

As research on belonging within the organizational context continues, researchers have worked to develop and validate a self-report measure of workplace belongingness that uniquely captures and tests an individuals' sense of belonging within an organizational context. For example, in their work on general belongingness, workplace belongingness and depressive symptoms, Cockshaw et al., (2013, 2014) found general sense of belonging to be psychometrically distinct from belongingness in the workplace. Noting this, Jena and Pradhan (2018) conceptualized a unidimensional "workplace belongingness scale" that attempts to fully capture the essence of an individual's belonging in a workplace setting.

Other research on belonging in organizations has touched on the relationship between charismatic leadership and fostering a sense of belonging (Parry et al., 2019) as well as the study of how organizational practices can help foster a sense of belonging (Bryer, 2020). While research has mainly focused on gender stereotypes affecting workplace belonging, scholars have also explored internal age stereotypes as a predictor of reduced sense of belonging (Rahm et al., 2021). Bridging the recent academic findings with practice, a recent article in Harvard Business Review posits "a crucial way to galvanize support and manage complex change is to create a

culture where every employee, regardless of their background, feels that they belong” (Kennedy & Jain-Link, 2021). According to their research, Kennedy and Jain-Link (2021) suggest that employees who score high on belonging are far more likely to be engaged and loyal and to promote their organizations as good places to work. Notably, they also found marked variations in belonging scores- with White men and White women having the highest median scores, while Asian and Black employees having the lowest. These findings underscore the importance of studying belonging within the context of diversity, equity, and inclusion. In the following section, I will outline existing efforts to connect the study of belonging with organizational diversity and underrepresentation of marginalized groups.

Belonging and Organizational Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion

In navigating the intersection of belonging and the inclusion literature, scholars have underscored the pivotal role of inclusion in fostering a sense of belonging. In recent years, both belonging and inclusion have garnered significant attention in organizational research. While these concepts are related and often used interchangeably, they represent distinct constructs that play crucial importance in shaping individuals’ experiences within organizations (Slepian & Jacoby-Senghor, 2021).

As noted above, belonging refers to an individual’s subjective sense of acceptance, connection, and attachment to a group or organization. With its roots in social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), belonging encompasses feelings of being valued, respected and integrated into the social fabric of the organizations. It also involves a sense of shared identity and commonality with others, contributing to a sense of community and support. However, belongingness does not negate the need for individuality and uniqueness; rather, it involves a

delicate balance between the desire for acceptance and the expression of one's distinctiveness within the group (Shore et al., 2011).

On the other hand, inclusion focuses on the actions and policies that promote equitable opportunities, fair treatment, and participation for all individuals within an organization (Shore et al., 2018). It is about creating an environment where diverse perspectives are welcomed, and every individual feels empowered to contribute fully. Inclusion is often operationalized through initiatives such as diversity training, inclusive leadership practices, and diversity recruitment efforts (Murray, 2024). Importantly, inclusion involves recognizing and valuing individuals' unique strengths, perspectives, and contributions.

While belonging and inclusion are related concepts and both contribute to a positive organizational climate, they operate at different levels and address distinct aspects of organizational life. Inclusion refers to the action or actions an employer takes (Verlinden, 2024) and addresses the broader organizational systems and practices that facilitate equitable participation and engagement for all members (Nishii & Mayer, 2009). Meanwhile, belonging relates to how those actions make the employee feel (Verlinden, 2024) and delves into individuals' emotional experiences and sense of identity within the organization, including the need for acceptance and connection with others, while also acknowledging their uniqueness.

The conceptual importance of belonging is well-acknowledged, often evident in theories and frameworks that highlight belongingness as a foundational element of inclusion within group and organizational dynamics (Byrd, 2022; Walton, 2014). For example, scholars have proposed that belongingness is not only a fundamental human need (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), but also one of two key elements of inclusion in work groups (Shore et al., 2011). Inclusion, or an inclusive culture, provides the opportunity for equal contribution and participation at all organizational

levels by marginalized groups while also supporting them to maintain their authentic social identity (Byrd, 2022; Shore et al., 2018). Empirical research demonstrates the positive effects of inclusion on belonging, showing a negative relationship between workplace ostracism and belongingness (Howard et al., 2020), and a positive relationship between diversity climate and belonging (Enwereuzor, 2021).

The examination of belonging not only enriches the discourse on inclusion but also contributes significantly to the literature addressing racial underrepresentation in leadership and senior organizational roles. Insights from the belonging literature reviewed above shed light on the intricate interplay between a sense of belonging and the career trajectories of individuals from underrepresented backgrounds. In the context of racial/ethnic underrepresentation, the integration of belonging and inclusion literature prompts a deeper exploration of the subtle yet pervasive ways in which organizational cultures may inadvertently perpetuate disparities. By understanding belonging as a precursor to inclusion, scholars can unpack the mechanisms through which racialized individuals may encounter barriers to full participation in decision-making processes and leadership opportunities (Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008). This nuanced perspective contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of the complexities surrounding diversity in leadership. Moreover, the study of belonging offers insights into strategies for dismantling barriers that hinder the progression of individuals from underrepresented racial backgrounds.

By fostering inclusive environments that prioritize a genuine sense of belonging, organizations can actively challenge the status quo and cultivate leadership pipelines that reflect the diversity of the broader society (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Grant et al., 2011). In this way, the examination of belonging in this dissertation not only aligns with inclusion literature but also

serves as a crucial lens through which to address and potentially help rectify the persistent challenges of racial underrepresentation at senior organizational levels. The integration of these perspectives not only provides a theoretical foundation for understanding the dynamics of belonging and inclusion but also offers practical implications for creating more equitable and diverse organizational environments.

As such, research continues to examine underrepresented and marginalized groups and belonging in the workplace. For example, a recent review article explored the need to belong as it relates to women's struggles in engineering (Wilson & VanAntwerp, 2021), citing gender identity threat and normative and numerical male dominance as major contributors to unmet or thwarted belonging. The review also noted that unmet belonging needs is a common factor in multiple contexts and that the situation worsens as women progress in their career pathways, as a lack of belongingness often impedes satisfaction, advancement, and other important career outcomes. Interestingly, this review article found that belonging deficits seem to be amplified for women of colour (as compared with race/ethnicities that are not underrepresented in engineering). A qualitative study of women engineers who have persisted in the field suggests that environments affirming their competence, value, and belonging were instrumental in their retention (Ayre et al., 2013). Normative and numerical dominance also factored into the study of 190 women from a large male-dominated trade union which found sense of belonging mediates the relationship between workplace sexism and mental health, as well as workplace sexism and job satisfaction (Rubin et al., 2019). In addition, research has found that workplace sexism is negatively related to sense of belonging in the workplace among women (Rubin et al., 2017).

Researchers have also explored the role of belonging within the executive domain. In a longitudinal study using archival data from an executive search firm, a survey of executives, and

an experiment using executive respondents, management scholars tested how recruitment rejection triggers uncertainty about belonging in the executive domain, which in turn leads women to place greater weight than men on fair treatment and negatively affects their perceptions of the fairness of the treatment they receive (Brands & Fernandez-Mateo, 2017). This dual process makes women less inclined than men to apply to a firm that has previously rejected them, thus possibly contributing to a cumulative gender disadvantage and continued underrepresentation of women in top management roles over time. Using gendered wording as a cue for belongingness, researchers used archival and experimental data to show that when job ads were constructed to include more masculine than feminine wording, women found those job less appealing (Gaucher et al., 2011). The authors suggest that masculine wording likely signals that there are many men in the field, and potentially alerts women to the possibility that they do not belong. The results confirmed that perceptions of anticipated belongingness (but not perceived skill) mediated the effect of gendered wording on job appeal. Following calls for research to increase gender equality in leadership development programs, two studies tested the effect of recruiter gender and stereotypical masculine or feminine wording in advertisements for participation in a career development program. Results showed that when a male recruiter used stereotypically masculine wording, female university students indicated lower application intentions for career opportunities as mediated by women's anticipated belongingness (Hentschel et al., 2021).

As mentioned in the above review of belonging in educational settings, brief interventions that strengthen an individual's sense of belonging have been shown to improve outcomes for members of underrepresented, marginalized groups in schools. Organizational researchers sought to apply this type of intervention in the technology sector among newly hired

engineers (Mobasseri et al., 2021). Results did not show a statistically significant effect of the treatment on a core attainment outcome- bonus relative to base salary- although there was a significant gender gap, with women receiving proportionally lower bonuses than men. Drawing on meaningful differences between educational versus workplace settings, the authors identify theoretical moderators, such as age and differences in performance evaluation content, that might influence the efficacy of similar social-belonging interventions applied to the workplace in the future. The researchers also suggest that the intervention may have greater effect if it is targeted to specific subgroups that are most likely to benefit from it. For example, the intervention may benefit employees from different racial or ethnic backgrounds, sexual orientation, parental status, or socioeconomic status within the setting. Similarly, the intervention may also benefit employees who are at a particularly important or challenging moment in their career trajectory, like after they return from parental leave or when they first take on a supervisory role.

To conclude, a review of existing literature demonstrates that belonging is an influential variable in many different contexts. Across disciplines, theoretical and empirical work has demonstrated that feeling a sense of belonging is important for individuals. As research in educational and school psychology has advanced, results have shown that belonging has implications for many academic outcomes including motivation, performance, and retention. Thus, organizational researchers have sought to examine whether belonging would produce similar results in the workplace and have studied the effects of belonging on individual workplace behaviours such as interpersonal helping behaviours and organizational deviance. Researchers have also extended existing work on belonging from the educational sphere to the workplace by studying the effects of workplace sexism on belonging and mental health. However, research bridging belonging and organizational scholarship is still in a nascent stage.

Furthermore, efforts to link belonging with racial diversity cues, career outcomes, and underrepresentation are noticeably absent from the literature. This observation provides an opportunity to not only extend our understanding of the antecedents and consequences of belonging, but at the same time, make a meaningful contribution to diversity and inclusion scholarship.

Chapter 3: Theory and Hypotheses

To extend our understanding of belonging as a psychological mechanism underlying the relationship between organizational diversity cues and career-related outcomes, and to test the sequentially-mediating nature of the relationship with justice and belonging as mediators, this paper will explore the following relationships:

1. The relationship between organizational diversity cues, specifically perceived workplace discrimination and racial/ethnic representation, and sense of belonging.
2. The relationship between belonging and career-related outcomes, such as career aspirations, job application intentions, and turnover intentions.
3. The mediating role of belonging in the relationship between organizational diversity cues and career related outcomes; and, in addition, the sequentially mediating roles of organizational justice and belonging in this relationship.
4. The extent to which the individual *need to belong* moderates the relationship between organizational diversity cues and belonging.

Although the need to belong is fundamental, scholars have argued that the strength and quality of acceptance seeking differs among individuals (Leary et al., 2013). Thus, this paper also introduces a potential moderating variable: the individual need to belong (NTB).

Racial/ Ethnic Discrimination and Sense of Belonging- An Identity Perspective

Sense of belonging to a particular domain contains various components, but essentially reflects the feeling that one “fits in, belongs to, or is a member of the community in question”, and also that one is valued and accepted by fellow members of the discipline (Good et al., 2012, p.700). Steele (1996) also highlights utility, or “the group member’s belief in the inherent value of their contributions” (p.266) as another dimension of belonging relevant to the study of belonging

within organizations. Theorists in social psychology suggest the need for social belonging is a basic human motivation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) and belonging is “a general inference, drawn from cues, events, experiences, and relationships, about the quality of fit or potential fit between oneself and a setting (Walton & Brady, 2017, p.272). Individuals can experience a decrease in feelings of belonging when they feel that an important social identity of theirs is marginalized in that context (Walton & Brady, 2017) and in domains of achievement, like work and school, people are particularly sensitive to the quality of their social bonds (Walton & Cohen, 2007).

One of the most important questions people ask themselves when they assess their environment is “Do I (or will I) belong here?” -- A question that implicitly solicits an evaluation of who one is, and what the setting allows. Accordingly, people make appraisals of both themselves- including who they can be in that context, and of the social context itself- including how others regard and treat them (Walton & Brady, 2017). Discrimination is the differential treatment of individuals based on their assumed or actual group membership or social identity (Phillips & Jun, 2022) and is distinguished from stereotype and implicit bias by action (Pager & Shepherd, 2008). According to Phillips and Jun (2022), discriminatory acts and decisions are made because people engage in disfavoured, or “out-group hate” behaviours via explicit or implicit prejudice (e.g. taste-based discrimination; Bertrand et al., 2005; Guryan & Charles, 2013) or negative stereotypes associated with out-group members (e.g. statistical discrimination; Arrow, 1998; Pager & Shepherd, 2008). Discrimination can also be the result of favouritism, driven by social identity processes (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), whereby in-group members engage in favouring behaviours or “in-group love” (e.g. homophily; in group-bias; (DiTomaso, 2013). Racial and ethnic discrimination has been conceptualized in both a “traditional” sense, where the

focus has been on relatively rare, major events, such as the denial of employment opportunities (Quillian et al., 2017), and also in a more “modern” sense, such as in the existence of everyday discrimination (Deitch et al., 2003; Van Laer & Janssens, 2011), incivility (Cortina et al., 2013), and microaggressions (Kim et al., 2019).

Evidence presented in a recent review article by Triana et al. (2021) suggests that racialized workers face discrimination throughout the employment process, beginning in the hiring phase (e.g. Bendick et al., 1991; Bertrand & Mullainathan, 2004), and continues with performance appraisals, where such appraisals have been found to generally favour White employees (Bernardin et al., 2012), and lead to negative individual outcomes when employees withdraw in response to discrimination (Wagstaff et al., 2014). Workplace racism and discrimination is pervasive, and racialized individuals are more likely to perceive both personal and group discrimination (Nelson et al., 2019). Recent Canadian data show that nearly 80 per cent of Black Canadians and nearly two-thirds of South Asian employees say racism has affected their relationship with their employer (Edelman, 2021).

A large body of literature has demonstrated the negative effects of discrimination in the workplace. Group-based discrimination is detrimental to individuals, organizations and society, and researchers have long demonstrated its harmful effects on organizational diversity (Triana et al., 2021), and individual health and well-being (Deitch et al., 2003; Schmitt et al., 2014; Xu & Chopik, 2020). Meta-analytic findings also show that perceived discrimination is negatively related to job attitudes, physical health outcomes, psychological health outcomes, and various work-related outcomes such organizational citizenship behaviour (Triana et al., 2019). Prior research finds that group-based discrimination is driven by bias against disadvantaged group members and bias in favour of advantaged group members (Phillips & Jun, 2022), and it is

widely held that racial and ethnic minorities are more likely to perceive discrimination at work and/or respond more strongly to it (Triana et al., 2015). This is largely attributed to increased prejudice, unequal status, and devalued social identities (Ng et al., 2021).

According to social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978), the groups to which we belong are an important part of pride and self-esteem, and so perceiving discrimination based on one's race/ethnicity can have subsequent negative effects on the extent to which individuals feel they are an accepted, respected and valued part of the work environment. From a social identity approach, discrimination and biases against racialized individuals elicit identity threat, undermining feelings of belonging (Heikamp et al., 2020; Van Laar et al., 2010). Identity threat can result from pressures to disconfirm negative stereotypes in certain domain where an individual feels their identity is negatively stereotyped (Steele et al., 2002). In addition, experiences of discrimination can amount to chronic identity threat through heightened susceptibility to cues or expectations of group-based rejection (Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008).

This theorizing provides some indication that discriminatory elements of one's environment are associated with the extent to which an individual feels like they belong. For example, Hurtado and Carter (1997) found that Latino students who reported greater perceived hostility at school exhibited lower levels of belonging in college. Similarly, a longitudinal study showed that greater perceived discrimination in year 2 and year 3 of college was associated with diminished sense of belonging in year 4 (Levin et al., 2006), and a similar study of first-year college students revealed that perceptions of discrimination at the beginning of the first semester had an indirect effect on retention in the second year of college, as mediated by lowered school belonging (Brown et al., 2022). A recent study confirmed the negative effects of discrimination in higher education on school belonging, and also found that diverse peer interactions and

positive perceptions of institutional commitment to diversity buffer against the negative effects of bias on sense of belonging for racialized students (Hussain & Jones, 2021). Beyond higher education, the effect of discrimination on school belonging has also been studied in school-aged children, where the results echoed previous findings (Heikamp et al., 2020). In this study, middle school youth who experienced discrimination from teachers reported lower feelings of school belonging. Yet, despite an evolving body of research on the negative effects of discrimination on belonging within the school environment, and a theoretical foundation that supports its application to the workplace, there has been little exploration of this phenomenon within organizations and professional settings.

Within both educational and occupational environments, there are long-standing stereotypes about marginalized groups, including women, Black, Latinx, South Asian, and Asian students' and employees' abilities that contribute to ongoing bias and discrimination (He et al., 2019; Murphy & Zirkel, 2015). For example, a study of occupational stereotypes and job suitability revealed that Asian American individuals were evaluated highly for high-status jobs, regardless of their resumé quality, but Black applicants were evaluated negatively, even with strong credentials (King et al., 2006). As a result of these stereotypes, stigmatized workers may find certain workplace environments threatening to their social identities, and their feelings of belonging are diminished or underdeveloped in the first place. Walton and Cohen (2007) suggest that members of socially stigmatized groups are also more uncertain of the quality of their social bonds and thus contributes to heightened feelings of "belonging uncertainty." For example, a longitudinal field study provides evidence that women's status as a negatively stereotyped minority in senior roles triggers uncertainty about their general belonging in the executive domain (Brands & Fernandez-Mateo, 2017). Significant disparities remain between the

workplace experiences of racialized and White employees. Racial/ethnic discrimination reinforces stereotypical representations and may send messages to individuals that they do not or will not belong in a particular workplace or profession because they possess racial/ethnic identities that do not fit current stereotypes of a particular role (i.e. leader, board member, lawyer, computer scientist, etc.).

When operating in an environment, or entering one for the first time, people look for cues in that environment for messages about whether they belong there (Murphy et al., 2007).

Discrimination signals disparity between individuals based on race and ethnicity, and the more that people perceive a mismatch between their environment and their own identity, the less likely they are to feel that they belong there (Master et al., 2016). Grounded in social identity theory, which posits that psychological concerns experienced by racialized individuals may be elicited by cues in organizations (Emerson & Murphy, 2014), and supported by empirical and theoretical work on belonging, which establishes that various features of a domain can signal belonging (Belanger et al., 2020; Cheryan et al., 2009), I hypothesize that perceived racial/ethnic discrimination serves as a situational cue that signals to stigmatized groups that their social identity is threatened and leads them to question whether they can be themselves and whether they will be accepted by others, thereby diminishing their sense of belonging in the workplace.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived racial discrimination is related to belonging such that higher levels of perceived racial discrimination will predict lower levels of belonging.

Racial/ Ethnic Discrimination and Sense of Belonging- A Justice Perspective

In addition to the role of social identity, this paper looks to organizational justice theory to help explain the relationship between racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging. Perceived

injustice may occur when actual outcomes, procedures or interactions fail to match an employee's expectations (Greenberg, 1990). Cropanzano et al. (2007) define organizational justice as "members' sense of the moral propriety of how they are treated" (p.34) and suggest that justice defines the very essence of individuals' relationships to employers. One of the central themes of organizational justice research is that individuals do not merely react to events and experiences by asking "was that good?" or "was that satisfying?" They may also react by asking "was that fair?" Many studies have shown that perceptions of fairness explain unique variance in key attitudes and behaviours, including job satisfaction, trust in management, organizational citizenship behaviour, counterproductive work behaviour, and performance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, 2001, 2012). Within the workplace discrimination literature, studies have shown that employees attribute perceived injustice specifically to their membership in a minority group (Anderson, 2011; Taggar & Kuron, 2016). However, using justice theory to help explain the relationship between experiences of perceived discrimination and workplace belonging has yet to be fully explored.

Justice is important to individuals for many reasons. The relational model of justice suggests that people are motivated to seek positive social interactions and to avoid interactions that are conflicted or laden with negative affect (Gillespie & Greenberg, 2005). A relational perspective also suggests that workers care about justice because it enhances self-worth and signals acceptance by others, serving their need to belong (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Injustice, on the other hand, signals low-regard, being unworthy or underserving, and malevolence (Lind, 2001). Justice is also important because it fulfills an individual's need to feel good about themselves and have a sense of belonging (Barclay et al., 2017; Cropanzano et al., 2001). Justice is considered vital not only as a goal in and of itself, but also because it helps

fulfills several core social goals and needs, including the higher order goal of belonging (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

A goal hierarchy framework helps inform the causal direction of the relationship between organizational justice and belonging. According to Gillespie and Greenberg (2005), psychological needs are viewed as higher order goals that are met by achieving lower order goals. Similarly, Cropanzano et al. (2001) have argued that “justice matters to the extent that it serves some important psychological need” (p.175). There are three levels within Gillespie and Greenberg’s (2005) hierarchy of goals. Lower order goals are met through fairness in events and relationships with entities, where entities may be living (e.g. a supervisor) or non-living (e.g. an organization). The goal of achieving fair relationships serves the highest order goal- the need to belong. According to Baumeister and Leary (1995), belonging is conceptualized as “the fundamental interpersonal motive” (p. 497), and as part of this conceptualization, it is suggested that people are motivated to seek positive social interactions and to avoid interactions that are conflicted or laden with negative affect. The hierarchy of goals framework proposes that individuals seek to determine whether they are achieving fairness in events and relationships by comparing their expectations to their perceptions. If expectations are met, the event or interpersonal interaction will be perceived as fair- or more specifically, the perceiver will report high levels of distributive, procedural or interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001)- and the rules of justice will be satisfied. Gillespie and Greenberg (2005) suggest that if discrepancies are detected, individuals assess the injustice and the extent to which the relevant source is responsible for the injustice. When discrepancies occur, the individual is unable to move up within the hierarchy to achieve the highest order goal. Since belonging is marked by the desire for positive interpersonal interactions and a sense of stability (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), the assessment of

fair relationships with supervisors and colleagues, as well as fair treatment by the organization is key to its development and sustainability within individuals. Accordingly, I theorize that perceived workplace racial/ethnic discrimination would yield an assessment of injustice or unfair treatment, which would subsequently hinder progression toward the highest order goal of belonging.

Research has found that all three types of justice tend to be correlated and they can meaningfully be treated as three facets of overall fairness (Cropanzano et al., 2007). However, in considering how justice promotes belonging, it is useful to consider them separately, as each component is engendered in distinct ways arising from different organizational actions. Some organizational practices may simultaneously affect the perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactional justice, whereas other practices may affect only one (Foley et al., 2005). Therefore, the three constructs are different but related as they focus on different aspects of fairness at work.

Where interactional justice is concerned, individuals may experience justice or injustice in the way they are treated by supervisors or colleagues during interpersonal exchanges. Within organizations, the interactive nature of justice plays a very important role in belongingness, as belongingness can be achieved by strengthening bonds with others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). A study of the antecedents of interpersonal citizenship behaviour found that interactional fairness positively predicts employee sense of belonging, and employees show more helping behaviour when they have a stronger sense of belonging at work (Kyei-Poku, 2014). Similarly, the literature on the school experience of justice has shown that the sense of being treated fairly by one's teachers (interactional justice) contributes to the perception of being a valued group

member and promotes a sense of belonging (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004; Molinari et al., 2013).

Procedural fairness refers to whether fair or unfair procedural rules are implemented in management decisions. According to theorists, organizational procedures provide at least two types of information to members: whether the organization is fair or unfair, and whether the group values them or not (De Cremer et al., 2008; Tyler & De Cremer, 2005). Procedural rules, such as those granting voice or input in decision making, can be interpreted for their belongingness value and have implications for the extent to which members feel they belong to the group. Granting voice may also signal to an individual that their contributions are welcomed and valued, thus fulfilling another important dimension of belonging: utility. Fair procedures also have the ability to communicate a message of inclusion in both interpersonal relationships and relationships between groups and group members (De Cremer & Blader, 2006). In other words, group members rely on organizational procedures and justice appraisals to evaluate their belongingness and reduce their belonging uncertainty.

Distributive justice refers to perceived fairness related to reward allocation, outcomes, and distributions within an organization, such as an individual's current pay and benefit levels. Distributive justice is grounded in equity theory (Adams, 1965), which states that individuals believe outcomes are fair when they are consistent with individual inputs (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Individuals gauge the fairness of their own outcomes by comparing them to a referent other (Foley et al., 2002), and employees rely on comparisons with others to help them evaluate not only their performance and compensation, but also where and with whom they fit. According to Merriman (2010), who noted that utility is an important dimension of belonging, employees assess an organization's willingness and ability to reward their contributions as part of their

attitudinal formation process. Being treated in an unfair manner communicates to employees their marginal status within the group and may result in feeling that their contribution is not valued or meaningful. For example, Armstrong- Stassen & Schlosser (2011) posited that perceived meaningfulness of contribution is positively related to belongingness and perceived insider status. Accordingly, their study of older workers found that when organizations engage in practices tailored to the needs of older workers, the organization “conveys that it values the contribution of its older workers, thereby fostering a sense of belonging” (p. 319). Therefore, we can conclude that belongingness may be sensitive to perceptions of distributive justice which signal fairness related to reward allocation. This is echoed by research that shows employees who have a positive opinion of their organization’s willingness and ability to value and reward their contributions are more likely to develop a strong connection to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Empirical research has demonstrated that organizational decisions are related to employees’ perceptions of distributive fairness. For example, a study of undergraduate students’ reactions to promotion scenarios in which one person was described as being promoted over another, with the race of the stimulus person the only manipulated variable, found that Black participants perceived a White employee’s promotion over a Black employee as the most unfair of all outcomes (Hamilton & Sherman, 1989). Similarly, in a study of the perceived glass ceiling and justice perceptions, the proportion of Hispanic law associates in an organization was negatively related to perceptions of promotion fairness (distributive justice), through perceptions of a perceived glass ceiling (Foley et al., 2002). These findings highlight that biased treatment of out-group members is related to lower perceived distributive justice. As a result, when individuals perceive that they are being treated unfairly relative to in-group members, they

exhibit feelings of being devalued by the group, as well as increased feelings of alienation and rejection (Stone-Romero & Stone, 2005).

In this paper, I propose that justice is a necessary condition for belonging, and the need to belong is a motive that drives people to be sensitive to cues that indicate social exclusion, such as perceived discrimination. Research on the need to belong confirms that these motivations shape how people process and react to social information (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; De Cremer & Blader, 2006; Twenge et al., 2001). This line of reasoning ties together both the relational model of justice and Baumeister and Leary's (1995) assumption that people have a pervasive need to belong that is reflected in their desire to form and maintain relationships with others, going beyond mere affiliation and stimulating a drive toward true acceptance by others in high quality, ongoing relationships (De Cremer & Blader, 2006). Individuals evaluate the fairness they experience at work, and those evaluations impact a number of important variables, including belonging.

Research shows that individuals vary with regard to how their perceptions of justice are determined (Simpson & Kaminski, 2007), and that fairness is a subjective phenomenon in which individual and environmental factors influence perceptions and responses (Barclay et al., 2017; Cropanzano et al., 2001). Research confirms a long history of injustice toward members of racialized groups within organizations in the Canada (Boulet et al., n.d.). Accordingly, bias and unfair discrimination extend to large numbers of individuals and is practiced against those who are stigmatized by virtue of their race/ethnicity (Stone-Romero & Stone, 2005) and racialized employees receive a disproportionate amount of harms (Bergman et al., 2012; Harrick & Sullivan, 1995). Discrimination within organizations can take many forms and may lead to perception of unfair treatment on the part of the recipient or target. For example, individuals are

negatively affected by discrimination when they are denied access to opportunities on their race/ethnicity. Employees experience discrimination when, because of belonging to a racialized ‘out-group,’ they are provided with lower levels of various outcomes (e.g. mentoring, pay) or opportunities (e.g. promotion, training) than ‘in-group’ members (Stone-Romero & Stone, 2005).

I posit that perceived workplace racial discrimination yields assessments of injustice or unfair treatment, which then hinders progression toward the higher order goal of belonging. This explanation is supported by research that demonstrates that the need to belong represents a pervasive concern for individuals, who are highly sensitive to indicators of acceptance within a group (Leary et al., 1995) and is augmented by Jena and Pradhan (2018) who suggest that a major component of workplace belongingness is “an individual’s perceptual assessment of relational value in the eyes of others” (p. 451) and by Hagerty and Patusky (1995) who identified two fundamental features of belongingness: (1) the individual experiences a fit or congruence with other people, and (2) the individual experiences being valued, needed or important with respect to other people, groups, organizations, or environments. Taken together, this framing is complemented by the relational model of justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988), which argues that individuals are motivated to belong to groups and that they look for signals about the extent to which those groups value them. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of organizational justice mediate the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and belonging.

Sense of Belonging and Career Related-Outcomes

Career Aspirations. Employees aspire to achieve different levels in their career and these aspirations are affected by a variety of variables (Barhate & Diranu, 2022; Von Hippel et al.,

2011). Likewise, research demonstrates that internalized beliefs about group and individual differences shape individuals' occupational aspirations from a young age, thus influencing educational and career decisions throughout the life course (Tilcsik et al., 2015).

According to Gray and O'Brien (2007), "career aspirations" historically referred to an individual's desire to select a specific career, however the construct has evolved to be redefined as more of the degree to which one aspires to leadership positions within their career. While I might use the term "career aspirations" more broadly, it is important to note that it is meant to include general career and leadership aspirations, as well as job application intentions. This is consistent with existing empirical research that often uses career aspirations as a broad term which generally represents a career-related goal (Foley et al., 2002) that can also be tailored to a particular theoretical framework or sample. For example, in a study of women's aspirations, career progression and work/family culture in law firms, "career aspirations" is used to broadly describe the study's outcome variable. Accordingly, female associates were asked questions regarding their aspirations for partnership and opportunities for promotion (Walsh, 2012). In another study, the effects of race/ethnicity, SES, and gender on the career aspirations of youth were tested. In this case, the term "career aspirations" was used to make the theoretical arguments for the study's hypotheses and was represented in the methodology by asking participants to select their "dream jobs" from a list of possible careers (Howard et al., 2011). In a study of Hispanic law associates and the perceived glass ceiling, career aspirations were measured together with advancement expectations and referred to as "perceived career prospects" (Foley et al., 2002). A researcher studying gender differences in career aspirations among U.S. undergraduate students extended existing work by examining not only general career aspirations among college-aged men and women, but also their perceptions of and desire for elite

leadership roles (Sheppard, 2018). These outcomes were measured using five different operationalizations- career aspirations, leadership ability, leadership likelihood, aspirations for elite leadership, and likelihood of promotion acceptance.

In this section, I argue that career aspirations are affected by feelings of belonging, and specifically that reduced belonging is associated with reduced career aspirations in a particular role or domain. This is an important relationship to consider since research shows that reduced career aspirations may exacerbate the gap for marginalized workers, particularly in science, professional and leadership roles (Casad & Bryant, 2016; Koenig et al., 2011; Murphy et al., 2007; Sheppard, 2018). Furthermore, research on career aspirations has largely focused on the external hiring process and/or entry into an organization with a large omission in the literature focusing on career mobility upward within organizations.

According to Walton and Cohen (2007), reduced belonging contributes to racial disparities, particularly in domains of achievement, like school and work. Research shows that when people feel their identity is threatened, they often perceive they have fewer opportunities for success in that domain (Casad & Bryant, 2016). Steele (1997) has argued that lack of belonging leads people to distance themselves psychologically from domain-relevant activities and performance, especially in achievement-related domains. If social belonging is important to achievement, then members of historically excluded groups may suffer a disadvantage. For example, when marginalized individuals look at schools and workplaces, they see places in which members of their groups are numerically underrepresented (especially in positions of authority); or perceive they are undervalued, and/or receive lower grades and salaries. Walton and Cohen (2007) argue that reduced feelings of belonging can prove especially pernicious in these cases because it can manifest into the broad-based belief that “people like me do not

belong here” and that lack of belonging can subsequently result in negative attitudes and behaviours, like reduced career aspirations and an unwillingness to apply to certain jobs.

For example, in educational psychology research, sense of belonging in STEM has been shown to be a particularly strong predictor of women’s STEM interest and motivation, as it was found to predict unique variance in college students’ intent to pursue math in the future (Good et al., 2012). These results show that when sense of belonging is reduced, individuals may opt out of the domain- even when achievement remains high- to pursue other goals that may better enable their sense of belonging to take root. These findings are important because they demonstrate that sense of belonging is a critical factor for one’s persistence in a domain and accounts for underparticipation above and beyond what deficits in performance on standardized tests can explain. These results were significant even after controlling for other belonging-related constructs (such as domain identification), providing support for the theoretical distinction between belonging and identification.

These findings also shed light on some reasons why women continue to be underrepresented in math and science professions—especially at the highest levels. Good et al., (2012) suggest, “It is not hard to imagine that stereotyped or marginalized individuals may be less interested in and willing to pursue a domain of study in which their sense of belonging has been undermined, despite their high achievement” (p.701). In this context, women’s lowered sense of belonging—in response to their perceptions of their learning environments— can make the academic community an uncomfortable, unwelcoming place to be, causing them to drop out of the domain. Further research on belonging in STEM education has shown that when external cues reinforce gender stereotypes and signal that girls may not belong, they have less interest than boys in entering that situation (Master et al., 2016). Manipulating the classroom

environment to signal belonging for female students resulted in increased interest in taking computer science courses while male interest remained the same (Master et al., 2016). Although most existing empirical literature has been on gender and school belonging, I argue the theoretical framework on which those arguments are based translates to others who experience belonging uncertainty, and that reduced belonging is linked to reduced career aspirations in the work domain. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3: Belonging is related to career aspirations, such that lower levels of belonging will predict lower levels of career aspirations.

Turnover Intentions. In addition to career aspirations, in the following section I argue that belonging is related to another career-related outcome, namely turnover intentions. Turnover intent is an important variable to consider in the organizational diversity cues, belonging, career-related outcomes framework because turnover intentions have the potential to influence a significant and permanent change in one's career trajectory (Bilginoglu & Yozgat, 2023; George & Jones, 1996). Belonging, as a crucial aspect of organizational social dynamics, is theorized to play a significant role in predicting turnover intentions. Past research has consistently identified various factors influencing turnover intentions in the workplace, with meta-analyses pointing to more proximal precursors in the withdrawal process, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment shown to be among the best predictors (Griffeth et al., 2000). Furthermore, interpersonal relations in the workplace (Regts & Molleman, 2013), as well as perceived organizational support (Madden et al., 2015), have been shown to play a significant role in shaping employees' intentions to leave their current employment.

The above research suggests that turnover decisions are influenced by various factors. The empirical evidence presented below supports the hypothesis belonging is another potential antecedent to consider, and specifically, that higher levels of belonging are associated with lower turnover intentions. In a study by Lee and Peccei (2007), findings revealed a negative correlation between organizational belongingness and turnover intentions, indicating that individuals who perceive a strong sense of belonging within their organization are less likely to consider leaving. This aligns with the argument that a heightened sense of belonging fulfills employees' social needs and reduces the likelihood of seeking alternative employment (Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006).

Recent investigations have underscored the role of a sense of belonging as a pertinent factor in understanding turnover intentions among employees. In a study of new nurses' turnover intention and clinical belonging, researchers found that the risk of turnover of new nurses with 'poor clinical sense of belonging' was more significantly greater than the risk of turnover of new nurses with 'moderate' or 'rich' sense of belonging (Li et al., 2024). Moreover, belongingness has been linked to withdrawal cognitions at work via the mediating mechanism of emotional exhaustion (Kyei-Poku, 2019). Research suggests that a positive organizational climate, fostering a sense of inclusion and belonging, is inversely related to turnover intentions (Ehrhart & Kuenzi, 2017). Employees who perceive themselves as integral members of their work community are less likely to harbor intentions of leaving their current positions. The connection between belonging and turnover intentions aligns with the social identity perspective (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), emphasizing the significance of social connections and identification with the organization. Research also suggests that employees' turnover decisions are influenced by fit perceptions (Boon & Biron, 2016), which relate to belonging, as individuals who perceive a

strong alignment between their personal values, skills, and preferences with the organizational culture and job demands are more likely to experience a heightened sense of belonging, consequently reducing their turnover intentions.

Moreover, research underscores the role of social support, a key component of belonging, in mitigating turnover intentions (Nohe & Sonntag, 2014; Soltis et al., 2013). Employees who feel supported by their colleagues and the organization are more likely to develop a sense of belonging, creating a protective buffer against the inclination to leave their current employment. The identity literature, along with job embeddedness theory (Judge & Cable, 1997; Mossholder et al., 2005) further substantiate the hypothesis. Van Dick and colleagues (2006) found that employees who identify strongly with their organization are less prone to turnover intentions, while Bilginoglu and Yozgat (2023) demonstrated that workplace friendships and a sense of belonging interacted to reduce employees' intentions to leave the organization. Identification and social embeddedness reflect a deep sense of belonging and attachment to the workplace, acting as a psychological dedication that deters employees from contemplating leaving (Avanzi et al., 2014).

In summary, an extensive body of research substantiates the proposition that heightened organizational belonging is linked to decreased turnover intentions. Consequently, I put forth the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Belonging is related to turnover intentions, such that lower levels of belonging will predict greater levels of turnover intent.

Racial Discrimination and Career Related-Outcomes: Organizational Justice and Belonging as Sequentially Mediating Variables

Career Aspirations. Belonging and organizational justice offer an integrated lens through which I explore how perceived racial discrimination within organizations hinders the career aspirations of employees. As established in the previous sections, discrimination may contribute to a global uncertainty about the fair treatment of an individual, the quality of relationships in the workplace and, ultimately, a state of reduced belonging. Consequently, events that threaten one's social connectedness and belonging can have large effects on the motivations of those contending with perceived injustice and threatened social identity. Accordingly, belongingness affects achievement motivation which is manifested at work in reduced career aspirations.

As described above, I propose that organizational justice and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and career aspirations. Research suggests that the need to belong is a motive that increases sensitivity to cues that indicate social exclusion (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; De Cremer & Blader, 2006; Twenge et al., 2001), which could include organizational cues such as perceived racial discrimination. Individuals evaluate the fairness they experience at work and, as described in hypothesis 2, I propose that perceptions of discrimination negatively impact those evaluations. The subjective experience of being treated fairly or unfairly by organizations and colleagues likely plays a significant role in explaining a number of important variables, including individuals' feelings of belonging. Since belonging is marked by the desire for positive interpersonal interactions and a sense of stability (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), the assessment of fair relationships with supervisors and colleagues, as well as fair treatment by organizations (in terms of procedures and outcomes) is key to its development and sustainability. This rationale is

informed by the goal hierarchy framework as theorized by Gillespie and Greenberg (2005) and provides support for the order of the variables in the sequential mediation.

When cues reinforce stereotypes and feelings of injustice, they signal that certain groups do not belong, and consequently these individuals may have less interest in pursuing or persisting in that domain. Individuals who feel like they don't belong may perceive fewer opportunities for success, and/or unconsciously develop a mental schema about the attributes of a successful employee in a particular domain. This prediction is supported by research showing that internalized beliefs about group membership and belonging shapes individuals' educational and career aspirations (Brands & Fernandez-Mateo, 2017; Master et al., 2016; Tilcsik et al., 2015), further demonstrating that when individuals become uncertain of whether they will belong in a particular field, or have the sense that they do not belong, they may be less interested in entering or continuing in that field, even when they feel confident in their abilities and value in the field. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 5: Organizational justice perceptions and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and career aspirations.

Turnover Intentions. The workplace relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and turnover intentions is a complex interplay, wherein experiences of discrimination significantly influence employees' likelihood of contemplating leaving their current employment. Studies highlight an association between perceived racial discrimination and employees' intentions to leave their organizations (Madera et al., 2012). For example, Nunez-Smith et al. (2009) found that physicians who self-identified as non-majority were significantly more likely to have left at least one job because of workplace discrimination. The

results also found that having experienced racial/ethnic discrimination at work was associated with higher job turnover. Similarly, Volpone and Avery (2013), using national samples, revealed that workplace discrimination based on various factors such as race, sex, and sexual orientation, related to reduced engagement, increased burnout, and higher intent to quit. Studies such as these underscore the profound impact discrimination has on shaping turnover intentions, as individuals subjected to discrimination often seek ways to cope with the negative effects, and leaving the organization becomes a viable response.

Building upon this foundational understanding, the psychological mechanisms of organizational justice and belonging offer valuable insights into how and why perceived discrimination contributes to turnover intentions. Organizational justice, as a primary psychological mechanism, operates as the lens through which individuals interpret and evaluate their experiences of discrimination. Perceived injustice resulting from disparities in outcomes, procedures, or interactions, as highlighted by Greenberg (1990) and Colquitt (2012), can impede the highest-order goal of belonging, as individuals seek positive social interactions and avoid conflicts (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Gillespie & Greenberg, 2005). Discrimination can be perceived as a signal of injustice, influencing individuals' belongingness in the workplace (Lind & Tyler, 1988). The chronic identity threats arising from discrimination heighten susceptibility to cues of group-based rejection (Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008). This perception of injustice becomes a pivotal link in the chain of events leading to increased turnover intentions (Colquitt, 2012; Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Belonging, a subsequent psychological factor, is a fundamental aspect of the workplace environment that reflects individuals' sense of fitting in, being valued, and accepted. As Walton and Brady (2017) and Phillips and Jun (2022) assert, belonging is susceptible to cues of

workplace discrimination, leading to diminished feelings of belonging. Discrimination, whether explicit or implicit, has the potential to threaten one's identity, decrease feelings of belonging, and result in diminished perceived value and acceptance (Good et al., 2012; Steele, 1996). This sense of exclusion and diminished belonging becomes another critical factor in understanding why individuals who experience discrimination may entertain thoughts of leaving their current employment (Triana et al., 2019).

Empirical evidence supports the interconnectedness of these factors. Research on the influence of fair supervision on employees' emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions found that perceived organizational support and a sense of belongingness simultaneously mediate the relationship between interactional justice and emotional exhaustion, which in turn affected withdrawal cognitions (Kyei-Poku, 2019). Research on the effects of ostracism and harassment on turnover has demonstrated that ostracism significantly predicts turnover through its impact on belonging (O'Reilly et al., 2015). Moreover, Rothausen and colleagues (2017) argue that threat to identity can result in turnover, emphasizing the role of identity and well-being in turnover processes. Similarly, Madera, King, and Hebl (2012) emphasized the role of identity in the relationship between discrimination and turnover and found that suppression of group identity at work relates to perceived discrimination, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions.

In conclusion, the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and turnover intentions is illuminated by the sequential psychological mechanisms of organizational justice and belonging. Perceived discrimination sets off a cascade of effects, fostering perceptions of injustice that impede belonging, both of which significantly contribute to individuals contemplating leaving their organizations. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 6: Organizational justice perceptions and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and turnover intentions.

Racial/Ethnic Discrimination and Sense of Belonging- The Moderating Role of Individual Need to Belong (NTB)

The need to belong (NTB) is a fundamental aspect of human motivation, varying in strength and quality among individuals. Scholars have developed a validated scale to measure individual differences in NTB, emphasizing its role in the desire for acceptance, close relationships, and interpersonal connections (Leary et al., 2013). Individuals with a high dispositional need to belong, denoted as high-NTB, exhibit a persistent desire for social inclusion and belonging. High-NTB individuals actively seek numerous relationships, value how they are perceived by others, and invest significant effort in maintaining interpersonal connections (Leary et al., 2013; Escalas & Bettman, 2017). They are motivated to establish social connections that fulfill their need for belonging and are more sensitive to social cues related to inclusion or exclusion (Kuo & Yang, 2017; Pickett et al., 2004). Research indicates that high-NTB individuals tend to be more cooperative in group settings (DeCremer & Leonardelli, 2003) but may also experience challenges in satisfying their heightened need for belonging (Rego et al., 2009).

On the other hand, individuals with a lower need to belong (low-NTB) are less motivated to seek social acceptance and do not require the same quantity and quality of relationships to satisfy their need for belongingness (Pillow et al., 2015; Kuo & Yang, 2017). They are less likely to be affected by experiences of discrimination, as their sense of belonging is not as threatened by potential rejection within the organizational context. Given the theoretical foundations of the need to belong, it is hypothesized that the relationship between perceived workplace racial

discrimination and belonging is moderated by an individual's need to belong. Specifically, those with a high need to belong are expected to be more sensitive to cues indicating social inclusion or exclusion, reacting more strongly to workplace racial discrimination. In contrast, individuals with a lower need to belong are anticipated to be less affected as their belongingness need is not as threatened by discriminatory treatment.

The proposed hypothesis suggests that the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and belonging is contingent on an individual's level of need to belong. In environments marked by racial discrimination, the differing reactions between high-NTB and low-NTB individuals create a complex interplay of emotional and behavioral responses. For high-NTB individuals, perceived workplace racial discrimination becomes a powerful trigger for heightened sensitivity to their belongingness need. In contrast, low-NTB individuals may experience workplace racial discrimination with a reduced sense of threat to their belongingness. Their reactions might be less pronounced, buffered by their low need to belong, and the perceived discrimination may not result in such a decreased sense of belonging.

This theoretical framework aligns with previous studies that have demonstrated the moderating effects of the need to belong in various interpersonal and organizational contexts (Rego et al., 2009; Rios et al., 2015). The proposed moderation model provides a nuanced understanding of how individual differences in the need to belong shape the impact of perceived workplace racial discrimination on one's sense of belonging. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and belonging is moderated by an individual's need to belong, such that the effect is stronger for those high in need to belong than for those low in need to belong.

Racial/Ethnic Representation and Sense of Belonging

As noted above, one of the most important questions people ask themselves when they assess their environment is “do I (or will I) belong here?” -- a question that implicitly solicits an evaluation of who one is (or can become), and what the setting allows (or can allow).

Accordingly, people make appraisals of both themselves- including who they can be in that context, and of the social context itself- including how others regard and treat them (Walton & Brady, 2017). When operating in an environment, or entering one for the first time, people look for cues in that environment for messages about whether they belong there (Murphy et al., 2007), and whether they will be respected and included (Murphy & Taylor, 2012). A primary trigger of identity threat is when stereotyped group members are underrepresented in a setting (Walton et al., 2015). In the next section, I argue that racial/ ethnic representation serves as a strong signal of who one can become and what the setting truly allows, thereby negatively influencing feelings of belonging.

According to social identity theory, a person derives a sense of self from the social groups to which he or she belongs (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Griepentrog et al., 2012). Utilizing social identity processes, McGinn and Milkman (2013) argue that race and sex are notably salient identity and categorization dimensions that draw organizational members from the same demographic groups together. When asking, “do I belong here?” individuals are, in essence, also asking “do people like me belong here?” Unlike majority-group colleagues who may question

and attribute their feelings of belonging to the situation (e.g. “this is just how it is when you start a new job.”), racialized employees’ feelings of belonging uncertainty may also be attributed to their stigmatized group membership.

Any individual can worry about their belonging in a professional or work context, however, a more vigilant assessment of the context and its cues is more likely to be invoked when an individual is in a situation that makes salient a stereotyped or stigmatized social group membership that is important to the employee (Murphy & Taylor, 2012). Subtle and ambiguous cues can be interpreted in many ways- some of which are more identity- threatening and some of which are more identity safe (Murdock-Perreira et al., 2019; Purdie-Vaughns et al., 2008). Social comparisons involving demographically similar colleagues and superiors are likely to reflect positively on the self, whereas comparisons yielding few demographically similar colleagues may induce feelings of identity threat. Therefore, the racial and ethnic composition of an organization represents part of the social context that employees may attend to when evaluating their own feelings of identity safety and belonging within an organization.

Not only can belonging be threatened in fields in which there are negative stereotypes about one’s social group, but also in fields in which one’s social group is a minority (Van Laar et al., 2019). Research on representation of women and racialized minority groups provides evidence of a variety of negative consequences associated with being in the numeric minority, including increased performance pressures, isolation from informal professional and social networks, and stereotyped role encapsulation (Duguid et al., 2012). In addition, past research provides evidence of positive consequences associated with exposure to successful role models of demographic similarity (Asgari et al., 2010). For example, Murdock-Perriera and colleagues (2019) noted when a woman finds that she is one of very few women in her advanced math class,

her gender identity is likely to come to the fore and trigger an assessment of the setting and her interactions for signals about whether her peers and professor feel that she belongs in the class. Thus, social identity is a lens through which individuals, whether students or employees, answer important questions of belonging.

Previous research has established that belonging can be threatened by contextual factors such as numeric representation, and that this plays a pivotal role in continued underrepresentation. Research on identity threat and belonging has traditionally focused on women and their concern that their poor performance in STEM domains can be seen as confirming a negative stereotype about women's presumed incompetence in science and math (Shapiro & Williams, 2012; Spencer et al., 1999), and has more recently focused on the extent to which contexts can cue broader threats to acceptance and belonging for women in STEM (Good et al., 2012). For example, Hall et al. (2018) studied the identity processes underlying the relationship between two contextual cues: inclusive organizational policies and greater female representation, and social identity threat for women working in STEM fields. Similarly, when undergraduate STEM students were exposed to a video of a STEM conference in which women were a strong numerical minority (vs. a more gender balanced conference), women (and not men) experienced a lower sense of belonging (Murphy et al., 2007). A recent study comparing anticipated belonging across various STEM fields found that high school girls had greater concerns about belonging in a particular STEM field the more women were underrepresented in that field (Veldman et al., 2021). Numerical representation can be a barrier to belonging in more nuanced ways than simply the physical representation of who employees see around them. The cue of underrepresentation can also be present in media representations or recruitment materials (Avery, 2003), or in posters and in textbooks in a college setting (Cheryan et al., 2009).

Integrating theories of identity and belonging, I argue that individuals are primed to look for contextual cues that signal whether they belong (Emerson & Murphy, 2014; Murphy & Taylor, 2012). Simple differences in numerical proportions can adversely affect how others perceive those who are underrepresented in a setting and how those individuals perceive themselves, thereby threatening underrepresented group members' social identities and eroding their sense of belonging (Mobasseri et al., 2021). Despite increasing diversity in the demographics of those entering organizations, leadership in professional and senior roles looks remarkably similar to those leaders who preceded them, notably White and male; resulting in the continued underrepresentation of racialized workers (Fernandez & Fernandez-Mateo, 2006; McGinn & Milkman, 2013).

In accordance with theory and research presented above, low representation of individuals with a particular characteristic in a group may be taken as a negative signal of the relation of that characteristic to the kinds and levels of competencies required of a valued group member (Duguid et al., 2012). Further the demographic composition of the group (i.e. racial/ethnic representation) can increase the salience of that characteristic and when the distribution of the demographic characteristic is clearly imbalanced, group members are more likely to become conscious of it and to use it as a basis for categorization and evaluation of their own belonging; their identity may be a liability and not an asset. Therefore, compared to numeric majorities, those in the numeric minority may be more prone to question their value to the group, a key component of belonging. Thus, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 8: Racial/ethnic representation is related to belonging such that higher levels of representation will predict higher levels of belonging.

Racial/Ethnic Representation and Sense of Belonging- The Moderating Role of Individual Need to Belong (NTB)

Though the need to belong is fundamental, scholars have argued that the strength and quality of acceptance seeking differs among individuals (Leary et al., 2013). As a result, researchers have developed and validated a scale to measure these individual differences in the need to belong (NTB). The NTB construct measures desire for acceptance and belonging in many relationships and reflects the importance of close relationships with others. It has been conceptualized as an individual's propensity to form interpersonal connections, and as an important personal resource that is a fundamental element of a person's personality (Singh et al. 2018). High need to belong is not the same as feeling unaccepted, supported, etc. and the desire for belonging is distinct from the perceived satisfaction of this desire (Leary et al., 2013). In other words, trait differences in the need to belong arise from something other than feeling that one's relationships and group memberships are inadequate.

Leary and colleagues (2013) have found that some individuals persistently experience a high need for social inclusion and belonging, or high- NTB. These people seek a high number of relationships, worry about how they are valued by others, and put a great deal of effort into sustaining interpersonal relationships (Escalas & Bettman, 2017; Kelly, 2001). High- NTB individuals are motivated to obtain social connections that meet their need to belong and, similarly, are motivated to eliminate negative states associated with exclusion and pain (Du et al., 2022). In prior studies, researchers have found that high-NTB individuals experience enhanced sensitivity to social cues (Pickett et al., 2004). When felt belonging is lower than desired, we expect these individuals to routinely engage in greater social monitoring and will be more motivated to attain social inclusion. This threatened belongingness need becomes salient

and thus motivates greater interest in affiliating and becoming involved with others (Kuo & Yang, 2017).

In another study, high-NTB individuals demonstrated greater cooperation when working in groups (DeCremer & Leonardelli, 2003). A study exploring the role of intragroup dynamics in intergroup conflict found that one's NTB influenced behaviour in intergroup negotiations, and that the need to belong is especially important for people who occupy a peripheral position within their group (Steinel et al., 2010). The same study indicates that people with a comparatively lower need to belong are less affected by their position in the group. Thus, on the positive side, need to belong can promote group-serving behaviour, but on the negative side, may also exacerbate the detrimental effects of feeling excluded. Accordingly, those with high need to belong may also find it more difficult to satisfy their need (Rego et al., 2009).

In accordance with prior findings, I hypothesize that people with a high dispositional need to belong, in comparison with those with a lower one, will be particularly sensitive to cues that indicate social inclusion or exclusion (De Cremer & Blader, 2006) and more reactive to the way they perceive racial/ethnic underrepresentation. This is in line with previous work exploring the moderating effects of the need to belong on other relationships. For example, in a study of nearly 300 employees, researchers found that the need to belong moderated the relationship between perceptions of spirit of camaraderie and affective well-being in such a way that employees with a strong need to belong were more sensitive or reactive to these perceptions, while those with a lower need to belong were not affected in the same way (Rego et al., 2009).

Similarly, a study of workplace loneliness during the Covid-19 pandemic found that increased NTB moderated the effects of team climate on workplace loneliness (Rios et al., 2015). People with a high need to belong strive for meaningful interpersonal connections and fitting in

with others is of paramount importance. As such, those high in the need to belong are likely to consider increased levels of underrepresentation at odds with their heightened desire for mutual, high-quality relationships. According to researchers, high levels of NTB may also lead some people to avoid interactions with others when there is potential for rejection and be less likely to forgive others for their transgressions, even though forgiving could repair social bonds and promote acceptance (Kuo & Yang, 2017; Leary et al., 2013). These characteristics may be particularly relevant to an employee who perceives a greater imbalance in representation and potential for rejection. In other words, when representation is low, individuals high in NTB may not seek out and develop strong relationships with others because low representation may signal to them that there is greater potential for rejection, thus negatively influencing feelings of belonging because of a lack of strong social ties.

On the other hand, individuals with a lower need to belong do not require the same quality and quantity of relationships to satisfy their need for belongingness (Pillow et al., 2015). They are not as motivated as those high in NTB to seek social acceptance (Kuo & Yang, 2017). As a result, greater perceptions of underrepresentation are perhaps not as great a source of threat as they are for those high in NTB. When those low in NTB perceive greater levels of underrepresentation, their feelings are not as deleterious as among employees with a higher need to belong because they are less concerned about not being accepted by people, and such an organizational context does not give rise to greater losses in the satisfaction of their needs. In other words, greater perceptions of underrepresentation are not as threatening to the satisfaction of their belongingness need as they are for people with a stronger need to belong. From this, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 9: The relationship between racial/ethnic representation and belonging is moderated by an individual's need to belong, such that the effect is stronger for those high in need to belong than for those low in need to belong.

Racial/ Ethnic Representation and Career Aspirations- Sense of Belonging as a Mediating Variable

When individuals worry about whether people like them can belong in a valued setting, they attend to cues that communicate—sometimes subtly, sometimes overtly—who fits there (Murphy & Taylor, 2012; Walton & Brady, 2017). A basic cue is group representation. For example, studies show that women working in STEM settings dominated by men experience a lower sense of belonging (Belanger et al., 2020; Pietri et al., 2019). Similarly, exposure to an increased numbers of academically successful persons of Native American descent increased sense of belonging in Native American middle school students compared to ethnically ambiguous or White role models (Covarrubias & Fryberg, 2015).

People attend to cues that imply the type of person that belongs in a setting. For example, when undergraduate STEM students were exposed to a video of a STEM conference in which women were a strong numerical minority (vs. a more gender balanced conference), women (and not men) experienced a lower sense of belonging and less desire to participate in the conference (Murphy et al., 2007). Similarly, students brought to a computer science classroom decorated with primarily stereotypically masculine objects (e.g. a Star Trek poster) reported a lower sense of belonging and interest in pursuing computer science than those brought to a classroom with objects not considered stereotypically male (e.g. nature posters). Furthermore, increasing sense of belonging in the field increases STEM motivation for undergraduate women (Thoman et al., 2014), and for female STEM graduate students (Smith et al., 2013).

In a similar experiment focused on race (as opposed to gender), students were led to believe that they might have few friends in a field of study. Whereas White students were unaffected, Black students' sense of belonging and potential in that field were negatively affected (Walton & Cohen, 2007). In the same study, Black students led to believe they might have few friends in a field of study also discouraged a same-race peer from entering that field. Other results have shown that creating female- majority or gender-equal work groups among engineering students increases women's participation and aspirations in the field (Dasgupta et al.,2015).

A study of gendered wording as a cue of anticipated belongingness found that perceptions of belongingness (but not perceived skills) mediated the effect of gendered wording on job appeal (Gaucher et al., 2011). When job advertisements were constructed to include more masculine than feminine wording, women perceived less belonging in the role and found these jobs less appealing. Masculine wording in job advertisements likely signals that there are many men in the field and alerts women to the possibility they do not belong. These studies confirm that identity plays an important role in directing and sustaining efforts in achievement-related choices.

Belonging can be threatened in fields in which one's ingroup is a minority, and in which characteristics are valued that are more strongly associated with the majority (Van Laar et al., 2019). Previous research has established that belonging can be threatened by underrepresentation for women in STEM, and that this plays a pivotal role in their career development activities. Like the studies of gendered underrepresentation highlighted above, I hypothesize that the underrepresentation of racialized individuals in senior roles similarly signals that non-racialized workers belong more and can be more easily successful in professional domains. The absence of

in-group members in senior roles provides skepticism that “people like me” belong here and can succeed in the setting. When underrepresentation is evident, racialized workers will feel lower anticipated belonging than their non-racialized colleagues, and this lower anticipated belonging will predict their reduced career aspirations within that domain. Therefore, I make the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 10: Belonging mediates the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic representation and job application intentions.

Hypothesis 11: Belonging mediates the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic representation and career aspirations.

Chapter 4: Study 1- Methodology, Results, and Discussion

Multimethod Research Design

To explore and test the hypotheses theorized in the section above, I have employed a multimethod research design using two complementary quantitative studies. Multimethod research, defined as “the use of more than one methodology in a single research project” (Wellman et al., 2023, p. 1007), is proposed to produce results that are more robust and compelling than single method studies (Davis et al., 2011). In this dissertation, I employ both an experimental and survey research design to explore the phenomenon of belonging in organizations. Specifically, both the experimental and survey studies address the following research questions:

1. How are organizational diversity cues related to an individual’s sense of belonging at work?
2. How is an individual’s sense of belonging related to career aspirations and turnover intentions?
3. Do individual differences in the “need to belong” influence the effect of organizational diversity cues on belongingness?

Further, Study 1 (survey design) also explores the additional research question:

4. Do organizational justice and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between organizational diversity cues and career aspirations/ turnover intentions?

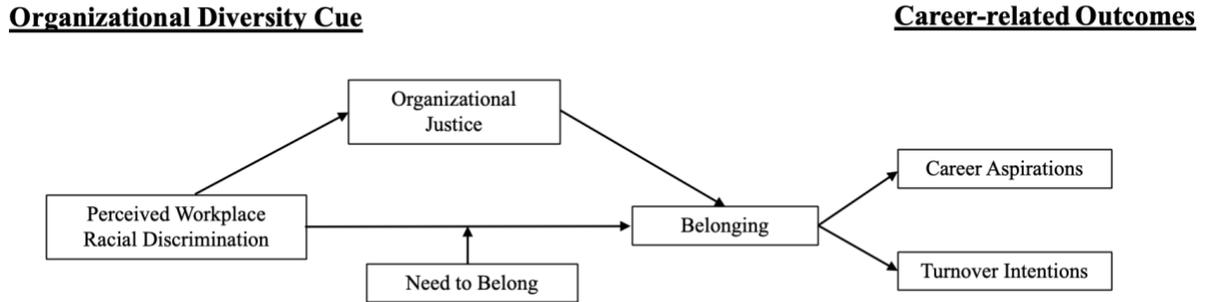
This approach was chosen to not only triangulate the answers to the above research questions, but also to help enable inferences from this project that are high in both internal and external validity (Molina- Azorin, 2012). As described by Wellman et al. (2023), studies

employing methodological triangulation for hypothesis testing do so using different methods and/or samples to offset the limitations of individual methodologies and boost both the internal and external validity of their findings. Furthermore, combining two or more deductive methods (i.e. experimental and survey designs) also allows for constructive replication of theoretical models (Lykken, 1968) and increased research transparency and reliability. Wellman et al. (2023) note that a large percentage of multimethod articles published in *Academy of Management Journal* since 2020 have utilized various studies to investigate different aspects of one theoretical model (for examples, see Martin & Harrison, 2022; Tewfik 2022). In this dissertation, I first conducted a survey/field study to test my theorizing about the relationship between organizational diversity cues and career aspirations using a method with high external validity. Then, I employed an experimental study to explore my theorized individual-level mechanism (belonging) in a sample with greater separation of measurement and additional evidence for causality. This complementary approach, utilizing measures sufficiently connected with one another and ensuring both theoretical and operational alignment between the two studies, provides opportunity for a more robust and/or more complete explanation of belonging--my focal phenomenon.

Methods- Study 1

The aim of study 1 was to examine the mediating role of belonging in the relationship between perceived workplace racial/ethnic discrimination and career-related outcomes, including career aspirations and turnover intentions. In addition, Study 1 also explores the relationship between organizational justice and belonging by including perceptions of organizational justice within a sequential mediation model predicting career-related outcomes. Figure 1 shows visual representation of the study 1 relationships under analysis.

Figure 1



Notes. Study 1 relationships under analysis.

Procedure and Sample

To test hypotheses 1-7, I employed a survey study design in which I collected data at two separate times from Canadian law firms. This two-wave data collection design helps with temporal separation of measurement and potentially reduces the effect of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). I selected the law firm context for this study for several reasons:

- (1) Underrepresentation continues to be an issue that pervades the legal profession. In the past decade, for example, there have been only two racialized appointments to the superior court in Toronto, (Levin & Alkoby, 2019), and until 2021 there had never been a racialized judge on the Supreme Court of Canada (MacCharles, 2021). Canadian law schools are working toward increasing diversity, yet there are still graduating classes with no Black students (Smith & Campbell, 2019). In the US, the story is quite similar. A recent survey of diversity at 232 American law firms found that racialized individuals and Black women specifically continue to be significantly underrepresented (Melaku, 2019). Furthermore, of the 55 appellate judges appointed by the US President from 2017-2020, 85 percent were White, 80 percent were male, and not one of them was Black (Wise, 2020).

- (2) Researchers and individuals within the legal system note that law firms and the legal profession are rife with stereotypes and discrimination. The president of the South Asian Bar Association of Toronto and partner at a large Canadian law firm, cites the law as “an entrenched place” where unconscious biases “creep into any decision-making process, so that when people are thinking about who to promote, they will often look to people who are like them” (Draaisma, 2016). According to Tsedale M. Melaku (2019), a sociologist studying systemic gendered racism in the legal profession, law firms are “overwhelmingly white and male” and racialized lawyers often find their career ambitions stunted by an unwelcoming landscape. Recent data collected in Canada supports this, finding that racialized lawyers face widespread barriers in the legal profession, including discrimination and harassment during their articles and the first few years of practice (Burkholder-James, 2020).
- (3) Practically, it provides a unique and interesting context for study, while also providing a very clear distinction for (and measurement of) career progression (associate to partnership status). Furthermore, law firms are paying increasing attention to the issue of belonging at work, and so it seems to be an opportune time to study this topic. For example, Thomson Reuters posted an article in October 2022 advising tax and law firms to “focus more on belonging to address toxic workplace behaviours and develop clearer initiatives around their DEI efforts (Runyon, 2022). The results of a methodological approach to belonging may be attractive to firms today and provide interesting practical implications.

The sample for Study 1 was gathered from eight Canadian law firms. I sent emails to thirty-six Canadian law firms, choosing firms with at least twenty-five associates or more. The

contacts at each law firm were solicited either through referrals from acquaintances or through cold-call emails sent to email addresses found on firm websites. I sent emails to Managing Partners or similar management roles, and/or where applicable, the head of Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion at the firm. Of the thirty-six firms I contacted, seven firms responded that they were able to assist with the distribution of the surveys through a firm-wide distribution to associates and articling students; eleven responded that they were not interested, or the timing was not right for an external survey, and seventeen firms did not respond to my email. One firm agreed to help with the distribution of the surveys but could not commit to a firm-wide distribution. Instead, they offered to post it on their internal communication board, resulting in a very low response rate for this firm.

Surveys were distributed to participants at two intervals. The distribution of the time 1 survey and time 2 surveys were separated by a minimum of six weeks and maximum of eight weeks. The timing of the surveys was based on availability and suitable timing at each of the individual firms. The surveys were sent by an internal staff person within the firm (HR Director, Chief EDI Officer, Chief Professional Resources Officer, etc.) and kept open for a period of approximately two weeks. The internal staff member sent a reminder email approximately 3 days before the closing date of each survey.

Participants were informed that the firm was helping to distribute a survey for a research project completed by Sheryl Chummar, PhD Candidate at York University, and that study was about “Workplace Experiences in Canadian Law Firms.” No incentive was provided to participate. The data collection was separated into two intervals to impose temporal separation and mitigate issues with common method bias (Jordan & Troth, 2020; Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, all variables were collected at both intervals as a precaution in case there were issues

with matched data and attrition. Collecting all variables at both intervals optimized response rate and sample size for analysis. This research and its protocol were approved by the Office of Research Ethics at York University (see Appendix A).

At Time 1, 221 respondents provided consent to participate in the research project; however, 26 participants responded to none or very few items of the survey, resulting in a total of 195 responses at Time 1. At Time 2, 157 respondents provided consent to participate; however, 7 responded to none or very few items of the survey, resulting in a total of 150 responses at Time 2. Analyzing the data for unique responses from both Time 1 and Time 2 surveys (in other words, respondents who chose to respond only to one or the other) yielded a sample of 286 participants in total. According to data provided by each firm on the total number of associates (605), this resulted in a 47.2 percent response rate. In the following sections, I refer to this dataset as the “cross-sectional” dataset. Matching Time 1 and Time 2 responses yielded a sample of 55 participants in total (9% response rate). In the following sections, I refer to this dataset as the “matched data” dataset.

An analysis of missing data showed no variables missing greater than 1.7 percent missing data, so no variables were deleted and all respondents, including those with missing data, were left in the sample with the intention of using pairwise deletion, or in the case of the SPSS PROCESS macro, listwise deletion, during analysis. The final sample in the cross-sectional analysis consisted of 286 participants. Nearly 60 percent of the sample identified as female (57.3%), just over 40 percent identified as male (41.6%), and 2 participants identified as non-binary (0.7%). The majority of participants were within the 25- 34-year-old age grouping. Nearly 75 percent of respondents identified as White (74.1%) and nearly 25 percent identified as racialized, multiracial or ‘other.’ Regarding tenure, most participants had been employed with

their current firm for more than 2 but less than 5 years (39.9%), 26.9 percent had been employed with their current firm for more than 1 but less than 2 years, 14.3 percent had been employed with their current firm for less than one year, and 3 respondents (1.0%) reported having been employed for more than 10 years at their current firm.

After providing consent, participants were presented with a questionnaire consisting of the measures listed in the following section along with a series of demographic variables. This study draws on multiple variables that are measured via self-report; however, such measures as belonging are appropriately measured via self-report because employees are in the best position to evaluate the extent to which they genuinely feel they belong in the organization. Furthermore, a measure of discrimination is best collected via self-report because others may not be fully aware of the full range of discriminatory incidents experienced by targets themselves. Nevertheless, procedural and statistical remedies were used to reduce concerns of common method variance.

First, the questionnaire was addressed *a priori* and included numerous remedies such as: providing clear and concise instructions as well as providing information about how the data will be used. This has been shown to improve probability of response accuracy by participants (Jordan & Troth, 2020)). In addition, re-ordering measures in the Time 1 and Time 2 surveys, integrating multiple scale anchors—using both 7- and 5-point Likert-type scales and altering the anchors from (for instance) ‘strongly agree to strongly disagree’ and ‘not at all to completely,’ and including reverse-coded items help to control order effects associated with common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012). Moreover, the items for each measure were reviewed for common properties and one item was removed from the measure of belonging that showed conceptual similarity to an item within the organizational justice measure.

In addition, because all the study variables come from the same source, Harman single factor method was used to test for the possibility of a common method variance existing between the constructs (Podsakoff et al., 2003). After un-rotated exploratory factor analysis for all items of the study variables, the cumulative percent of variance explained by the first principal component was 31.9 percent. The variance explained by this factor did not exceed 50 percent, therefore I concluded that I had taken reasonable procedural steps necessary to reduce the potential impact of common method variance in this study.

Measures

Perceived Racial/Ethnic Discrimination. This variable was measured using the 16-item Workplace Prejudice Discrimination Inventory (WPDI). This scale is conceptually grounded in social identity theory and was developed and validated by James et al. (1994) and had good reliability ($\alpha = .93$) in previous studies. Participants indicate their level of agreement with each item using a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from (1) completely disagree to (7) completely agree. A sample item is: “There is discrimination where I work” and a sample reverse-scored item is: “Telling racial or ethnic jokes is not common where I work.” The Cronbach’s alpha for this study was .91.

Need to Belong. This variable was measured using the Need to Belong scale as validated by Leary et al. (2013). Sample items from the scale include “If other people don’t accept me, I don’t let it bother me” and “I seldom worry about whether other people care about me [reverse coded].” Respondents indicated the degree to which each statement was a true characteristic of them on a 5-point Likert type scale 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely). In designing this scale, Leary et al., (2013) found that the need to belong correlated with, but was distinct from, variables that involve a desire for social contact, such as extraversion and affiliation motivation. They also

found that need to belong scores were not related to insecure attachment or unfulfilled needs for acceptance. A test-retest reliability analysis by Leary et al., (2013) revealed good reliability ($\alpha = .87$). The Cronbach's alpha for this study was .82.

Organizational Justice. This study used three items of a 6-item measure of perceived overall justice (POJ) developed by Ambrose and Schminke (2009). Since I did not theorize differences in the dimensions of organizational justice, a global assessment of organizational justice was deemed most appropriate. The shortened 3-item scale has been used frequently by authors (see, for example a study of overall justice judgements and organizational change by Soenen et al. (2017), in *Academy of Management Journal* with good reliability ($\alpha = .93$). Soenen et al., (2017) cite Ambrose and Schminke's (2009) assertion that the shortened scale has acceptable reliability and performs equally well compared to the 6-item scale. Agreement with each statement was rated on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. The statements were modified slightly for the law firm context. A sample item from the scale is: "Overall, I am treated fairly by my organization (firm)." The Cronbach's alpha for this study was .94.

Belonging. For this study, participants' sense of belonging was measured by a 12-item scale used by Pietri et al., (2019). The scale items were modified slightly for the law firm context and one item was removed in advance of data collection ("I am treated fairly by colleagues at this firm") to mitigate common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012). This scale, as used by Pietri et al., (2019) was created using items from the belonging measures employed by Walton and Cohen (2007) and Good et al., (2012), as well as the scale used in Purdie-Vaughns et al., (2008). The scale items reflect the context in which these measures were initially used (i.e., to study the effects of gender bias on belonging in a fictitious company). As such, the term

“company” was replaced with “firm.” A sample item is: “People in (this firm) the company like me.” This scale was chosen instead of the aforementioned workplace belongingness scale by Jena and Pradhan (2018) because I felt it most comprehensively reflected the dimensions associated with belonging that are of interest in my study and had good reliability in previous studies ($\alpha = .92$) Participants were instructed to indicate their agreement with a series of statements. Eleven items were assessed on a 5-point Likert type scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha for this study was .90.

Career Aspirations. Career aspirations were measured using a 7-item scale comprised of three subscales, including two three-item scales from a study of female law associates and the glass ceiling by Foley et al., (2002), but were originally adapted from Greenhaus et al. (1997). The first subscale measures Career Advancement Expectations and includes sample items such as “I think I will eventually become partner in this organization” and “I would be surprised if I made partner in this organization [R]” ($\alpha = .86$). The second subscale measures Career Advancement Aspirations and includes sample items such as “I would eventually want to become partner in this firm” and “I would do whatever it took to become partner in this firm.” Reliability for the six-item scale in the Foley et al., (2002) study was good ($\alpha = .88$). An additional item measuring career leadership aspirations was used to capture whether participants aspired to an elite leadership role within the firm. The item is: “To what extent do you want to eventually attain a high-ranking leadership role, such as being Managing Partner or Firm Chair, within this firm?” This measure is based on Sheppard’s (2018) paper on gender differences in leadership aspirations among undergraduate students and is rated on a 5-point scale that ranged from (1) not at all to 5 (completely). Being a single item measure, no reliability was previously

reported for this measure. The Cronbach's alpha for the seven-item scale of career aspirations in this study was .91.

Turnover Intentions. Turnover intent was measured in this study using two items based on an established measure of turnover intention by Hom & Griffeth (1991). This measure is used often in organizational research and the two-item scale has been shown to have satisfactory reliability with Cronbach's alphas in the .82-.88 range (Addai et al., 2018; Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009). The two items include: "I often think about quitting this firm" and "I intend to search for a position with another employer within the next 12 months." Participants were asked to indicate their agreement with the statements on a scale of (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The correlation of the two turnover intention items in this study was: $r=.80$.

Controls. In this study, I controlled for gender and race/ethnicity because prior research demonstrates that these demographic variables have been linked to differences in feelings of belonging (Rainey et al., 2018; Barth et al., 2022). Race/ ethnicity information was collected using guidance from the Public Health Ontario resource, "Collecting Information on Ethnic Origin, Race, Income, Household Size, and Language Data: A Resource for Data Collectors" (Public Health Ontario, 2021) and McMaster University's guidelines for collecting demographic information (Guidance on Demographic Questions, n.d.). Consideration was given to the research questions and whether and how information on race/ethnicity should be collected. Accordingly, race/ethnicity was collected using the following response options: Black, East Asian, First Nations/Indigenous, Hispanic/ Latinx, Middle Eastern, South Asian, Southeast Asian, White, Other (please specify). However, due to small numbers of respondents in each racial/ethnic category, the responses for this study were aggregated into one grouping labelled "racialized." Although combining groups can, indeed, mask important variation within the data

(Schwabish & Feng, 2021), aggregating groups of data to increase numbers is suggested if such an aggregation is meaningful and appropriate in the circumstance (Stanbrook & Salami, 2023).

I also included organizational tenure as a control variable based on theorizing that the length of time spent at an organization may affect feelings of belonging, as well as previous empirical work demonstrating the effects of organizational tenure on other employee attitudes and behaviours (Steffens et al., 2014; Wright & Bonett, 2002; Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). Two sets of analyses were conducted, one with controls, and the other without controls. The results remained consistent across all analyses; therefore, the inclusion of controls did not alter the findings (Becker, 2005). The results presented below include the analyses with the control variables. In some supplemental analyses found below, I include race/ethnicity as a moderator. For those analyses where race/ethnicity is not included as a moderator, it is included as a control. See Appendix B for the complete list of Study 1 questionnaire items.

Analytical Strategy

Given the greater number and response rate of cross-sectional responses versus the matched data responses, I decided to first proceed with analyzing the cross-sectional data for the study 1 hypotheses. Following the cross-sectional analyses, I also analyzed each hypothesis using the matched data. This additional comparison of results using the cross-sectional and matched data serves to strengthen any conclusions made about the hypotheses. The results of the cross-sectional data are presented first, in this section. The matched data analyses are presented in the following section.

For the study 1 hypotheses, I carried out a variety of tests to determine the strength and significance of relationships within the model shown in Figure 1. For the first hypothesis of study 1 (H1), I used linear regression to determine if there was a significant relationship between

perceived workplace racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging. The mediating role of organizational justice in this relationship (H2) was tested using Hayes' PROCESS macro ('model 4'). I used regression analyses to examine the relationship between belonging and two outcome variables: career aspirations (H3) and turnover intentions (H4). Sequential mediation analyses using Hayes' PROCESS macro ('model 6') was utilized to examine the sequentially mediating roles of organizational justice and belonging in the relationships between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and the two outcomes (H5 and H6). In line with much of the extant literature, the mediation analyses drew on 5,000 bootstrapped samples (e.g. Mawritz et al., 2012), which obtain confidence intervals based on a predetermined set of bootstrapped samples to determine significance of the indirect meditational effect of belonging. According to researchers, this approach offers several advantages over conventional procedures described by Baron and Kenny (1986) to test for mediation (O'Reilly et al., 2015; Preacher & Hayes, 2004). The SPSS PROCESS macro is widely adopted in organizational research for its methodological rigor and versatility in examining complex relationships within data. The SPSS PROCESS Macro Version 4.2, which is the version I used, utilizes percentile bootstrapping confidence intervals as the default, as opposed to bias-corrected or studentized bootstrapping (Hayes, 2023). After reviewing the data for Study 1 (both the cross-sectional and matched data, and later in Study 2) in terms of sample size, normality of data, scale reliability, missing data, and variable type, SPSS PROCESS was deemed an appropriate choice for analysis. A key advantage of PROCESS is its ability to provide robust statistical tests for mediation, moderation, and conditional process models, allowing researchers to explore nuanced hypotheses related to the underlying mechanisms and boundary conditions of effects (Hayes et al., 2017). Using PROCESS allowed me a comprehensive suite of analyses, including the estimation of direct and

indirect effects, bootstrapping for confidence intervals, and probing interactions, which provided me a thorough understanding of the relationships under investigation. Moreover, because of the variety of moderation and mediation analyses I was investigating (simple mediation, moderated mediation, sequential mediation, moderated sequential mediation, moderated moderation, etc.), SPSS PROCESS is an appropriate choice because it is designed to handle various moderation and mediation scenarios, accommodating both simple and sequential mediation models (Hayes, 2017), and each of the hypotheses fit within one of the available pre-programmed models, which meant I did not require a unique model specification in path analysis or structural equation modeling. In addition, since the relationships I tested relied on observed variables (i.e. the summed or average scores of measures), SPSS PROCESS with ordinary least squares regression could be used (Hayes et al., 2017). Finally, a hierarchical regression was run to test the moderating effect of need to belong on the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging while also controlling for the effects of gender and organizational tenure (H7).

To add to the robustness of the results and to further address the research question of how perceived racial/ethnic discrimination affects feelings of belonging work, the moderating effect of race/ethnicity was introduced into the analyses for some of the study 1 hypotheses, where appropriate. The decision to leverage the dataset containing responses from a diverse range of individuals enabled a more comprehensive understanding of how perceived racial/ethnic discrimination influences feelings of belonging at work across different demographic groups. Building on cues from existing literature that suggests variations in the mediating effects of belonging based on demographic identity (Hentschel et al., 2021; Walton & Cohen, 2007), I utilized Hayes' PROCESS macro for moderation with a single moderator (H1) ('model 1'),

moderated mediation (H2) ('model 7') and moderated sequential mediation (H5 and H6) ('model 84').

Results- Study 1

Cross- sectional data analysis

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations for Study 1 variables. The correlation analyses showed that perceived workplace racial/ethnic discrimination was significantly negatively correlated with organizational justice ($r = -.42, p < .001$), belonging ($r = -.49, p < .001$), and career aspirations ($r = -.21, p < .001$), while it was significantly positively correlated with turnover intentions ($r = .37, p < .001$). Belonging was significantly positively correlated with organizational justice ($r = .67, p < .001$) and career aspirations ($r = .52, p < .001$), while it was significantly negatively correlated with turnover intentions ($r = -.59, p < .001$). Turnover intentions and career aspirations were significantly negatively correlated with each other ($r = -.55, p < .001$). Race/ethnicity was only significantly correlated with perceived discrimination ($r = -.14, p < .05$), while gender was significantly correlated with perceived discrimination ($r = .24, p < .001$) and career aspirations ($r = -.14, p < .05$). Organizational tenure was significantly positively correlated with perceived discrimination ($r = .15, p < .05$) and turnover ($r = .15, p < .001$). A review of the correlations revealed approximate strength and directions as expected. In addition to computing means for all study variables, as shown in Table 1, means were also calculated and compared by gender and race/ethnicity. For racialized associates, mean scores for perceived discrimination and turnover were higher than mean scores for White associates. In addition, mean scores for belonging, organizational justice and career aspirations were lower for racialized associates. For female associates, mean scores for perceived discrimination and turnover were higher than male associates, and mean scores for belonging,

organizational justice and career aspirations were lower. Means and standard deviations by gender and race/ethnicity are presented in Table 2.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations of Study 1 Variables

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|-----------------------------|---------|-------|--------|-------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-------|
| 1. Perceived Discrimination | (.91) | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Race/Ethnicity | .137* | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Gender | .239** | -.027 | | | | | | | |
| 4. Org Tenure | .146* | -.102 | .018 | | | | | | |
| 5. Need to belong | .086 | .018 | .281** | .101 | (.82) | | | | |
| 6. Org Justice | -.417** | -.100 | -.101 | -.070 | -.173** | (.94) | | | |
| 7. Belonging | -.486** | -.115 | -.080 | -.068 | -.210** | .665** | (.90) | | |
| 8. Career Aspirations | -.207** | -.022 | -.142* | -.074 | -.172** | .341** | .523** | (.91) | |
| 9. Turnover Intent | .369** | .035 | .055 | .148* | .193** | -.499** | -.594** | -.551** | (.80) |
| <i>M</i> | 2.78 | ---- | ---- | ---- | 3.45 | 5.47 | 3.64 | 3.24 | 2.41 |
| <i>SD</i> | .985 | ---- | ---- | ---- | .58 | 1.17 | .611 | .878 | 1.10 |

Note. Study 1. N = 286. Entries on the main diagonal are Cronbach's alpha, where appropriate, except for 'Turn' which is a reported correlation between the 2- items in the measure; Gender was coded as: male (1), female (2); Race/ethnicity was coded as: white (1), racialized (2). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Study 1 Variables by Gender and Race/Ethnicity

| Variable | Male (SD) | Female (SD) | White (SD) | Racialized (SD) |
|--------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|
| Perceived Discrimination | 2.51 (.84) | 2.98 (1.03) | 2.71 (.89) | 3.02 (1.19) |
| Organizational Justice | 5.60 (1.03) | 5.36 (1.26) | 5.54 (1.07) | 5.27 (1.42) |
| Belonging | 3.70 (.60) | 3.60 (.62) | 3.68 (.58) | 3.52 (.70) |
| Turnover Intentions | 2.34 (1.11) | 2.47 (1.08) | 2.39 (1.07) | 2.48 (1.19) |
| Career Aspirations | 3.38 (.91) | 3.13 (.85) | 3.25 (.89) | 3.20 (.86) |

Note. N = 283. Study 1 variables. 3 cases were removed by default setting from listwise deletion in SPSS because of either missing gender or race data.

To test for non-independence of data for each of the primary outcome variables in Study 1, the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC1) was calculated using the Multilevel Package v.2.7 (Bliese, 2022). The ICC1 assesses how much of the variability in the outcome variable can be attributed to between group effects. The ICC1 for turnover intentions is 0.028 and for career aspirations it is 0.035, which means that 97.2 percent of the variability in turnover intentions lies within groups, and 2.8 percent lies between groups, and that 96.5 percent of the variability in career aspirations lies within groups. According to Vajargah and Masoomwhnikbakht (2015), the differences in Loglikelihood and the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) are very minor between multilevel models and ordinary least squares regression models with ICC1 values of less than 0.10. Therefore I concluded that the grouping of the subjects into 8 organizations was not an issue that required a multilevel perspective to control for any potential lack of independence of observations, as the between groups variability is so small.

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 stated that perceived racial/ethnic discrimination is related to belonging such that higher levels of perceived racial/ethnic discrimination will predict lower levels of belonging. A scatterplot of discrimination against belonging was plotted in SPSS. Visual inspection of the scatterplot indicated a (negative) linear relationship. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.121. There were four outliers as determined by having standard residuals greater than 3 standard deviations, however, I performed the test both with and without the outliers and there was no change in significance and very little change in the standardized beta coefficients and adjusted r squared, so I did not remove the outliers. There was homoscedasticity, as assessed by visual inspection of a plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values. Residuals were approximately

normally distributed as assessed by visual inspection of a histogram and normal probability plot. A linear regression established that perceived racial/ethnic discrimination negatively significantly predicted belonging, ($\beta = -.486$, $F(1, 284) = 87.71$, $p < .001$) and perceived racial/ethnic discrimination accounted for 23.3 percent of the variation in belonging, a moderate effect size according to Cohen (1988).

The same relationship was then tested using a hierarchical regression to include gender, race/ethnicity, and organizational tenure as control variables. The control variables were entered in step one, followed by the predictor variable (perceived discrimination) in the second step. The full model including all the controls was statistically significant, $R^2 = .272$, $F(7, 275) = 14.696$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .254$, and the model was not significant until the addition of the predictor variable (discrimination). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported. According to the results, for every 1-unit increase in perceived racial/ethnic discrimination, there is a -.314 reduction in belonging ($b = -.314$, $p < .001$). The additional variance explained by perceived racial/ethnic discrimination was 22.4%. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.166. There was linearity as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against the predicted values. There was homoscedasticity as assessed by visual inspection of a scatterplot. There was no evidence of multicollinearity as assessed by tolerance values no less than .818 (which is greater than .2), and VIF values no larger than 1.222 (smaller than 10). There were two outliers with residuals outside of 3 standard deviations (-3.157 and -3.251), but removal of the outliers did not have a noticeable impact on the results, and the maximum Cook's distance was within an acceptable range (less than 0.50), so the outliers were not removed. Table 3 presents the results of the hierarchical regression test for Hypothesis 1.

Table 3

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Predicting Belonging from Perceived Discrimination (Controlling for Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Tenure) (Hypothesis 1)

| Belonging | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| Variable | Coeff. (SE) Model 1 | Coeff. (SE) Model 2 |
| Gender | -.098 (.07) | .017 (.07) |
| Race/Ethnicity | -.122* (.08) | -.044 (.08) |
| Organizational tenure | | |
| - Less than one year | .158* (.11) | .085 (.10) |
| - One to two years | .102 (.09) | .089 (.08) |
| - Five to ten years | .101 (.11) | .149* (.09) |
| - More than ten years | .001 (.36) | -.036 (.31) |
| Racial/Ethnic discrimination | ---- | -.503** (.03) |

Notes. Study 1. N = 281. Two tailed test, standardized beta coefficients reported. Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Organizational tenure (dummy coded with 'Two to Five years' as reference group); Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized).** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

To further address the research question of how perceived racial/ethnic discrimination is related to belonging, the effect of race/ethnicity was introduced as a moderator variable into the relationship between the predictor and outcome variable, while also controlling for the effects of gender and organizational tenure. Moderation analysis was conducted using SPSS PROCESS macro model 1 (Hayes, 2017). There was independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.873; the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were also satisfied as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against unstandardized predicted values. Testing for multicollinearity showed acceptable tolerance and VIF values, except for the interaction term and its original variables. There were two outliers, but the outliers were not removed as analysis with and without the outlier showed no meaningful difference. Normality of residuals was satisfied through inspection of a histogram. The interaction between discrimination and race/ethnicity was not significant ($b = -.11$, $SE = .07$, $t = -1.62$ $p = .11$), indicating that the

relationship between perceived discrimination and belonging is not moderated by race/ethnicity. In other words, the effect of perceived discrimination on belonging is similar for both groups.

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 stated that perceptions of organizational justice mediate the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging. A test of assumptions revealed independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin- Watson statistic of 2.014 for the model. Multicollinearity was assessed with Tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) statistics within acceptable levels (tolerance no less than .811 and VIF no greater than 1.336). Residuals were approximately normally distributed as assessed by a visual inspection of a histogram and normal probability plot, and homoscedasticity was assessed as acceptable through visual inspection of a plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values. Simple mediation analysis was completed using Hayes PROCESS macro ‘model 4’ in SPSS. Following Hayes’ (2017) Macro PROCESS via bootstrapping method, we consider a mediator has a meditational effect once assumptions for linear regression are met, and also when (1) the indirect effect (IE) of racial/ethnic representation on job application intentions via belonging (i.e., $IE = \text{path } a \times \text{path } b$; a = the effect of racial/ethnic representation on the mediator of belonging, b = the effect of belonging on job application intentions) and (2) the 95 percent CI around the IE from 5000 bootstrapped samples does not include zero.

To test the mediating effect of organizational justice, I entered perceived racial/ethnic discrimination as the independent variable, organizational justice as the mediator, and belonging as the dependent variable, along with gender, race/ethnicity, and organizational tenure as covariates/controls. Bootstrapping with 5000 samples was employed, and the confidence interval at 95 percent was considered for significance (Williams & MacKinnon, 2008). Bootstrapping procedures allow for re-sampling that is recommended for mediation analysis purposes (Hayes,

2018). The results showed that ‘path a’ (i.e. discrimination to organizational justice) ($\beta = -.410$, $p < .001$) and ‘path b’ (i.e. organizational justice to belonging) ($\beta = .550$, $p < .001$) were both significant, as well as path c (i.e. discrimination to belonging, or the total effect) ($\beta = -.503$, $p < .001$). When organizational justice entered the relationship between discrimination and belonging, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero (95% CI[-.20, -.09]), but the direct effect of perceived discrimination on belonging was also significant (95% CI[-.31, -.15]) indicating a partial mediation. Therefore, organizational justice partially mediates the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is supported. Table 4 presents the mediation results for Hypothesis 2.

Table 4

Hayes PROCESS Macro Test of Mediating Effect of Organizational Justice in the Relationship between Perceived Racial/Ethnic Discrimination and Belonging (Hypothesis 2)

| Variables | Org. Justice (M) | Belonging (Y) |
|--|----------------------|---------------|
| Predictor | Coeff. (SE) | Coeff. (SE) |
| Control Variables | | |
| - Gender | -.017 (.13) | .027 (.05) |
| - Race/ethnicity | -.044 (.15) | -.019 (.06) |
| - Org. tenure | | |
| o <1 year | .083 (.20) | .039 (.08) |
| o 1 to 2 yrs | .076 (.16) | .048 (.06) |
| o 5 to 10 yrs | .107 (.19) | .090 (.08) |
| o >10 yrs | .007 (.63) | -.040 (.25) |
| Independent Variable | | |
| - Discrimination | -.410** (.31) | -.278** (.03) |
| Mediator | | |
| - Organizational Justice | --- | .550** (.02) |
| R ² | .19 | .52 |
| F- value | 9.12 | 36.31 |
| Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects | | |
| Direct and total effects | Unstandardized Coef. | SE |
| Discrimination on org justice (path a) | -.489** | .07 |

Table 4 (continued).

| | | |
|--|---------|-----|
| Organizational justice on belonging (path <i>b</i>) | .288** | .02 |
| Total effect of discrimination on belonging (path <i>c</i>) | -.314** | .03 |
| Direct effect of discrimination on belonging (path <i>c</i> ') | -.174** | .03 |

Bootstrapping results for the indirect effect

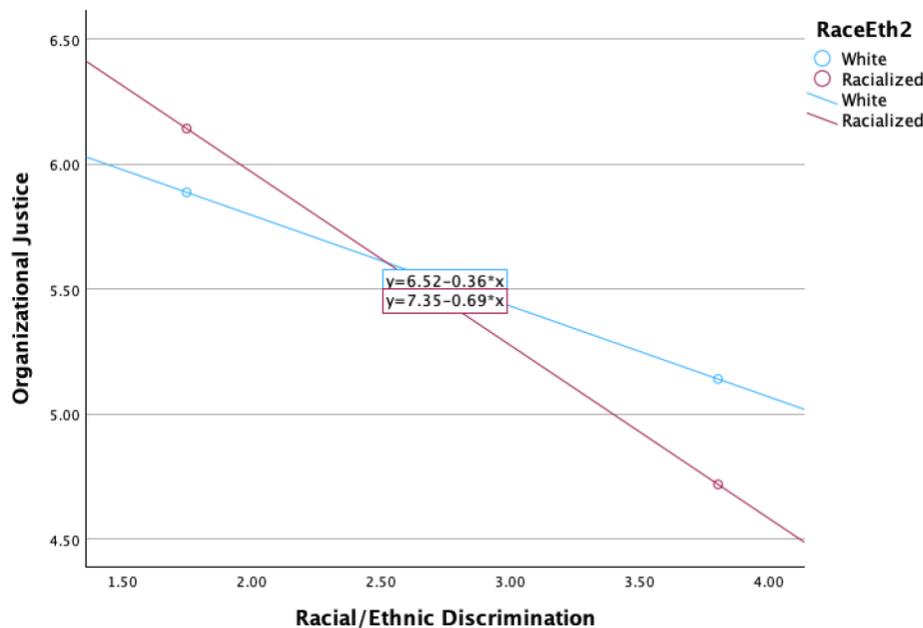
| | | |
|---|------------------|-----|
| Indirect effect of discrimination on belonging via organizational justice | -.140 | .03 |
| CI (95%) | [-.1957, -.0898] | |

Notes. Study 1. N = 281; Standardized beta coefficients reported except where noted; standard errors are in parentheses. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI= confidence interval. Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Organizational tenure (dummy coded with 'Two to five years' as reference group). Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized). ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

To augment the analysis for Hypothesis 2 and to further address the research question of how organizational justice mediates the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging, the effect of race/ethnicity was introduced as a moderator variable into the model, while also controlling for the effects of gender and organizational tenure. Moderated mediation analysis was conducted using SPSS's PROCESS macro model 7 (Hayes, 2017). First, perceived racial/ethnic discrimination (as independent variable) and organizational justice (as mediator) were entered along with belonging (as dependent variable), along with gender and organizational tenure as covariates/controls. Race/ethnicity was included as a moderator variable. The results showed that the moderated mediation model is significant as the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the index of moderated mediation excluded zero (95% CI[-.18, -.004]). Thus, I concluded that the indirect effect is moderated by race/ethnicity. In addition, the results show that path a (i.e. discrimination and organizational justice) is significantly moderated by race/ethnicity ($b = -.33$, $SE = .14$, $p = .02$). A review of the conditional effects of the focal predictor for each group shows that the conditional effects were significant for both White associates ($b = -.36$, $SE = .09$, $p < .001$), and racialized associates ($b = -.69$, $SE = .11$, $p < .001$). Results show the b path (i.e. organizational

justice to belonging) is also significant ($b = .29$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$). When organizational justice entered the relationship between perceived discrimination and belonging, the direct effect of racial/ethnic representation on job application intentions was significant ($b = -.18$, $p < .001$). For the indirect effect, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval excluded zero for both White associates (95% CI[-.16, -.05]) and racialized associates (95% CI[-.28, -.11]). Hence, the mediation effects of organizational justice partially mediate the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging for both White and racialized associates. However, a review of the graph below shows the impact of perceived discrimination on justice is *stronger* for racialized associates. Figure 2 shows a graphical depiction of the relationships for each group (White and racialized). The stronger, negative relationship is reflected in the steeper line for racialized associates.

Figure 2



Notes. Study 1. Hypothesis 2- additional moderation analysis.

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 stated that belonging is related to career aspirations, such that higher levels of belonging will predict higher levels of career aspirations. This relationship was

tested using hierarchical regression to include gender, race/ethnicity, and organizational tenure as control variables. In step 1 the control variables were entered, followed by the predictor variable (belonging) in the second step. The full model including all the controls was statistically significant, $R^2 = .332$, $F(7, 273) = 19.344$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .314$, demonstrating that 31.4% of the variance in career aspirations is explained by this model. Results indicated that belonging is significantly positively related to career aspirations ($\beta = .51$, $p < .001$), such that higher belonging scores are related to greater career aspirations. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is supported. The additional variance explained by adding belonging into the model (beyond the controls) was 24.8%. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.03. There was linearity as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against the predicted values. There was homoscedasticity as assessed by visual inspection of a scatterplot. There was no evidence of multicollinearity as assessed by tolerance values no less than .819, and VIF values no larger than 1.233. There were two outliers with residuals outside of 3 standard deviations (-3.154 and -3.149), but removal of the outliers did not have a noticeable impact on the results, and the maximum Cook's distance was within an acceptable range (.116), so the outliers were not removed. Table 5 presents the results of the hierarchical regression test for Hypothesis 3.

Table 5

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Predicting Career Aspirations from Belonging (Controlling for Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Tenure) (Hypothesis 3)

| Variable | Career Aspirations | |
|----------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| | Coeff. (SE) Model 1 | Coeff. (SE) Model 2 |
| Gender | -.163* (.10) | -.113* (.09) |
| Race/Ethnicity | -.041 (.12) | .022 (.10) |

Table 5 (continued).

| | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|---------------|
| Organizational tenure | | |
| - Less than one year | .080 (.16) | .000 (.14) |
| - One to two years | .139* (.13) | .087 (.11) |
| - Five to ten years | .112 (.15) | .061 (.13) |
| - More than ten years | -.180* (.50) | -.181** (.43) |
| Belonging | ---- | .511** (.07) |
| R ² (adj.R ²) | .03 (.063) | .332 (.314) |
| F- value | 4.14** | 19.34** |

Notes. Study 2.

N = 281. Two tailed test, standardized beta coefficients reported. Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female).

Organizational tenure (dummy coded with 'Two to Five years' as reference group); Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized).** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 stated that belonging is related to turnover intentions, such that higher levels of belonging will predict lower levels of turnover intentions. This hypothesis was tested using hierarchical regression to include gender, race/ethnicity, and organizational tenure as control variables. As above, the control variables were entered in step one, followed by the predictor variable (belonging) in the second step. The full model including all the controls was statistically significant, $R^2 = .412$, $F(7, 273) = 27.305$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .397$. Results indicated that belonging is significantly negatively related to turnover intentions ($\beta = -.602$, $p < .001$), such that higher belonging scores are related to decreased turnover intentions. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is supported. The additional variance explained by belonging (beyond the controls) was 34.6%. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.16. There was linearity as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against the predicted values. There was homoscedasticity as assessed by visual inspection of a scatterplot. There was no evidence of multicollinearity as assessed by tolerance values no less than .811, and VIF values no larger than 1.233. There were three outliers with residuals outside of 3 standard deviations (3.531, 3.189, and 3.282) but removal of the outliers did not have a noticeable impact on the results, and the maximum Cook's distance was within an acceptable range (.061), so the

outliers were not removed. Table 6 presents the results of the hierarchical regression test for Hypothesis 4.

Table 6

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Predicting Turnover Intentions from Belonging (Controlling for Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Tenure) (Hypothesis 4)

| Variable | Turnover Intentions | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| | Coeff. (SE) Model 1 | Coeff. (SE) Model 2 |
| Gender | .064 (.13) | .005 (.10) |
| Race/Ethnicity | .046 (.15) | -.027 (.12) |
| Organizational tenure | | |
| - Less than one year | -.205* (.20) | -.110 (.16) |
| - One to two years | -.171* (.16) | -.109* (.13) |
| - Five to ten years | -.042 (.19) | .019 (.15) |
| - More than ten years | -.139* (.63) | -.138* (.50) |
| Belonging | ---- | -.602** (.09) |

Table 6 (continued).

| | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| R ² (adj.R ²) | .066 (.046) | .412 (.397) |
| F- value | 3.24* | 27.31** |

Notes. Study 2.

N = 281. Two tailed test, standardized beta coefficients reported. Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female).

Organizational tenure (dummy coded with 'Two to Five years' as reference group); Race/ethnicity (coded as 1 = white; 2 = racialized). ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Hypothesis 5. Hypothesis 5 stated that organizational justice and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and career aspirations. Mediation analysis using SPSS PROCESS was performed to estimate the effects within the hypothesized sequential mediation model. Based on mediation analysis assumptions (Hayes, 2018), a sequential mediation model was tested ('model 6') in which two mediators were defined to examine the associations among the variables of interest. Specifically, the predictor variable (i.e. perceived racial/ethnic discrimination), the outcome variable (career aspirations), and two

serial mediators (i.e., organizational justice and belonging) were entered in the mediation model for analysis. Variables were inserted into the model in their position (i.e. organizational justice preceding belonging) according to the theoretical framework presented earlier in the paper. Gender, race/ethnicity, and tenure were included as covariates/controls. Bootstrapping with 5000 samples was employed, and the confidence interval at 95 percent was again considered for significance.

Figure 3 shows the results from the sequential mediation model under analysis. The sequential indirect path from perceived racial/ethnic discrimination → organizational justice → belonging → career aspirations displayed a negative and significant effect ($\beta = -.11$; 95% CI[-.16, -.06]), the total indirect effect was negative and significant ($\beta = -.26$; 95% CI[-.35, -.18]), and the total effect was also negative and significant ($\beta = -.20$; 95% CI[-.30, -.08]). Therefore Hypothesis 5 is supported. The effect of perceived discrimination on justice was negative and significant ($\beta = -.36$; $p < .001$; 95% CI[-.57, -.29]), the effect of organizational justice on belonging was positive and significant ($\beta = .30$, $p < .001$), the effect of belonging on career aspirations was also positive and significant ($\beta = .79$, $p < .001$). The indirect effect of organizational justice in the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and career aspirations was not significant ($\beta = -.01$, 95% CI[-.06, .04]), while the indirect effect of belonging in the relationship between perceived discrimination and career aspirations was significant ($\beta = -.1445$, 95% CI[-.22, -.08]). Since the total indirect effect was significant ($\beta = -.26$, 95% CI[-.35, -.18]), and greater than the direct effect ($\beta = .06$, 95% CI[-.06, .17]), which was not significant, we can assume that the proposed model presented a full mediation effect.

Figure 3

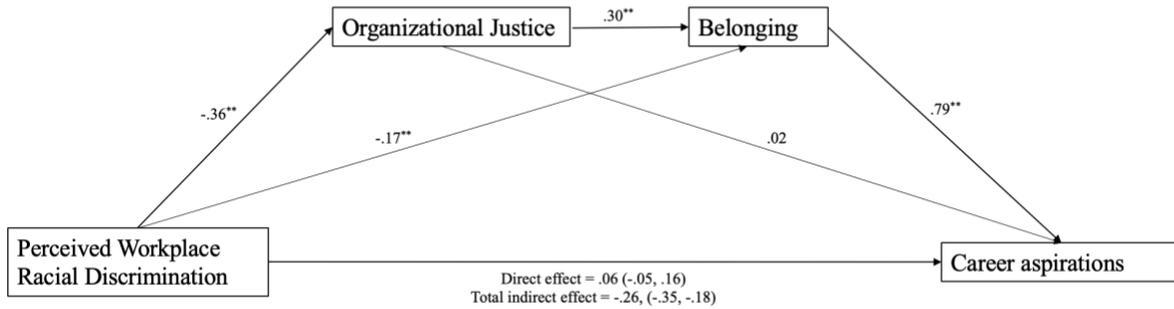


Figure 3. Hypothesis 5- Sequential mediation model.

Note. All coefficients are standardized betas, p values reported where available; otherwise, in brackets = confidence interval at 95%; direct effect = perceived workplace racial/ethnic discrimination \rightarrow career aspirations (in the presence of mediators). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$. $N = 278$.

To augment the analysis for Hypothesis 5 and to further address the research question of how organizational justice and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and career aspirations, the effect of race/ethnicity was introduced as a moderator variable into the model, while also controlling for the effects of gender and organizational tenure. Moderated sequential mediation analysis was conducted using SPSS's PROCESS macro model 84 (Hayes, 2017), which tests the interaction effect of the moderator for the paths between X and M^1 (i.e. perceived discrimination and organizational justice) and X and M^2 (i.e. discrimination and belonging).

To perform this analysis, I first entered perceived racial/ethnic discrimination as the independent variable, organizational justice and belonging were entered as sequential mediators in the order in which they were theorized above, and career aspirations were entered as the dependent variable, along with gender and organizational tenure as covariates/controls. Race/ethnicity was included as a moderator variable. The results showed that the full moderated sequential mediation model (perceived discrimination \rightarrow organizational justice \rightarrow belonging \rightarrow career aspirations) is significant as the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence

interval excluded zero for the (95% CI[-.14, -.002]). Specifically, the relationship between perceived discrimination and organizational justice is significantly moderated by race/ethnicity ($b = -.33, SE = .14, p = .02$). This reflects similar results found in the additional moderation analysis presented in hypothesis 2 (See figure 2). However, results show the relationship between perceived discrimination and belonging is not significantly moderated by race/ethnicity ($b = -.02, SE = .06, p = .78$). This mirrors the moderation results from hypothesis 1. The results also show that the moderated mediation is also not significant for the model represented by perceived discrimination \rightarrow organizational justice \rightarrow career aspirations (95% CI[-.04, .04], but only significant for the sequential mediation model.

Hypothesis 6. Hypothesis 6 stated that organizational justice and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and turnover intentions. Again, mediation analysis using SPSS PROCESS was performed to estimate the effects within the hypothesized sequential mediation model. Based on mediation analysis assumptions (Hayes, 2018), a sequential mediation model was tested ('model 6') in which two mediators were defined to examine the associations among the variables of interest. Specifically, the predictor variable (i.e. perceived racial/ethnic discrimination), the outcome variable (turnover intentions), and two serial mediators (i.e., organizational justice and belonging) were entered in the mediation model for analysis. Like above, variables were inserted into the model in their position (i.e. organizational justice preceding belonging) according to the theoretical framework presented earlier in the paper. Gender, race/ethnicity, and tenure were included as covariates/controls. Bootstrapping with 5000 samples was employed, and the confidence interval at 95% was again considered for significance.

Figure 4 shows the results from the sequential mediation model. The sequential indirect path from perceived racial/ethnic discrimination → organizational justice → belonging → turnover intentions displayed a positive and significant effect ($\beta = .11$; 95% CI [.06, .16]), and the total effect was also positive and significant ($\beta = .36$; 95% CI [.28, .53]), and greater than the direct effect, which was not significant ($\beta = .06$, 95% CI [-.05, .19]). Therefore Hypothesis 6 is supported. Additionally, indirect effects between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination, both mediators, and turnover intentions were all significant. The effect of perceived discrimination on justice was negative and significant ($\beta = -.41$; $p < .001$). The indirect effect of organizational justice in the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and turnover intentions was significant ($\beta = .06$, 95% CI [.02, .13]), while the indirect effect of belonging in the relationship between perceived discrimination and turnover intentions was also significant ($\beta = .13$, 95% CI [.07, .20]). Since the total indirect effect was significant ($\beta = .30$, 95% [CI.21, .39]), and greater than the direct effect ($\beta = .06$, 95% CI [-.05, .19]), which was not significant, we can assume that the proposed model presented a full mediation effect.

Figure 4

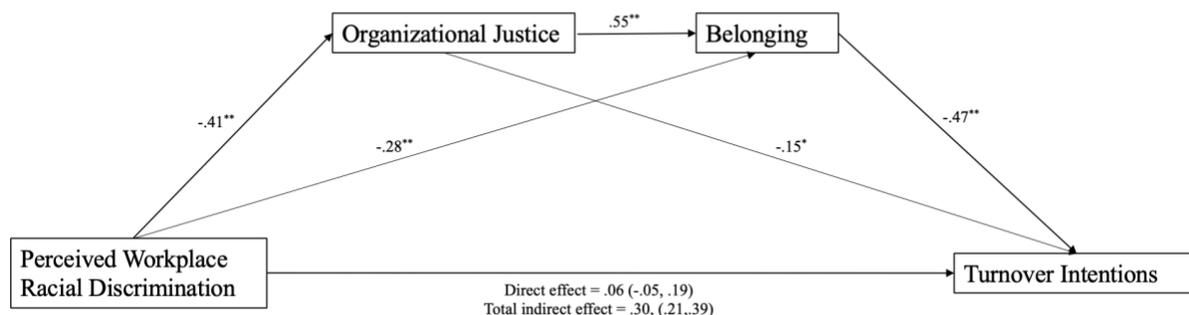


Figure 4. Hypothesis 6- Sequential mediation model.

Note. All coefficients are standardized betas, p values reported where available; otherwise, in brackets = confidence interval at 95%; direct effect = perceived workplace racial/ethnic discrimination → career aspirations (in the presence of mediators). * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$. N=281.

To support the analysis for Hypothesis 6 and to further address the research question of how organizational justice and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and turnover intentions, the effect of race/ethnicity was introduced as a moderator variable into the model, while also controlling for the effects of gender and organizational tenure. Moderated sequential mediation analysis was conducted using SPSS's PROCESS macro model 84 (Hayes, 2017), which tests the interaction effect of the moderator for the paths between X and M¹ (i.e. perceived discrimination and organizational justice) and X and M² (i.e. perceived discrimination and belonging).

To perform this analysis, I first entered perceived racial/ethnic discrimination as the independent variable, organizational justice and belonging were entered as sequential mediators in the order in which they were theorized above, and turnover intentions was entered as the dependent variable, along with gender and organizational tenure as covariates/controls. Race/ethnicity was included as a moderator variable. The results showed that the full moderated sequential mediation model (perceived discrimination → organizational justice → belonging → turnover intentions) is significant as the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval excluded zero for the (95% CI [.003, .15]). As in the hypothesis above, the relationship between perceived discrimination and organizational justice is significantly moderated by race/ethnicity ($b = -.33, SE = .14, p = .02$) and the relationship between perceived discrimination and belonging is not significantly moderated by race/ethnicity ($b = -.02, SE = .06, p = .78$). Like above, the results also show that the moderated mediation is also not significant for the simple mediation model represented by perceived discrimination → organizational justice → turnover intentions (95% CI [-.04, .04]), but only significant for the sequential mediation model.

Hypothesis 7. Hypothesis 7 stated that the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic

discrimination and belonging is moderated by an individual's need to belong, such that a lower need to belong would buffer the effect of perceived racial/ethnic discrimination on feelings of belonging. A hierarchical regression was run to test the moderating effect of need to belong on the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging while also controlling for the effects of gender and organizational tenure. This approach was used because it shows the incremental variance explained from entering the variables in three steps. In the first step, gender, race/ethnicity, and organizational tenure were entered as controls. In the second step, perceived discrimination and need to belong were entered. Both variables were mean centred. The third step entered the interaction term of perceived discrimination (mean centred) and need to belong (mean centred). There was independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.897; the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were also satisfied as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against unstandardized predicted values. Testing for multicollinearity showed acceptable tolerance and VIF values. Normality of residuals was satisfied through inspection of a histogram that showed approximately normal distribution. There was one multivariate outlier, but testing the analysis both with and without the outlier did not yield substantial differences, so the outlier was not removed. In addition, Cook's distance was assessed and the maximum value (.47) was within an acceptable range. In step 1, the model consisting of gender, organizational tenure and race/ethnicity was significant ($p < .05$) explaining 4.7% of the variance in belonging. In step 2, the model with the addition of perceived discrimination and need to belong was significant ($p < .001$), accounting for 29.9 percent of the variance in belonging. In step 3, the model containing the interaction effect was not significant. Specifically, the interaction between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and need to belong was not significant ($b = -.012$, $SE = .057$, $p = .837$), meaning the effect of

perceived workplace racial discrimination did not significantly vary depending on the level of need to belong of the participants. In other words, need to belong did not buffer or intensify the effect of the manipulation on feelings of belonging. Consequently, Hypothesis 7 was not supported. Table 7 presents the results of the analysis for Hypothesis 7.

Table 7

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Test of Moderating Effect of Need to Belong (Hypothesis 7)

| Variable | Belonging | | |
|---|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| | Coeff. (SE) Model 1 | Coeff. (SE) Model 2 | Coeff. (SE) Model 3 |
| Gender | -.098 (.07) | .069 (.07) | .068 (.07) |
| Race/Ethnicity | -.122* (.08) | -.038 (.07) | -.038 (.07) |
| Organizational tenure | | | |
| - Less than 1 year | .158* (.11) | .074 (.10) | .074 (.10) |
| - 1 – 2 years | .102 (.09) | .068 (.08) | .068 (.08) |
| - 5-10 years | .101 (.11) | .150* (.09) | .152* (.09) |
| - More than 10 years | .001 (.36) | -.036 (.31) | -.036 (.31) |
| Perceived Racial/ethnic discrimination | | -.499** (.03) | -.500** (.03) |
| Need to belong | | -.174* (.06) | -.173* (.06) |
| Perceived Discrimination x need to belong | | | -.011 (.06) |
| R ² | .047* | .299** | .299 |
| Adj. R ² | .026 | .278 | .276 |
| R ² change | .047 | .251 | .000 |
| | F(6, 274)= 2.27 | F(8, 272)= 14.49 | F(9, 2271)= 12.84 |

Table 7 (continued).

Notes. Study 1. N = 281. Two tailed test, standardized beta coefficients reported. Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Organizational tenure (dummy coded with 'Two to Five years' as reference group); Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized).** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Matched Data Analysis

Analytical Strategy

Using the matched Time 1 and Time 2 data, I carried out the same variety of tests to determine the strength and significance of relationships within the model shown in Figure 1. However, because I had collected all measures at two distinct points in time for all participants, I was able to separate the data from which I took the predictor and outcome variables. For

example, for the first hypothesis of study 1 (H1), I used linear regression to determine if there was a significant relationship between perceived workplace racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging. In this case, I was able to use Time 1 perceived workplace racial/ethnic discrimination data and Time 2 belonging data from the same participants. For Hypothesis 2 (H2), the mediating role organizational justice was tested using Hayes' PROCESS macro ('model 4') and I used Time 1 data for both the predictor and mediator variable and used Time 2 for the outcome. I followed this same temporal separation pattern for predictor (Time 1) and outcome (Time 2) variables for the remaining hypotheses.

Results

The following section presents the results of the matched dataset. To summarize, these matched data demonstrated consistent findings with the cross-sectional data. Specifically, both analyses revealed similar patterns of correlations among variables, indicating consistency in the relationships observed across the two data sets. The strengths and directions of correlations between variables remained largely consistent between the cross-sectional and matched data analyses and a comparison of means revealed minor discrepancies in variable values.

Regarding the comparison of hypotheses, the cross-sectional and matched data yielded generally consistent results across all hypotheses tested. Despite some variations in specific mediation effects, the comparison between the cross-sectional and matched data sets demonstrated similar overall findings. Notably, while hypothesis 2 was partially supported in the cross-sectional results presented above, the matched data provided evidence for full mediation. Conversely, hypothesis 5, which was supported in the cross-sectional analysis, did not find support in the matched data. In addition, both sets of results revealed comparable magnitudes of correlations and levels of significance.

Table 8 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations for Study 1- Matched Data variables. The correlations are based on Time 1 data for all predictor/ mediator variables and Time 2 data for both outcome variables. The correlation analyses showed that perceived workplace racial/ethnic discrimination was significantly negatively correlated with organizational justice ($r = -.39, p < .001$), and belonging ($r = -.41, p < .001$), while it was significantly positively correlated with turnover intentions ($r = .38, p < .001$). Belonging was significantly positively correlated with organizational justice ($r = .56, p < .001$) and career aspirations ($r = .45, p < .001$), while it was significantly negatively correlated with turnover intentions ($r = -.64, p < .001$). Turnover intentions and career aspirations were significantly negatively correlated with each other ($r = -.55, p < .001$). Race/ethnicity was significantly correlated with perceived discrimination ($r = .31, p < .05$), and gender was also significantly correlated with perceived discrimination ($r = .37, p < .001$). Organizational tenure was not significantly correlated with any of the other study variables. A review of the correlations revealed approximate strength and directions as expected.

Table 8

Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations of Study 1 Variables (Matched Data)

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|-----------------------------|---------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|-------|-------|---|
| 1. Perceived Discrimination | (.92) | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Race/Ethnicity | .311* | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Gender | .366** | -.029 | | | | | | | |
| 4. Org Tenure | -.103 | .045 | .010 | | | | | | |
| 5. Org Justice | -.394** | -.163 | .044 | .007 | (.95) | | | | |
| 6. Belonging | -.412** | -.110 | .019 | -.022 | .555** | (.90) | | | |
| 7. Need to belong | .086 | .111 | .020 | -.065 | .011 | -.182 | (.80) | | |
| 8. Career Aspirations | -.246 | -.008 | -.214 | -.054 | .246 | .453** | -.086 | (.94) | |

Table 8 (continued).

| | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|--------|------|------|-------|---------|---------|------|---------|-------|
| 9. Turnover Intentions | .383** | .014 | .067 | -.109 | -.434** | -.640** | .173 | -.526** | (.80) |
| <i>M</i> | 2.77 | ---- | ---- | ---- | 5.83 | 3.70 | 3.42 | 3.16 | 2.37 |
| <i>SD</i> | .911 | ---- | ---- | ---- | .824 | .507 | .531 | .940 | .920 |

Note. Study 1. N = 55. Entries on the main diagonal are Cronbach's alpha, where appropriate, except for 'Turn' which is a reported correlation between the 2- items in the measure; Gender was coded as: male (1), female (2); Race/ethnicity was coded as: white (1), racialized (2). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 1 (Matched Data). As above, Hypothesis 1 stated that perceived racial/ethnic discrimination is related to belonging such that higher levels of perceived racial/ethnic discrimination will predict lower levels of belonging. The relationship was tested using a hierarchical regression to include gender, race/ethnicity, and organizational tenure as control variables. In step one, the control variables were entered followed in step two by the predictor at time 1 (perceived discrimination). The full model including all the controls was statistically significant, $R^2 = .177$, $F(4, 48) = 2.577$, $p < .05$, adjusted $R^2 = .108$. The model was not significant until the addition of the predictor variable (perceived discrimination). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported using the matched data. According to the results, for every 1- unit increase in perceived discrimination, there is a -.257 reduction in belonging ($b = -.257$, $p < .05$). The R^2 change resulting from the addition of the predictor variable was .162. Therefore, the additional variance explained by perceived racial/ethnic discrimination was 16.2%. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.178. There was linearity as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against the predicted values. There was homoscedasticity as assessed by visual inspection of a scatterplot. There was no evidence of multicollinearity as assessed by tolerance values no less than .787 (which is greater than .2), and VIF values no larger than 1.271 (smaller than 10). There were no multivariate outliers, and the maximum Cook's distance was .168 and within an acceptable range (less than 0.50).

Hypothesis 2 (Matched Data). Hypothesis 2 stated that perceptions of organizational justice mediate the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging. Using the matched data, Time 1 data was used for the predictor and mediating variables, and Time 2 data for the outcome variable. A test of assumptions revealed independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin- Watson statistic of 2.076 for the model. Multicollinearity was assessed with Tolerance and VIF statistics within acceptable levels (tolerance no less than .800 and VIF no greater than 1.496). Residuals were approximately normally distributed as assessed by a visual inspection of a histogram and normal probability plot, and homoscedasticity was assessed as acceptable through visual inspection of a plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values. There were no multivariate outliers and Cook's distance was .301 and within an acceptable range. Simple mediation analysis was completed using Hayes PROCESS macro 'model 4' in SPSS.

To test the mediating effect of organizational justice, I entered Time 1 perceived racial/ethnic discrimination as the independent variable, Time 1 organizational justice as the mediator, and Time 2 belonging as the dependent variable, along with gender, race/ethnicity, and organizational tenure as covariates/controls. Bootstrapping with 5000 samples was employed, and the confidence interval at 95% was considered for significance (Williams & MacKinnon, 2008). Results showed the indirect effect of organizational justice as mediator in the relationship between perceived discrimination and belonging was significant ($b = -.103$, 95% CI[-.22, -.01]), and the total effect was also significant ($b = -.260$, 95% CI[-.43, .09]). When organizational justice entered the relationship between perceived discrimination and belonging, the direct effect of perceived discrimination on belonging was not significant (95% CI[-.32, .01]) indicating full mediation. Therefore, organizational justice mediates the relationship between perceived

racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is also supported using the matched data.

Hypothesis 3 (Matched Data). Hypothesis 3 stated that belonging is related to career aspirations, such that higher levels of belonging will predict higher levels of career aspirations. This relationship was tested using hierarchical regression to include gender, race/ethnicity, and organizational tenure as control variables. In step one the control variables were entered followed in step two by the predictor variable at Time 1 (belonging). The full model including all the controls was statistically significant, $R^2 = .264$, $F(4, 48) = 14.135$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .203$, demonstrating that 20.3 percent of the variance in career aspirations is explained by this model. Results also indicated that belonging is significantly positively related to career aspirations ($\beta = .46$, $p < .001$), such that higher belonging scores are related to greater career aspirations. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is supported with the matched data. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.760. There was linearity as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against the predicted values. There was homoscedasticity as assessed by visual inspection of a scatterplot. There was no evidence of multicollinearity as assessed by tolerance values no less than .984, and VIF values no larger than 1.02. There were no multivariate outliers, and the maximum Cook's distance was within an acceptable range (.139).

Hypothesis 4 (Matched Data). Hypothesis 4 stated that belonging is related to turnover intentions, such that higher levels of belonging will predict lower levels of turnover intentions. This hypothesis was tested using hierarchical regression to include gender, race/ethnicity, and organizational tenure as control variables. As above, the control variables were entered in step one, followed in step two by the predictor variable at Time 1 (belonging). The full model including all the controls was statistically significant, $R^2 = .473$, $F(4, 48) = 10.788$, $p < .001$,

adjusted $R^2 = .430$. Results indicated that belonging is significantly negatively related to turnover intentions ($\beta = -.68, p < .001$), such that higher belonging scores are related to decreased turnover intentions. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is supported with the matched data. The additional variance explained by belonging (beyond the controls) was 45.5 percent. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.734. There was linearity as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against the predicted values. There was homoscedasticity as assessed by visual inspection of a scatterplot. There was no evidence of multicollinearity as assessed by tolerance values no less than .982, and VIF values no larger than 1.02. There were no multivariate outliers and the maximum Cook's distance was within an acceptable range (.156).

Hypothesis 5 (Matched Data). Hypothesis 5 stated that organizational justice and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and career aspirations. Mediation analysis using SPSS PROCESS was performed to estimate the effects within the hypothesized sequential mediation model. Specifically, the predictor variable at Time 1 (i.e. perceived racial/ethnic discrimination), the outcome variable at Time 2 (career aspirations), and two serial mediators at Time 1 (i.e., organizational justice and belonging) were entered in the mediation model for analysis. Variables were inserted into the model in their position (i.e. organizational justice preceding belonging) according to the theoretical framework presented earlier in the paper. Gender, race/ethnicity, and tenure were included as covariates/controls. Bootstrapping with 5000 samples was employed, and the confidence interval at 95 percent was again considered for significance.

Results showed the sequential indirect path from perceived racial/ethnic discrimination → organizational justice → belonging → career aspirations displayed a negative and significant

effect ($\beta = -.10$; 95% CI[-.27, -.002]), however the total indirect effect and total effect were not significant. Therefore Hypothesis 5 is not supported using the matched data. A closer look at the relationships within the model shows that the effect of perceived discrimination on justice was negative and significant ($\beta = -.43$; $p < .05$), the effect of organizational justice on belonging was positive and significant ($\beta = .50$, $p < .001$), the effect of belonging on career aspirations was also positive and significant ($\beta = .48$, $p < .05$). However, the effect of perceived discrimination on career aspirations (i.e. the direct relationship between predictor and outcome) was not significant ($\beta = -.22$, $p = .16$).

Hypothesis 6 (Matched Data). Hypothesis 6 stated that organizational justice and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and turnover intentions. Again, mediation analysis using SPSS PROCESS ('model 6') was performed to estimate the effects within the hypothesized sequential mediation model. Specifically, the predictor variable at Time 1 (i.e. perceived racial/ethnic discrimination), the outcome variable at Time 2 (turnover intentions), and two serial mediators at Time 1 (i.e., organizational justice and belonging) were entered in the mediation model for analysis. Like above, variables were inserted into the model in their position (i.e. organizational justice preceding belonging) according to the theoretical framework presented earlier in the paper. Gender, race/ethnicity, and tenure were included as covariates/controls. Bootstrapping with 5000 samples was employed, and the confidence interval at 95 percent was again considered for significance.

Results showed the sequential indirect path from perceived racial/ethnic discrimination → organizational justice → belonging → turnover intentions displayed a positive and significant effect ($\beta = .13$; 95% CI[.02, .28]), and the total effect was also positive and significant ($\beta = .46$;

95% CI[.18, .80]), and greater than the direct effect, which was not significant ($\beta = .16$, 95% CI[-.13, .44]). Therefore Hypothesis 6 is supported using the matched data. Additionally, the effect of perceived discrimination on justice was negative and significant ($\beta = -.43$; $p < .05$), the effect of organizational justice on belonging was positive and significant ($\beta = .50$; $p < .05$), and the effect of belonging on turnover intentions was negative and significant ($\beta = -.58$; $p < .05$). The indirect effect of organizational justice in the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and turnover intentions was not significant ($\beta = .03$, 95% CI[-.07, .23]), and the indirect effect of belonging in the relationship between perceived discrimination and turnover intentions was also not significant ($\beta = .16$, 95% CI[-.008, .35]). Since the total indirect effect was significant, and greater than the direct effect, which was not significant, we can assume that the proposed model presented a full mediation effect.

Hypothesis 7 (Matched Data). Hypothesis 7 stated that the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging is moderated by an individual's need to belong, such that a low need to belong would buffer the effect of the manipulation on feelings of belonging. A hierarchical regression was run to test the moderating effect of need to belong on the relationship between the low/high condition and belonging while also controlling for the effects of gender and organizational tenure. In the first step, gender, race/ethnicity, and organizational tenure were entered as controls. In the second step, perceived discrimination at Time 1 and need to belong at Time 1 were entered. Both variables were mean centred. The third step entered the interaction term of discrimination (mean centred) and need to belong (mean centred). There was independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.156; the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were also satisfied as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against unstandardized predicted values. Testing for multicollinearity

showed acceptable tolerance and VIF values. Normality of residuals was satisfied through inspection of a histogram that showed approximately normal distribution. There were no multivariate outliers. In addition, Cook's distance was assessed and the maximum value (.128) was within an acceptable range. In step 1, the model consisting of gender, organizational tenure and race/ethnicity was not significant ($p = .869$). In step 2, the model with the addition of perceived discrimination and need to belong was not significant ($p = .084$), although the relationship between perceived discrimination and belonging was significant ($b = -.253, p < .05$) within this model. In step 3, the model containing the interaction effect was also not significant ($p = .124$). Specifically, the interaction between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and need to belong was not significant ($b = -.11, p = .54$), meaning the effect of perceived workplace racial discrimination did not significantly vary depending on the level of need to belong of the participants. Consequently, Hypothesis 7 was not supported using the matched data.

Discussion- Study 1

The purpose of this study was to deepen our comprehension of the mediating role of belonging in the association between organizational diversity cues, specifically perceived workplace racial discrimination, and career-related outcomes. The focus on perceived workplace discrimination aimed to illustrate that heightened instances of perceived discrimination directly impact employees' sense of belonging at work, subsequently influencing their turnover intentions and career aspirations within the organization. Moreover, through a sequential mediation model, I aimed to clarify how discrimination's impact on belonging is explained by examining perceived organizational justice as the underlying individual-level mechanism in this relationship.

While extensive research has established the detrimental effects of discrimination in the workplace (Triana et al., 2021), the intricate relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and individual's sense of belonging at work has not been thoroughly explored. This study introduces a novel perspective by investigating this relationship, thereby contributing a new dimension to existing research. Given the theoretical significance of both identity and justice, I anticipated finding a direct relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and belonging, with increased discrimination leading to diminished feelings of belonging at work. I also expected that perceptions of organizational justice would mediate this relationship. The study's findings affirmed a direct, negative relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and belonging, with organizational justice emerging as a significant explanatory variable in this association. These findings were consistent across both cross-sectional and matched data sets.

Unlike existing research that often exclusively focuses on the effects of discrimination on belonging among racialized individuals (Brown et al., 2022; Hurtado & Carter, 1997), this study expands our understanding of this relationship by including all employees in the study design. The results indicated that the negative relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and belonging is not significantly different or stronger for racialized individuals. This finding, aligning with existing research on the implications of observed discrimination on organizational morality (Jaurique et al., 2019) and employee voice (Stillwell et al., 2023), raises intriguing questions about the role of perceived justice and fair treatment of others in fostering individuals' feelings of belonging at work, extending beyond personal experiences to encompass a broader organizational context.

In addition to these findings, the current research tested the relationship between belonging and turnover intentions, as well as career aspirations. While ample evidence exists regarding belonging's impact on achievement motivations (Good et al., 2012; Murdock-Perreira et al., 2019) and school-related intentions (Master et al., 2016), its role as a cognitive process influencing career-related outcomes remains less explored. This study expands our understanding of the influential effects of belonging at work, revealing a direct relationship between belonging and career-related outcomes. Increased belonging was associated with reduced turnover intentions and heightened career aspirations, findings consistent across both cross-sectional and temporally separated data sets. These results substantiate the proposed hypotheses. Contrary to expectations, the study did not find support for the moderating role of the need to belong in the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and belonging. This suggests that the effect of perceived discrimination on belonging is consistent across varying levels of individual need to belong.

Notwithstanding the advancements made in this study, it is imperative to interpret these findings in light of methodological limitations. The self-report nature of the data may raise concerns about common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003), however, the limitations of the cross-sectional analysis are minimized by the shared results of the matched (albeit smaller) data set. Indeed, including the two-wave data is an essential strength of this research because it mitigates some of the more typical concerns with cross-sectional data collection. Nevertheless, the design of this study does not allow for causal inferences. Furthermore, while the importance of studying the working population cannot be discounted, the "in the field" nature of this study limits its internal validity. Keeping these limitations in mind, I designed and conducted a second

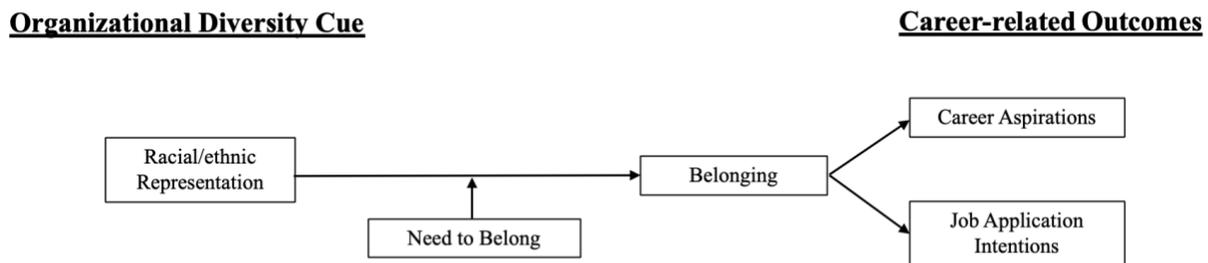
study to counter these drawbacks and advance the conceptual model by introducing an additional organizational diversity cue: racial/ethnic representation.

Chapter 5: Study 2- Methodology, Results, and Discussion

Methods- Study 2

The aim of study 2 was to examine via experimental manipulation: a) the influence of racial/ethnic representation on belonging b) the moderating role of need to belong, and c) the mediating role of belonging in the relationship between racial/ethnic representation and two career-related outcomes: job application intentions and career aspirations. Figure 5 shows visual representation of the study 2 relationships under analysis.

Figure 5



Notes. Study 2 relationships under analysis.

Procedure and Sample

The sample was recruited from seven Canadian law schools with the assistance of several law students' associations and law student career centres. Emails were initially sent to eighteen law schools across Canada. The contacts at each university were solicited through "cold-call" emails sent to email addresses found on university and student association websites. Of the eighteen schools contacted, eight did not respond to the solicitation email, one responded that they were unable to help, one responded that they could help but were unable to meet the timeline, and eight responded that they could help with the distribution via email distribution lists and/or weekly newsletters.

The target sample of law students was invited to complete an online questionnaire that would take approximately 10 minutes to complete. Participants were informed that the study was about “law student job application behaviours and intentions” and they were offered a chance to win a \$250 Amazon e-gift card in exchange for their participation. I was unable to establish the size of each email distribution list/weekly newsletter and, since the responses from each student were confidential and their school was not identified in any way, I could not calculate the overall response rate for this sample.

A total of 325 respondents provided consent to participate in this research; however, 89 participants responded to none or very few items of the survey, resulting in a total of 236 responses. The missing values analysis was, therefore, based on these 236 responses. An analysis of missing values showed no variables missing greater than three items (1.3%), so no variables were deleted and all respondents, including those with missing data, were left in the sample with the intention of using pairwise deletion during analysis, or in the case of the SPSS PROCESS macro, listwise deletion. The final sample consisted of 120 respondents in the low representation condition (50.8%) and 116 respondents in the high representation condition (49.2%). Nearly 70 percent of the participants were female (67.4%), and over half identified as racialized (51.7%). Respondents were asked about their future employment and desired firm size, with 22.9 percent desiring employment in a small firm (up to 25 lawyers), 36.4 percent in a medium sized firm (26- 99 lawyers), 33.5 percent in a large firm (100 lawyers or more), 6.8 percent desiring employment in some ‘other’ type of organization. Only one respondent (.4%) desired future employment as a sole practitioner.

After consenting to participate, participants were randomly assigned by the survey tool (SurveyMonkey) to one of two conditions: (1) low representation or (2) high representation, and

subsequently shown a mock press release according to that condition. See Appendix D for examples of the mock press releases for each condition (low and high representation). Based on experimental work investigating how people define and perceive diversity in historically majority-group dominated contexts in *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* (Chen & Hamilton, 2015), the manipulation reflected two different scenarios:

1. Low representation: 1 racialized profile (name and photo) out of 18. This percentage (5.5%) reflects a proportion that is close to the actual proportion of racialized partners in Ontario (Law Society of Ontario, 2022).
2. High representation: 6 racialized profiles (name and photo) out of 18. This percentage (33%) reflects a proportion slightly greater than that of Canada's racialized population (Hou et al., 2023).

Participants in the study were instructed as follows: "Assume you are interested in working for a large law firm (100+ lawyers) that offers a wide range of practice areas. Please read through the following press release carefully and answer the questions on the pages that follow." After being randomly assigned to either one of two conditions and shown the appropriate press release, all participants were asked to respond to the same set of questions as per the measures below. Finally, participants completed information containing the demographic variables. The university ethics committee approved this research and its protocol (see Appendix A).

In advance of the study, the press releases were first piloted with 10 current and/or newly graduated law students to get their feedback on various aspects of the mock profiles, the organization, and its attributes in each condition of the manipulation. Law students were asked about their opinions of the organization, what they noticed about the firm and press release itself,

the attractiveness of the organization, and other similar questions. In doing this, I was able to discern from the discussions how effective the manipulation of representation might be, as well as address concerns that may have manifested during the data collection process. For example, I heard feedback from 3 students that although racial/ethnic representation was a concern, it “didn’t really matter much because they weren’t interested in working in such a large firm.” These comments prompted me to consider including a question about desired firm size as a control variable. Small modifications were also made to the overall presentation of the mock press releases, including removal of a pie chart representing diversity statistics, which prompted several comments about law firms and transparency, or lack thereof. These comments led me to remove the pie chart to lessen the “noise” in the press release and narrow the focus mainly on the name/photos of the profiles.

Measures

Belonging. As in Study 1, measures by Pietri et al., (2019) were modified slightly for the law firm context and to account for the hypothetical nature of the experimental manipulation. This scale, as used by Pietri et al., (2019) was created using items from the belonging measures employed by Walton and Cohen (2007) and Good et al., (2012), as well as the scale used in Purdie-Vaughns et al., (2008). The items reflect the context in which these measures were initially used, i.e. to study the effects of gender bias on belonging in a fictitious company. As such, the term “company” was replaced with “firm” and the word “would” was added. A sample item for the measure included, “People in (this firm) the company (would) like me.” This scale was chosen because I felt it most comprehensively reflected the dimensions associated with belonging that are of interest in my study and had good reliability in previous studies ($\alpha = .92$). It has also been previously used and modified for anticipated belonging and the hypothetical nature

of experimental study (Pietri et al., 2019; Pietri et al., 2018). Participants were instructed to indicate their agreement with a series of statements. Twelve items were assessed on a 5-point Likert type scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The Cronbach's alpha for this study was .92.

Need to Belong. As in Study 1, measures by Leary et al. (2013) of need to belong were used. Sample items from the scale include "If other people don't accept me, I don't let it bother me" and "I seldom worry about whether other people care about me [reverse coded]." Respondents indicated the degree to which each statement was a true characteristic of them on a 5-point Likert type scale 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely). The Cronbach's alpha for this study was .81.

Job Application Intentions. Job application intentions were measured using two scales. The first is a two-item measure of general application intentions used in Hentschel et al. (2021) and slightly adapted for the law firm context. The items include "I would apply for a job at this company (firm)" and "How likely would it be that you apply for a job at this company (firm)." Participants provided their responses on 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (very unlikely) to 7 (very likely). Correlations for these two items in the Hentschel et al. (2021) study were .89 for women, and .85 for men, respectively. The correlation between these two items for this study was $r=.96$.

A second, slightly more nuanced, measure of job application intentions was used based on a scale of organizational pursuit intentions from Highhouse et al. (2003) with modification for the law firm context. These authors aimed to create a comprehensive measure of attraction to organizations, which are commonly used as surrogate assessment of job application intentions and organizational pursuit. The 10-item scale is comprised of measures of general pursuit

intentions and organizational attraction, including sample items such as: “For me, this company (firm) would be a good place to work” And “I would make this company (firm) one of my first choices as an employer.” Participants were asked to rate their response on a 5-point Likert type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Satisfactory reliability has recently been reported for this scale (Waples & Brachle, 2020). The Cronbach’s alpha for the 10-item scale in this study was .92.

Career Aspirations. Career aspirations were measured using a six-item scale, consisting of two three-item subscales from a study of female law associates and the glass ceiling by Foley et al., (2002), but were originally adapted from Greenhaus et al. (1997). The first subscale measures Career Advancement Expectations and includes sample items such as “I think I will eventually become partner in this organization” and “I would be surprised if I made partner in this organization [R]” ($\alpha = .86$). The second subscale measures Career Advancement Aspirations and includes sample items such as “I would eventually want to become partner in this firm” and “I would do whatever it took to become partner in this firm.” Reliability for the six-item scale in the Foley et al., (2002) study was good ($\alpha = .88$). The Cronbach’s alpha for the six-item scale in this study was .88.

After the outcome measures, a manipulation check was included. To verify the representation manipulation, participants were asked “In the press release you read earlier, how many non-White individuals were among the newly elected partners?” with the options: (1) Fewer than 3, (2) More than 3 but less than 10, and (3) More than 10. This manipulation check is based on a similar verification used in the above- mentioned Chen and Hamilton (2015) study. See Appendix D for the complete list of Study 2 questionnaire items.

Controls. As in Study 1, I controlled for gender and race/ethnicity in Study 2 because prior research demonstrates that these demographic variables have been linked to differences in feelings of belonging (Barth et al., 2022; Rainey et al., 2018). Again, due to small numbers of respondents in each racial/ethnic category, the responses for this study were aggregated into one grouping labelled “racialized.” I also included desired firm size as a control variable based on the previously mentioned pilot discussions with law students. Two sets of analyses were conducted—one with controls, and the other without controls. The results remained consistent across all analyses; therefore, the inclusion of controls did not alter the findings (Becker, 2005). The results presented below include the analyses with the control variables. In some supplemental analyses, I include race/ethnicity as a moderator. For those analyses of hypotheses where race/ethnicity is not included as a moderator, it is included as a control.

Analytical Strategy

For the study 2 hypotheses, I carried out a series of tests to determine if there were statistically significant differences between the two conditions on a variety of outcomes. For the first hypothesis of study 2 (H8), I used a one-way ANOVA to determine if there was a difference in anticipated belonging at the fictitious firms between the two groups. Thereafter, I also conducted a hierarchical regression to test for differences while including the control variables. The moderating role of need to belong (H9) in this relationship was tested using Hayes’ PROCESS macro (‘model 1’). Mediation analyses were tested to examine differences between groups in the mediating role of belonging (H10 and H11) using bootstrapping procedures with Hayes’ (2017) PROCESS macro (‘model 4’). In line with much of the extant literature, the mediation analyses drew on 5,000 bootstrapped samples (e.g. Mawritz et al., 2012), which obtains confidence intervals based on a predetermined set of bootstrapped samples to determine

significance of the indirect meditational effect of belonging. As mentioned before, the SPSS PROCESS Macro Version 4.2 used in these analyses utilizes percentile bootstrapping confidence intervals as the default as opposed to other methods of bootstrapping (Hayes, 2023).

To add to the robustness of the results and to further address the research question of how racial/ethnic representation is related to belonging, the moderating effect of race/ethnicity was introduced into the analyses for all the Study 2 hypotheses. As in Study 1, these additional moderation analyses leverage the dataset to provide a more comprehensive understanding of how perceived racial/ethnic discrimination influences feelings of belonging at work across different demographic groups. For these analyses, I relied on Hayes' PROCESS macro for moderation with a single moderator (H8) ('model 1'), moderation with two moderators (H9) ('model 2') and moderated mediation (H10 and H11) ('model 7').

Results- Study 2

Table 9 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations for Study 2 variables. The correlation analyses showed that the experimental condition was significantly negatively correlated with desired firm size ($r = -.139, p < .05$), significantly positively correlated with belonging ($r = .307, p < .001$), general application intent ($r = .238, p < .001$), career aspirations ($r = .199, p < .001$), and job application intentions ($r = .294, p < .001$). Belonging was significantly negatively correlated with race/ethnicity ($r = -.148, p < .05$) and gender ($r = -.60, p < .05$). All the outcome measures were moderately, positively correlated with each other ranging from $r = .473$ to $r = .767$. A review of the correlations revealed approximate strength and directions as expected. Distribution of the data by condition were analyzed and compared by visual examination of histograms. Table 9 presents the means and standard deviations of belonging by condition. Table 10 presents the means and standard deviations of all Study 2 outcome variables by condition.

Table 9*Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations of Study 2 Variables*

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---|--------|--------|---------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| 1. Condition | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Race/Ethnicity | -.016 | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Gender | -.014 | .102 | | | | | | | |
| 4. Desired firm size | -.139* | .093 | -.040 | | | | | | |
| 5. Need to Belong | -.005 | -.051 | .232** | -.038 | (.81) | | | | |
| 6. Anticipated Belonging | .307** | -.148* | -.160* | -.100 | .082 | (.92) | | | |
| 7. General Application Intent (Hentschel et al., 2021) | .238** | .125 | -.093 | -.012 | .199** | .581** | (.96) | | |
| 8. Job Application Intentions (Highhouse et al., 2003) | .294** | .050 | -.100 | -.064 | .175** | .767** | .831** | (.92) | |
| 9. Career Aspirations | .199** | -.014 | -.172** | -.024 | .064 | .674** | .590** | .703** | (.88) |
| <i>M</i> | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | 3.40 | 2.99 | 4.21 | 3.11 | 2.60 |
| <i>SD</i> | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | .592 | .666 | 1.79 | .750 | .829 |

Note. N = 236. Entries on the main diagonal are Cronbach's alpha where appropriate, except for General Application Intent which is a reported correlation between the 2- items in the measure; Gender was coded as: male (1), female (2); Race/ethnicity was coded as: white (1), racialized (2)
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$

Table 10*Means and Standard Deviations of Study 2 Variables by Condition*

| Condition | Low | | High | |
|--|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| 1. Belonging | 2.78 | .63 | 3.19 | .64 |
| 2. Need to belong | 3.40 | .57 | 3.39 | .62 |
| 3. General application intent (Hentschel) | 3.79 | 1.78 | 4.64 | 1.71 |
| 4. Job Application Intentions (Highhouse) | 2.89 | .70 | 3.34 | .74 |
| 5. Career Aspirations | 2.44 | .80 | 2.76 | .82 |

Notes. Study 2.

N= 236, low representation condition n= 120; high representation condition n=116.

General application intent was rated on a 7-point scale, all other variables were rated on a 5-point scale.

Experimental condition manipulation check. To examine whether the participants in each condition perceived a difference in the degree of representation within each press release, I conducted an independent t-test to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in perceptions of the number of non-White lawyers within the newly elected group of partners. There were 120 participants in the low representation condition and 116 in the high representation condition. According to the results of the analysis, the participants in the high representation condition perceived a greater number of racialized lawyers in the newly elected group of partners ($M = 1.75, SD = .436$) than in the low representation condition ($M = 1.10, SD = .304$). An independent samples t-test revealed that the mean difference between groups was statistically significant $M = -.646, 95\% \text{ CI}, [-0.75, -0.54], t(215) = -12.38, p < .001$. Thus, we conclude the manipulation of high and low racial/ethnic representation was effective and the participants perceived greater numbers of racialized lawyers in the high representation condition than in the low representation condition.

Hypothesis 8 Test. Hypothesis 8 stated that racial/ethnic representation is related to belonging such that participants who viewed the press release in the high representation condition will would report greater levels of belonging than those who viewed the press release in the low representation condition. Results of a one-way ANOVA revealed that those in the high representation condition ($M = 3.19, SD = .64$) had significantly higher belonging than those in the low representation condition ($M = 2.78, SD = .63$) [$F(1, 234) = 24.40, p = <.001$], thus providing support for H8. The effect size was calculated using Cohen's d ($d = .61$) indicating a moderate effect size. There were some outliers in the data, but none were outside of 1.5 standard deviations from the mean. The data was normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk test (p

>.05); and there was homogeneity of variances as assessed by Levene’s test of homogeneity of variances ($p = .639$). Table 11 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA.

Table 11

One- Way Analysis of Variance for Belonging by Condition (Hypothesis 8)

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>SS</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> |
|----------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Between Groups | 1 | 9.84 | 9.842 | 24.40 | <.001 |
| Within Groups | 234 | 94.38 | .403 | | |
| Total | 235 | 104.22 | | | |

Notes. Study 2. N = 236

To add to the robustness of the results, two additional tests of H8 were conducted. First, the relationship was tested using hierarchical linear regression in SPSS while controlling for gender, race/ethnicity, and desired firm size. In step 1 gender was entered, in step 2 race/ethnicity was added as another control, in step 3 desired firm size was added as an additional control (dummy coded as small, medium, and other), and in step 4 the condition was entered. The full model of gender, race/ethnicity, desired firm size, and condition was statistically significant, $R^2 = .233$, $F(6, 221) = 11.163$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .212$. The additional incremental variance explained by the high/low representation manipulation was 6.8 percent. There was linearity as assessed by partial regression plots and a plot of standardized residuals against the predicted values. There was homoscedasticity, as assessed by visual inspection of a scatterplot of standardized residuals against unstandardized predicted values. There was no evidence of multicollinearity, as assessed by tolerance values greater than .2 and VIF values smaller than 10. There was one outlier with a standardized residual outside of 3 standard deviations (3.564), however it was decided to not remove this outlier. There were no multivariate outliers as assessed with an observed Cook’s distance value of .113. The assumption

of normality was met, as assessed with Shapiro-Wilk test ($p = >.05$) and visual inspection of a histogram. Table 12 presents the results of the hierarchical regression test.

Table 12

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Predicting Belonging from Gender, Race/Ethnicity, Desired Firm Size and Low/High Representation Condition (Hypothesis 8)

| Variable | Belonging | | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| | Coeff. (SE) Model 1 | Coeff. (SE) Model 2 | Coeff. (SE) Model 3 | Coeff. (SE) Model 4 |
| Gender | -.168* (.10) | -.152* (.10) | -.129* (.09) | -.129* (.09) |
| Race/Ethnicity | | -.145* (.09) | -.158* (.08) | -.151* (.08) |
| Desired Firm Size | | | | |
| - Small (<25 lawyers) | | | -.173* (.11) | -.185* (.11) |
| - Medium (25-50 lawyers) | | | -.094 (.10) | -.074 (.10) |
| - Other (Not traditional law firm) | | | -.349** (.17) | -.303** (.17) |
| High/low representation condition | | | | .266** (.08) |

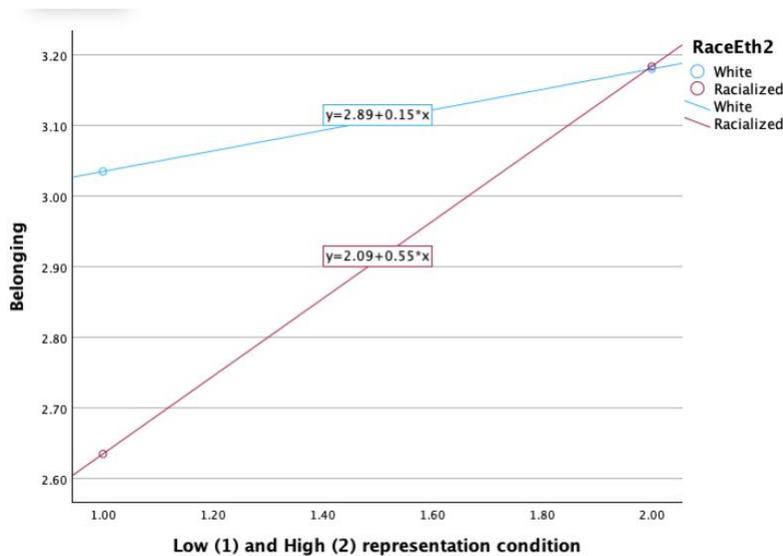
Notes. Study 2.

N = 236; two tailed test, Standardized beta coefficients reported. Condition (coded as 1= low representation; 2 = high representation). Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Desired firm size (dummy coded with 'Large Firm, greater than 100 lawyers' as reference group). Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized).** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Second, to further address the research question of how racial/ethnic representation is related to belonging, the effect of race/ethnicity was introduced as a moderator variable into the relationship between the high/low experimental condition and belonging, while also controlling for the effects of gender and desired firm size. Moderation analysis was conducted using SPSS PROCESS macro model 1 (Hayes, 2017). There was independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.931; the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were also satisfied as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against unstandardized predicted values. Testing for multicollinearity showed acceptable tolerance and VIF values, except for the interaction term and its original variables. There was one outlier, but the outlier was not removed as analysis with and without the outlier showed no meaningful difference. Normality of residuals

was satisfied through inspection of a histogram. The interaction between experimental condition and race/ethnicity was significant ($b = .40$, $SE = .16$, $t = 2.57$, $p = .011$), indicating that the relationship between the low/high representation condition and belonging was moderated by race/ethnicity. The simple slope of the low/high condition was significant for racialized law students ($b = .54$, $SE = .11$, $t = 5.00$, $p < .001$), but not for White law students ($b = .15$, $SE = .11$, $t = 1.28$, $p = .2037$). In other words, results showed a strong, significant positive relationship for racialized law students, but the positive relationship for White law students was not as strong and not significant. The overall model was significant, accounting for 25.5 percent of variance in belonging ($R^2 = .255$). Figure 6 shows a graphical depiction of the moderation.

Figure 6
Moderation analysis- graph representing the moderating effect of race/ethnicity (Hypothesis 8)



Notes. Study 2. Blue line indicates white law students; red line indicates racialized law students. Low/high representation condition (coded as 1= low representation, 2= high representation). Belonging was measured on a 5-point scale.

Hypothesis 9 Test. Hypothesis 9 stated that the relationship between racial/ethnic representation and belonging is moderated by an individual’s need to belong, such that a low need to belong would buffer the effect of the manipulation on feelings of belonging. A linear

regression was run to test the moderating effect of need to belong on the relationship between the low/high condition and belonging.

There was independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.878; the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were also satisfied as assessed by a scatterplot of standardized residuals against unstandardized predicted values. Testing for multicollinearity showed acceptable tolerance and VIF values. Normality of residuals was satisfied through inspection of a histogram that showed approximately normal distribution. There were no two multivariate outliers as assessed with observed Cook's distance values within acceptable range. The interaction between the condition and need to belong was not significant ($b = -.11$, $SE = .14$, $p = .213$), meaning the effect of the high/low representation manipulation did not significantly vary depending on the level of need to belong of the participants. Specifically, need to belong did not buffer or intensify the effect of the manipulation on feelings of belonging. A hierarchical moderation regression was then used to test the moderating role of need to belong while also controlling for the effects of gender and desired firm size. This approach was used because it shows the incremental variance explained from entering the variables in three steps. In the first step, gender, race/ethnicity, and desired firm size were entered as controls. In the second step, the condition and need to belong (mean centred) were entered. The third step entered the interaction term of the condition and need to belong (mean centred). In step 1, the model consisting of gender, desired firm size (small and other) and race/ethnicity was significant explaining 16.5 percent of the variance. In step 2, the model with the addition of the manipulation and need to belong was significant accounting for 23.7 percent of the variance in belonging. In step 3, the model containing the interaction effect ($b = -.111$ $p = .176$) was not significant. Consequently, Hypothesis 9 was not supported. Table 13 presents the results of the analysis for Hypothesis 9.

Table 13*Hierarchical Multiple Regression Test of Moderating Effect of Need to Belong (Hypothesis 9)*

| Variable | Belonging | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| | Coeff. (SE) Model 1 | Coeff. (SE) Model 2 | Coeff. (SE) Model 3 |
| Gender | -.129* (.09) | -.145* (.09) | -.144* (.09) |
| Race/Ethnicity | -.158* (.08) | -.146* (.08) | -.137* (.08) |
| Desired Firm Size | | | |
| - Small (<25 lawyers) | -.173* (.11) | -.177* (.11) | -.178* (.11) |
| - Medium (25-50 lawyers) | -.094 (.10) | -.076 (.10) | -.082 (.10) |
| - Other (Not traditional firm) | -.349** (.17) | -.292** (.17) | -.296** (.17) |
| High/low representation condition | | .267** (.08) | .265** (.08) |
| Need to belong | | .069 (.07) | .145 (.22) |
| Condition x need to belong | | | -.111 (.13) |
| R ² | .165 | .237 | .243 |
| Adj. R ² | .146 | .213 | .216 |
| R ² change | .165 | .072 | .006 |
| | $F(5, 222)=$ 8.76 | $F(2, 220)=$ 10.38 | $F(1, 219)=$ 1.85 |

Notes. Study 2.

N = 236; Two tailed test, Standardized beta coefficients reported. Condition (coded as 1= low representation; 2 = high representation).

Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Desired firm size (dummy coded with 'Large Firm, greater than 100 lawyers' as reference group).

Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized). ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

To augment the analysis for Hypothesis 9 and to further address the research question of how racial/ethnic representation is related to belonging, the effect of race/ethnicity was introduced as an additional moderator variable into the relationship between the high/low experimental condition and belonging, while also controlling for the effects of gender and desired firm size. Moderation analysis was conducted using SPSS's PROCESS macro model 2 (Hayes, 2017). While the interaction between experimental condition and race/ethnicity was significant ($b = .42$, $SE = .16$, $t = 2.54$, $p = .011$), indicating that the relationship between the low/high representation condition and belonging is moderated by race/ethnicity, the interaction between experimental condition and need to belong was not significant ($B = .18$, $SE = .14$, $t =$

1.31, $p = .193$). Results of conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator show that for White law students the relationship was not significant at all levels of need to belong. However, for racialized law students, there is a significant positive relationship between the low/high representation condition and belonging at all levels of need to belong. See Table 14 for a presentation of these results and Figure 7 for a graphical representation of these relationships.

Table 14

Hayes PROCESS Macro Test of Moderating Effect of Need to Belong and Race/Ethnicity (Hypothesis 9)

| Variable | Belonging | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------|-------|
| | Unstandardized Coef. | (SE) |
| Gender | -.217* | (.13) |
| Race/Ethnicity | -.826* | (.25) |
| Desired Firm Size | | |
| - Small (<25 lawyers) | -.276* | (.11) |
| - Medium (25-50 lawyers) | -.088 | (.09) |
| - Other (Not traditional firm) | -.790** | (.17) |
| High/low representation condition | -.304 | (.25) |
| Condition x race/ethnicity | .433* | (.16) |
| Condition x need to belong | .195 | (.13) |
| R ² | .269** | |

Notes. Study 2.

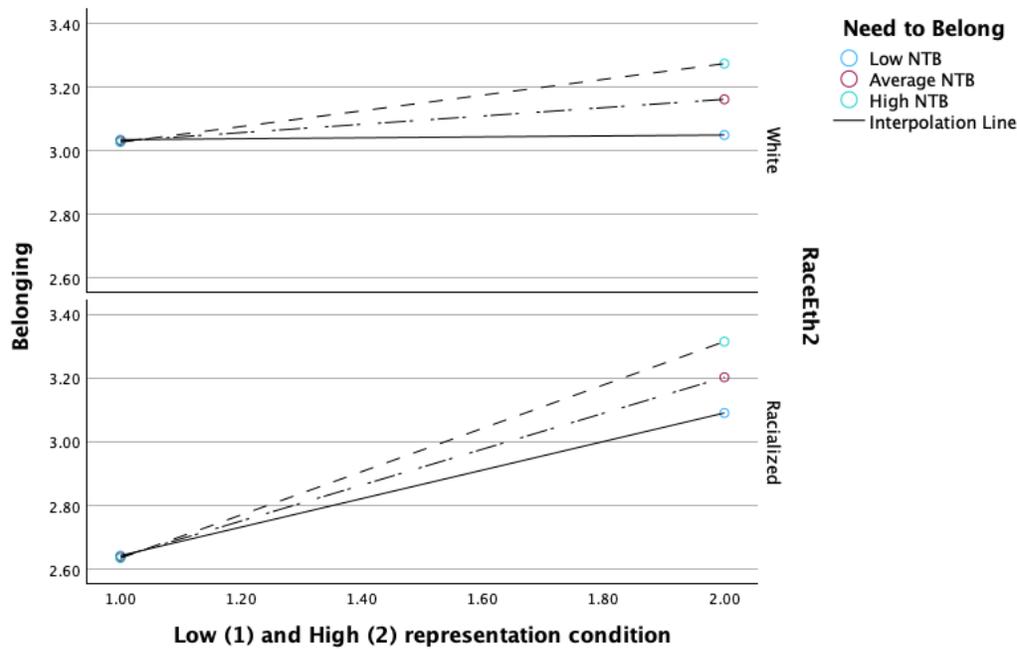
N = 228; Unstandardized beta coefficients reported. Condition (coded as 1= low representation; 2 = high representation).

Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Desired firm size (dummy coded with 'Large Firm, greater than 100 lawyers' as reference group).

Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized).** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Figure 7

Moderation analysis- graph representing the moderating effects of need to belong and race/ethnicity (Hypothesis 9)



Notes. Study 2. Low/high representation condition (coded as 1= low representation, 2= high representation). Belonging was measured on a 5-point scale.

Hypothesis 10 Test. Hypothesis 10 stated that belonging mediates the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic representation and job application intentions. This mediation was tested using Hayes PROCESS macro model 4 in SPSS for two distinct scales measuring job application intentions. As in Study 1, following Hayes' (2017) Macro PROCESS via bootstrapping method, we consider a mediator has a meditational effect when (1) the indirect effect (IE) of racial/ethnic representation on job application intentions via belonging (i.e., IE = path a x path b; a= the effect of racial/ethnic representation on the mediator of belonging, b = the effect of belonging on job application intentions) and (2) the 95 percent CI around the IE from 5000 bootstrap re-samples. The IE was accepted as statistically significant only if its LLCI and UULI 95 percent CI excluded zero.

For the first test, the manipulation (as independent variable) and belonging (as mediator) were entered along with the first measure of general job application intentions from Hentschel et al. (2021), along with gender, race/ethnicity, and desired firm size as covariates/controls. The results showed that path a (i.e. representation and belonging) ($\beta = .530, p = <.001$) and path b (i.e. belonging and application intentions) ($\beta = .516, p = <.001$) were both significant. Finally, when belonging entered the relationship between representation and application intentions, the direct effect of racial/ethnic representation on job application intentions was not significant ($b = .20, p = .30$). In addition, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the indirect effect was significant as it excluded zero ($b = .49, 95\% \text{ CI} [.27, .75]$), and the total effect was also significant ($b = .70, 95\% \text{ CI} [.27, 1.12]$). Hence, belonging fully mediates the relationship between the racial/ethnic representation and the first measure of job application intentions. Table 15 presents the mediation results for Hypothesis 10 and the first measure of job application intentions (i.e. Hentschel et al., 2021).

Table 15

Hayes PROCESS Macro Test of Mediating Effect of Belonging in the Relationship between Racial/Ethnic Representation and Job Application Intentions (Hentschel, et al., 2021, General Application Intent) (Hypothesis 10)

| Variables | Belonging (M) | General App. Intent (Y) |
|----------------------|---------------|-------------------------|
| Predictor | Coeff. (SE) | Coeff. (SE) |
| Control Variables | | |
| - Gender | -.187* (.09) | -.021 (.21) |
| - Race/ethnicity | -.202* (.08) | .651* (.19) |
| - Desired firm size | | |
| o Small | -.302* (.11) | -.916* (.26) |
| o Medium | -.102 (.10) | -.449* (.22) |
| o Other | -.791** (.17) | -1.45* (.40) |
| Independent Variable | | |
| - Condition | .355** (.23) | .203 (.19) |
| Mediator | | |
| - Belonging | --- | 1.39** (.16) |
| R ² | .23 | .43 |
| F- value | 11.16 | 24.06 |

Table 15 (continued).

| Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects | | |
|--|-----------------------------|-----------|
| | Unstandardized Coef. | SE |
| Direct and total effects | | |
| Condition on belonging (path <i>a</i>) | .355** | (.23) |
| Belonging on general app. intent (path <i>b</i>) | 1.39** | (.16) |
| Total effect of condition on general app intent (path <i>c</i>) | .696* | (.22) |
| Direct effect of condition on general App intent (path <i>c'</i>) | .203 | (.19) |
| Bootstrapping results for the indirect effect | | |
| Indirect effect of condition on general app intent via belonging | .493* | |
| CI (95%) | [.1500, .4174] | |

Notes. Study 2. N = 236; Unstandardized beta coefficients reported; standard errors are in parentheses. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI= confidence interval. Condition (coded as 1= low representation; 2 = high representation). Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Desired firm size (dummy coded with 'Large Firm, greater than 100 lawyers' as reference group) Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized). ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

For the second test, the manipulation (as independent variable) and belonging (as mediator) were entered along with the second measure of job application intentions (i.e. the scale from Highhouse et al., 2003), along with gender, race/ethnicity, and desired firm size as covariates/controls. The results showed that path a (i.e. representation and belonging) ($\beta = .53, p = <.001$) and path b (i.e. belonging and application intentions) ($\beta = .73, p = <.001$) were both significant. Finally, when belonging entered the relationship between representation and application intentions, the direct effect of racial/ethnic representation on job application intentions was not significant ($b = .10, p = .14$). In addition, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero ($b = .29, 95\% \text{ CI} [.16, .44]$) and the total model was also significant ($b = .39, 95\% \text{ CI} [.21, .57]$). Hence, belonging fully mediates the relationship between the racial/ethnic representation and the second measure of job

application intentions (i.e. Highhouse et al., 2003). Thus, Hypothesis 10 is supported. Table 16 presents the results of the mediation analysis.

Table 16

Hayes PROCESS Macro Test of Mediating Effect of Belonging in the Relationship between Racial/Ethnic Representation and Job Application Intentions (i.e. Highhouse et al., 2003) (Hypothesis 10)

| Variables | Belonging (<i>M</i>) | Application Intentions (<i>Y</i>) |
|----------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Predictor | Coeff. (<i>SE</i>) | Coeff. (<i>SE</i>) |
| Control Variables | | |
| - Gender | -.187* (.09) | -.021 (.07) |
| - Race/ethnicity | -.202* (.08) | .222* (.06) |
| - Desired firm size | | |
| o Small | -.302* (.11) | -.191* (.09) |
| o Medium | -.102 (.10) | -.035 (.07) |
| o Other | -.791** (.17) | -.309* (.14) |
| Independent Variable | | |
| - Condition | .355** (.23) | .096 (.07) |
| Mediator | | |
| - Belonging | --- | .826** (.05) |
| R ² | .23 | .63 |
| F- value | 11.16 | 58.88 |

Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects
Unstandardized Coef. SE

Direct and total effects

| | | |
|--|--------|-------|
| Condition on belonging (path <i>a</i>) | .355** | (.23) |
| Belonging on application intentions (path <i>b</i>) | .826** | (.05) |
| Total effect of condition on application intentions (path <i>c</i>) | .390** | (.09) |
| Direct effect of condition on application intentions (path <i>c'</i>) | .097 | (.07) |

Bootstrapping results for the indirect effect

| | | |
|--|----------------|--|
| Indirect effect of condition on application intentions via belonging | .293* | |
| CI (95%) | [.1613, .4345] | |

Notes. Study 2. N = 228; Unstandardized beta coefficients reported; standard errors are in parentheses. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI= confidence interval. Condition (coded as 1= low representation; 2 = high representation). Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Desired firm size (dummy coded with 'Large Firm, greater than 100 lawyers' as reference group) Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized). ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

To augment the analysis for Hypothesis 10 and to further address the research question of how belonging mediates the relationship between racial/ethnic representation and job application intentions, the effect of race/ethnicity was introduced as a moderator variable into the model, while also controlling for the effects of gender and desired firm size. Moderated mediation analysis was conducted using SPSS's PROCESS macro model 7 (Hayes, 2017) for all the outcome measures related to job application intentions.

First, the manipulation (as independent variable) and belonging (as mediator) were entered along with the first measure of job application intentions from Hentschel et al. (2021), along with gender, and desired firm size as covariates/controls. Race/ethnicity was included this time as a moderator variable. The results showed that the moderated mediation model is significant as the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval excluded zero (95% CI [.14, .97]). Specifically, path a (i.e. representation and belonging) is significantly moderated by race/ethnicity ($B = .40$, $SE = .16$, $p = .01$). A review of the slopes of the moderated a path shows that the conditional effects were significant only for racialized law students ($B = .55$, $SE = .11$, $p < .001$), but not for White law students ($B = .15$, $SE = .11$, $p = .20$). Results show the b path (i.e. belonging to application intentions) is also significant ($B = 1.30$, $SE = .16$, $p < .001$). When belonging entered the relationship between representation and application intentions, the direct effect of racial/ethnic representation on job application intentions was not significant ($B = .22$, $p = .27$). In addition, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero (95% CI [.40, 1.09]) for racialized law students. However, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the indirect effect included zero (95% CI [-.08, .48]) for White law students. Hence, the mediation effects of belonging fully mediate the relationship between the racial/ethnic representation and

the first measure of job application intentions for racialized law students only. Table 17 presents the results of the moderated mediation for the first measure of job application intentions (i.e. Hentschel et al., 2021) for hypothesis 10.

Table 17

Hayes PROCESS Macro Test of Moderated Mediation (i.e. Hentschel et al., 2021) (Hypothesis 10)

| Variables | Belonging (<i>M</i>) | General App. Intent (<i>Y</i>) |
|--|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Predictor | Coeff. (<i>SE</i>) | Coeff. (<i>SE</i>) |
| Control Variables | | |
| - Gender | -.189* (.09) | .042 (.21) |
| - Desired firm size | | |
| o Small | -.291* (.11) | -.105* (.26) |
| o Medium | -.076 (.10) | -.504 (.23) |
| o Other | -.813** (.16) | -1.54* (.41) |
| Independent Variable | | |
| - Condition | -.258 (.25) | .213 (.19) |
| - Belonging (<i>M</i>) | --- | 1.30** (.16) |
| - Race/ethnicity (<i>W</i>) | -.803* (.25) | --- |
| Interaction Term | | |
| - Condition x race/ethnicity | .403* (.16) | |
| R ² | .26 | .40 |
| F- value | 10.75 | 24.84 |
| Conditional effects of focal predictor at values of the moderator: | | |
| - White | .145 (.11) | |
| - Racialized | .549** (.11) | |
| Conditional Indirect Effects | | |
| - White | .189 (.14) | 95% <i>CI</i> -.07, .48 |
| - Racialized | .713* (.18) | .40, 1.08 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | | |
| | Index (<i>SE</i>) | |
| | .52* (.21) | .14, .97 |

Notes. Study 2. N = 228; Unstandardized beta coefficients reported; standard errors are in parentheses. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI= confidence interval. Condition (coded as 1= low representation; 2 = high representation). Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Desired firm size (dummy coded with 'Large Firm, greater than 100 lawyers' as reference group). Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized). ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

A second moderated mediation test was performed using the manipulation (as independent variable) and belonging (as mediator) along with the second measure of job application intentions and race/ethnicity included as a moderator. Gender, and desired firm size

were included as covariates/controls. The results showed that the moderated mediation model for this outcome measure is significant as the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the index of moderated mediation excluded zero (95% CI[.08,.58]). Specifically, path a (i.e. representation and belonging) is significantly moderated by race/ethnicity ($b = .40$, $SE = .16$, $p = .01$). A review of the slopes of the moderated a path shows that the conditional effects were significant only for racialized law students ($b = .55$, $SE = .11$, $p < .001$), but not for White law students ($b = .15$, $SE = .11$, $p = .20$). Results show the b path (i.e. belonging to application intentions) is also significant ($b = .795$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$). When belonging entered the relationship between representation and application intentions, the direct effect of racial/ethnic representation on job application intentions was not significant ($b = .10$, $p = .13$). In addition, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero ($b = .44$, 95% CI[.25,.65]) for racialized law students. However, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the indirect effect included zero ($b = .12$, 95% CI[-.05,.28]) for White law students. Hence, the mediation effects of belonging fully mediate the relationship between the racial/ethnic representation and the first measure of job application intentions for racialized law students only. Table 18 presents the results of the moderated mediation for the second measure of job application intentions (i.e. Highhouse et al., 2003) for hypothesis 10.

Table 18

Hayes PROCESS Macro Test of Moderated Mediation (i.e. Highhouse et al., 2003) (Hypothesis 10)

| Variables | Belonging (<i>M</i>) | Application Intentions (<i>Y</i>) |
|---------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Predictor | Coeff. (<i>SE</i>) | Coeff. (<i>SE</i>) |
| Control Variables | | |
| - Gender | -.189* (.09) | .043 (.07) |
| - Desired firm size | | |
| o Small | -.291* (.11) | -.236* (.08) |
| o Medium | -.076 (.10) | -.055 (.08) |

Table 18 (continued).

| | | |
|--|----------------------|---------------|
| ○ Other | -0.813** (.16) | -0.341* (.14) |
| Independent Variable | | |
| - Condition | -.258 (.25) | .102 (.07) |
| - Belonging (<i>M</i>) | --- | .795** (.05) |
| - Race/ethnicity (<i>W</i>) | -.803* (.25) | --- |
| Interaction Term | | |
| - Condition x race/ethnicity | .403* (.16) | |
| R ² | .26 | .61 |
| F- value | 10.75 | 57.87 |
| Conditional effects of focal predictor at values of the moderator: | | |
| - White | .145 (.11) | |
| - Racialized | .549** (.11) | |
| Conditional Indirect Effects | | |
| | Coeff. (<i>SE</i>) | 95% <i>CI</i> |
| - White | .116 (.08) | -.05, .28 |
| - Racialized | .436* (.09) | .25, .65 |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | | |
| | Index (<i>SE</i>) | |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | .32* (.21) | .08, .58 |

Notes. Study 2. N = 228; Unstandardized beta coefficients reported; standard errors are in parentheses. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI= confidence interval. Condition (coded as 1= low representation; 2 = high representation). Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Desired firm size (dummy coded with 'Large Firm, greater than 100 lawyers' as reference group). Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized). ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Hypothesis 11 Test. Hypothesis 11 stated that belonging mediates the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic representation and career aspirations. This mediation relationship was tested using Hayes PROCESS macro model 4. As above, we consider a mediator to have a meditational effect when (1) the indirect effect (IE) of racial/ethnic representation on job application intentions via belonging (i.e., $IE = \text{path } a \times \text{path } b$; a = the effect of racial/ethnic representation on the mediator of belonging, b = the effect of belonging on job application intentions) and (2) the 95% CI around the IE from 5000 bootstrapped samples. The IE was accepted as statistically significant only if its LLCI and UULI 95 percent confidence interval excluded zero.

First, the manipulation (as independent variable) and belonging (as mediator) were entered along with career aspirations (as dependent variable) from Foley et al., (2002), along with gender, race/ethnicity, and desired firm size as covariates/controls. The results showed that path a (i.e. representation and belonging) ($\beta = .53, p = <.001$) and path b (i.e. belonging and career aspirations) ($\beta = .65, p = <.001$) were both significant. Finally, when belonging entered the relationship between representation and career aspirations, the direct effect was not significant ($b = -.02, p = .79$). In addition, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero ($b = .34, 95\% CI = .19, .51$). Hence, belonging fully mediates the relationship between the racial/ethnic representation and career aspirations. Thus, hypothesis 11 is supported. Table 19 presents the mediation results for Hypothesis 11.

Table 19

Hayes PROCESS Macro Test of Mediating Effect of Belonging in the Relationship between Racial/Ethnic Representation and Career Aspirations (Hypothesis 11)

| Variables | Belonging (M) | Career Aspirations (Y) |
|--|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| Predictor | Coeff. (SE) | Coeff. (SE) |
| Control Variables | | |
| - Gender | -.187* (.09) | -.059 (.09) |
| - Race/ethnicity | -.202* (.08) | .116 (.08) |
| - Desired firm size | | |
| o Small | -.302* (.11) | -.335* (.11) |
| o Medium | -.102 (.10) | -.381* (.09) |
| o Other | -.791** (.17) | -.395* (.17) |
| Independent Variable | | |
| - Condition | .355** (.23) | -.023 (.08) |
| Mediator | | |
| - Belonging | --- | .811** (.07) |
| R ² | .23 | .52 |
| F- value | 11.16 | 33.67 |
| Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects | | |
| | Unstandardized Coef. | SE |

Table 19 (continued).

Direct and total effects

| | | |
|--|--------|-------|
| Condition on belonging (path <i>a</i>) | .355** | (.23) |
| Belonging on career aspirations (path <i>b</i>) | .811** | (.07) |
| Total effect of condition on career aspirations (path <i>c</i>) | .265* | (.10) |
| Direct effect of condition on career aspirations (path <i>c'</i>) | -.023 | (.08) |

Bootstrapping results for the indirect effect

| | | |
|--|----------------|--|
| Indirect effect of condition on career aspirations via belonging | .288* | |
| CI (95%) | [.1884, .5092] | |

Notes. Study 2. N = 228; Unstandardized beta coefficients reported; standard errors are in parentheses. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI= confidence interval. Condition (coded as 1= low representation; 2 = high representation). Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Desired firm size (dummy coded with 'Large Firm, greater than 100 lawyers' as reference group). Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized). ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

To account for race/ethnicity as a moderator in the testing of Hypothesis 11 and to further address the research question of how belonging mediates the relationship between racial/ethnic representation and career aspirations, the effect of race/ethnicity was included as a moderator variable into the mediation model, while also controlling for the effects of gender and desired firm size. Moderated mediation analysis was conducted using SPSS's PROCESS macro model 7 (Hayes, 2017).

First, the manipulation (as independent variable) and belonging (as mediator) were entered along with career aspirations (as dependent variable), along with race/ethnicity as a moderator and gender and desired firm size as covariates/controls. The results showed that the moderated mediation model is significant as the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval excluded zero ($b = .32$, 95%CI = .08, .58). Specifically, path *a* (i.e. representation and belonging) is significantly moderated by race/ethnicity ($b = .40$, SE = .16, $p = .01$). A review of the slopes of the moderated *a* path shows that the conditional effects were

significant only for racialized law students ($b = .55$, $SE = .11$, $p < .001$), but not for White law students ($b = .15$, $SE = .11$, $p = .20$). Results show the b path (i.e. belonging to career aspirations) is also significant ($b = .78$, $SE = .07$, $p < .001$). When belonging entered the relationship between representation and career aspirations, the direct effect of racial/ethnic representation on job application intentions was not significant ($b = -.02$, $SE = .08$, $p = .81$). In addition, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero ($b = .55$, 95% CI = .33, .76) for racialized law students. However, the bootstrapped LLCI and ULCI 95 percent confidence interval for the indirect effect included zero ($b = .15$, 95% CI = -.08, .37) for White law students. Hence, the conditional indirect effects of belonging fully mediate the relationship between the racial/ethnic representation and the career aspirations for racialized law students only. Table 20 presents the results of the moderated mediation analysis for Hypothesis 11.

Table 20

Hayes PROCESS Macro Test of Moderated Mediation (Hypothesis 11)

| Variables | Belonging (<i>M</i>) | Career Aspirations (<i>Y</i>) |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Predictor | Coeff. (<i>SE</i>) | Coeff. (<i>SE</i>) |
| Control Variables | | |
| - Gender | -.189* (.09) | -.048 (.08) |
| - Desired firm size | | |
| o Small | -.291* (.11) | -.359* (.11) |
| o Medium | -.076 (.10) | -.391* (.09) |
| o Other | -.813** (.16) | -.411* (.17) |
| Independent Variable | | |
| - Condition | -.258 (.25) | -.020 (.08) |
| - Belonging (<i>M</i>) | --- | .795** (.07) |
| - Race/ethnicity (<i>W</i>) | -.803* (.25) | --- |
| Interaction Term | | |
| - Condition x race/ethnicity | .403* (.16) | |
| R ² | .26 | .51 |
| F- value | 10.75 | 38.75 |

Table 20 (continued).

Conditional effects of focal predictor at values of the moderator:

| | | |
|------------------------------|--------------|-----------|
| - White | .145 (.11) | |
| - Racialized | .549** (.11) | |
| <hr/> | | |
| Conditional Indirect Effects | Coeff. (SE) | 95% CI |
| - White | .116 (.09) | -.05, .29 |
| - Racialized | .436* (.10) | .25, .64 |
| <hr/> | | |
| Index of Moderated Mediation | Index (SE) | |
| | .32* (.13) | .08, .58 |

Notes. Study 2. N = 228; Unstandardized beta coefficients reported; standard errors are in parentheses.

Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI= confidence interval. Condition (coded as 1= low representation; 2 = high representation).

Gender (coded as 1 = male; 2 = female). Desired firm size (dummy coded with 'Large Firm, greater than 100 lawyers' as reference group).

Race/ethnicity (coded as 1= white; 2 = racialized). ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Discussion- Study 2

The primary objective of this study was to deepen our understanding of the impact of organizational diversity cues on workplace belonging and its subsequent influence on career-related outcomes, specifically job application intentions and career aspirations. This investigation contributes to existing literature by examining the interplay between organizational diversity cues, particularly racial/ethnic representation, and individual experiences, elucidating how these factors collectively influence individuals' sense of belonging and, consequently, their attitudes towards career-related aspects. Aligned with previous research providing evidence that belonging can be undermined by contextual factors such as gendered underrepresentation in STEM domains (Veldman et al., 2021), this study demonstrates similar effects of racial/ethnic underrepresentation on belonging for racialized individuals.

In this research design, participants were exposed to an experimental manipulation involving mock press releases that varied in racial/ethnic representation within a large law firm. The study aimed to understand the effects of low and high racial/ethnic representation on belonging, considering individual characteristics such as the need to belong and race/ethnicity as

potential moderators. Additionally, the study explored the mediating role of belonging in the relationship between racial/ethnic representation and two critical career-related outcomes: job application intentions and career aspirations. The study's findings contribute to the literature in several ways. First, analyses supported the hypothesis regarding the impact of racial/ethnic representation on belonging. Participants exposed to the high representation condition reported significantly higher levels of belonging compared to those in the low representation condition, emphasizing the role of representation in fostering a sense of belonging. Moderation analyses nuanced these findings, demonstrating that the relationship between representation and belonging was more pronounced for racialized law students than their White counterparts. Like in the first study, and contrary to expectations, the study did not find support for the moderating role of the need to belong in the relationship between racial/ethnic representation and belonging. This suggests that the effect of representation on belonging is consistent across varying levels of individual need to belong.

Beyond direct effects, the study investigated the mediating role of belonging in the relationship between racial/ethnic representation and job application intentions. The results indicated that belonging fully mediated this relationship for racialized law students but not for White students, shedding light on the underlying mechanisms connecting diversity cues to career-related outcomes. However, it is essential to acknowledge the limitations of this study. First, the use of mock press releases, while providing experimental control, might not fully capture the complexity of real workplace situations. Additionally, the sample, predominantly consisting of law students, may limit the generalizability of the findings to other professional domains. Moreover, the study primarily focused on short-term outcomes, and longitudinal research could provide insights into the long-term effects of racial/ethnic representation on career

trajectories. Despite these limitations, this study offers valuable contributions to the existing literature on representation, belonging, and career-related outcomes.

Chapter 6: General Discussion

This dissertation examined the mediating role of belonging in the association between organizational diversity cues and career-related outcomes. Specifically, it addressed the following research questions:

1. How are organizational diversity cues related to an individual's sense of belonging at work?
2. How is an individual's sense of belonging associated with career-related outcomes, particularly career aspirations, turnover intentions, and job application intentions?
3. Does belonging play a mediating role in the relationship between organizational diversity cues and career-related outcomes? Further, do justice and belonging sequentially mediate this relationship?
4. Do individual differences in the "need to belong" influence the effect of organizational diversity cues on belongingness?

Study 1, a field study, investigated the role of belonging in the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and career aspirations and found that perceived workplace racial discrimination is significantly related to sense of belonging for lawyers working in medium to large sized law firms in Canada (supporting H1). The data revealed a negative association between perceived workplace racial discrimination and belonging, suggesting that increased discrimination is linked to decreased feelings of belonging. Study 1 also revealed that perceived organizational justice mediated this relationship (supporting H2), identifying organizational justice as a key explanatory factor. In Study 1, belonging was found to be a predictor of both career aspirations and turnover intentions (supporting H3 and H4). Further probing the psychological mechanisms through which organizational diversity cues influence

belonging, Study 1 examined a sequentially mediating association between perceived workplace racial discrimination, organizational justice, belonging and career aspirations, as well as a sequentially mediating association between perceived workplace racial discrimination, organizational justice, belonging and turnover intentions and found support for these relationships (supporting H5 and H6). The consistent findings from Study 1 across cross-sectional and temporally separated data validated the robustness of these relationships. Contrary to expectations, Study 1 did not find support for the moderating effect of an individual's need to belong (thus, H7 was not supported). I also conducted additional analyses with the cross-sectional data to explore the potential effects of race/ethnicity in this study. The data showed that race/ethnicity did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and belonging but did influence the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and perceptions of organizational justice.

Augmenting the first study, Study 2 (an experimental study) was conducted to examine the mediating role of belonging in the association between racial/ethnic representation and job application intentions, as well as the relationship between racial/ethnic representation and career aspirations. Results of Study 2 demonstrated that racial/ethnic representation was related to anticipated belonging for law students (supporting H8), confirming the anticipated positive correlation between high representation and increased feelings of belonging. Study 2 also revealed that belonging mediated the relationship between representation and career-related outcomes, including job application intentions (supporting H10) and career aspirations (supporting H11), supplementing the results of Study 1. Study 2 results, as in the first study, did not support the moderating effect of an individual's need to belong (thus, H9 was not supported). I again conducted additional analyses to explore the potential effects of race/ethnicity in Study 2.

Results showed that race/ethnicity had a significant moderating effect on the relationship between racial/ethnic representation and belonging, but the interaction was significant only for racialized law students. In addition, results of moderated mediation analyses demonstrated mediating effects of belonging in the relationship between representation and career-related outcomes for racialized students only. Table 21 presents a summary of the hypotheses and results from both studies.

Table 21

| Hypothesis | Study 1 | | Study 2 |
|--|------------------|---------------|---------------|
| | Cross- sectional | Matched Data | |
| H1: Perceived racial discrimination is related to belonging such that higher levels of perceived racial discrimination will predict lower levels of belonging. | Supported | Supported | ----- |
| H2: Perceptions of organizational justice mediate the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and belonging. | Supported | Supported | ----- |
| H3: Belonging is related to career aspirations, such that lower levels of belonging will predict lower levels of career aspirations. | Supported | Supported | ----- |
| H4: Belonging is related to turnover intentions, such that lower levels of belonging will predict greater levels of turnover intent. | Supported | Supported | ----- |
| H5: Organizational justice perceptions and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and career aspirations. | Supported | Not supported | ----- |
| H6: Organizational justice perceptions and belonging sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and turnover intentions. | Supported | Supported | ----- |
| H7: The relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and belonging is moderated by an individual's need to belong, such that the effect is stronger for those high in need to belong than for those low in need to belong. | Not supported | Not supported | ----- |
| H8: Racial/ethnic representation is related to belonging such that higher levels of representation will predict higher levels of belonging. | ----- | ----- | Supported |
| H9: The relationship between racial/ethnic representation and belonging is moderated by an individual's need to belong, such that the effect is stronger for those high in need to | ----- | ----- | Not supported |

| | | | |
|---|-------|-------|-----------|
| belong than for those low in need to belong. | | | |
| H10: Belonging mediates the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic representation and job application intentions. | ----- | ----- | Supported |
| H11: Belonging mediates the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic representation and career aspirations. | ----- | ----- | Supported |

While both studies affirm the direct relationship between their respective diversity cues and belonging, they complement each other in terms of methodology and focus. Study 1 provided a nuanced examination of the mediating role of organizational justice, enriching the understanding of underlying mechanisms. Study 2, through experimental manipulation, brought a dynamic element to the exploration of the effects of racial/ ethnic representation, emphasizing its influence on belonging and downstream career-related outcomes. Results from both studies converged in finding that belonging mediates the relationship between organizational diversity cues and career-related outcomes. Taken together, the results highlight belonging as a psychological process through which perceived workplace racial discrimination (Study 1) and racial/ethnic representation (Study 2) may influence career aspirations and turnover intentions. The findings also reveal how organizational diversity cues and an individual’s race/ethnicity may interact to influence belonging; that is, the effects of diversity cues (i.e. racial/ethnic representation) on belonging may be stronger for racialized individuals. Moreover, when comparing the results of study 1 and study 2, the findings suggest that the moderating effects of race/ethnicity are not universal and may differ depending on the type of organizational diversity cue. In addition, the results suggest the mediating effects of belonging may be conditional on race/ethnicity. I discuss the specific implications of these findings for theory and practice in the following subsections.

Theoretical Implications

The current work makes meaningful contributions to both the literature on belonging at work and the literature on diversity and inclusion. First, this paper brings together social psychology and organizational research by bridging the social psychological literature on belonging with the examination of potential organizational diversity factors influencing the continued underrepresentation of racialized individuals in senior roles, specifically within the legal context. There have been a variety of explanations proposed for the continued racial/ethnic underrepresentation at senior levels within organizations, including recent work on developmental networks (Chanland & Murphy, 2018), racial bias (Obenauer & Langer, 2019) and prejudice (Lu et al., 2020), and systemic issues with recruitment, training, and internal policies (Dobbin & Kalev, 2022). However, a critical aspect that remains unexplored in this discourse is the circular relationship between belonging and underrepresentation, reminiscent of the “chicken and egg” phenomenon. In other words, how a sense of belonging- or lack thereof- may contribute to and perpetuate the underrepresentation of racialized individuals in senior roles. The findings detailed above support belonging as a variable that has potential influence on the continued persistence of this phenomenon and is a construct deserving of further discussion and exploration within the organizational diversity and inclusion discourse. Specifically, the significant relationship observed between belonging and career aspirations, as well as turnover intentions, suggests that lack of belonging can act as a barrier for individuals aspiring to reach senior roles. When individuals feel a lack of belonging, their career aspirations may diminish, leading to a reduced likelihood of pursuing advancement opportunities. Moreover, the higher turnover intentions associated with lower levels of belonging affirm that individuals who experience a sense of exclusion or alienation are more likely leave the organization, further

perpetuating the underrepresentation at senior levels. By examining the role of belonging in shaping career-related outcomes and its potential implications for underrepresentation, this research shed light on a previously overlooked mechanism that contributes to the persistence of this phenomenon. It underscores the importance of fostering belonging, so that individuals are empowered to heighten and pursue their career aspirations. Moreover, it highlights the need for organizations to address organizational factors that contribute to systemic barriers affecting belonging to mitigate the underrepresentation of racialized individuals in senior roles.

Second, this paper adds to existing research on how contextual cues influence belonging, expanding beyond a gendered lens. The focus of belonging research, thus far, has centered mainly on gender and STEM careers (Murphy et al., 2007; Pietri et al., 2019b; Steele et al., 2002), but recent work has advocated for greater focus within diversity scholarship on the unique differences that characterize race versus gender relations (Martin, 2023). Thus, the current research extends our current understanding of belonging beyond gender-specific aspects. Third, it identifies two distinct organizational diversity cues as antecedents of belonging: perceived workplace racial discrimination and racial/ethnic representation. In doing so, this research advances an emerging body of research recognizing the important role that diversity cues may play in shaping marginalized employees' experiences, and specifically, feelings of belonging at work (Georgeac & Rattan, 2023; Lewis et al., 2021; Muragishi et al., 2023). Finally, both studies broaden the traditional focus of existing research by including a diverse sample encompassing both White and racialized individuals. This inclusive approach allows for a nuanced examination of the moderating effects of race/ethnicity, which revealed intriguing findings. Notably, the results showed distinct moderated mediating effects of belonging for racialized law students in Study 2, but not for White law students. This augments recent work by Hentschel and colleagues

(2021) who found differing mediation effects for men and women. Specifically, their results showed that anticipated belongingness mediated the relationship between gendered wording in recruitment advertisements and the pursuit of career development programs, but only for women. Thus, the current research adds to the literature by extending our understanding of belonging as a mediator, particularly by highlighting how its role varies across populations not just based on gender, but also race/ethnicity, contributing nuanced insights to the existing body of knowledge.

Organizational Diversity Cues and Belonging. As hypothesized, the findings of the current research showed that organizational diversity cues were related to belonging. These results were established across two distinct samples and methodologies, thus confirming theoretical insights, and supplementing empirical work demonstrating that individuals look to contextual cues for signs that they belong (Muragishi et al., 2023; O'Brien et al., 2020; Walton & Cohen, 2007). While previous research has empirically established a relationship between organizational diversity cues and lowered sense of belonging, these studies have typically focused on the effects of contextual cues for female students in STEM programs and women in organizations. The findings in this paper include experiences of lawyers and law students, highlighting that negative diversity cues related to race/ethnicity are similarly detrimental to the sense of belonging of individuals.

Looking specifically at perceived workplace racial discrimination as an organizational diversity cue, the data from Study 1 builds on previous work by confirming the negative effects of perceived discrimination on belonging in the novel context of professional workers, namely lawyers. Given the established literature on discrimination and belonging in school and social psychology (Hussain & Jones, 2021; Lewis et al., 2021), this finding is not surprising. However, results from this study differ from previous work and additionally contribute to the literature by

suggesting that increased perceived workplace racial discrimination is associated with decreased belonging for all employees, not just those who are racialized. Contrary to theorizing which suggests that racialized employees may feel especially attuned to and devalued by discriminatory treatment because of the threat to their social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), I would expect that perceived discrimination would have a stronger negative influence on racialized lawyers' sense of belonging. Perhaps, however, it is precisely because all employees, regardless of race, expect fair treatment of themselves and others, that the results showed no significant difference between racial/ethnic groups in the strength of this relationship. This finding raises intriguing questions about the role of perceived justice and fair treatment of others in fostering individuals' feelings of belonging at work.

Looking specifically at racial/ethnic representation as an organizational diversity cue, the data from Study 2 confirmed hypothesized differences in anticipated belonging between groups in the high and low representation conditions. Moreover, the results demonstrated a stronger link between representation and belonging for racialized law students. These results echo previous findings in school psychology research which found that Black students showed a decrease in anticipated sense of belonging when they were led to believe they would encounter few friends in an intellectual domain, while White students were unaffected (Walton & Cohen, 2007). These findings are meaningful because they demonstrate how organizational communications may shape underrepresented group members' outlook on a given organization prior to any actual interaction with individuals or teams within the organization, forming opinions about anticipated belonging even before entry into the firm. These findings complement recent work by Georgeac and Rattan (2023), who studied the consequences of organizational diversity cases (that is, communication about the “why” surrounding an organizations' diversity initiatives i.e.

instrumental vs. non-instrumental) on anticipated belonging. Their results found that the business case (vs. the fairness case) for diversity undermined underrepresented groups' anticipated sense of belonging to the organization. However, the results of Study 2 expand on previous work in the sense that, while diversity statements are an intended and explicit source of information regarding diversity, other sources of organizational communications (i.e. press releases) can have implicit and unintended effects on organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions, via anticipated belonging.

In examining the intriguing differences between the findings of Study 1 and Study 2 regarding the moderating role of race/ethnicity between each of the organizational diversity cues and belonging, it is important to consider both theoretical and methodological explanations. While both perceived racial discrimination and racial/ethnic representation fall under the umbrella of organizational diversity cues, they are distinct constructs. First, workplace racial discrimination represents a direct experience of bias and unfair treatment within the organizational context. Results showed that individuals who perceive greater levels of discrimination are likely to experience diminished feelings of belonging, regardless of racial/ethnic identity. Conversely, racial/ethnic representation pertains to the composition of the workforce and the extent to which individuals perceive diversity and inclusion within the organization. Unlike discrimination, which is observed or experienced firsthand, representation can be perceived or anticipated based on organizational demographics and diversity initiatives. In study 2, where racial/ethnic representation was the focal point, the moderating effect of race/ethnicity indicates that individuals from racialized groups may interpret and respond to identity-based diversity cues differently compared to their non-racialized counterparts. This finding aligns with social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and suggests that the

relationship between representation and belonging may be contingent upon individuals' racial/ethnic identity and the salience of diversity within their social context.

Furthermore, it is important to consider methodological differences in understanding the nuanced relationship between organizational diversity cues and belonging. Study 1 adopted a field approach, which entails capturing real-world experiences of workplace discrimination among legal professionals. This method allows for a comprehensive examination of the direct impact of perceived racial discrimination on individuals' sense of belonging in their professional environments. Study 2 employed an experimental design to manipulate perceptions of racial/ethnic representation among law students. The methodological approach adopted in each study may influence participants' cognitive processes and emotional responses to organizational diversity cues. For instance, participants in study 1 drew upon personal experiences and emotional reactions to workplace discrimination, which could have amplified the negative impact on sense of belonging for all participants. In contrast, participants in Study 2 imagined or anticipated their belongingness in response to a hypothetical press release which may not have the same effect on all participants. In light of these findings, it is important to consider that the discrepancy in findings between the two studies may be attributed to the multifaceted nature of organizational diversity cues and their differential impact on belonging. While discrimination may elicit a more universal sense of exclusion, the interpretation of representation may vary based on individual characteristics and contextual factors.

Belonging and Career-related Outcomes. Studying how belonging influences career outcomes is crucial because it helps explain why marginalized individuals make different career choices, leading to a shortage of candidates for senior roles (Barbelescu & Bidwell, 2013; Brands & Fernandez-Mateo, 2017; Xu & Lastrapes, 2022). Accordingly, this paper addresses scholars'

call to explore new factors affecting career aspirations and intentions (Brands et al., 2017; Sellars et al., 2022). As hypothesized, increased belonging was related to improved career-related outcomes across both studies. In Study 1, the data identified greater belonging among lawyers was associated with increased aspirations for partnership within the firm, as well as decreased intentions to leave the firm. In Study 2, results showed greater anticipated belonging among law students was associated with increased organizational attraction and increased intention to apply to the hypothetical law firm, as well as greater expectations for advancement within the firm. These findings not only augment existing research linking belonging to achievement motivations such as increased persistence in school and lowered school dropouts (Totonichi et al., 2023; Uslu & Gizir, 2017), but also establish a basis for this relationship within the organizational context. Given the extent of research on the consequences of belonging within the school and social psychology domains, it is surprising that the effects of belonging on career advancement, persistence and turnover in organizations have not yet been similarly explored. Regarding turnover intentions, Study 1 confirmed the hypothesis that belonging was related to turnover intentions, specifically that increased belonging was significantly related to decreased turnover intentions. These results provide needed clarification in the literature which yields mixed findings. For example, while Jeswani and Dave (2012) theorized that sense of belonging would predict turnover intentions among faculty members, they did not find a significant result. Their study used Somers' (1999) Belongingness Scale, instead of the more recently developed scale used in the current research, which may have contributed to their null findings.

Belonging as Mediator. The current research provides a nuanced perspective on the mediating role of belonging in the relationship between organizational diversity cues and career-related outcomes. Results of the simple mediation analysis in Study 2 without the moderator

showed an overall significant mediation effect for the entire sample, which could be a composite of the effects of both racialized and White students. However, when I introduced race/ethnicity as a moderator, the results suggest that the mediation effect is driven primarily by the racialized students, while the effect is not significant for White students. This implies that the relationship between racial/ethnic representation, belonging, and career-related outcomes is more nuanced and varies across different racial/ethnic groups. Interestingly, the moderated mediation findings of Study 2 suggest the mediating effects of belonging may be conditional on race/ethnicity. As outlined in Hayes et al. (2017), a first-stage conditional process model is one in which the effect of the predictor on the mediator depends on the moderator. In the case of Study 2, when controlling for race/ethnicity, belonging significantly mediated the relationship between representation and the outcome variables. However, when race/ethnicity was introduced as a moderator, the interaction effect of race/ethnicity on representation was significant only for racialized employees and belonging no longer mediated the relationship for White law students. The introduction of the moderator variable, in this case, race/ethnicity, influenced the mediation effects differently across groups. This nuanced finding contributes to the literature of belonging by aligning with our understanding of the influence of social identity and identity threats on one's sense of belonging. Perhaps because of the importance of identity and identity threat in the fulfilment of belonging needs, the effects of the representation manipulation in Study 2 were more meaningful for racialized law students. In other words, while increased racial/representation may be associated with increased belonging for everyone, it provides greater benefit to those whose identity is threatened in that domain (i.e. racialized law students in the legal space).

We might also consider the strong mediation effect observed in the overall sample in Study 2 might be due to the substantial impact of belonging for racialized students, even if the effect is not significant or less pronounced for White students when considering them separately. This finding underscores the importance of considering subgroup differences in the interpretation of mediation effects, as they can provide valuable insights into how certain factors operate in distinct groups within the overall sample. In addition, these results broaden our understanding of how organizational diversity cues may impact belonging more universally.

Another finding that extends our understanding of belongingness at work are the results of the sequential mediation in Study 1, which integrated identity theory with the literature on organizational justice. As mentioned in the literature review, existing work has mainly relied on identity theory as the overarching framework for the empirical study of belonging. For example, Georgeac and Rattan (2023) identified organizational diversity cases as a source of identity threat, which then resulted in decreased feelings of anticipated belonging for participants. Study 1 offers an additional explanatory framework, uniquely exploring the role of organizational justice as a mediating factor, departing from prior research, and providing a more comprehensive understanding of the discrimination-belonging-career outcomes relationship. Tests of the indirect effects in Study 1 suggested that organizational justice and belonging mediated the relationship between perceived workplace racial discrimination and career-related outcomes. By uncovering this relationship, the findings of this paper help to further understand the important role of fair treatment and perceptions of justice in fostering a sense of belonging in employees.

Need to Belong as Moderator. Surprisingly, the null findings for the role of 'Need to Belong' as a moderator contrast with previous literature indicating individual differences in how people respond to various situations. Given the robust empirical support for 'Need to Belong' as a

significant individual difference, it raises the possibility that the non-significant results may stem from contextual or measurement issues within the current study. One potential explanation could be related to individual differences in how participants interpret experiences of discrimination, shaping their perspectives on belongingness. It is plausible that the impact of 'Need to Belong' is contingent on the specific context or the way discrimination is perceived. Another possible explanation is the relatively low standard deviation of the measure in both Study 1 and Study 2. A low standard deviation in the moderator variable, indicative of limited variability, diminishes the sensitivity and statistical power of moderation analyses (e.g., Hayes, 2017; Preacher et al., 2007). With values closely clustered around the mean, detecting significant interaction effects becomes challenging, as the interaction term may fail to capture sufficient variation. This limitation in variability can lead to null findings for moderation hypotheses, hindering the identification of subgroup differences and compromising the generalizability of results. Future research might consider strategies such as increasing the sample size or refining the measurement of the moderator variable to enhance the robustness of their analyses.

Additionally, qualitative research methods, such as interviews or focus groups, could provide deeper insights into participants' subjective experiences and interpretations of discrimination and racial/ethnic representation, contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of the complex dynamics at play. Another explanation for this null finding may be rooted in a more subtle theoretical understanding of the variable. For individuals high in need to belong, perceived workplace racial discrimination may intensify their sensitivity to the belongingness need, amplifying their determination to seek inclusion. Research suggests that threats to the need for belonging and self-esteem can motivate high- NTB individuals to behave in ways that help re-establish social connections (Walton et al., 2012; Williams, 2007;).

Therefore, working lawyers who are high in need to belong and experience higher levels of discrimination may be compensating for the exclusionary aspects of discrimination through relationship building and support-seeking thereby fostering increased belonging in their organization.

Practical Implications

Organizations striving to address underrepresentation and promote diversity and inclusion can glean actionable insights from this research, placing a primary focus on fostering a sense of belonging among employees. Recent practitioner literature abounds with articles stressing the importance of belonging for diversity, equity, and inclusion (Carr et al., 2019; Davis, 2022; Huie, 2022; Runyon, 2022). Yet, little research is available to underscore this argument. This paper provides guidance for practitioners and organizations looking for an empirical understanding of how and why behind belonging contributes to the issues of inclusion and underrepresentation by demonstrating that initiatives aimed at diversity, equity, and inclusion should prioritize experiential aspects contributing significantly to employees' belonging.

In addition, this paper emphasizes the significance of considering workplace belongingness not only during the recruitment phase but also throughout an employee's career trajectory within an organization, up to its highest levels. Study 2 delved into law students' impressions of a hypothetical organization, anticipated sense of belonging, and organizational attraction. Conversely, Study 1 focused on working lawyers, investigating their felt belonging and its implications for career mobility intentions within the firm, as well as the decision to exit the organization. The results from both studies underscore the importance of belonging in

shaping job pursuit intentions among potential applicants and influencing the career advancement of current employees.

An immediate practical implication of these findings is in the realm of talent acquisition and recruitment strategies. Organizations are urged to recognize the pivotal role of workplace belongingness in the self-selection process of racialized employees. To enhance positive impressions and increase the likelihood of attracting diverse talent, measures should be implemented during recruitment that actively foster belongingness. The findings from Study 2 provided additional insight into the type of information that may subtly influence job application decisions of racialized individuals. Prior research into applicant behaviours suggests that potential applicants look online for details to inform whether they should apply (Christophers & Gotian, 2020; Hadinger, 2017). This research posits that information found online may be particularly important for underrepresented groups in the absence of other influences, like mentorship and career advising. Additionally, the findings from Study 1 highlight the impact of belonging on working lawyers' career mobility intentions within the firm and their decisions to exit. To address this, organizations can focus on cultivating a sense of belonging to career advancement expectations, career aspirations and retention rates among current employees.

Beyond recruitment and retention, this research underscores the importance of diversity, equity, and inclusion initiatives that extend throughout an employee's tenure. Organizations are encouraged to go beyond addressing diversity solely during recruitment and to integrate ongoing efforts that specifically promote belongingness. Initiatives such as mentorship programs, affinity groups, and inclusive leadership practices may contribute to a workplace culture that supports the career advancement of all employees. While this paper focused on organizational diversity cues

as antecedents of belonging, studying the effects of these types of initiatives on increasing sense of belonging would prove a fruitful avenue for future research. Organizations can leverage these findings to communicate the benefits of belongingness, including increased organizational attraction, increased job pursuit intentions, increased career aspirations and increased retention. By linking belongingness to these outcomes, organizational leaders are provided with a compelling rationale to invest in initiatives that support a sense of belonging among all employees.

Recognizing the impact of perceived workplace discrimination on belonging, organizations should proactively implement policies and practices designed to counteract discriminatory behaviors and attitudes, including microaggressions, which have been empirically linked to decreased sense of belonging in schools (Lewis et al., 2021). Appreciating the profound impact of racial/ethnic representation on employees' sense of belonging, organizations should strive for diverse representation at all levels. This extends beyond recruitment to creating pathways for the advancement of diverse talent. Belonging interventions are one avenue for organizations to consider. A belonging intervention refers to a deliberate and structured effort by an organization to foster a sense of belonging among its employees. The aim is to create an inclusive workplace culture where individuals, regardless of their background or identity, feel accepted, valued, and connected to the organization and their colleagues. Belonging interventions can take various forms, including programs, policies, and practices designed to enhance inclusivity and strengthen the sense of community within the workplace. Social belonging interventions have been shown to improve academic and health outcomes for racialized students (Brady et al., 2020; Walton et al., 2020; Walton & Cohen, 2011; Williams et al., 2020), including improving retention outcomes (Patterson Silver Wolf et al., 2021), but have

not yet been tested for increasing sense of belonging among racialized employees and improving associated workplace and career related- outcomes.

Finally, a noteworthy distinction between the two studies suggests that organizations should consider the differential impact of negative diversity cues. In Study 2, where the focus is on the impact of racial/ethnic representation on belonging, the moderating effect of race is notably apparent and significant for racialized law students. This contrasts with Study 1, which examines perceived workplace racial discrimination as a predictor of belonging, and where the moderating effect of race does not surface. This nuanced contrast underscores the differential impact that distinct organizational diversity cues may have on belonging for White and racialized individuals.

In summary, the practical implications derived from this research offer a comprehensive roadmap for organizations committed to addressing underrepresentation and promoting diversity and inclusion. By placing belonging at the forefront and emphasizing initiatives that foster inclusive environments, organizations can effectively navigate challenges related to workplace discrimination, enhance racial/ethnic representation, and tailor interventions to specific organizational dynamics.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The present research, while contributing valuable insights to the understanding of organizational cues, belonging, and career outcomes, is not without its limitations. These constraints, inherent in the research design and implementation, merit careful consideration for a comprehensive evaluation of the study's findings. In this section, I address the limitations associated with both Study 1 and Study 2, shedding light on potential constraints and avenues for future research.

In Study 1, the self-report nature of the data raises concerns about common method variance. However, these concerns were diligently mitigated through a priori considerations in the study design, statistical remedies, and the inclusion of a matched data set for comparison. Nevertheless, the cross-sectional design restricts my ability to draw causal inferences, and the field study setting introduces limitations to internal validity. While I made efforts to mitigate common method variance through a priori considerations, statistical remedies, and matched data set inclusion, the potential influence of social desirability bias, especially in a professional context, should also be considered. Participants may have been inclined to respond in ways they perceived as favorable, potentially impacting the accuracy of self-reported measures. The effect of social desirability bias was mitigated through assurances of confidentiality and self-generated anonymous ID codes.

Furthermore, the law firm sample may limit the generalizability of findings beyond this specific professional domain. In addition, the sample collection process from eight Canadian law firms introduces potential concerns related to sampling bias. The method of reaching out to firms, primarily through email contacts of Managing Partners, head of Diversity, Equity and Inclusion, or similar roles, might have inadvertently introduced a bias toward individuals who are more accessible or inclined to participate in external surveys. The firms that responded positively may have distinctive characteristics compared to those that did not respond or declined participation, potentially influencing the generalizability of the findings. While the reliance on law firms with at least twenty-five associates was intentional to increase participation, this approach might introduce a bias toward larger firms, possibly neglecting insights from smaller firms with different organizational dynamics. Future research may consider including firms of all sizes. Additionally, the study's focus on Canadian law firms might limit the generalizability of

findings to law firms in other geographical locations, where organizational cultures and practices could differ. Similarly, the demographic composition of the sample, with a majority identifying as White and a specific age distribution, may limit the generalizability of the findings to more diverse age groups and ethnic backgrounds within the legal profession. It is crucial to acknowledge these limitations when interpreting and applying the study's results.

While Study 2 contributes valuable insights to the understanding of law students' responses to diversity representation, it is essential to acknowledge certain limitations inherent in the study design. Despite efforts to exert experimental control, the use of mock press releases may not fully replicate the intricacies of real-life and/or workplace situations. However, by piloting the mock press releases with law students before the main study, I enhanced the robustness of the research design. Qualitative feedback from this pilot phase informed adjustments to the press releases, demonstrating a proactive approach to refining the study materials.

During the recruitment process, relying on collaboration with law students' associations and career centers, I faced challenges in securing responses from all contacted institutions. However, this common hurdle in survey-based research does not diminish the meaningful findings from the obtained sample, which comprised responses from participants across seven Canadian law schools. The lack of detailed information on the size of email distribution lists and weekly newsletters, combined with the confidentiality of responses, prevented the calculation of an overall response rate. While this limits the ability to gauge the representativeness of the sample, the focus on participant confidentiality aligns with ethical considerations, ensuring participants felt comfortable sharing their perspectives.

As in Study 1, the sample, in this case comprising of law students, poses a limitation regarding the generalizability of the findings to a broader demographic. The study's exclusive focus on Canadian law schools ensures a targeted examination of diversity representation within a specific context. While this focus enhances the study's depth, it also prompts caution in generalizing findings beyond the legal profession and Canadian academic institutions. Finally, while the study of short-term outcomes in an experimental design yielded insightful results, questions persist regarding the enduring effects of diversity cues on long-term career trajectories. Longitudinal studies are also encouraged to unravel the temporal dynamics of these relationships, providing insights into the enduring effects of organizational cues on belonging and belonging on career outcomes over time.

Both Study 1 and Study 2 provide valuable insights into the dynamics of organizational cues, belonging, and career outcomes, yet they are not immune to limitations. Study 1's reliance on self-report data and its cross-sectional design raise considerations for causal inferences and internal validity. The law firm-centric sample may limit generalizability, emphasizing the need for caution in extending findings. Study 2's use of mock press releases, despite piloting efforts, introduces artificiality concerns. Recruitment challenges and sample specifics also prompt caution in generalizing results. Acknowledging these limitations, the studies contribute meaningfully to the field, paving the way for future research to delve into nuanced aspects, employ diverse samples, and explore the enduring effects of organizational cues on long-term career trajectories.

For future research endeavors, several recommendations emerge from these limitations. A more nuanced exploration of potential moderators and mediators within the organizational diversity cues-belonging-career outcomes framework could unveil additional layers of

complexity, shedding light on the mechanisms through which *positive* diversity cues impact individuals' sense of belonging and career-related outcomes. For example, Muragishi et al. (2023) conducted a series of experiments investigating the role of microinclusions, which convey receptivity and supportiveness toward individuals' contributions, in fostering a sense of fit in technology settings. Their findings suggest that such positive diversity cues may be particularly impactful for women, who often face underrepresentation and negative stereotypes in these contexts, highlighting the importance of treatment from coworkers that affirms opportunities for contribution. Drawing parallels, similar positive diversity cues, such as racial microinclusions in organizational settings, may also serve as critical factors in fostering a sense of belonging and career advancement opportunities for individuals from underrepresented racial and ethnic backgrounds. Moreover, incorporating alternative methods to assess the specific cues examined in this paper, such as obtaining an objective measure of racial/ethnic representation from participating law firms in Study 1, could enhance the robustness of the results and provide additional evidence for consideration. Comparative research across various professional settings could also contribute to the generalizability of the findings, recognizing the potential impact of contextual variations. Additionally, further investigations into the role of organizational culture in shaping responses to diversity cues could offer valuable contextual understanding and enrich the overall comprehension of the phenomena under examination.

Building on the findings of the current research, future investigations could adopt an intersectional lens to delve deeper into the complexities of workplace dynamics. While the studies focused on the mediating role of belonging in the context of organizational diversity cues, particularly workplace racial discrimination and racial/ethnic representation, there is an opportunity to explore the intersectionality of race and gender. Considering the potential

interplay between these identity dimensions can provide a more comprehensive understanding of how individuals navigate diverse organizational environments (Crenshaw, 1989).

Intersectionality recognizes that individuals embody multiple social identities simultaneously, and these intersections can shape unique experiences and outcomes (Collins, 1990; Hall et al., 2019). For example, investigating how diversity cues impact the belonging of racialized women compared to racialized men or non-racialized women could unveil nuanced patterns and shed light on the intersecting challenges they face (McCluney & Rabelo, 2019). Study 1 descriptive statistics showed female participants perceived higher levels of discrimination, lower levels of organizational justice and lower levels of belonging than male participants, providing additional evidence of potential intersectionality effects of gender and race/ethnicity.

Moreover, exploring the interplay between race, gender, and other identity dimensions (e.g., sexual orientation, socio-economic status) may provide a more holistic understanding of the factors influencing belonging and career-related outcomes. This approach aligns with recent calls in the management literature to move beyond a singular focus on gender in diversity scholarship, acknowledging the diverse experiences of individuals within marginalized groups (Nkomo et al., 2019). By incorporating an intersectional lens, future research can contribute to a richer and more nuanced comprehension of how organizational diversity cues impact individuals' sense of belonging and subsequent career trajectories. This expanded perspective is vital for developing inclusive organizational practices that consider the unique challenges faced by individuals at the intersections of various social identities.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

Central to this dissertation was the exploration of belonging as a critical element in understanding the complex interplay between organizational diversity cues, individual experiences, and career-related outcomes. By addressing the research questions and integrating identity theory with organizational justice, this study has not only addressed existing gaps in the literature but has also propelled theoretical advancements in understanding the multifaceted nature of belonging at work and its implications for the issue of underrepresentation in senior leadership roles, specifically within the Canadian legal context.

Study 1, a field study examining workplace racial discrimination as a predictor of belonging among working lawyers, provided insights into the direct negative association between perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and belonging. The mediating role of organizational justice unveiled the underlying mechanisms through which perceived discrimination impacts belonging, contributing to a more nuanced understanding of how belonging affects career aspirations and turnover intentions. While the individual difference variable “need to belong” did not emerge as a significant moderator, the findings underscored the pervasive influence of perceived workplace discrimination on belonging and its subsequent impact on career trajectories. Study 2, an experimental investigation into racial/ethnic representation, complemented Study 1 by shedding light on the intricate relationship between representation, belonging, and career outcomes for law students. The study reinforced the role of representation in shaping a sense of belonging, influencing job application intentions, and nurturing career aspirations. Despite the absence of support for the moderating effect of “need to belong” in this study as well, Study 2 expanded our understanding of the nuanced dynamics of

racial/ethnic representation in shaping the career trajectories of legal professionals via the mediating role of belonging.

These studies have noteworthy theoretical implications. By integrating identity theory and organizational justice, this research contributes to the development of a robust framework for comprehending additional factors influencing career trajectories within organizational settings. The emphasis on belonging as a central variable provides a novel lens through which to interpret and analyze the experiences of individuals within the organizational context, challenging existing theoretical paradigms and offering avenues for future research.

In summary, this dissertation not only advances theoretical understanding but also enriches the academic discourse by proposing a more nuanced understanding of belonging as a central explanatory factor in the relationship between organizational diversity cues and career-related outcomes. The findings pave the way for future scholarly endeavors to delve deeper into the intricate dynamics of belonging within the organizational context, exploring additional variables that may further shape career outcomes and support increased representation of marginalized groups in senior roles.

References

- Adams, S. J. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267–299). Academic Press.
- Addai, P., Kyremeh, E., Abdulhai, W., & Sarfo, J. O. (2018). Organizational justice and job satisfaction as predictors of turnover intentions among teachers in the Offinso South district of Ghana. *European Journal of Contemporary Education*, 7(2), 235-243.
- Allen, K.-A., Arslan, G., Craig, H., & Yaghoobzadeh, A. (2021b). The psychometric evaluation of the sense of belonging instrument (SOBI) with Iranian older adults. *BMC Geriatrics*, 21(1), 1–8.
- Allen, K.-A., Gray, D., Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (2021a). The need to belong: a deep dive into the origins, implications, and future of a foundational construct. *Educational Psychology Review*, 34(2), 1133–1156.
- Allen, K.-A., Kern, M. L., Vella-Brodrick, D., Hattie, J., & Waters, L. (2018). What schools need to know about fostering school belonging: A meta-analysis. *Educational Psychology Review*, 30(1), 1–34.
- Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (2009). The role of overall justice judgments in organizational justice research: A test of mediation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(2), 491-500.
- Anderson, N. (2011). Perceived job discrimination: Toward a model of applicant propensity to case initiation in selection. *Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 19(3), 229–244.
- Armstrong-Stassen, M., & Schlosser, F. (2011). Perceived organizational membership and the retention of older workers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(2), 319-344.
- Arrow, K. (1998). What has economics to say about racial discrimination? *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 12(2), 91–100.
- Arslan, G. (2021). School bullying and youth internalizing and externalizing behaviors: Do school belonging and school achievement matter? *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction*, 20(4), 2460-2477.
- Arslan, G., & Allen, K.-A. (2021). School victimization, school belongingness, psychological well-being, and emotional problems in adolescents. *Child Indicators Research*, 14(4), 1501–1517.
- Asgari, S., Dasgupta, N., & Cote, N. G. (2010). When does contact with successful ingroup members change self-stereotypes? A longitudinal study comparing the effect of quantity vs. quality of contact with successful individuals. *Social Psychology*, 41(3), 203-211.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of*

Management Review, 14(1), 20–39.

Avanzi, L., Fraccaroli, F., Sarchielli, G., Ullrich, J., & Van Dick, R. (2014). Staying or leaving: A combined social identity and social exchange theory approach to predicting employee turnover. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 63(3), 272–289.

Avery, D. R. (2003). Reactions to diversity in recruitment advertising-- are differences black and white? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(4), 672–679.

Avery, D. R., McKay, P. F., Wilson, D. C., & Tonidandel, S. (2007). Unequal attendance: The relationships between race, organizational diversity cues, and absenteeism. *Personnel Psychology*, 60, 875–902.

Ayre, M., Mills, J., & Gill, J. (2013). Yes, I do belong: The women who stay in engineering. *Engineering Studies*, 5(3), 216–232.

Barbelescu, R., & Bidwell, M. (2013). Do women choose different jobs than men? Mechanisms of application segregation in the market for managerial workers. *Organization Science*, 24(3), 737–756.

Barclay, L. J., Bashshur, M. R., & Fortin, M. (2017). Motivated cognition and fairness: Insights, integration, and creating a path forward. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(6), 867–889.

Barhate, B., & Diranu, K. (2022). Career aspirations of generation Z: a systematic literature review. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 46, 139–157.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173–1182.

Barth, J. M., Masters, S.L., & Parker, J.G. (2022). Gender stereotypes and belonging across high school girls' social groups. *Social Psychology of Education*, 25(1), 275–292.

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The Need to Belong: Desire for Interpersonal Attachments as a Fundamental Human Motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(3), 497–529.

Becker, T. E. (2005). Potential problems in the statistical control of variables in organizational research: A qualitative analysis with recommendations. *Organizational Research Methods*, 8(3), 274–289.

Belanger, A. L., Joshi, M. P., Fuesting, M. A., Weisgram, E. S., Claypool, H. M., & Diekmann, A. B. (2020). Putting belonging in context: Communal affordances signal belonging in STEM. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 46(8), 1186–1204.

- Bendick, M., Jackson, C. W., Reinoso, V. A., & Hodges, L. (1991). Discrimination against Latino job applicants: A controlled experiment. *Human Resource Management, 30*(4), 469–484.
- Bergman, M. E., Palmieri, P. A., Drasgow, F., & Ormerod, A. J. (2012). Racial/ethnic harassment and discrimination, its antecedents, and its effect on job-related outcomes. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 17*(1), 65–78.
- Bernardin, J., Konopaske, R., & Hagan, C. (2012). A comparison of adverse impact levels based on top-down, multisource, and assessment centre data: Promoting diversity and reducing legal challenges. *Human Resource Management, 51*(3), 313–341.
- Bertrand, M., Chugh, D., & Mullainathan, S. (2005). Implicit discrimination. *American Economic Review, 95*(2), 94–98.
- Bertrand, M., & Mullainathan, S. (2004). Are Emily and Greg more employable than Lakisha and Jamal? A field experiment on labor market discrimination. *American Economic Review, 94*(4), 991–1013.
- Biggs, J., Hawley, P.H., & Biernat, M. (2018). The academic conference as a chilly climate for women: Effects of gender representation on experiences of sexism, coping responses, and career intentions. *Sex Roles, 78*, 394-408.
- Bilginoglu, E., & Yozgat, U. (2023). Retaining employees through organizational social climate, sense of belonging and workplace friendship: A research in the financial sector. *Istanbul Business Research, 52*(1), 67-85.
- Bliese, P.D. (2022). *multilevel: Multilevel functions (R package version 2.7) [Computer software]. The Comprehensive R Archive Network. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=multilevel>*
- Bodamer, E. (2021). Do I belong here? Examining perceived experience of bias, stereotype concerns and sense of belonging in US law schools. *Journal of Legal Education, 69*(2), 455– 490.
- Boon, C., & Biron, M. (2016). Temporal issues in person-organization fit, person-job fit and turnover: The role of leader-member exchange. *Human Relations, 69*(12), 2177-2200.
- Boulet, M., Lachapelle, M., & Keiff, S. (n.d.). Demographic diversity, perceived workplace discrimination and workers' well-being: context matters. In *Evidence-based HRM: a global forum for empirical scholarship*. Emerald Publishing Limited.
- Brady, S. T., Cohen, G.L., Jarvis, S.N., & Walton, G.M. (2020). A brief social-belonging intervention in college improves outcomes for Black Americans. *Science Advances, 6*(18), 1-12.

- Brands, R. A., & Fernandez-Mateo, I. (2017). Leaning Out: How Negative Recruitment Experiences Shape Women's Decisions to Compete for Executive Roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 62(3), 405–442.
- Brands, R. A., Rattan, A., & Ibarra, H. (2017). Underrepresentation, social networks, and sense of belonging to organizational leadership domains. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2017, No. 1, p. 12798). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.
- Brown, C. S., Usher, E. L., Coleman, C., & Han, J. (2022). Perceptions of discrimination predict retention of college students of color: Connections with school belonging and ethnic identity. *Journal of College Retention: Research Theory & Practice*. Advance online publication.
- Bryer, A. (2020). Making organizations more inclusive: The work of belonging. *Organization Studies*, 41(5), 641–660.
- Burkholder-James, C. (2020, January 28). Articling system rife with harassment and discrimination. *CBA National Magazine*. <https://nationalmagazine.ca/en-ca/articles/the-practice/young-lawyers/2020/articling-system-rife-with-harassment-and-discrimi#:~:text=Widespread%20discrimination%20and%20harassment&text=A%20second%20survey%20asked%20similar,harassment%20during%20recruitment%20or%20articling>.
- Byrd, M. Y. (2022). Creating a culture of inclusion and belongingness in remote work environments that sustains meaningful work. *Human Resources Development International*, 25(2), 145-162.
- Carmeli, A., & Weisberg, J. (2006). Exploring turnover intentions among three professional groups of employees. *Human Resource Development International*, 9(2), 191-206.
- Carr, E. W., Reece, A., Kellerman, G.R., & Robichaux, A. (2019). The value of belonging at work. *Harvard Business Review*, 16.
- Casad, B. J., & Bryant, W. J. (2016). Addressing stereotype threat is critical to diversity and inclusion in organizational psychology. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7(JAN), 8-26.
- Chanland, D. E., & Murphy, W.M. (2018). Propelling diverse leaders to the top: A developmental networks approach. *Human Resource Management*, 57(1), 111-126.
- Chen, J. M., & Hamilton, D.L. (2015). Understanding diversity: The importance of social acceptance. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 41(4), 586-598.
- Cheryan, S., Plaut, V. C., Davies, P. G., & Steele, C. M. (2009). Ambient belonging: how stereotypical cues impact gender participation in computer science. *Journal of Personality*

and *Social Psychology*, 97(6), 1045–1060.

- Cheryan, S., Ziegler, S. A., Montoya, A. K., & Jiang, L. (2017). Why are some STEM fields more gender balanced than others? *Psychological Bulletin*, 143(1), 1-35.
- Chory-Assad, R. M., & Paulsel, M. L. (2004). Classroom justice: Student aggression and resistance as reactions to perceived unfairness. *Communication Education*, 53(3), 253–273.
- Christophers, B., & Gotian, R. (2020). Using admission statistics to encourage diverse applicants to MD-PhD programs. *The Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 130(1), 17-19.
- Cockshaw, W. D., Shochet, I. M., & Obst, P. (2013). General belongingness, workplace belongingness, and depressive symptoms. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 23(3), 240–251.
- Cockshaw, W. D., Shochet, I. M., & Obst, P. (2014). Depression and belongingness in general and workplace contexts: A cross-lagged longitudinal investigation. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 33(5), 448–462.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, Nj: Erlbaum.
- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 86(2), 278–321.
- Cohen, G. L., & Garcia, J. (2008). Identity, belonging and achievement: A model, intervention and implications. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 17(6), 365– 369.
- Collins, P. H. (1990). Black feminist thought in the matrix of domination. *Black feminist thought: Knowledge, Consciousness, and the Politics of Empowerment*, 138, 221-238.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 386–400.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2012). Organizational Justice. In S. W. J. Kozlowski (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of Organizational Psychology* (1st ed., pp. 526–547). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Constante, K., Cross, F. L., Piceno, V., Medina, M. A., & Rivas- Drake, D. (2021). Latinx adolescents' ethnic-racial discrimination and expected future barriers over time. *Developmental Psychology*, 57(6), 991-999.
- Cook, J. E., Purdie-Vaughns, V., Garcia, J., & Cohen, G. L. (2012). Chronic threat and contingent belonging: protective benefits of values affirmation on identity development. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 102(3), 479–496.
- Cortina, L. M., Kabat-Farr, D., Leskinen, E. A., Huerta, M., & Magley, V. J. (2013). Selective

- incivility as modern discrimination in organizations: Evidence and impact. *Journal of Management*, 39(6), 1579–1605.
- Covarrubias, R., & Fryberg, S. A. (2015). Movin' on up (to college): First-generation college students' experiences with family achievement guilt. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 21(3), 420–429.
- Crenshaw, K. (1989). Demarginalizing the intersection of race and sex: A black feminist critique of antidiscrimination doctrine, feminist theory and antiracist politics. In *University of Chicago Legal Forum* (Vol. 1, No. 8, pp. 138-167).
- Crocker, J., Voelkl, K., Testa, M., & Major, B. (1991). The affective consequences of attributional ambiguity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(2), 218–228.
- Cropanzano, R., Bowen, D. E., & Gilliland, S. W. (2007). The management of organizational justice. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21(4), 34–48.
- Cropanzano, R., Byrne, Z. S., Bobocel, D. R., & Rupp, Deborah, E. (2001). Moral virtues, fairness heuristics, social entities, and other denizens of organizational justice. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58(2), 164–209.
- Cukier, W., Latif, R., Atputharajah, A., Parameswaran, H., & Hon, H. (2020). *Diversity Leads: Diverse Representation in Leadership, A Review of Eight Canadian Cities*. Toronto Metropolitan University.
https://www.torontomu.ca/diversity/reports/DiversityLeads_2020_Canada.pdf
- Dasgupta, N., Scircle, M. M., & Hunsinger, M. (2015). Female peers in small work groups enhance women's motivation, verbal participation, and career aspirations in engineering. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 112(16), 4988–4993.
- Davis, P. (2022, October 4). How to create belonging on hybrid legal teams. *Forbes*.
<https://www.forbes.com/sites/pauladavis/2022/10/04/how-to-create-belonging-on-hybrid-legal-teams/?sh=1ce3214087e3>
- Davis, D. F., Golicic, S. L., & Boerstler, C. N. (2011). Benefits and challenges of conducting multiple methods research in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 39, 467-479.
- De Cremer, D., & Blader, S. L. (2006). Why do people care about procedural fairness? The importance of belongingness in responding and attending to procedures. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 36(2), 211–228.
- De Cremer, D., Brebels, L., & Sedikides, C. (2008). Being uncertain about what? Procedural fairness effects as a function of general uncertainty and belongingness. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 44(6), 1520–1525.

- DeCremer, D., & Leonardelli, G. J. (2003). Cooperation in social dilemmas and the need to belong: The moderating effect of group size. *Group dynamics: Theory, Research and Practice*, 7(2), 168-174.
- Deitch, E., Barksy, A., Butz, M., Chan, S., Brief, A. P., & Bradley, J. C. (2003). Subtle yet significant: The existence and impact of everyday racial discrimination in the workplace. *Human Relations*, 56(11), 1299–1324.
- DiTomaso, N. (2013). *The American non-dilemma: Racial inequality without racism*. Russell Sage Foundation.
- Dobbin, F., & Kalev, A. (2016). Why diversity programs fail and what works better. *Harvard Business Review*, 94(7), 14.
- Dobbin, F., & Kalev, A. (2022). *Getting to Diversity: What Works and What Doesn't (1st ed.)*. Harvard University Press. Draaisma, M. (2016, August 3). New Supreme Court justice selection process won't lead to diverse bench: Toronto lawyer. *CBC News*. <https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/toronto/programs/metromorning/supreme-court-justice-selection-process-1.3705638>
- Du, S., Ma, Y., & Lee, J. Y. (2022). Workplace loneliness and the need to belong in the era of covid-19. *Sustainability*, 14, 4788- 4810.
- Duguid, M. M., Loyd, D. L., & Tolbert, P. S. (2012). The impact of categorical status, numeric representation, and work group prestige on preference for demographically similar others: A value threat approach. *Organization Science*, 23(2), 386–401.
- Edelman. (2021). *2021- Edelman trust barometer special report- Business and racial justice in Canada*. <https://www.edelman.ca/sites/g/files/aatuss376/files/2021-07/2021%20Edelman%20Trust%20Barometer%20Special%20Report%20Business%20and%20Racial%20Justice%20in%20Canada.pdf>
- Edwards, M. R., & Peccei, R. (2007). Organizational identification: Development and testing of a conceptually grounded measure. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 16(1), 25-57.
- Ehrhart, M. G., & Kuenzi, M. (2017). The impact of organizational climate and culture on employee turnover. *The Wiley Blackwell Handbook of the Psychology of Recruitment, Selection, and Employee Retention*, 494-512.
- Ely, R. J., & Thomas, D. A. (2001). Cultural diversity at work: The effects of diversity perspectives on work group processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46(2), 229-273.
- Emerson, K. T. U., & Murphy, M. C. (2014). Identity threat at work: How social identity threat

- and situational cues contribute to racial and ethnic disparities in the workplace. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 20(4), 508–520.
- Enwereuzor, I. K. (2021). Diversity climate and workplace belongingness as organizational facilitators of tacit knowledge sharing. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 25(9), 2178–2195.
- Escalas, J. E., & Bettman, J. R. (2017). Connecting with celebrities: How consumers appropriate celebrity meanings for a sense of belonging. *Journal of Advertising*, 46(2), 297–308.
- Evans, K. M., & Herr, E. L. (1994). The influence of racial identity and the perception of discrimination on the career aspirations of African American men and women. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 44(2), 173–184.
- Fernandez, R. M., & Fernandez-Mateo, I. (2006). Networks, race, and hiring. *American Sociological Review*, 71(1), 42–71.
- Ferris, D., Brown, D. J., & Heller, D. (2009). Organizational supports and organizational deviance: The mediating role of organization-based self-esteem. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108(2), 279–286.
- Foley, S., Kidder, D. L., & Powell, G. N. (2002). The perceived glass ceiling and justice perceptions: An investigation of Hispanic law associates. *Journal of Management*, 28(4), 471–496.
- Foley, S., Ngo, H.-Y., & Wong, A. (2005). Perceptions of discrimination and justice: are there gender differences in outcomes? *Group & Organization Management*, 30(4), 421–450.
- Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). *Organizational justice and human resource management*. SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Freeman, T. M., Anderman, L. H., & Jensen, J. M. (2007). Sense of belonging in college freshmen at the classroom and campus levels. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 75(3), 203–220.
- Gabriel, S. (2020). Reflections on the 25th anniversary of Baumeister & Leary's seminal paper on the need to belong. *Self and Identity*, 20(1), 1–5.
- Gaucher, D., Friesen, J., & Kay, A. C. (2011). Evidence that gendered wording in job advertisements exists and sustains gender inequality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 101(1), 109–128. <http://doi.org/10.1037/A0022530>
- George, J. M., & Jones, G. R. (1996). The experience of work and turnover intentions: Interactive effects of value attainment, job satisfaction, and positive mood. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(3), 318–325.

- Georgeac, O. A., & Rattan, A. (2023). The business case for diversity backfires: Detrimental effects of organizations' instrumental diversity rhetoric for underrepresented group members' sense of belonging. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *124*(1), 69-108.
- Gillespie, J. Z., & Greenberg, J. (2005). Are the goals of organizational justice self-interested? In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Justice* (pp. 179–214). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Godard, J. (2001). High performance and the transformation of work? The implications of alternative work practices for the experience and outcomes of work. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, *54*(4), 776–805.
- Goddard, J., & Wilson, J. O. (2009). Racial discrimination in English professional football: evidence from an empirical analysis of players' career progression. *Cambridge Journal of Economics*, *33*(2), 295- 316.
- Good, C., Aronson, J., & Harder, J. A. (2008). Problems in the pipeline: Stereotype threat and women's achievement in high-level math courses. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, *29*(1), 17–28.
- Good, C., Dweck, C. S., & Aronson, J. (2007). Social identity, stereotype threat, and self-theories. In A. J. Fuligni (Ed.), *Contesting stereotypes and creating identities* (pp. 115–135). New York: Russel Sage Foundation.
- Good, C., Rattan, A., & Dweck, C. S. (2012). Why do women opt out? Sense of belonging and women's representation in mathematics. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *102*(4), 700–717.
- Goodenow, C., & Grady, K. E. (1993). The relationship of school belonging and friends' values to academic motivation among urban adolescent students. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, *62*(1), 60–71.
- Grant, A. M., Gino, F., & Hofmann, D.A. (2011). Reversing the extraverted leadership advantage: The role of employee proactivity. *Academy of Management Journal*, *54*(3), 528-550.
- Gray, D., Hope, E. C., & Matthews, J. S. (2018). Black and belonging at school: A case for interpersonal, instructional, and institutional opportunity structures. *Educational Psychologist*, *53*(2), 97–113.
- Gray, M. P., & O'Brien, K. M. (2007). Advancing the assessment of women's career choices: The career aspiration scale. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *15*(3), 317-337.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, *16*(2), 399–432.

- Greenhaus, J. H., Collins, K. M., Singh, R., & Parasuraman, S. (1997). Work and family influences on departure from public accounting. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 50(2), 249-270.
- Griepentrog, B. K., Harold, C. M., Holtz, B. C., Klimoski, R. J., & Marsh, S. M. (2012). Integrating social identity and the theory of planned behavior: Predicting withdrawal from an organizational recruitment process. *Personnel Psychology*, 65(4), 723–753.
- Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., & Gaertner, S. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 463-488.
- Guidance on demographic questions- McMaster University- Research & Innovation. (n.d.) <https://research.mcmaster.ca/home/support-for-researchers/ethics/mcmaster-research-ethics-board-mreb/guidance-on-demographic-questions/>
- Guryan, J., & Charles, K. K. (2013). Taste-based or statistical discrimination: The economics of discrimination return to its roots. *The Economic Journal*, 123(572), 417–432.
- Hadinger, M. A. (2017). Underrepresented minorities in medical school admissions: a qualitative study. *Teaching and Learning in Medicine*, 29(1), 31-41.
- Hagerty, B., & Patusky, K. (1995). Developing a measure of sense of belonging. *Nursing Research*, 44(1), 9–13.
- Hall, E. V., Hall, A. V., Galinsky, A. D., & Phillips, K. W. (2019). MOSAIC: A model of stereotyping through associated and intersectional categories. *Academy of Management Review*, 44(3), 643-672.
- Hall, W., Schmader, T., Aday, A., Inness, M., & Croft, E. (2018). Climate control: The relationship between social identity threat and cues to an identity- safe culture. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 115(3), 446–467.
- Hamilton, D. L., & Sherman, S. J. (1989). Illusory correlations: Implications for stereotype theory and research. In *Stereotyping and Prejudice* (pp. 59–82). New York: Springer.
- Harrick, E. J., & Sullivan, G. M. (1995). Racial harrasment: Case characteristics and employer responsibilities. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 8(2), 81–95.
- Hayes, A. F. (2023, n.d.). FAQ- The PROCESS macro for SPSS, SAS and R. <http://processmacro.org/faq.html>
- Hayes, A. F. (2018). Partial, conditional, and moderated mediation: Quantification, inference, and interpretation. *Communication Monographs*, 85(1), 4-40.

- Hayes, A. F. (2017). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression- based approach* (Second edition). Guilford Publications.
- Hayes, A. F., Montoya, A. K., & Rockwood, N. J. (2017). The analysis of mechanisms and their contingencies: PROCESS versus structural equation modelling. *Australasian Marketing Journal*, 25(1), 76-81.
- He, J. C., Kang, S. K., & Lacetera, N. (2021). Opt-out choice framing attenuates gender differences in the decision to compete in the laboratory and in the field. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 118(42).
- He, J. C., Kang, S. K., Tse, K., & Toh, S. M. (2019). Stereotypes at work: Occupational stereotypes predict race and gender segregation in the workforce. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 115, 103318. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2019.103318>
- Heikamp, T., Phalet, K., Van Laar, C., & Vershueren, K. (2020). To belong or not to belong: protecting minority engagement in the face of discrimination. *Journal of Psychology*, 55(5), 779–788.
- Hentschel, T., Braun, S., Peus, C., & Frey, D. (2021). Sounds like a fit! Wording in recruitment advertisements and recruiter gender affect women’s pursuit of career development programs via anticipated belongingness. *Human Resource Management*, 60(4), 581–602.
- Herrbach, O., & Mignonac, K. (2012). Perceived gender discrimination and women's subjective career success. *Industrial Relations*, 67(1), 25-50.
- Highhouse, S., Lievens, F., & Sinar, E. F. (2003). Measuring attraction to organizations. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 63(6), 986-1001.
- Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (1991). Structural equations modeling test of a turnover theory: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(3), 350-366.
- Hou, F., Schimmele, C., & Stick, M. (2023, August 23). *Changing demographics of racialized people in Canada*. Statistics Canada. <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/36-28-0001/2023008/article/00001-eng.htm#>
- Howansky, K., Maimon, M., & Sanchez, D. (2022). Identity safety cues predict instructor impressions, belonging, and absences in the classroom. *Teaching of Psychology*, 49(3), 212-217.
- Howard, K. A., Carlstrom, A. H., Katz, A., Chew, A. Y., Ray, G. C., Laine, L., & Caulum, D. (2011). Career aspirations of youth: Untangling race/ethnicity, SES, and gender. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79(1), 98-109.
- Howard, M. C., Cogswell, J. E., & Smith, M. B. (2020). The antecedents and outcomes of workplace ostracism: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 105(6), 577-596.

- Huie, M. (2022, November 13). Analysis: DEI... B? Why 'belonging' is law's next step for DEI. *Bloomberg Law News*. <https://news.bloomberglaw.com/bloomberg-law-analysis/analysis-dei-b-why-belonging-is-laws-next-step-for-dei>
- Hurtado, S., & Carter, D. F. (1997). Effects of college transition and perceptions of the campus racial climate on Latino college students' sense of belonging. *Sociology of Education*, 70(4), 324–345.
- Hussain, M., & Jones, J. M. (2021). Discrimination, diversity, and sense of belonging: Experiences of students of color. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 14(1), 63– 73.
- Jaurique, A., Ryan, D. A., Smith, H. J., & Paolucci- Callahan, M. (2019). Observing discrimination: Implications for group-based respect and organizational morality. *Social Issues and Policy Review*, 13(1), 125-153.
- James, K., Lovato, C., & Cropanzano, R. (1994). Correlational and known-group comparison validation of a workplace prejudice/discrimination inventory. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 24(17), 1573-1592.
- Jena, L., & Pradhan, S. (2018). Conceptualizing and validating workplace belongingness scale. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 31(2), 451–462.
- Jeswani, S., & Dave, S. (2012). Impact of individual personality on turnover intention: A study on faculty members. *Management and Labour Studies*, 37(3), 253-265.
- Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. C. (2020). Common method bias in applied settings: The dilemma of researching in organizations. *Australian Journal of Management*, 45(1), 3-14.
- Judge, T. A., & Cable, D. M. (1997). Applicant personality, organizational culture, and organization attraction. *Personnel Psychology*, 50(2), 359-394.
- Kazmi, M. A., Spitzmuller, C., Yu, J., Madera, J. M., Tsao, A.S., Dawson, J. F., & Pavlidis, I. (2022). Search committee diversity and applicant pool representation of women and underrepresented minorities: A quasi experimental field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 107(8), 1414- 1427.
- Kelly, K. M. (2001). Individual differences in reactions to rejection. In M. Leary (Ed.), *Interpersonal Rejection* (pp. 291-316). Oxford University Press.
- Kennedy, J. T., & Jain-Link, P. (2021). What does it take to build a culture of belonging? *Harvard Business Review*.
<https://ombuds.columbia.edu/sites/default/files/content/What%20does%20it%20take%20to%20build%20a%20culture%20of%20belonging.PDF>
- Kim, J. Y., Block, C. J., & Nguyen, D. (2019). What's visible is my race, what's invisible is my

- contribution. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 112, 75–87.
- King, E. B., Madera, J. M., Hebl, M. R., Knight, J. L., & Mendoza, S. A. (2006). What's in a name? A multiracial investigation of the role of occupational stereotypes in selection decisions. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36(5), 1145–1159.
- Koenig, A. M., Eagly, A.H., Mitchell, A. A., & Ristikari, T. (2011). Are leader stereotypes masculine? *Psychological Bulletin*, 137(4), 616–642.
- Kroeper, K. M., Williams, H. E., & Murphy, M. C. (2022). Counterfeit diversity: How strategically misrepresenting gender diversity dampens organizations' perceived sincerity and elevates women's identity threat concerns. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 122(3), 399-426.
- Kuo, F. W., & Yang, S. C. (2017). The moderating effect of the need to belong and classroom composition on belongingness and seeking of minority adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence*, 61, 22-30.
- Kyei-Poku, I. (2014). The benefits of belongingness and interactional fairness to interpersonal citizenship behavior. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal*, 35(8), 691–709.
- Kyei-Poku, I. (2019). The influence of fair supervision on employees' emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions. *Management Research Review*, 42(9), 1116-1132.
- LaCosse, J., Canning, E. A., Bowman, N. A., Murphy, M. C., & Logel, C. (2020). A social-belonging intervention improves STEM outcomes for students who speak English as a second-language. *Science Advances*, 6(40), 1–10.
- LaCosse, J., Murphy, M. C., Garcia, J. A., & Zirkel, S. (2021). The role of STEM professors' mindset beliefs on students' anticipated psychological experiences and course interest. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 113(5), 949-971.
- Law Society of Alberta. (2021). "My experience" project submissions at a glance. [Infographic]. <https://www.lawsocietylistens.ca/my-experience-project>
- Law Society of Ontario. (2022). Statistical snapshot of lawyers in Ontario. [Fact sheet]. https://lawsocietyontario.azureedge.net/media/lso/media/lawyers/practice-supports-resources/equity-supports-resources/snapshot-lawyers22_eng_aoda_final.pdf
- Leary, M. R., Kelly, K. M., Cottrell, C.A., & Schreindorfer, L. S. (2013). Construct validity of the need to belong scale: Mapping the nomological network. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 95(6), 610-624.
- Leary, M. R., Tambor, E. S., Terdal, S. K., & Downs, D. L. (1995). Self-esteem as an interpersonal monitor: The sociometer hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(3), 518–530.

- Lee, J., & Peccei, R. (2007). Perceived organizational support and affective commitment: The mediating role of organization-based self esteem in the context of job insecurity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(6), 661-685.
- Levin, A., & Alkoby, A. (2019). Shouldn't the bench be a mirror? The diversity of the Canadian judiciary. *International Journal of the Legal Profession*, 26(1), 69-88.
- Levin, S., Van Laar, C., & Foote, W. (2006). Ethnic segregation and perceived discrimination in college: Mutual influences and effects on social and academic life. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36(6), 1471–1501.
- Lewis, J. A., Mendenhall, R., Ojiemwen, A., Thomas, M., Riopelle, C., Harwood, S. A., & Browne Hunt, M. (2021). Racial microaggressions and sense of belonging at a historically white university. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 65(8), 1049-1071.
- Li, G., Wu, Y., Asghar, A., & Zhong, Y. (2024). New nurses' turnover intention and clinical belonging, based on latent class analysis (LCA). *Nursing Open*, 11(1), 1-10.
- Lind, E. A. (2001). Thinking critically about justice judgments. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58(2), 220–226.
- Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The Social Psychology of Procedural Justice*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Longpré- Verret, L.-M., & Richards, E. (2021). *Diversity among board directors and executive officers: exploratory estimates on family, work and income*. *Statistics Canada*. <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/11f0019m/11f0019m2021005-eng.htm>
- Lu, J., Nisbett, R., & Morris, W. M. (2020). The bamboo ceiling of leadership attainment in the United States. In *Academy of Management Proceedings*, (Vol. 2020, No. 1, p. 10048). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.
- Lykken, D. T. (1968). Statistical significance in psychological research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 70(3), 151-159.
- MacCharles, T. (2021, June 17). Mahmud Jamal becomes the first person of colour appointed to the Supreme Court of Canada. *Toronto Star*. https://www.thestar.com/politics/federal/mahmud-jamal-becomes-the-first-person-of-colour-appointed-to-the-supreme-court-of-canada/article_1fb49a57-5738-5cba-9c5d-fe552eb8ea06.html
- Madden, L., Mathias, B. D., & Madden, T. M. (2015). In good company: The impact of perceived organizational support and positive relationships at work on turnover intentions. *Management Research Review*, 38(3), 242-263.

- Madera, J. M., King, E. B., Hebl, M. R. (2012). Bringing social identity to work: the influence of manifestation and suppression on perceived discrimination, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 18*(2), 165-170.
- Master, A., Cheryan, S., & Meltzoff, A. M. (2016). Computing whether she belongs: Stereotypes undermine girls' interest and sense of belonging in computer science. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 108*(3), 424–437.
- Matthews, J.S., Banerjee, M., & Lauermann, F. (2014). Academic identity formation and motivation among ethnic minority adolescents: The role of “self” between internal and external perceptions of identity. *Child Development, 85*(6), 2355–2372.
- Martin, A. E. (2023). The divergent effects of diversity ideologies for race and gender relations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 175*. Advance online publication.
- Martin, S. R., & Harrison, S. H. (2022). Upward mobility, the cleft habitus, and speaking up: How class transitions relate to individual and organizational antecedents of voice. *Academy of Management Journal, 65*(3), 813–841.
- Mau, W. C. J., Li, J. (2018). Factors influencing STEM career aspirations of underrepresented high school students. *The Career Development Quarterly, 66*(3), 246-258.
- Mawritz, M. B., Mayer, D. M., Hoobler, J. M., Wayne, S. J., & Marinova, S. V. (2012). A trickle-down model of abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology, 65*(2), 325-357.
- McCluney, C. L., & Rabelo, V. C. (2019). Conditions of visibility: An intersectional examination of Black women's belongingness and distinctiveness at work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 113*, 143-152.
- McGinn, K. L., & Milkman, K. L. (2013). Looking up and looking out: Career mobility effects of demographic similarity among professionals. *Organization Science, 24*(4), 1041–1060.
- McMahon, S. D., Wernsman, J., & Rose, D. S. (2009). The relation of classroom environment and school belonging to academic self-efficacy among urban fourth-and fifth-grade students. *The Elementary School Journal, 109*(3), 267–281.
- Melaku, T. (2019, August 7). Why women and people of colour still hear "You don't look like a lawyer." *Harvard Business Review*. <https://hbr.org/2019/08/why-women-and-people-of-color-in-law-still-hear-you-dont-look-like-a-lawyer>
- Merriman, C. L. (2010). *Adjunct faculty organizational sense of belonging and affective organizational commitment*. Old Dominion University.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research and application*. Sage Publications.

- Miller, S. (2020, June 11). Black workers still earn less than their white counterparts. *Society for Human Resource Management*. <https://www.shrm.org/topics-tools/news/benefits-compensation/black-workers-still-earn-less-white-counterparts>
- Minefee, I., Rabelo, V. C., Stewart IV, O. J. C., & Young, N. C. (2018). Repairing leaks in the pipeline: A social closure perspective on underrepresented racial/ethnic minority recruitment and retention in business schools. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 17(1), 79-95.
- Mobasser, S., Srivastava, S., & Kray, L. J. (2021). A brief social-belonging intervention in the workplace: Evidence from a field experiment. *Academy of Management Discoveries*, 7(1), 85–103.
- Molina- Azorin, J. F. (2012). Mixed methods research in strategic management: Impact and applications. *Organizational Research Methods*, 15(1), 33-56.
- Molinari, L., Speltini, G., & Passini, S. (2013). Do perceptions of being treated fairly increase students' outcomes? Teacher-student interactions and classroom justice in Italian adolescents. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 19(1), 58–76.
- Mossholder, K. W., Settoon, R. P., & Henagan, S. C. (2005). A relational perspective on turnover: Examining structural, attitudinal, and behavioral predictors. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(4), 607-618.
- Muragishi, G. A., Aguilar, L., Carr, P. B., & Walton, G. M. (2023). Microinclusions: Treating women as respected work partners increases sense of fit in technology companies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Advance online publication.
- Murdock-Perreira, L. A., Boucher, K. L., & Murphy, M. C. (2019). Places of belonging: Person- and place-focused interventions to support belonging in college. In M. B. Paulsen & L. W. Perna (Eds.), *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research* (pp. 291–323). Springer.
- Murphy, M. C., Steele, C. M., & Gross, J. J. (2007). Signaling threat: How situational cues affect women in math, science, and engineering settings. *Psychological Science*, 18(10), 879–885.
- Murphy, M. C., & Taylor, V. J. (2012). The role of situational cues in signaling and maintaining stereotype threat. In M. Inzlicht & T. Schmader (Eds.), *Stereotype threat: Theory, process, and application* (pp. 17–33). Oxford University Press.
- Murphy, M. C., & Zirkel, S. (2015). Race and belonging in school: How anticipated and experienced belonging affect choice, persistence and performance. *Teachers College Record*, 117(12), 1–40.
- Murray, R. (2024, January 16). Understanding the difference between inclusion and belonging in the workplace: Beyond a seat at the table. <https://www.shegeeksout.com/blog/understanding-the-difference-between-inclusion-and->

belonging-in-the-workplace/#:~:text=Inclusion%20is%20the%20invitation%2C%20the,and%20reach%20the%20full%20potential.

- Nelson, R. T., Sendroiu, I., Dinovitzer, R., & Dawe, M. (2019). Perceiving discrimination: Race, gender, and sexual orientation in the legal workplace. *Law & Social Inquiry, 44*(4), 1051–1082.
- Ng, E., Sears, G. J., & Bakkaloglu, M. (2021). White and minority employee reactions to perceived discrimination at work: evidence of white fragility? *International Journal of Manpower, 42*(4), 661–682.
- Nishii, L.H., & Mayer, D.M. (2009). Do inclusive leaders help to reduce turnover in diverse groups? The moderating role of leader-member exchange in the diversity to turnover relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(6), 1412-1426.
- Nishii, L. H., & Rich, R. E. (2014). Creating inclusive climates in diverse organizations. In B. M. Ferdman & B. R. Deane (Eds.), *Diversity at work: The practice of inclusion* (pp. 205–228). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Nkomo, S. H., Bell, M. P., Roberts, L. M., Joshi, A., & Thatcher, S. M. (2019). Diversity at a critical juncture: New theories for a complex phenomenon. *Academy of Management Review, 44*(3), 498-517.
- Nohe, C., & Sonntag, K. (2014). Work-family conflict, social support, and turnover intentions: A longitudinal study, *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 85*(1), 1-12.
- Nunez-Smith, M., Pilgrim, N., Wynia, M., Desai, M. M., Jones, B. A., Bright, C., & Bradley, E. H. (2009). Race/ethnicity and workplace discrimination: results of a national survey of physicians. *Journal of General Internal Medicine, 24*, 1198-1204.
- Obenauer, W. G., & Langer, N. (2019). Inclusion is not a slam dunk: A study of differential leadership outcomes in the absence of a glass cliff. *The Leadership Quarterly, 30*(6), 101334.
- O'Brien, L. T., Bart, H. L., Garcia, D. M. (2020). Why are there so few ethnic minorities in ecology and evolutionary biology? Challenges to inclusion and the role of sense of belonging. *Social Psychology of Education, 23*, 449-477.
- O'Reilly, J., Robinson, S. L., Berdahl, J. L., & Banki, S. (2015). Is negative attention better than no attention? The comparative effects of ostracism and harassment at work. *Organization Science, 26*(3), 774-793.
- Pager, D., & Shepherd, H. (2008). The sociology of discrimination: Racial discrimination in employment, housing, credit, and consumer markets. *Annual Review of Sociology, 34*, 181–209.

- Paikeday, T., & Qosja, N. (2023, February 25). How to fix the C-suite diversity problem. *Harvard Law School Forum on Corporate Governance*.
<https://corpgov.law.harvard.edu/2023/02/25/how-to-fix-the-c-suite-diversity-problem/>
- Park, S. G., Kang, H. J., Lee, H. R., & Kim, S. J. (2017). The effects of LMX on gender discrimination and subjective career success. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 55(1), 127-148.
- Parker, P., Allen, K.-A., Parker, R., Guo, J., Marsh, H. W., Basarkod, G., & Dicke, T. (2022). School belonging predicts whether an emerging adult will be not in education, employment, or training (NEET) after school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*. Advance online publication.
- Parry, K., Cohen, M., Bhattacharya, S., North-Samardzic, A., & Edwards, G. (2019). Charismatic leadership: Beyond love and hate toward a sense of belonging. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 25(3), 398–413.
- Patterson Silver Wolf, D. A., Taylor, F., Maguin, E., & Asher BlackDeer, A. (2021). You are college material-- You belong: An underrepresented minority student retention intervention without deception. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, 23(3), 507-522.
- Pearce, J. L., & Randel, A. E. (2004). Expectations of organizational mobility, workplace social inclusion, and employee job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(1), 81-98.
- Peng, W., Li, D., Li, D., Jia, J., Wang, Y., & Sun, W. (2019). School disconnectedness and adolescent internet addiction: Mediation by self-esteem and moderation by emotional intelligence. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 98, 111–121.
- Phillips, L. T., & Jun, S. (2022). Why benefiting from discrimination is less recognized as discrimination. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 122(5), 1–29.
- Pietri, E. S., Drawbaugh, M. L., Lewis, A. N., & Johnson, I. R. (2019). Who encourages Latina women to feel a sense of identity-safety in STEM environments? *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 84, 1022-1031.
- Pietri, E. S., Drawbaugh, M. L., & Ozgumus, E. (2018). One size may not fit all: Exploring how the intersection of race and gender and stigma consciousness predict effective identity-safe cues for Black women. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 74, 291-306.
- Pietri, E. S., Hennes, E. P., Dovidio, J. F., Brescoll, V. L., Bailey, A. H., Moss-Racusin, C. A., & Handelsman, J. (2019). Addressing unintended consequences of gender diversity interventions on women's sense of belonging in STEM. *Sex Roles*, 80(9), 527–547.

- Pickett, C. L., Gardner, W. L., & Knowles, M. (2004). Getting a cue: The need to belong and enhanced sensitivity to social cues. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *30*(9), 1095-1107.
- Pillow, D. R., Malone, G. P., Hale, W. J. (2015). The need to belong and its association with fully satisfying relationships: A tale of two measures. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *74*, 259-264.
- Pittman, L. D., & Richmond, A. (2007). Academic and psychological functioning in late adolescence: The importance of school belonging. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, *75*(4), 270– 290.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common methods biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879-903.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control it. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *63*, 539-569.
- Public Health Ontario (2021). At a glance- Collecting information on ethnic origin, race, income, household size, and language data: A resource for data collectors. <https://www.publichealthontario.ca/-/media/documents/ncov/he/2021/03/aag-race-ethnicity-income-language-data-collection.pdf?la=en>
- Purdie-Vaughns, V., Steele, C. M., Davies, P. G., Diltman, R., & Crosby, J. R. (2008). Social identity contingencies: How diversity cues signal threat or safety for African Americans in mainstream institutions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *94*, 615–630.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, *36*, 717-731.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *42*(1), 185-227.
- Quillian, L., Pager, D., Hexel, O., & Midtboen, A. H. (2017). Meta-analysis of field experiments shows no change in racial discrimination in hiring over time. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, *114*(41), 10870–10875.
- Rahn, G., Martiny, S. E., & Nikitin, J. (2021). Feeling out of place: Internalized age stereotypes are associated with older employees' sense of belonging and social motivation. *Work, Aging and Retirement*, *7*(1), 61-77.
- Rainey, K., Dancy, M., Mickelson, R., Stearns, E., & Moller, S. (2018). Race and gender

- differences in how sense of belonging influences decisions to major in STEM. *International Journal of STEM Education*, 5, 1-14.
- Rego, A., Souto, S., & Cunha, M. P. (2009). Does the need to belong moderate the relationship between perceptions of spirit of camaraderie and employees' happiness? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 14(2), 148-164.
- Regts, G., & Molleman, E. (2013). To leave or not to leave: When receiving interpersonal citizenship behavior influences an employee's turnover intention. *Human Relations*, 66(2), 193-218.
- Rios, K., Fast, N. J., & Gruenfeld, D. H. (2015). Feeling high but playing low: Power, need to belong, and submissive behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 41(8), 1135-1146.
- Rogers, K. S., & Ashforth, B. E. (2017). Respect in organizations: Feeling valued as "we" and "me." *Journal of Management*, 43(5), 1578-1608.
- Rothausen, T. J., Henderson, K. E., Arnold, J. K., & Malshe, A. (2017). "Should I stay or should I go?" Identity and well-being in sensemaking about retention and turnover. *Journal of Management*, 43(7), 2357-2385.
- Rubin, M., Paolini, S., Subasic, E., & Giacomini, A. (2019). A confirmatory study of the relations between workplace sexism, sense of belonging, mental health, and job satisfaction among women in male-dominated industries. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 49(5), 267–282.
- Rubin, M., Subasic, E., Giacomini, A., & Paolini, S. (2017). An exploratory study of the relations between women miners' gender-based workplace issues and their mental health and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 47(7), 400–411.
- Runyon, N. (2022, October 3). How to address systemic DEI issues through the lens of belonging. *Thomson Reuters*. <https://www.thomsonreuters.com/en-us/posts/tax-and-accounting/dei-belonging/>
- Schmitt, M. T., Branscombe, N. R., Postmes, T., & Garcia, A. (2014). The consequences of perceived discrimination for psychological well-being. *Psychological Bulletin*, 140(4), 921–948.
- Schwabish, J., & Feng, A. (2021). Combining racial groups in data analysis can mask important differences in communities. Urban Institute. <https://www.urban.org/urban-wire/combining-racial-groups-data-analysis-can-mask-important-differences-communities#:~:text=Combining%20Racial%20Groups%20in%20Data%20Analysis%20can%20Mask%20Important%20Differences%20in%20Communities,-Jonathan%20Schwabish%20%2C%20Alice&text=Surveys%2C%20datasets%2C%20and%20published%20research,the%20experiences%20of%20certain%20communities.>

- Sellars, N., Jacobs, B. L., & Wendry, B. (2022). Using social cognitive career theory to explore the underrepresentation of women in sport management degree programs. *Managing Sport and Leisure*, 1-12.
- Shapiro, J. R., & Williams, A. M. (2012). The role of stereotype threats in undermining girls' and women's performance and interest in STEM fields. *Sex Roles*, 66(3), 175–183.
- Sheppard, L. D. (2018). Gender differences in leadership aspirations and job and life attribute preferences among US undergraduate students. *Sex Roles*, 79, 565-577.
- Shochet, I. M., Smith, C. L., Furlong, M. J., & Homel, R. (2011). A prospective study investigating the impact of school belonging factors on negative affect in adolescents. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, 40(4), 586–595.
- Shore, L. M., Cleveland, J. N., & Sanchez, D. (2018). Inclusive workplaces: A review and model. *Human Resource Management Review*, 28, 176–189.
- Shore, L. M., Randel, A. E., Chung, B. G., Dean, M. A., Holcombe Ehrhart, K., & Singh, G. (2011). Inclusion and diversity in work groups: A review and model for future research. *Journal of Management*, 37(4), 1262-1289.
- Shum, C., Gatling, A., & Garlington, J. (2020). All people are created equal? Racial discrimination and its impact on hospitality career satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 89, 1- 10.
- Simpson, P. A., & Kaminski, M. (2007). Gender, organizational justice perceptions, and union organizing. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 19(1), 57–72.
- Singh, B., Shaffer, M. A., Selvarajan, T. T. (2018). Antecedents of organizational and community embeddedness: The roles of support, psychological safety, and need to belong. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39(3), 339-354.
- Slepian, M.L., & Jacoby- Senghor, D.S. (2021). Identity threats in everyday life: distinguishing belonging from inclusion. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 12(3), 392-406.
- Smith, K., & Campbell, C. (2019, March 11). Why we need more Black students in Canadian law school. *Huffington Post*. https://www.huffpost.com/archive/ca/entry/why-we-need-more-black-students-in-canadian-law-schools_ca_5cd58cace4b07bc729791b6a#:~:text=It%20is%20in%20the%20public,people%20and%20their%20legal%20issues.
- Smith, J. L., Lewis, K. L., Hawthorne, L., & Hodges, S. D. (2013). When trying hard isn't natural: Women's belonging with and motivation for male-dominated STEM fields as a function of effort expenditure concerns. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 39(2), 131–143.

- Soenen, G., Melkonian, T., & Ambrose, M.L. (2017). To shift or not to shift: Determinants and consequences of phase shifting on justice judgments. *Academy of Management Journal*, 60(2), 798-817.
- Soltis, S. M., Agnessens, F., Sasovova, Z., & Labianca, G. (2013). A social network perspective on turnover intentions: The role of distributive justice and social support. *Human Resource Management*, 52(4), 561-584.
- Somers, M. (1999). *Development and preliminary validation of a measure of belongingness*. PhD, Psychology thesis, Temple University, Philadelphia, USA.
- Spencer, S. J., Steele, C. M., & Quinn, D. M. (1999). Stereotype threat and women's math performance. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 35(1), 4–28.
- Stanbrook, M.B., & Salami, B. (2023). CMAJ's new guidance on the reporting of race and ethnicity in research articles. *Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 195(6), 236- 238.
- Steele, C. M. (1996). A sense of belonging as a dimension of social integration: Exploration, validation, and measurement construction. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin). Ann Arbor, Michigan: UMI.
- Steele, C. M. (1997). A threat in the air: How stereotypes shape intellectual identity and performance. *American Psychologist*, 52(6), 613–629.
- Steele, C. M., Spencer, S. J., & Aronson, J. (2002). Contending with group image: The psychology of stereotype and social identity threat. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 34, 379–440.
- Steffens, N. K., Shemla, M., Wegge, J., & Diestel, S. (2014). Organizational tenure and employee performance: A multilevel analysis. *Group & Organization Management*, 39(6), 664-690.
- Steinel, W., Van Kleef, G. A., Van Knippenberg, D., Hogg, M. A., Homan, A. C., & Moffitt, G. (2010). How intragroup dynamics affect behavior in intergroup conflict: The role of group norms, prototypicality, and need to belong. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations*, 13(6), 779-794.
- Stillwell, A., Figueroa, A., Tenney, E.R., Blair, A., & Real, T.C. (2023). Safe to speak? Witnessing racial microaggressions decreases employee voice. *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2023, No. 1, p. 16040).
- Stone-Romero, E., & Stone, D. L. (2005). How do organizational justice concepts relate to discrimination and prejudice? In J. A. Colquitt & J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Justice* (pp. 453–481). Psychology Press.

- Taggar, S., & Kuron, L. K. J. (2016). The roll of perceived injustice on job search self-efficacy and behavior. *Career Development International*, 21(3), 279–298.
- Tajfel, H. (1978). *Differentiation between social groups. Studies in the social psychology of inter-group relations*. London, UK: Academic Press.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33–37). Monterey, CA.: Brooks/Cole.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel & W. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 7–24). Chicago: Nelson Hall.
- Tewfik, B. A. (2022). The impostor phenomenon revisited: Examining the relationship bewtween impostor thoughts and interpersonal effectiveness at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 65(3), 988-1018.
- Thau, S., Aquino, K., & Poortvliet, P. M. (2007). Self-defeating behaviors in organizations: The relationship between thwarted belonging and interpersonal work behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3), 840–847.
- Thoman, D. B., Arizaga, J. A., Smith, J. L., Story, T. S., & Soncuya, G. (2014). The grass is greener in non-science, technology, engineering, and math classes: Examining the role of competing belonging to undergraduate women’s vulnerability to being pulled away from science. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 38(2), 246–258.
- Tilcsik, A., Anteby, M., & Knight, C. R. (2015). Concealable stigma and occupational segregation: Toward a theory of gay and lesbian occupations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 60(3), 446–481.
- Totonichi, D. A., Tibbetts, Y., Williams, C. L., Francis, M. K., DeCoster, J., Lee, G. A., Hull, J. W., & Hullerman, C. S. (2023). The cost of being first: Belonging uncertainty predicts math motivation and achievement for first-generation, but not continuing generation, students. *Learning and Individual Differences*. Advance online publication.
- Triana, M. del C., Gu, P., Chapa, O., Richard, O., & Colella, A. (2021). Sixty years of discrimination and diversity research in human resource management: A review with suggestions for future research directions. *Human Resource Management*, 60(1), 145–204.
- Triana, M. del C., Jayasinghe, M., & Pieper, J. R. (2015). Perceived workplace racial discrimination and its correlates: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(4), 491–513.
- Triana, M. del C., Jayasinghe, M., Pieper, J. R., Delgado, D. M., & Li, M. (2019). Perceived workplace gender discrimination and employee consequences: A meta-analysis and

- complementary studies considering country context. *Journal of Management*, 45(6), 2419–2447.
- Twenge, J. M., Baumeister, R. F., Tice, D. M., & Stucke, T. S. (2001). If you can't join them, beat them: effects of social exclusion on aggressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81(6), 1058–1069.
- Tyler, T. R., & De Cremer, D. (2005). Process-based leadership: Fair procedures and reactions to organizational change. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(4), 529–545.
- Uslu, F., & Gizir, S. (2017). School belonging of adolescents: The role of teacher-student relationships, peer relationships and family involvement. *Educational Sciences- Theory & Practice*, 17(1), 63–82.
- Vajargah, F., & Masoomehnikbakht. (2015). Application REML model and determining cut off of ICC by multi-level model based on Markov Chains simulation in health. *Indian Journal of Fundamental and Applied Life Sciences*, 5, 2231-6345.
- Vandenberghe, C., & Bentein, K. (2009). A closer look at the relationship between affective commitment to supervisors and organizations and turnover. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 82(2), 331-348.
- van Dick, R., Becker, T.E., & Meyer, J.P. (2006). Commitment and identification: forms, foci, & future. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27, 545-548.
- Van Laar, C., Derks, B., Ellemers, N., & Bleeker, D. (2010). Valuing social identity: Consequences for motivation and performance in low-status groups. *Journal of Social Issues*, 66(3), 602–617.
- Van Laar, C., Meeussen, L., Veldman, J., Van Grootel, S., Sterk, N., & Jacobs, C. (2019). Coping with stigma in the workplace: Understanding the role of threat regulation, supportive factors, and potential hidden costs. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10(1879), 1–10.
- Van Laer, K., & Janssens, M. (2011). Ethnic minority professionals' experiences with subtle discrimination in the workplace. *Human Relations*, 64(9), 1203–1227.
- Veldman, J., Van Laar, C., Thoman, D. B., & Van Soom, C. (2021). “Where will I belong more?”: The role of belonging comparisons between STEM fields in high school girls' STEM interest. *Social Psychology of Education*, 24(5), 1363–1387.
- Verlinden, N. (2024). Diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging at work: A 2024 guide. <https://www.aihr.com/blog/diversity-equity-inclusion-belonging-deib/#:~:text=The%20key%20difference%20is%20that,ideas%20and%20perspectives%20listened%20to.>
- Volpone, S. D., & Avery, D. R. (2013). It's self defense: How perceived discrimination promotes

- employee withdrawal. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 18(4), 430-448.
- Von Hippel, C., Issa, M., Ma, R., & Stokes, A. (2011). Stereotype threat: Antecedents and consequences for working women. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 41(2), 151–161.
- Wagstaff, M. F., Triana, M. del C., Kim, S., & Al-Riyami, S. (2014). Responses to discrimination: Relationships between social support seeking, core self-evaluations, and withdrawal behaviors. *Human Resource Management*, 54(4), 673–687.
- Walsh, J. (2012). Not worth the sacrifice? Women's aspirations and career progression in law firms. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 19(5), 508-531.
- Walton, G. M. (2014). The new science of wise psychological interventions. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 23(1), 73-82.
- Walton, G. M., & Brady, S. T. (2017). The many questions of belonging. In A. J. Elliot, C. S. Dweck, & D. S. Yeager (Eds.), *Handbook of competence and motivation: Theory and application* (pp. 272–293). The Guilford Press.
- Walton, G. M., Brady, S. T., & Crum, A. J. (2020). The social-belonging intervention. *Handbook of Wise Interventions: How social psychology can help people change*, 36-62.
- Walton, G. M., & Cohen, G. L. (2007). A question of belonging: Race, social fit, and achievement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 92(1), 82–96.
<http://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.92.1.82>
- Walton, G. M., & Cohen, G. L. (2011). A brief social-belonging intervention improves academic and health outcomes of minority students. *Science*, 331, 1447–1451.
- Walton, G. M., Cohen, G. L., Cwir, D., & Spencer, S. J. (2012). Mere belonging: the power of social connections. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 102(3), 513-532.
- Walton, G. M., Murphy, M. C., & Ryan, A. M. (2015). Stereotype threat in organizations: Implications for equity and performance. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 1(523-550).
- Waples, C. J., & Brachle, B. J. (2020). Recruiting millennials: Exploring the impact of CSR involvement and pay signaling on organizational attractiveness. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 27(2), 870-880.
- Wellman, N., Troster, C., Grimes, M., Roberson, Q., Rink, F., & Gruber, M. (2023). Publishing multimethod research in AMJ: A review and best-practice recommendations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 66(4), 1007-1015.
- Williams, K.D. (2007). Ostracism. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 58, 425-452.

- Williams, C. L., Hirschi, Q., Sublett, K. V., Hulleman, C. S., & Wilson, T. D. (2020). A brief social belonging intervention improves academic outcomes for minoritized high school students. *Motivation Science*, 6(4), 423-437.
- Williams, J., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2008). Resampling and distribution of the product methods for testing indirect effects in complex models. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 15(1), 23-51.
- Wilton, L. S., Bell, A. N., Vahradyan, M., & Kaiser, C. R. (2020). Show don't tell: Diversity dishonesty harms racial/ethnic minorities at work. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 46(8), 1171-1185.
- Wilson, D., & VanAntwerp, J. (2021). Left out: A review of women's struggle to develop a sense of belonging in engineering. *SAGE Open*, 1-19.
- Wise, N. (2020, October 13). America's judiciary doesn't look like America. *The Atlantic*. <https://www.theatlantic.com/ideas/archive/2020/10/americas-judiciary-doesnt-look-like-america/616692/>
- Wong, B., Chiu, Y. L. T., Murray, O. M., & Horsburgh, J. (2022). End of the road? The career intentions of under-represented STEM students in higher education. *International Journal of STEM Education*, 9(1), 51-63.
- Wright, T. A., & Bonett, D. G. (2002). The moderating effects of employee tenure on the relation between organizational commitment and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(6), 1183-1190.
- Xu, Y. E., & Chopik, W. J. (2020). Identifying moderators in the link between workplace discrimination and health/well-being. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11, 458.
- Xu, C., & Lastrapes, R. E. (2022). Impact of STEM sense of belonging on career interest: The role of STEM attitudes. *Journal of Career Development*, 49(6), 1215-1229.
- Yaakobi, E., & Weisberg, J. (2020). Organizational citizenship behavior predicts quality, creativity, and efficiency performance: The roles of occupational and collective efficacies. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11, 758-776.
- Yang, L.-Q., Zheng, X., Liu, X., Lu, C., & Schaubroeck, J.M. (2020). Abusive supervision, thwarted belongingness, and workplace safety: A group engagement perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 105(3), 230-244.

Appendices

Appendix A: Ethics Approval



OFFICE OF
RESEARCH
ETHICS (ORE)
3rd Floor, Kaneff
Tower

4700 Keele St.
Toronto ON
Canada M3J 1P3
Tel 416 736 5914
www.research.yorku.ca

| | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Certificate #: | STU 2023-041 |
| Approval Period: | 04/04/23-04/04/24 |

ETHICS APPROVAL

To: **Sheryl Chummar**
Graduate Student of Human Resources Management
schummar@yorku.ca

From: Alison M. Collins-Mrakas, Director, Research Ethics
(on behalf of Janessa Drake, Chair, Human Participants Review Committee)

Date: Tuesday, April 4, 2023

Title: **How organizational diversity cues affect career aspirations: The mediating role of belonging**

Risk Level: Minimal Risk More than Minimal Risk

Level of Review: Delegated Review Full Committee Review

I am writing to inform you that this research project, "**How organizational diversity cues affect career aspirations: The mediating role of belonging**" has received ethics review and approval by the Human Participants Review Sub-Committee, York University's Ethics Review Board and conforms to the standards of the Canadian Tri-Council Research Ethics guidelines.

Note that approval is granted for one year. Ongoing research – research that extends beyond one year – must be renewed prior to the expiry date.

Any changes to the approved protocol must be reviewed and approved through the amendment process by submission of an amendment application to the HPRC prior to its implementation.

Any adverse or unanticipated events in the research should be reported to the Office of Research ethics (ore@yorku.ca) as soon as possible.

For further information on researcher responsibilities as it pertains to this approved research ethics protocol, please refer to the attached document, "**RESEARCH ETHICS: PROCEDURES to ENSURE ONGOING COMPLIANCE**".

Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at acollins@yorku.ca.

Yours sincerely,

Alison M. Collins-Mrakas M.Sc., LLM
Director, Office of Research Ethics

Appendix B: Study 1 Scales

Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory (WPDI) Items

Please indicate your level of agreement with each item using a 7- point Likert scale ranging from (1) disagree completely to (7) completely agree:

1. I have sometimes been unfairly singled out because of my racial/ethnic group.
2. Prejudice exists where I work.
3. Where I work all people are treated the same, regardless of their racial/ethnic group. [R]
4. At work I feel socially isolated because of my racial/ethnic group.
5. At work minority employees receive fewer opportunities.
6. There is no discrimination on my present job. [R]
7. Where I work members of some racial/ethnic groups are treated better than members of other groups.
8. At work people are intolerant of others from different racial/ethnic backgrounds.
9. Supervisors scrutinize the work of members of my group more than that of members of other racial/ethnic groups.
10. Where I work people of different racial and ethnic groups get along well with each other. [R]
11. At my present job, some people get better treatment because of their racial/ethnic group.
12. Telling racial or ethnic jokes is not common where I work. [R]
13. There is discrimination where I work.
14. At work I am treated poorly because of my racial/ethnic group.
15. At my present place of employment, people of other racial/ethnic groups do not tell me some job-related information that they share with members of their own group.
16. Where I work promotions and rewards are not influenced by racial or ethnic group membership. [R]

Need to Belong Items

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):

1. If other people don't seem to accept me, I don't let it bother me. [R]
2. I try hard not to do things that will make other people avoid or reject me.
3. I seldom worry about whether other people care about me. [R]
4. I need to feel there are people I can turn to in times of need.
5. I want other people to accept me.
6. I do not like to be alone.
7. Being apart from my friends for long periods of time does not bother me. [R]
8. I have a strong "need to belong."
9. It bothers me a great deal when I am not included in other people's plans.
10. My feelings are easily hurt when I feel that others do not accept me.

Organizational Justice Items

Regarding your experiences at your current firm, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree):

1. Overall, I am treated fairly by my organization
2. In general, I can count on this organization to be fair
3. In general, the treatment I receive around here is fair

Belonging Items

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):

1. People in this firm like me
2. People in this firm are a lot like me
3. I belong at this firm
4. At this firm, I feel like an outsider [R]
5. At this firm, I feel respected
6. At this firm, I feel excluded [R]
7. At this firm, I feel anxious [R]
8. At this firm, I enjoy being an active participant
9. I think I like to work at this firm
10. I think I can 'be myself' at this firm
11. My values and the values of this firm are very similar

Career Aspirations Items

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):

Career Advancement Expectations

1. I think I will eventually become partner in this organization.
2. I would be surprised if I made partner in this organization. [R]
3. I am confident I will make partner in this organization.

Career Advancement Aspirations

1. I eventually want to become partner in this organization.
2. Although it requires sacrifice, I aspire to be a partner in this organization.
3. I will do whatever it takes to become partner in this organization.

Leadership Aspirations

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (not at all) to 5 (completely):

1. To what extent do you want to eventually attain a high-ranking leadership role, such as being Managing Partner or Firm Chair, within this firm?

2. To what extent do you want to eventually attain a high-ranking leadership role, such as being Managing Partner or Firm Chair, at a different firm?
3. To what extent do you want to eventually attain a high-ranking leadership role within the judiciary, such a judge within the provincial or federal court system?
4. To what extent do you want to eventually attain a high-ranking leadership role, such as Chief Legal Officer or General Counsel, of a large corporation?

Turnover Intention

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):

1. I often think about quitting this organization
2. I intend to search for a position with another employer within the next 12 months

Appendix C: Study 2 Scales

Manipulation Check

How many non-White individuals were among the newly elected partners?

1. Fewer than 3
2. More than 3 but less than 10
3. More than 10

Need to Belong Items

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):

1. If other people don't seem to accept me, I don't let it bother me. [R]
2. I try hard not to do things that will make other people avoid or reject me.
3. I seldom worry about whether other people care about me. [R]
4. I need to feel there are people I can turn to in times of need.
5. I want other people to accept me.
6. I do not like to be alone.
7. Being apart from my friends for long periods of time does not bother me. [R]
8. I have a strong "need to belong."
9. It bothers me a great deal when I am not included in other people's plans.
10. My feelings are easily hurt when I feel that others do not accept me.

Belonging Items

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):

1. People in (this firm) the company would like me
2. People in (this firm) the company would be a lot like me
3. I would belong at this (firm) company
4. At this (firm) company, I would feel like an outsider [R]
5. At this (firm) company, I would feel respected
6. At this (firm) company, I would feel excluded [R]
7. At this (firm) company, I would feel anxious [R]
8. At this (firm) company, I would enjoy being an active participant
9. I think I would like to work at this (firm) company
10. I think I could 'be myself' at this (firm) company
11. I think I would be treated fairly by colleagues (at this firm)
12. I think my values and the values of this (firm) company are very similar

Job Application Intentions Items (General)

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):

1. I would apply for a job at this company (firm).
2. How likely would it be that you apply for a job at this company (firm)?

Job Application Intentions (Org Attractiveness and Pursuit Intentions)

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):

1. For me, this company would be a good place to work.
 2. I would not be interested in this company, except for as a last resort. [R]
 3. This company is attractive to me as a place for employment.
 4. I am interested in learning more about this company.
 5. A job at this company is very appealing to me.
-
1. I would accept a job offer from this company.
 2. I would make this company one of my first choices as an employer.
 3. If this company invited me for an interview, I would go.
 4. I would exert a great deal of effort to work at this company.
 5. I would recommend this company to a friend looking for a job.

Career Aspirations Items

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):

Career Advancement Aspirations

1. I would eventually want to become partner in this organization.
2. Although it would require sacrifice, I would aspire to be a partner in this organization.
3. I would do whatever it took to become partner in this organization.

Career Advancement Expectations

1. I think I would eventually become partner in this organization.
2. I would be surprised if I made partner in this organization. [R]
3. I am confident I would make partner in this organization.

Appendix D: Study 2 Press Releases

High Representation Condition

**SMITH FORREST LLP**
Lawyers

PRESS RELEASE
27 February, 2023

Smith Forrest Welcomes New Partners

Smith Forrest is proud to announce that we have promoted 18 lawyers to our partnership. These individuals build on the Firm's strength in 10 practice areas across our four Canadian offices.

"Our new partners exemplify the skill and dedicated service that Smith Forrest clients rely on to help them achieve their most ambitious business objectives," said Smith Forrest Chair [Hakim Ahmed](#) "Through their practices, they have gained valuable industry insight and formed meaningful relationships within the business community. This group enhances the Firm's ability to deliver innovative and commercially practical solutions."

"On behalf of the Smith Forrest partnership, I welcome and congratulate these exceptionally talented lawyers," said Firm Managing Partner [Charles Fulton](#). "This achievement recognizes their contributions to our clients' success and our culture of inclusion and collaboration."

The new partners are:

| | |
|--|---|
| Jacob Cohen , Corporate & Commercial, Toronto | Julia Franklin , Energy, Calgary |
| Rehman Malik , Capital Markets, Toronto | Shane Phillips , Litigation, Toronto |
| Liam McAllister , Employment & Labour, Toronto | Jeremy Bothwell , Capital Markets, Toronto |
| Chioma Njoku , Tax, Calgary | Cameron Schmidt , Competition, Toronto |
| Dustin Evans , Capital Markets, Toronto | Monica Ng , Pensions, Montreal |
| Kevin Lim , Corporate & Commercial, Vancouver | Matthew Kelders , Technology, Toronto |
| Jason (Jay) Smith , Litigation, Toronto | Ivan Chandler , Financial Services, Calgary |
| Theodore Brown , Energy, Calgary | Lindsay Vermeer , Litigation, Toronto |
| Rishi Patel , Real Estate, Vancouver | Graham Anderson- Boise , Tax, Toronto |



R1: Jacob Cohen, Rehman Malik, Liam McAllister, Chioma Njoku, Dustin Evans, Kevin Lim
R2: Jason (Jay) Smith, Theodore Brown, Rishi Patel, Julia Franklin, Shane Phillips, Jeremy Bothwell
R3: Cameron Schmidt, Monica Ng, Matthew Kelders, Ivan Chandler, Lindsay Vermeer, Graham Anderson- Boise

About Us

Smith Forrest is a leading Canadian law Firm with offices in Toronto, Calgary, Vancouver and Montreal. At Smith Forrest, we are in the constant pursuit of earning and building the trust of our clients through superior results and novel solutions. We are team players who collaborate across disciplines and geographies, building relationships with dedicated people, and we measure our success by theirs.

✉ info@smithforrest.com



PRESS RELEASE

27 February, 2023

Smith Forrest Welcomes New Partners

Smith Forrest is proud to announce that we have promoted 18 lawyers to our partnership. These individuals build on the Firm's strength in 10 practice areas across our four Canadian offices.

"Our new partners exemplify the skill and dedicated service that Smith Forrest clients rely on to help them achieve their most ambitious business objectives," said Smith Forrest Chair [Steve Banks](#). "Through their practices, they have gained valuable industry insight and formed meaningful relationships within the business community. This group enhances the Firm's ability to deliver innovative and commercially practical solutions."

"On behalf of the Smith Forrest partnership, I welcome and congratulate these exceptionally talented lawyers," said Firm Managing Partner [Charles Fulton](#). "This achievement recognizes their contributions to our clients' success and our culture of inclusion and collaboration."

The new partners are:

[Jacob Cohen](#), Corporate & Commercial, Toronto
[Justin Potter](#), Capital Markets, Toronto
[Liam McAllister](#), Employment & Labour, Toronto
[Ivan Chandler](#), Tax, Calgary
[Dustin Evans](#), Capital Markets, Toronto
[Peter Russell](#), Corporate & Commercial, Vancouver
[Randall \(Randy\) Vox](#), Litigation, Toronto
[Theodore Brown](#), Energy, Calgary
[Jessica Glazer](#), Real Estate, Vancouver

[Julia Franklin](#), Energy, Calgary
[Shane Phillips](#), Litigation, Toronto
[Jeremy Bothwell](#), Capital Markets, Toronto
[Cameron Schmidt](#), Competition, Toronto
[Céline Scott](#), Pensions, Montreal
[Matthew Kelders](#), Technology, Toronto
[Sarah Howlett](#), Financial Services, Calgary
[Lindsay Vermeer](#), Litigation, Toronto
[Graham Anderson-Boise](#), Tax, Toronto



R1: Jacob Cohen, Justin Potter, Liam McAllister, Ivan Chandler, Dustin Evans, Peter Russell
R2: Randall (Randy) Vox, Theodore Brown, Jessica Glazer, Julia Franklin, Shane Phillips, Jeremy Bothwell
R3: Cameron Schmidt, Céline Scott, Matthew Kelders, Sarah Howlett, Lindsay Vermeer, Graham Anderson- Boise

About Us

Smith Forrest is a leading Canadian law Firm with offices in Toronto, Calgary, Vancouver and Montreal. At Smith Forrest, we are in the constant pursuit of earning and building the trust of our clients through superior results and novel solutions. We are team players who collaborate across disciplines and geographies, building relationships with dedicated people, and we measure our success by theirs.

✉ info@smithforrest.com