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Article *in* Human Service Organizations Management · March 2016

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ISSN: 2330-3131 (Print) 2330-314X (Online) Journal homepage: http://www.tandfonline.com/loi/wasw21

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To cite this article: Michàlle E. Mor Barak, Erica Leeanne Lizano, Ahraemi Kim, Lei Duan, Min-Kyoung Rhee, Hsin-Yi Hsiao & Kimberly C. Brimhall (2016): The Promise of Diversity Management for Climate of Inclusion: A State-of-the-Art Review and Meta-Analysis, Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance, DOI: 10.1080/23303131.2016.1138915

To link to this article: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/23303131.2016.1138915

Accepted author version posted online: 04 Mar 2016.
Published online: 04 Mar 2016.

HUMAN SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS: MANAGEMENT, LEADERSHIP & GOVERNANCE
http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/23303131.2016.1138915

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The Promise of Diversity Management for Climate of Inclusion: A State-of-the-Art Review and Meta-Analysis

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ABSTRACT

Applying a theory-based conceptual model of organizational diversity, climate of inclusion, and beneficial/detrimental outcomes, this study analyzes 30 qualified studies (N = 496,740 workers) published during the past 2 decades. Results indicate that although diversity is associated with both beneficial and detrimental outcomes, diversity management efforts that promote a climate of inclusion are consistently associated with positive outcomes (? = .42, 95% CI = .29, .54) (N = 290,854). Findings suggest that human service organizations should move beyond a sole focus on increasing diversity representation to developing policies and practices that engender a climate of inclusion.

KEYWORDS

Leadership and organizational change; workforce/workplace issues in human service organizations management

Management practitioners and scholars alike have been interested in understanding the impact of workforce diversity on organizational outcomes, and many were inspired by the initial hypothesis that diversity makes business sense, as proposed by early scholars in the diversity field (e.g., Cox, 1994; Cox & Blake, 1991; Fernandez, 1991). Simply put, workforce diversity was thought to bring net value added to organizational processes and give organizations a competitive advantage in important business functions such as recruiting top talent, improving customer relations, fostering innovation and creativity, and generating a positive image in the community. Encouraging and supporting workforce diversity was also considered, at least by some, as "the right thing to do." In essence, devoting efforts to recruiting, managing, and supporting a diverse workforce is rooted in the ideals of fairness and social justice (Mor Barak, 2015; Ng & Sears, 2012; United Nations, 1948).

Though results from a great number of empirical studies lend support to the notion that organizational diversity results in advantageous outcomes, a comprehensive look at the literature paints a more complex picture of this relationship. Many studies have documented the benefits of increased diversity and linked it to beneficial organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment (Giffords, 2009); job satisfaction (Acquavita, Pittman, Gibbons, & Castellanos-Brown, 2009; Pitts, 2009); retention (Groeneveld, 2011); increased access to a more diversified client base (Cox, 1994; Herring, 2009; Thomas & Ely, 1996); greater creativity, innovation, and problem-solving ability (Bassett-Jones, 2005; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Richard, Barnett, Dwyer, & Chadwick, 2004; Richard, Roh, & Pieper, 2013); improved corporate image (Cox, 1994; Robinson & Dechant, 1997); and ultimately higher organizational performance (Richard et al., 2004; Sacco & Schmitt, 2005).

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However, other studies found nonsignificant or mixed results (Choi & Rainey, 2010; Faller, Grabarek, & Ortega, 2010; Mamman, Kamoche, & Bakuwa, 2012; Roberge & van Dick, 2010; van Knippenberg, de Dreu, & Homan, 2004; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007) or even detrimental outcomes such as a lack of retention, lost revenues, increased interunit conflict, and lack of cooperation (J. A. Chatman & Spataro, 2005; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Mamman et al., 2012; Sacco & Schmitt, 2005). As additional research has been generated, the seemingly contradictory evidence in the field of diversity research has resulted in a more nuanced understanding of diversity (Joshi & Roh, 2009; Kochan et al., 2003; van Dijk, van Engen, & van Knippenberg, 2012; Webber & Donahue, 2001).

As a means to fully realize the potential benefits of diversity in organizations, scholars have shifted their attention to diversity management (McKay & Avery, 2015). More specifically, recent research has suggested that diversity management efforts, particularly those designed to create an organizational climate for inclusion, could be influential in promoting positive outcomes of diversity such as job satisfaction, creativity, and retention while concurrently reducing negative consequences such as mistrust and miscommunication (Acquavita et al., 2009; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Hwang & Hopkins, 2012; McKay & Avery, 2015; Mor Barak, 2015; Pardasani & Goldkind, 2013; Shore et al., 2011; Travis & Mor Barak, 2010).

Human service organizations have traditionally served highly diverse populations of clients in both immigrant and established communities (Alegria, Atkins, Farmer, Slaton, & Stelk, 2010; Congress & Gonzalez, 2013; Garrow, 2014; Hasenfeld, 2010; Hyde, 2003; Iglehart, 2000). To provide culturally sensitive practices and meet the needs of clients from diverse backgrounds, human service organizations strive to develop diverse workforces that match the clients they serve (Alegria et al., 2010; Congress & Gonzalez, 2013; Garrow, 2014; Hasenfeld, 2010).Yet historically, the workforce of these organizations did not reflect the diversity of their clients, and despite recent improvements, diversity among employees and leaders of human service organizations remains far from mirroring client diversity (Alegria et al., 2010; Clark & Jacquet, 2003; National Association of Social Workers, 2006; Pardasani & Goldkind, 2013).

Although human service organizations recognize their ethical obligation to create a diverse workforce and thereby provide culturally sensitive services (Congress & Gonzalez, 2013; Garrow, 2014), research to date has been inconclusive regarding the implications of workforce diversity for these particular organizations. The goal of this study was to fill this gap via a systematic review and meta-analysis of existing research. More specifically, this study aimed to:

(1) provide a state-of-the-art review of the literature related to workforce diversity, perceptions of organizational diversity efforts (i.e., diversity management and climate for inclusion), and organizational outcomes in human service organizations;
(2) explore the relationships between two aspects of diversity characteristics, surface (or visible) and deep-level (or invisible) diversity, and two types of outcomes, beneficial and detrimental; and
(3) examine the implications for management practice by highlighting the relationship between diversity management efforts to create a climate for inclusion and organizational outcomes.

Theoretical framework

Several sociopsychological theories outline the dynamics of diversity in groups and organizations. These theoretical approaches are relevant to this systematic review and meta-analysis because they provide causal explanations for the connection between workforce diversity and worker and organizational outcomes. Specifically, they provide a framework for understanding why some organizations experience detrimental outcomes whereas others experience beneficial outcomes. We focused on several main theoretical approaches: social identity theory (Capozza & Brown, 2000; Hogg &

Terry, 2000; Hornsey, 2008; Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986), optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991), social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954; Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007; Guimond, 2006), relative deprivation theory (Bernstein & Crosby, 1980; Merton, 1938; Walker & Smith, 2002), and intersectionality (Crenshaw, 1989).

Diversity characteristics and beneficial outcomes

Social identity theory is a cognitive sociopsychological theory that provides the connection between social structures and individual identity through the meanings people attach to their membership in identity groups such as those formed by race, ethnicity, or gender (Tajfel, 1982). The theory suggests that people tend to classify themselves into social categories that have meaning for them and that this classification shapes the way individuals interact with others from their own identity group and from other groups (Tajfel, 1978, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1987). An important definition of self is through belonging to, and membership in, groups. As a result, people categorize others into groups and configure internal representation of them to fit the prototype of the category (Hogg, 2006; Hogg & Reid, 2009). Once others have been placed into those mental categories, they are viewed as the embodiments of their identity groups and not as unique individuals (Davis, 2009). Tajfel (1982) first developed social identity theory with emphasis on intergroup social comparisons. In essence, people classify themselves into different social categories, such as race, ethnicity, and gender, that generate personal meaning. These groups become points of reference for individuals in terms of where they belong and how they compare to others (Hornsey, 2008; Hyman, 1960).

The central proposition of Tajfel's social identity theory is that people desire to belong to groups that enjoy distinct and positive identities. Therefore, individuals who belong to groups with greater perceived social status will accept and include people they consider to be like them while excluding those they perceive to be different (Tajfel, 1982). Being included in a group with a higher social status has been linked to the important psychological process of self-esteem and subsequently to positive individual outcomes (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Later, Turner extended social identity theory through developing self-categorization theory, which explains cognitive process of social categorization on the basis of group behavior (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Hornsey, 2008). Similarly, racial identity development theory emerged out of social identity theory, emphasizing self-categorization in and psychological attachment toward ethnic groups (Thompson & Carter, 2013). Ferdman and Deane (2014) found that the U.S. racial system that excluded Latino experience or perspectives resulted in racial categories. More recently, Hogg, van Knippenberg, and Rast (2012) developed a theory of intergroup leadership, drawn on social identity and intergroup relations, which posits that effective intergroup performance depends on the way leaders construct intergroup relational identity.

Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory provides insight into the role of inclusion and exclusion in assessing individual standing within social groups and social systems. In essence, people from diverse groups identify with others in the organization who share their characteristics and feel more included if the organization is welcoming and accepting of them based on their personal identity (Greenberg et al., 2007; Guimond, 2006).

Optimal distinctiveness theory further sheds light on an important element of fostering inclusion in organizations. Not only do individuals want to feel similar to those around them (Greenberg et al., 2007; Guimond, 2006), they also want to feel accepted for their unique individual characteristics (Brewer, 1991; Shore et al., 2011). Therefore, organizations must strive to increase similarity and sense of belonging among employees but also recognize and appreciate employees for their unique talents (Brewer, 1991; Shore et al., 2011). In turn, acceptance and inclusion affect individuals' self-esteem (Mor Barak & Levin, 2002; Vakalahi, 2012) and can improve the way they feel about their job (Acquavita et al., 2009; Bortree & Waters, 2008; Mor Barak & Levin, 2002), reduce employee conflict (Nishii, 2013), increase commitment to an organization (Cho & Mor Barak, 2008; Findler, Wind, & Mor Barak, 2007; Shore et al., 2011), and improve retention (Buttner, Lowe, & Billings-Harris, 2012;

Mor Barak, Levin, Nissly, & Lane, 2006). Therefore, much is gained by way of organizational outcomes when inclusion is fostered in organizations.

People generally feel more comfortable with others they perceive to be more like them, particularly with respect to characteristics that are central to their sense of personal identity (Bernstein, Sacco, Young, Hugenberg, & Cook, 2010). Further, individuals express more empathy and are better able to relate to members from their own groups (C. M. Chatman & Von Hippel, 2001). This is particularly relevant for human service organizations because of the diverse populations they serve. Members of minority groups often feel more comfortable receiving services from people with whom they share important characteristics, such as race and ethnicity (Townes, Chavez-Korell, & Cunningham, 2009). Thus, a more diverse organization would be better equipped to serve a diverse population.

Diversity characteristics and detrimental outcomes

According to relative deprivation theory, negative affect such as resentment, anger, and dissatisfaction is the result of the status of an individual's social group relative to others and the extent of discrepancy between the respective social statuses of these groups (Bernstein & Crosby, 1980; Merton, 1938; Walker & Smith, 2002). Individuals compare their group memberships to other groups in an effort to decide which groups have greater perceived social status (Hyman, 1960). People create boundaries between themselves and others to differentiate themselves and gain or maintain superiority over others. Combining social deprivation theory and social identity theory, therefore, indicates that individuals who belong to a group with a greater perceived social status will accept and include other individuals they perceive to be of similar or higher status and exclude those whom they perceive to be of lesser status (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Creating boundaries can generate distrust and miscommunication (Bernstein et al., 2010). Experiencing feelings of being excluded can lead to several detrimental outcomes such as lowered self-esteem (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Vohs & Baumeister, 2011), increased stress, disengagement, and dissatisfaction related to an individual's job and employer (Krishnan, 2009; Shore et al., 2011; Stainback, Ratliff, & Roscigno, 2011).

Intersectionality theory focuses on race, gender, and class and highlights the multidimensional and complicated nature of diversity in its connection to detrimental societal consequences such as inequality, oppression, and discrimination (Crenshaw, 1989; Lutz, Herrera Vivar, & Supik, 2011). Specifically, the multifaceted nature of social identity makes it difficult to determine one specific social category that might be more salient than others in determining an individual's identity (Bodenhausen, 2010). This difficulty is addressed by intersectionality theory, which makes connections between race, gender, and class and negative social consequences and also highlights the increased negative consequences experienced by individuals who belong to more than one underrepresented group, such as African American women (Crenshaw, 1989; Lutz et al., 2011; Warner, 2008). Individuals who belong to multiple groups often feel excluded from those groups because they don't fit solely into one category (Zanoni, Janssens, Benschop, & Nkomo, 2010). In work organizations, this sense of exclusion can foster distrust and disengagement and lead to turnover (Bernstein et al., 2010).

Diversity management for fostering a climate for inclusion

Motivated by both practice wisdom and scholarly research, some researchers have focused on diversity management that can generate and sustain a climate for inclusion (McKay & Avery, 2015; Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998; Nishii, 2013). Diversity management involves specific policies and programs to enhance recruitment, inclusion, promotion, and retention of employees who are different from the majority of an organization's workforce (Kossek & Lobel, 1996; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Özbilgin & Tatli, 2008). Inclusion refers to "the individual's sense of being a part of the organizational system in both the formal processes, such as access to information and decision-

making channels, and the informal processes, such as 'water cooler' and lunch meetings where information and decisions informally take place" (Mor Barak, 2011, p. 166). A climate for inclusion, therefore, promotes employee perceptions of the organizational context that leads to the full acceptance of all employees and provides an environment in which the full spectrum of talents of individual employees are used (Mor Barak et al., 1998).

Social identity and intersectionality theories also help outline the connections among group membership, a climate for inclusion, and beneficial versus detrimental outcomes. In other words, they can help explain why some diverse organizations experience positive outcomes whereas others experience negative outcomes. According to social identity theory, being a part of a group fosters commonality among members (Tajfel, 1982). If members in an organization feel included and perceive that they are all part of the same group, the organization would become another group to which individual employees belong. Similarly, intersectionality theory states that individuals often identify with multiple groups (e.g., woman, Latina, engineer) to create a more authentic sense of self (Warner, 2008). These multiple group memberships can work together in a positive or negative way (Zanoni et al., 2010). If an organization creates a climate for inclusion, workers feel that they are part of the same team, generating a shared interest among individuals in the organization. A climate for inclusion may lower individual boundaries aimed at separating employees from one another and increase commonality and the ability of individuals to relate to one another within the organization. On the other hand, if a climate for inclusion does not exist, boundaries among members may remain or become more pronounced. These boundaries separate individuals from one another and foster distrust and miscommunication (Bernstein et al., 2010), ultimately leading to increased conflict, disengagement, and turnover.

Conceptual model

Based on our theoretical framework, Figure 1 presents the conceptual model for this study. Diversity characteristics can be categorized into two main domains: surface-level and deep-level diversity characteristics (Casper, Wayne, & Manegold, 2013; Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998). In general, surface-level diversity characteristics refer to an individual's personal attributes that are generally

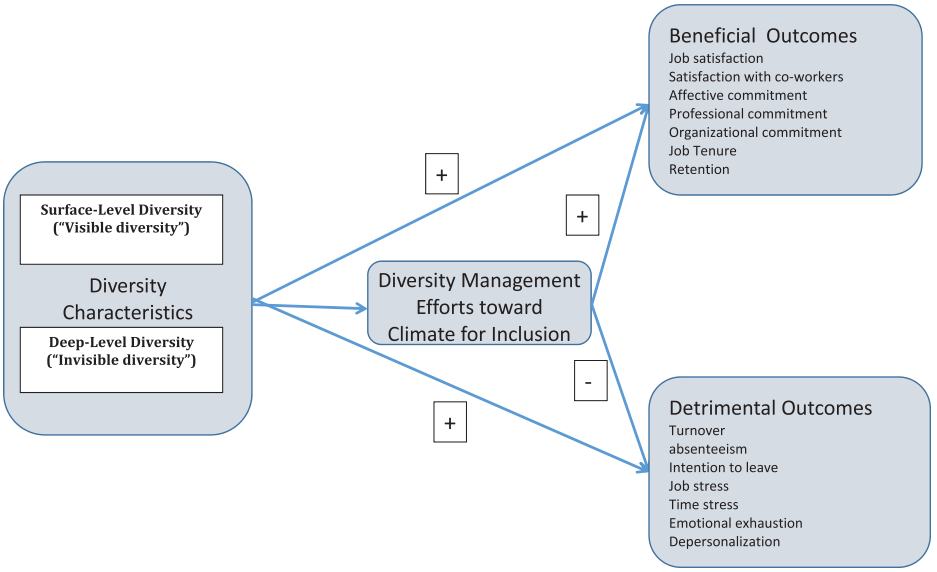

Figure 1. Conceptual model for the study.

more immediately visible to others (e.g., gender, race and ethnicity, nationality, and age; Casper et al., 2013). On the other hand, deep-level diversity characteristics refer to an individual's personal attributes that are less immediately visible to others (e.g., education and job tenure; Casper et al., 2013; Harrison et al., 1998). In line with our theoretical framework, we organized our conceptual model, literature review, and meta-analysis by surface-level and deep-level diversity characteristics. We then explored the relationship between these two forms of diversity and both beneficial and detrimental human service organizational outcomes. We extended this relationship by further exploring the influence of employees' perceptions of organizational diversity efforts (i.e., diversity management and climate for inclusion) on both positive and negative organizational outcomes.

Review of previous research

Diversity characteristics and organizational outcomes: Empirical findings

Surface-level diversity

Gender. Findings regarding the relationship between gender and organizational outcomes have been mixed. Most previous studies in human service organizations suggested a positive relationship between being a woman and beneficial organizational outcomes. This may be a result of women predominating human service positions (Hasenfeld, 2010) and subsequently representing the mainstream group in this sector. Research has suggested that being a woman in the human services sector may result in increased commitment to an organization (Giffords, 2009), a decreased likelihood of leaving an organization (Curry, McCarragher, & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2005), and thus increased employment tenure (Wiener, Squillace, Anderson, & Khatutsky, 2009). However, in a study examining the interrelationship between gender and nationality in the United Arab Emirates Ministry of Health, Abdulla and Shaw (1999) found that foreign women exhibited the lowest levels of affective commitment. The national context and subsequently quite likely the organizational context in this study are notably different from that of the majority of other studies, which were conducted in North America and which may explain the contradictory findings.

Race and ethnicity. Study findings have suggested that being part of a nondominant ethnic or racial group leads to negative affective outcomes (e.g., less commitment to a job or less engagement in work), although it may not affect turnover because the latter also depends on market conditions of available jobs, which are typically unfavorable to members of minority groups (Faller et al., 2010; Hopkins, Cohen-Callow, Kim, & Hwang, 2010). Travis and Mor Barak (2010) found that child welfare workers from nondominant ethnic and racial groups, including Latinos and African Americans, were less likely to promote organizational change and Latinos were more likely to disengage from work-related tasks. Hopkins et al. (2010) found that being non-White resulted in a greater likelihood of reporting intention to leave, though it was not a predictor of actually leaving an organization. Similarly, in Faller et al.'s (2010) study on race, organizational commitment, and turnover in child welfare, workers of color reported lower levels of commitment, yet race did not predict actual turnover. Though study findings suggest that identifying with a nondominant ethnic or racial group is related to negative outcomes, findings also suggest that identifying with several cultures can result in positive affective outcomes. In their study of law enforcement employees, Friday, Moss, and Friday (2004) found that employees who identified as multicultural in a diverse work environment were more satisfied with their coworkers.

Age. Research on age and organizational outcomes have consistently suggested a curvilinear relationship—employees at the younger and older ends of the spectrum experience more negative outcomes and workers in the middle enjoy more positive outcomes. Findings from Zhang, Punnett, Gore, and the CPH-NEW Research Team's (2014) study shed light on the nonlinear relationship between age and organizational outcomes. Nurses in the United States who were

younger than 40 or older than 60 reported a strong intention to leave their jobs (Zhang et al., 2014). Other studies that tested the linear relationship between age and organizational outcomes lend support to the curvilinear relationship that exists between age and organizational outcomes. Researchers have found that younger workers were more prone to be affected by workplace stressors and burnout (Boyas & Wind, 2010; Gellert & Schalk, 2012), less likely to be committed to and satisfied with their job (Abu-Bader, 2005; Gellert & Schalk, 2012; Kiyak, Namazi, & Kahana, 1997; Lambert, Cluse-Tolar, Pasupuleti, Prior, & Allen, 2012), and less likely to remain in their job (Blankertz & Robinson, 1997; Butler, Simpson, Brennan, & Turner, 2010; Curry et al., 2005; Faul et al., 2010; Kiyak et al., 1997; Ogborne, Braun, & Schmidt, 1998; Wiener et al., 2009).

Nationality and immigration status. Study findings of the effect of nationality or immigration status on personal and organizational outcomes in human service organizations have been contradictory. In their study of 506 nurses working in Israeli hospitals, Glazer and De La Rosa (2008) found that nurses born in Israel were less committed to their organization compared to their foreign-born counterparts. In contrast, Abu-Bader (2005) examined the intersection between gender and ethnicity and its effects on job satisfaction and found that Arab social workers, a minority group in Israel, reported significantly lower rates of job satisfaction. More specifically, Arab social workers reported lower rates of satisfaction with the quality of supervision provided to them and poorer relationships with colleagues (Abu-Bader, 2005).

Deep-level diversity

Education. Research findings regarding level of education and organizational outcomes in the human service sector have been mixed, with evidence pointing to a generally negative relationship. Highly educated employees are less likely to be satisfied (Metle, 2003) and more likely to intend to leave an organization (Ogborne et al., 1998; Wiener et al., 2009). However, in their study of home care aides for older adults, Faul et al. (2010) found that higher levels of education resulted in greater retention. The authors purported that a possible explanation for this finding is an inability of home care aides with lower levels of education to advance in the home care industry, forcing them to seek employment opportunities elsewhere.

Studies focused on the relationship between specialized training and organizational outcomes have also yielded mixed findings. In their study of job satisfaction in a national sample of child welfare workers, Barth, Lloyd, Christ, Chapman, and Dickinson (2008) found that having a degree in social work (i.e., bachelor's or master's) was correlated with greater job satisfaction. However, the relationship between having a social work degree and retention was negative (Barth et al., 2008). In their study of public child welfare workers in urban, suburban, and rural regions of the United States, Strolin-Goltzman, Auerbach, McGowan, and McCarthy (2007) found that having a social work degree was related to a greater likelihood of intention to leave among public child welfare workers in urban areas. Conversely, in their study of public child welfare employees in the United States, Hopkins et al. (2010) found that having a graduate degree in social work made an employee less likely to leave an organization. Though the relationship between education and organizational outcomes was largely negative in the studies reviewed, there were some exceptions where higher education led to greater job satisfaction and an increased likelihood to want to remain on the job.

Tenure. Findings regarding the relationship between job tenure and organizational commitment and job satisfaction have been generally mixed. Increased tenure has been linked to lower levels of emotional exhaustion (Boyas & Wind, 2010), higher levels of organizational commitment (Abdulla & Shaw, 1999; Lambert et al., 2012), and higher levels of job satisfaction (Kiyak et al., 1997). Conversely, in their study of Australian nurses, Lok and Crawford (2001) found that increased tenure in a specific position had a small but significant negative relationship with organizational commitment. In a study of public child welfare workers in the United States, Strolin-Goltzman et al. (2007) found that as tenure increased, intention to leave the public child welfare field increased, a

finding that was in line with other turnover studies in the human service sector (Blankertz & Robinson, 1997; Manlove & Guzell, 1997; Travis & Mor Barak, 2010; van Breukelen, van der Vlist, & Steensma, 2004). Overall, these study results paint a complex picture of the relationship between job tenure and organizational outcomes.

Perceptions of organizational diversity efforts: Empirical findings

Diversity management refers to "the voluntary organizational actions that are designed to create greater inclusion of employees from various backgrounds into the formal and informal organizational structures through deliberate policies and programs" (Mor Barak, 2014, p. 218). In the current study, the term *perceptions of organizational diversity efforts* refers to employees' perceptions of the extent to which their organization supports diversity management efforts and encourages a climate for inclusion. Although research on diversity management and inclusion has been sparse in the human service sector, the interest and number of studies conducted in this area has grown during the past decade. The focus of this growing area of research has typically been either on increasing diversity representation or diversity management efforts and policies designed to create a more inclusive workplace. Study findings regarding diversity management affirmed the role that diversity management plays in mediating or moderating the relationship between diversity and organizational outcomes (e.g., Acquavita et al., 2009; Choi & Rainey, 2010; Pitts, 2009). Research evidence has provided support for a positive relationship between diversity management for inclusion and organizational outcomes that leads to more committed and satisfied employees who are more likely to remain in their job and be more productive (e.g., Acquavita et al., 2009; Groeneveld, 2011; Hwang & Hopkins, 2012; Travis & Mor Barak, 2010).

In a study of Dutch public sector employees, Groeneveld (2011) found that public employees who believed their employer used diversity management policies were less likely to report an intention to leave the public sector. Results from a study of U.S. social workers indicated that organizational diversity efforts and inclusion in organizational processes were associated with increased job satisfaction (Acquavita et al., 2009). In addition, the study found that racial composition of the organization was not a predictor of job satisfaction, suggesting that efforts to manage diversity and promote inclusion in the workplace are more important than simply having a diverse workforce in determining job satisfaction. Other studies found a positive relationship between an inclusive workplace environment and organizational outcomes. Hwang and Hopkins (2012) found that perceived inclusion affected organizational commitment, which in turn affected intention to leave. In their study of public child welfare workers in the United States, Travis and Mor Barak (2010) found that workers who felt included in decision making were more likely to be engaged in their work.

Research evidence has suggested that diversity management also leads to greater performance at the group and organizational levels. In a study of diversity management and its effect on group performance among 150,000 federal government workers in the United States, Pitts (2009) found that non-White respondents were less likely than their White counterparts to have positive perceptions of work group performance. However, the negative relationship between ethnic and racial minority status and work group performance disappeared after controlling for diversity management. Pitts (2009) also examined the relationship between diversity and job satisfaction and found similar results: Non-White respondents were less likely to report being satisfied with their jobs. However, upon introducing diversity management, the relationship between race and job satisfaction changed, with people of color being more likely to report high levels of job satisfaction (Pitts, 2009). In a similar study of U.S. federal employees, Choi and Rainey (2010) examined diversity and organizational performance and found that employees perceived reduced organizational effectiveness when there was greater racial diversity. However, when employees perceived that diversity was managed effectively, greater racial diversity resulted in perceptions of improved organizational effectiveness (Choi & Rainey, 2010), indicating the importance of diversity management in achieving positive outcomes.

Methodology

Selection of studies for review

To systematically examine the effect of diversity on work-related outcomes, we identified several specific conceptual and statistical inclusion guidelines. To qualify for inclusion in our meta-analysis, each article had to meet all of the following criteria:

- included at least one measure of a diversity characteristic (e.g., gender, race, ethnicity, education) as an antecedent or independent variable
- included at least one work-related outcome or dependent variable
- examined a sample from a human service organization, such as child welfare and child care workers, social workers, mental health workers (e.g., addiction treatment and rehabilitation workers), public health workers, nurses or nursing home workers, and public government employees (e.g., military personnel and law enforcement officers)
- published between 1990 and 2012
- reported the statistics necessary for conducting a meta-analysis, including bivariate correlations, *t* statistics, regression coefficients, and standard error values
- reported the size of the sample used for statistical analysis

Research studies included in this meta-analysis were drawn from peer-reviewed journals because the review process promotes quality assurance. We also sought unpublished manuscripts from authors who have previously published in this area of research to avoid a potential bias toward only publishing results that are statistically significant and excluding nonsignificant results from published manuscripts. Studies not published in English and dissertations were excluded because of the length of time needed to retrieve these types of sources. A combination of key words, detailed in Figure 1, was used to identify studies examining the connection between diversity and performance outcomes.

Systematic search process

This study used the stipulated criteria to identify existing empirical studies published in academic journals between 1990 and 2012. Three procedures were employed in the search for studies: a computerized search, a manual search in key journals, and a search for unpublished manuscripts.

Computerized search

We conducted a computerized search of four electronic databases, PsycINFO, ProQuest, JSTOR, and Social Work Abstracts, and one search engine, Google Scholar, to identify articles in the fields of sociology, psychology, social work, child welfare, and human services. PsycINFO is a comprehensive database providing abstracts for journals, articles, and books in the international psychology literature; ProQuest is a multidisciplinary, multidatabase index of research articles; JSTOR is a full-text database containing a collection of core journals in the areas of science and humanities, and Social Work Abstracts database contains more than 35,000 records in the areas of social work, human services, and related topics. Google Scholar, a search engine of scholarly literature in broad areas of research, was used to search for peer-reviewed articles meeting inclusion criterion.

A two-step approach was used to identify studies for inclusion in the meta-analysis. First, we conducted a computerized search of article abstracts using a combination of key search terms (see Table 1). Based on the article abstract search, 96 potential articles were identified. The 96 articles were reviewed in their entirety to ensure that they met inclusion criteria. Of the 96 empirical articles identified and reviewed, 30 studies met all criteria for inclusion in the meta-analysis.

Table 1. Terms used during literature search.

Diversity	Performance	Field of service
Surface-level diversity	*Positive outcomes*	Child welfare
Age	Creativity	Mental health
Aging	Financial outcomes	Nonprofit
Cohort	Inclusion	Public sector
Cohort composition	Job satisfaction	Social services
Differently abled	Organizational climate	Social work
Disability	Organizational commitment	
Ethnic matching	Organizational culture	
Gender	Performance	
Generational diversity	Productivity	
Language matching	Task accomplishment	
Race/ethnicity	Team cohesion	
Racial disparities	Team commitment	
Racial disproportionality	Team performance	
Racial matching	Well-being	
Deep-level diversity	*Negative outcomes*	
Education	Absenteeism	
Immigration status	Retention	
Nationality	Stress	
Professional background	Total days absent	
Sexual orientation	Turnover	
Tenure	Turnover intention	
Perceptions of organizational diversity efforts		
Cross-cultural competence		
Diversity		
Diversity intervention		
Diversity management		
Diversity training		
Inclusion		
Intercultural sensitivity training		
Racial training		

Manual search in key journals

In addition to the electronic search, a manual search was conducted for studies in five key child welfare, human service, and social work journals. The journals were *British Journal of Social Work, Children and Youth Services Review, Research on Social Work Practice, Social Service Review*, and *Social Work*.

Search for unpublished manuscripts

We contacted the authors of the manuscripts included in this meta-analysis to (a) determine if there was a significant research effort underway that could complement the already published articles and (b) identify manuscripts that were not published because of nonsignificant findings that could shed additional light on the relationship between diversity characteristics and worker outcomes. To locate appropriate unpublished papers, all authors of the articles that were eventually included in our meta-analysis were contacted via email. They were asked to provide us with information about additional unpublished manuscripts that they or their colleagues had produced during the period of the study. Although we received many responses to our queries (almost all authors responded), no additional manuscripts were identified that met our inclusion criteria.

Study sample

As a result of our systematic literature search, we identified 30 qualified articles published in academic journals. The combined sample featured 496,740 workers in social service settings. Of the 30 studies included, seven (23.33%) examined child welfare workers; six (20.00%), government

employees; five (16.67%), geriatric and personal care workers; four (13.33%), social workers; four (13.33%), nurses; two (6.67%), child care workers; and two (6.67%), addiction treatment workers.

Coding of studies

Four research team members coded all articles based on study sample (i.e., 1 = social workers; 2 = child welfare workers; 3 = nurses; 4 = military personnel; 5 = addiction treatment workers; 6 = rehabilitation workers; 7 = law enforcement or police patrol workers; 8 = public health workers; 9 = child care workers; 10 = government employees; 11 = nursing home care employees). An additional classification of the sample type was generated: 1 = child welfare (i.e., child welfare workers) and 2 = other (i.e., social workers, nurses, military, addiction treatment workers, rehabilitation workers, law enforcement, public health workers, child care workers, and government employees). Articles were also classified based on whether the study reported correlation coefficients or regression coefficients (standardized or unstandardized) and sample size. The articles were also coded for type of diversity (visible or surface vs. invisible or deep-level diversity); whether perceptions of organizational diversity efforts were included in the study (diversity management and inclusion efforts); and the type of outcome variable (i.e., beneficial vs. detrimental outcome; see Table 2).

All articles were coded according to three antecedent or independent variables: surface-level diversity, deep-level diversity, and perceptions of organizational diversity efforts. In addition, all outcomes were categorized as either beneficial or detrimental. To ensure that all diversity variables were coded in the same direction, a coding scheme was developed based on the conceptual distinction of mainstream versus nonmainstream. Based on previous research, we defined self-identification as Caucasian or White, having longer tenure and more education, and being older and a nonimmigrant as mainstream; we defined self-identification as a person of color, having shorter tenure and less education, and being younger and an immigrant as nonmainstream. The gender variable represented a specific challenge in this context. Previous research as well as the studies reviewed for this analysis, have documented women's predominant representation in human service organizations. Yet, proportionately, men typically have a higher representation in management positions relative to their numbers in the organization (Gibleman & Schervish, 1993; Hasenfeld, 2010; Patti, 2009). Taking this complexity into consideration, we decided to consider women as the "main stream" category for gender but we add a cautionary note to this effect at the discussion section of this study.

Table 2. Coding of positive and negative outcomes.

Outcome	Code
Positive outcomes	
Affective commitment	1
Continuance commitment	1
Job satisfaction	1
Job tenure	1
Organizational commitment	1
Professional commitment	1
Satisfaction with coworkers	1
Negative outcomes	
Absence frequency	2
Depersonalization	2
Emotional exhaustion	2
Intention to leave	2
Job stress	2
Retention	2
Time stress	2
Total days of absence	2
Turnover	2

Measures

Diversity

The various forms of diversity measures included in this meta-analysis are listed in Table 3. Surface-level diversity was measured based on gender, race, minority status, socioethnicity (monocultural vs. multicultural), and immigrant status. Deep-level diversity was measured based on primary language spoken, job tenure, job status (professional vs. paraprofessional), having or not having a social work degree, education level, manager or supervisor status, and employment status (full-time vs. part-time).

Work-related outcomes

The outcome variables reviewed in this meta-analysis were categorized as either beneficial or detrimental to workers' psychological well-being and job-related effectiveness. The definitions and measurement of worker outcomes varied across the analyzed studies. Outcomes such as job satisfaction, satisfaction with coworkers, organizational commitment, and job tenure were coded as beneficial. Intention to leave, turnover, job stress, and burnout were coded as detrimental. In this meta-analysis, beneficial outcomes were coded as 1; detrimental outcomes were coded as 2. Of the 16 outcomes reported in the reviewed studies, nine (56.2%) were coded as detrimental and seven (43.7%) were coded as beneficial.

Table 3. Listing of diversity variables.

Variable
Surface-level diversity
Age
Gender
Immigrant tenure
Minority status
Race
Socioethnicity (monocultural vs. multicultural)
Deep-level diversity
Personal identity
Main language not English
Nationality
Job identity
Clinical tenure
Education
Employment status (full time vs. part time)
Employment tenure
Job status (professional vs. paraprofessional)
Job tenure
Less than high school education
Manager/supervisor status
More than high school or GED
Position tenure
Social work degree
Tenure in addiction services
Tenure in present position
Tertiary qualifications
Type of work (client oriented vs. staff oriented)
Perceptions of organizational diversity efforts
Cross-cultural training
Cultural competence
Diversity
Diversity intervention
Diversity management
Diversity training
Inclusion
Intercultural sensitivity training
Racial training

Statistical analysis

The effect size used in this meta-analysis was *r*, an estimate of the Pearson product–moment correlation coefficient. Peterson and Brown's (2005) imputation approach, in combination with conversion formulas (Bonett, 2007; Pearson, 1900), was used to convert and impute the effect sizes to approximate correlation coefficients for studies that provided standardized beta coefficients or odds ratios rather than correlation coefficients. The imputation formula was a two-parameter least-squares equation: $r = .98\beta + .05\lambda$, in which λ is an indicator variable that equals 1 when β is nonnegative and 0 when β is negative. The formula has been verified with more than 1,500 corresponding β and *r* values that were identified from published behavioral studies and is considered an accurate and precise method to calculate estimates of population effect sizes. In some instances, multiple effect sizes were drawn from the same study when the overall study examined the relationship between a diversity characteristic and two or more work outcomes. However, some studies presented a different challenge. For example, Lambert et al. (2012) reported standardized beta coefficients from two regression models using gender to predict job satisfaction and organizational commitment. As a result, these two associations fell into the same dimension of the factorial framework (e.g., gender with a beneficial work outcome) and could have led to errors if the effect sizes were treated as two independent effects (Glass, McGaw, & Smith, 1981). Therefore, an aggregated coefficient was calculated by averaging the effect sizes (Gimbel et al., 2002) to create a single measure of the relationships.

The meta-analysis procedure performed in this study was an effect-size–based method that allowed us to correct for statistical artifacts such as sampling error, measurement error, and range restriction (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). This method maximizes the possibility of distinguishing variance across studies due to real moderator variables. However, in the current analysis, very few studies reported information related to measurement error and no studies provided information on range restriction. To maintain consistency, sampling error was the only artifact that was corrected for in all of the studies. In this meta-analysis, the estimated product–moment correlation coefficient, *r*, was used for the effect-size estimates from selected studies. Although many meta-analyses use Fisher's *Z*-transformed correlation coefficients to achieve a nearly normal distribution, it is believed that Fisher's *Z* replaces a small underestimation by a typical overestimated bias that is greater in absolute value than the bias in untransformed correlations, especially if there is variation in correlations across studies (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). Therefore, we calculated the estimated true correlation based on the untransformed correlation coefficients from included studies. In addition, true standard deviations, 95% credibility intervals, 95% confidence intervals, percentage of variance accounted for by artifacts, Q statistics of homogeneity, and degrees of freedom (Aguinis & Pierce, 1998; Hedges & Olkin, 1985) were obtained. The interpretation of findings is discussed in a subsequent section.

The credibility interval is a Bayesian estimate that has implications for the generalizability of findings, and if the interval contains zero, it suggests a need to examine possible moderators. The confidence interval is a standard statistical estimate that offers information about the accuracy of the estimated correlation. The estimated correlation is not statistically different from zero if the confidence interval includes zero. According to Hunter and Schmidt (2004), if the variance accounted for by artifacts is less than 75%, there is a need to examine potential moderators. The homogeneity Q statistic approximates a chi-square distribution; a statistically significant Q indicates that the effect sizes on which the studies were based were calculated using very different populations. Based on the previous literature on the association between diversity and workplace outcomes and the studies included in this meta-analysis, we examined three potential moderators: sample type (child welfare vs. other), organization type (public vs. private or mixed), and the geographic location of the study (United States vs. other).

The artifact-corrected meta-analysis models presented by Hunter and Schmidt (2004) are all random-effects models. Compared to fixed-effects models, random-effects models are more general

and robust because they allow population parameters to vary from study to study. The previous practice of assuming a fixed-effects model and only adopting a random-effects formulation if the assumption of homogeneity of information sources is rejected by a significance test is inefficient and can lead to underestimation of uncertainty about the underlying effect of interest (National Research Council, 1992).

Results

Our results are based on 30 studies that met the inclusion criteria with 60 extracted correlation coefficients, 72 standardized regression coefficients (betas), and 19 odds ratio indicators measuring the associations between diversity and work outcomes. Table 4 and Table 5 present the study source, the sector in which samples were drawn, and effect size. Based on our conceptual framework, effect sizes were divided into three categories of antecedents and two types of work-related outcomes. It is important to note the limited number of studies examining perceptions of organizational diversity efforts (i.e., diversity management and climate for inclusion) and that these studies provided data only on the direct effects of these perceptions. Therefore, we were able to test the direct relationship between perceptions of organizational diversity efforts on worker outcomes but not their potential mediating or moderating role with respect to diversity characteristics.

With respect to detrimental outcomes, only two studies reported an association between gender and a detrimental outcome and only one study reported an association between job status and a detrimental outcome. No studies reported a relationship between immigrant status and detrimental outcomes. Therefore, the meta-analysis was not performed for these relationships. Information on sample and effect sizes, including correlation coefficients and 95% confidence intervals for all coefficients, is presented in Table 6.

Surface-level diversity and beneficial outcomes

Results of this meta-analysis were mixed and suggest that some aspects of being a part of a nonmainstream group in terms of visible forms of diversity were negatively related to beneficial work outcomes, some were positive, and others produced no significant results. Younger age was negatively associated with beneficial work outcomes such as job satisfaction, intention to stay, and organizational commitment (ρ = -.26; 95% CI = -.35, -.17). Similarly, being a man in a field that employs a majority of women was also negatively related to these beneficial work outcomes (ρ = -.23; 95% CI = -.37, -.09). No statistically significant association was found between race and beneficial outcomes, as evidenced by the inclusion of zero in the confidence interval for this relationship. In contrast, being an immigrant or nonnational was positively correlated with beneficial work outcomes, with a mean population correlation of .06 (95% CI = .01, .10).

Surface-level diversity and detrimental outcomes

There were no statistically significant relationships between age and detrimental outcomes or between race and detrimental outcomes. There were not enough studies to examine the relationship between gender and immigration status and detrimental outcomes.

Deep-level diversity and beneficial outcomes

Less education was positively correlated with beneficial work outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, with an estimated mean population correlation of .15 (95% CI = .08, .20). In contrast, less job tenure, another nonmainstream diversity characteristic, was negatively related to these beneficial work outcomes (ρ = -.02; 95% CI = -.03, -.01), although the effect size was extremely small.

Table 4. Effect sizes of individual studies by type of analysis: Positive outcomes.

Study No.	Source	Sector	Independent variable	*N*	*r*
Surface-level diversity					
Age					
3	Friday et al., 2004	Law enforcement	Age	247	−.03
4	Glazer & De La Rosa, 2008*	Nursing	Age	506	−.25
6	Kiyak et al., 1997	Nursing/community services	Age	308	−.22
7	Lok & Crawford, 2001*	Nursing	Age	251	−.19
10	Wiener et al., 2009*	Home nursing assistants	Age < 30	2,221	−.48
11	Abdulla & Shaw, 1999*	Public sector	Age	147	−.21
12	Abu-Bader, 2005	Social work	Age	218	−.16
17	Curry et al., 2005	Child welfare	Age	416	−.01
20	Ogborne et al., 1998	Addiction treatment	Age	705	−.26
22	Giffords, 2009*	Social work	Age	214	.07
27	Faul et al., 2010	Home care aides	Age	101	−.19
28	Gellert et al., 2012*	Residential-home employees	Age	150	−.13
31	Hwang et al., 2012	Child welfare	Age	621	−.11
32	Lambert et al., 2012*	Social work	Age	255	−.08
Gender					
10	Wiener et al., 2009	Home nursing assistants	Male gender	2,221	−.40
11	Abdulla & Shaw, 1999*	Public sector	Gender	147	−.02
17	Curry et al., 2005	Child welfare	Gender	416	−.26
20	Ogborne et al., 1998	Addiction treatment	Gender	705	−.02
22	Giffords, 2009*	Social work	Gender	214	−.09
26	Faller et al., 2010*	Child welfare	Gender	347	.04
32	Lambert et al., 2012*	Social work	Gender	255	.08
Race					
2	Acquavita et al., 2009	Social work	Minority status	86	.06
3	Friday et al., 2004	Law enforcement	Socioethnicity	247	.05
26	Faller et al., 2010*	Child welfare	Race	347	−.04
27	Faul et al., 2010	Home care aides	White ethnicity	101	.18
32	Lambert et al., 2012*	Social work	Race	255	−.05
Immigration					
4	Glazer & De La Rosa, 2008*	Nursing	Years in Israel	506	−.03
10	Wiener et al., 2009	Home nursing assistants	Immigrant	2,221	.07
11	Abdulla & Shaw, 1999*	Public sector	Nationality	147	.08
Deep-level diversity					
Education					
3	Friday et al., 2004	Law enforcement	Education	247	.11
7	Lok & Crawford, 2001	Nursing	Tertiary qualifications	251	−.04
10	Wiener et al., 2009*	Home nursing assistants	Education	2,221	.20
11	Abdulla & Shaw, 1999*	Public sector	Education	147	.02
19	Metle, 2003	Public sector	Education	774	.11
20	Ogborne et al., 1998	Addiction treatment	Education	705	.22
27	Faul et al., 2010	Home care aides	Education	101	−.20
32	Lambert et al., 2012*	Social work	Education level	255	.03
Tenure					
3	Friday et al., 2004	Law enforcement	Tenure	247	.08
4	Glazer & De La Rosa, 2008*	Nursing	Tenure	506	−.15
6	Kiyak et al., 1997	Nursing/community services	Employment tenure	308	−.24
7	Lok & Crawford, 2001*	Nursing	Clinical tenure	251	.07
11	Abdulla & Shaw, 1999*	Public sector	Tenure	147	−.19
20	Ogborne et al., 1998*	Addiction treatment	Tenure in present job	705	−.08
22	Giffords, 2009*	Social work	Professional tenure	214	.03
25	Choi & Rainey, 2010	Public sector	Tenure	150,000	−.02
32	Lambert et al., 2012*	Social work	Tenure	255	.16
Perceptions of organizational diversity efforts					
1	Pitts, 2009*	Public sector	Diversity management (perceived culture of diversity)	139,541	.26
2	Acquavita et al., 2009*	Social work	Organizational diversity efforts	86	.20

(*Continued*)

Table 4. (Continued).

Study No.	Source	Sector	Independent variable	*N*	*r*
3	Friday et al., 2004	Law enforcement	Organizational sensitivity to diversity	247	.11
25	Choi & Rainey, 2010*	Public sector	Diversity management (perceived culture of diversity)	150,000	.57
31	Hwang et al., 2012	Child welfare	Organizational inclusion	621	.32
33	Travis & Mor Barak, 2010*	Child welfare	Inclusion in decision making	359	.20

*To prevent parameter overestimation, effect sizes were averaged from multiple analyses using the same sample, supervisory dimensions, and worker outcomes.

Table 5. Effect sizes of individual studies by type of analysis: Negative outcomes.

Study No.	Source	Sector	Independent variable	*N*	*r*
Surface-level diversity					
Age					
5	Im, 2009	Public sector	Age group	498	.04
6	Kiyak et al., 1997*	Nursing/community services	Age	308	−.38
14	Blankertz & Robinson, 1997	Rehabilitation services	Age	848	.11
16	Boyas & Wind, 2010*	Child welfare	Age	209	.28
18	Manlove & Guzell, 1997*	Child care workers	Age	189	.22
21	Gellalty, 1995*	Nursing/food service	Age	166	.14
24	Butler et al., 2010	Personal home care assistants	Age	261	.01
28	Gellert & Schalk, 2012	Residential home employees	Age	150	.05
30	Hopkins et al., 2010*	Child welfare	Age	484	.11
31	Hwang & Hawkins, 2012	Child welfare	Age	621	.15
32	Lambert et al., 2012	Social work	Age	255	.22
34	Zhang et al., 2014*	Home nursing employees	Age < 40	1,589	−.05
Race					
8	Strolin-Goltzman et al., 2007*	Child welfare	Race	273	.10
30	Hopkins et al., 2010*	Child welfare	Race	484	.14
32	Lambert et al., 2012	Social work	Race	255	−.05
Deep-level diversity					
Education					
8	Strolin-Goltzman et al., 2007*	Child welfare	Social work degree	273	−.14
16	Boyas & Wind, 2010*	Child welfare	Education	209	.10
30	Hopkins et al., 2010*	Child welfare	Social work master's degree	484	−.24
32	Lambert et al., 2012	Social work	Education level	255	−.10
Tenure					
8	Strolin-Goltzman et al., 2007*	Child welfare	Job tenure	273	.02
9	van Breukelen et al., 2004*	Military	Tenure (T1)	122	.23
14	Blankertz & Robinson, 1997	Rehabilitation services	Field tenure	848	.21
16	Boyas & Wind, 2010*	Child welfare	Tenure	209	.14
18	Manlove & Guzell, 1997*	Child care workers	Tenure	169	.26
21	Gellalty, 1995*	Nursing/food service	Organizational tenure	166	−.08
32	Lambert et al., 2012	Social work	Tenure	255	.24
Perceptions of organizational diversity efforts					
29	Groeneveld, 2011	Public sector	Presence of diversity policy	23,145	−.04
31	Hwang et al., 2012	Child welfare workers	Organizational inclusion	621	−.17
33	Travis & Mor Barak, 2010*	Child welfare	Inclusion in decision making	359	−.22

*To prevent parameter overestimation, effect sizes were averaged from multiple analyses using the same sample, supervisory dimensions, and worker outcomes.

Deep-level diversity and detrimental outcomes

Less education was negatively correlated with detrimental outcomes (ρ = -.13; 95% CI = -.25, -.01). In contrast, less job tenure was positively associated with detrimental outcomes (ρ = .16; 95% CI = .09, .23).

Table 6. Meta-analysis results for diversity and work outcomes.

Variable	*n*	*rs*	*r* range	ρ	ρ *SD*	95% CI	95% CV	% AV	Q	*df*
Positive outcomes										
Surface-level diversity										
Age	6,360	14	−.475, .074	−.262	.169	−.354, −.169	−.595, .071	6	314.7	13
Gender	4,304	7	−.402, .079	−.231	.189	−.374, −.088	−.602, .139	4	269.44	6
Race	1,037	5	−.049, .177	.010	.008	−.051, .071	−.006, .026	98	6.08	4
Immigration	2,874	3	−.029, .080	.056	.023	.012, .101	.011, .102	66	5.176	2
Deep-level diversity										
Education	4,701	8	−.196, .220	.145	.080	.083, .207	−.010, .302	21	79.846	7
Tenure	152,633	9	−.240, .158	−.020	.014	−.032, −.010	−.049, .008	21	92.242	8
Diversity climate	290,854	6	.110, .320	.191	.063	.140, .242	.067, .315	0.5	1,347.2	5
Negative outcomes										
Surface-level diversity										
Age	5,577	12	−.380, .275	.038	.133	−.042, .118	−.224, .300	11	120.71	11
Race	1,013	3	−.049, .135	.080	.053	−.006, .166	−.024, .185	51	6.178	2
Deep-level diversity										
Education	1,221	4	−.243, .102	−.131	.106	−.248, −.013	−.339, .077	22	19.78	3
Tenure	2,041	7	−.075, .255	.160	.081	.087, .233	.002, .318	33	21.15	6
Perceptions of organizational diversity efforts	24,125	3	−.215, .044	−.050	.026	−.082, -.017	−.101, .002	15	239.67	2

Note. *n* = total participants in sample; *rs* = number of correlation coefficients; *r* range = range of observed correlations; CI = confidence interval; CV = credibility value; AV = artifact variance.

Perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and outcomes

Study findings consistently demonstrated that perceptions of organizational diversity efforts (i.e., diversity management and climate for inclusion) were positively correlated with beneficial work outcomes. The population correlation for this relationship was .19 (95% CI = .14, .24). Our findings also indicated a negative correlation between perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and detrimental outcomes, with a -.05 population correlation (95% CI = -.08, -.02).

Moderator analysis: Study population, organization type, and geographic location

Inspection of credibility intervals revealed that the relationships between immigration status and beneficial outcomes, perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and beneficial outcomes, and job tenure and detrimental outcomes were generalizable across studies. The percentage of variance accounted for by artifacts ranged from 0.5% (perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and beneficial outcomes) to 66% (immigration status and beneficial outcomes). Hunter and Schmidt (2004) have suggested that a moderator may exist if the percentage of variance accounted for by artifacts is lower than 75%. However, this 75% rule was proposed for studies that corrected for three or more types of artifact variance. An alternative criterion requiring a lower percentage of artifact variance, such as 50%–60% across studies, is appropriate in cases in which it is only possible to correct for one or two sources of variance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The overall Q statistics of homogeneity were statistically significant and indicated the need to conduct additional moderator analyses, except for the correlations between race and beneficial outcomes and between immigration status and beneficial outcomes. The Q statistic has been criticized for its poor power to detect true heterogeneity among studies when the meta-analysis includes few studies and excessive power to detect negligible variability when using many studies (Alexander, Scozzaro, & Borodkin, 1989; Cornwell & Ladd, 1993; Sánchez-Meca & Marín-Martínez, 1997). Therefore, we combined the results from credibility intervals, percentage of variance accounted for by artifacts, and Q statistics when considering moderator analysis.

To further examine the relationship between diversity characteristics and both beneficial and detrimental outcomes, we examined three potential moderators: study population (child welfare vs. other), organization type (public vs. private or mixed), and geographic location (United States vs. other). Table 7 summarizes the results of the moderator analyses.

Due to the number of available studies, moderator analysis was performed only for the associations between age and both beneficial and detrimental outcomes, education and beneficial outcomes, and job tenure and beneficial outcomes. In addition to the parameters reported in Table 6, a between-group QB statistic (Aguinis & Pierce, 1998) was included in the moderator analyses to assess the difference between mean within-subgroup effect sizes for each level of the hypothesized moderator (Table 7). The QB statistic approximates a chi-square distribution with j - 1 degrees of freedom, in which j is the number of levels of the hypothesized moderator. A significant QB suggests the relationships are different across the levels of the moderator and a moderator effect is identified. As shown in Table 7, the estimated mean correlation between age and beneficial outcomes among public organizations (ρ = -.09; 95% CI = -.15, -.03) was approximately one third of that among private and mixed organizations (ρ = -.32; 95% CI = -.43, -.22).

The percentage of variance accounted for by artifacts was 69% for studies in public organizations, as compared to 6% when all studies were analyzed. Further, the QB statistic for public organizations versus private or mixed organizations was statistically significant (QB[1] = 11.25, $p < .001$), indicating that organization type may modify the relationship. However, the percentage of variance accounted for by artifacts in studies in private or mixed organizations remained low (6%). Despite the significant QB statistics reported in Table 5, due to the small number of available studies, no other moderating effects could be identified. These results indicate that organization type may or may not be a moderator of these relationships. An increase in the percentage of variance accounted for in one subgroup but not the other could be either due to chance (the real moderator is not known) or the categories of the moderator being insufficient (more levels or subgroups are needed).

Perceptions of organizational diversity efforts

Given the importance placed on employee perceptions of diversity management and climate for inclusion in our conceptual framework and its theoretical underpinnings, we decided to further explore the association between perceptions of organizational diversity efforts (i.e., diversity management and climate for inclusion) and work-related outcomes. Nine correlations derived from six qualified studies focused on perceptions of organizational diversity efforts in human service organizations—six examining their association with beneficial outcomes and three with detrimental outcomes. The results of these studies were overwhelmingly positive: perceptions of organizational diversity efforts were positively related to beneficial outcomes and negatively related to detrimental outcomes, as expected based on our conceptual framework. Therefore, we combined the absolute values of the correlations related to the association between perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and outcomes. The results are reported in Table 9.

The revised analysis included six effect sizes for a total sample size of 290,854 workers. Among these six studies, one study (Choi & Rainey, 2010) featured an extreme value of Pearson's *r*, which made it an outlier. Despite the fact that outliers may seriously bias least squares estimates and produce additional artifact variance beyond that produced by sampling error and other artifacts, simply eliminating extreme values can result in issues such as overcorrection of sampling error and underestimation of the standard deviation of population correlations (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). Therefore, sensitivity analyses that alternately included and excluded the extreme value were performed; results are shown in Table 9. With the outlier included, the average correlation between perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and positive work outcomes was .42 (95% CI = .29, .54), indicating a positive relationship. The credibility interval (95% CV = .11, .73) excluded zero, suggesting that the validity of the measure of association can be generalized. Excluding the outlier, we found a significant positive correlation between perceptions of organizational diversity efforts

Table 7. Meta-analysis results for moderators.

Variable	*n*	*rs*	*r* range	ρ	ρ *SD*	95% CI	95% CV	% AV	Q	*df*	Q_b	*p*
Positive outcomes												
Tenure x org. type												
Public	150,394	3	−.190, .080	−.02	.005	−.027, −.012	−.030, −.010	45	94.6	2	3.76	.05
Private/mixed	2,239	6	−.243, .158	−.06	.108	−.158, .034	−.274, .151	18	37.346	5	–	–
Tenure x location												
United States	151,024	5	−.243, .157	−.02	.012	−.032, −.008	−.040, .003	19	79.81	4	221.54	< .001
Other	1,609	4	−.190, .070	−.09	.060	−.162, −.009	−.203, .033	40	9.86	3	–	–
Age x org. type												
Public	1,649	5	−.210, −.008	−.09	.036	−.145, -.030	−.159, -.016	69	7.703	4	11.25	< .001
Private/mixed	4,711	9	−.470, .074	−.32	.156	−.428, −.218	−.628, −.018	6	249.09	9	–	–
Negative outcomes												
Age x org. type												
Public	1,812	4	−.039, .275	.10	.086	.005, .198	−.068, .272	22	19.227	3	9.81	< .001
Private/mixed	3,765	8	−.038, .220	.01	.141	−.096, .110	−.269, .284	10	90.257	7	–	–

Note. *n* = total participants in sample; *rs* = number of correlation coefficients; *r* range = range of observed correlations; CI = confidence interval; CV = credibility value; AV = artifact variance; Q_b = between-group homogeneity; org. = organization.

Table 8. Number of correlation coefficients.

	Outcomes	
Variable	Positive	Negative
Surface-level diversity	15	29
Deep-level diversity	11	17
Perceptions of organizational diversity efforts	3	5

Table 9. Meta-analysis results for the association between perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and work outcomes.

Model	*n*	*rs*	*r* range	ρ	ρ *SD*	95% CI	95% CV	% AV	Q	*df*
Climate only	290,854	6	.110, .570	.42	.160	.293, .544	.111, .725	.06	19,806.23	5
Excluding study 25	140,584	5	.110, .257	.26	.004	.250, .262	.248, .263	67	434.33	4

Note. *n* = total participants in sample; *rs* = number of correlation coefficients; *r* range = range of observed correlations; CI = confidence interval; CV = credibility value; AV = artifact variance.

and work outcomes, with a population mean correlation of .26 (95% CI = .25, .26). The standard deviation of the population correlation decreased from .16 to .004, indicating that caution is warranted when drawing a conclusion with respect to whether Choi and Rainey (2010) was an outlier or a nonoutlier extreme value, especially given the small overall number of qualified studies. Together with the radical decrease in the standard deviations of population correlations, the percentage of variance accounted for by artifacts increased to 67%, which almost meets Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) 75% rule.

Discussion

The current study offered a state-of-the-art review of the literature and meta-analysis of research on the relationship between diversity characteristics, employee perceptions of organizational diversity efforts (i.e., diversity management and climate for inclusion), and work-related outcomes in human service organizations. Our systematic literature search resulted in 30 qualified articles published in academic journals with a combined sample size of 496,740 workers in child welfare, social work, nursing homes, public government, and mental health organizations. Using a theory-based conceptual model, we examined the relationship between two aspects of diversity characteristics, surface (or visible) and deep-level (or invisible) diversity, and two types of outcomes, beneficial and detrimental. We further examined the relationship between perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and the same outcomes.

As expected, the results were mixed with respect to the relationship between diversity characteristics and both beneficial and detrimental work-related outcomes. Belonging to a nonmainstream group in terms of some surface-level diversity characteristics was negatively associated with beneficial outcomes. Specifically, male gender was negatively associated with beneficial outcomes. These findings were in line with previous research that indicated that being a woman, or belonging to the mainstream with respect to gender in the human services sector, was associated with beneficial outcomes such as stronger commitment to the organization (Giffords, 2009), lesser intention to leave (Curry et al., 2005), and increased employment tenure (Wiener et al., 2009). There were not enough studies to examine the relationship between gender and detrimental outcomes. It should be noted here that there is specific complexity related to gender within the context of human service organizations. Although women are typically the predominant group in these organizations, their representation in management positions falls short of their representation in line positions (Gibleman & Schervish, 1993; Hasenfeld, 2010; Patti, 2009). In this respect they do not quite fit into the concept of a mainstream category. Being younger was also negatively associated with beneficial outcomes. It has been suggested by previous research that age has a curvilinear relationship with work outcomes—employees at the

younger and older ends of the spectrum typically experience more negative outcomes, whereas workers in the middle enjoy more positive outcomes (Zhang et al., 2014). Our results were in line with these findings, at least with respect to younger employees. Other studies similarly indicated that younger workers were more likely to experience stress and burnout (Boyas & Wind, 2010; Gellert & Schalk, 2012), less likely to be committed to an organization and satisfied with their job (Abu-Bader, 2005; Gellert & Schalk, 2012; Kiyak et al., 1997; Lambert et al., 2012), and less likely to remain in a job (Blankertz & Robinson, 1997; Butler et al., 2010; Curry et al., 2005; Faul et al., 2010; Kiyak et al., 1997; Ogborne et al., 1998; Wiener et al., 2009).

The surface-level diversity characteristic of race and ethnicity had no statistically significant relationships in the aggregate with either beneficial or detrimental outcomes. However, based on individual study results, it seems likely that the positive associations found in some studies were cancelled out by negative relationships in other studies for both outcome categories, as implied in our conceptual framework. Previous research has generally suggested that members of nondominant ethnic or racial groups are less committed to their employer (Faller et al., 2010), more likely to intend to leave their job (Hopkins et al., 2010), less likely to promote organizational change, and more likely to disengage from work-related tasks when work conditions are not conducive to their needs (Travis & Mor Barak, 2010).

Finally, being an immigrant or a nonnational, a nonmainstream diversity characteristic, was positively correlated with beneficial work outcomes (Abdulla & Shaw, 1999; Wiener et al., 2009), although there were too few studies to examine the relationship between immigration status and detrimental outcomes. Only a few studies have examined the relationship between being an immigrant or nonnational and work outcomes, and they provided mixed results. Immigrants and nonnational group members were found to be less satisfied with their jobs according to one study (Abu-Bader, 2005) and more committed to their employer according to another (Glazer & De La Rosa, 2008).

We also examined two deep-level diversity characteristics, education and tenure, which produced varied results in terms of relationships with outcome variables. Less education, which typically leads to fewer job-related advantages, was positively associated with beneficial work outcomes and negatively associated with detrimental outcomes. Previous research on educational outcomes has also generated mixed results. Employees who are more highly educated are less likely to be satisfied with their job (Metle, 2003) and more likely to intend to leave their job (Ogborne et al., 1998; Wiener et al., 2009), though at least one study demonstrated a positive relationship between higher education and retention (Faul et al., 2010). Having a professional degree such as a master's degree in social work has been related to mixed results such as greater job satisfaction (Barth et al., 2008), greater intention to leave (Barth et al., 2008; Strolin-Goltzman et al., 2007), and lesser turnover (Strolin-Goltzman et al., 2007).

In contrast, less tenure, another nonmainstream variable, was negatively related to beneficial work outcomes and positively associated with detrimental work outcomes. Previous research on job tenure also produced mixed results. Greater tenure has been linked to positive outcomes such as lower levels of emotional exhaustion (Boyas & Wind, 2010) and higher levels of organizational commitment (Abdulla & Shaw, 1999; Lambert et al., 2012) and job satisfaction (Kiyak et al., 1997). However, according to other studies, greater tenure was associated with negative outcomes such as lesser organizational commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2001) and greater intention to leave (Blankertz & Robinson, 1997; Manlove & Guzell, 1997; Strolin-Goltzman et al., 2007; Travis & Mor Barak, 2010; van Breukelen et al., 2004).

We conducted an analysis of three potential moderators: (a) public versus private, or mixed organizations; (b) United States versus other geographic locations; and (c) child welfare versus other organizations. The results were inconclusive and did not identify any significant moderators of the relationship between diversity characteristics and work outcomes.

We then examined the relationship between employee perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and work-related outcomes. Nine studies examined aspects of organizational diversity efforts

with work-related outcomes: six that considered beneficial outcomes and three that explored detrimental outcomes. After combining all studies that considered positive or negative outcomes, the influence of perceptions of organizational diversity efforts on both types of outcomes was examined. The results were consistent and indicated that favorable perceptions of the extent to which an organization manages diversity and encourages a climate for inclusion is positively associated with beneficial outcomes and negatively associated with detrimental outcomes.

Given the importance placed on perceptions of diversity efforts in our conceptual framework, we decided to further explore the overall association between staff perceptions of organizational diversity efforts with work-related outcomes. An analysis of the combined correlations of perceptions of organizational diversity efforts with worker outcomes produced positive correlations with a relatively small standard deviation; in addition, 67% of the variance in the dependent variables was accounted for by the independent variables. These results indicate a strong positive relationship between perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and beneficial worker outcomes, as expected based on our conceptual framework. These results are also in line with previous research that demonstrated a positive relationship between diversity management and inclusion and organizational outcomes that led to greater job satisfaction among employees (Acquavita et al., 2009; Pitts, 2009), greater commitment to the organization (Hwang & Hopkins, 2012), increased likelihood to remain in their job (Groeneveld, 2011), and increased engagement in their work (Travis & Mor Barak, 2010).

All the studies in this category tested only a direct relationship between perceptions of organizational diversity efforts and worker outcomes, not mediating or moderating relationships. Our results indicate a strong direct relationship between favorable perceptions of organizational diversity efforts (i.e., diversity management and climate for inclusion efforts) and beneficial work outcomes. However, the analysis did not address the potential mediating or moderating role of diversity management efforts toward a climate for inclusion in the relationship between diversity characteristics and work outcomes (e.g., Acquavita et al., 2009; Choi & Rainey, 2010; Pitts, 2009).

Strengths and limitations

The current study represents the first integrated effort to produce a state-of-the-art review, complemented by research-based meta-analysis, of diversity characteristics and employee perceptions of organizational diversity efforts in human service organizations. Although the importance of workforce diversity has been previously recognized and demonstrated in the literature (Buttner et al., 2012; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; McKay & Avery, 2015; Shore et al., 2011; van Knippenberg et al., 2004; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007), this was the first attempt to assemble the accumulated research in this area for the duration of 2 decades and assess its combined contribution to the knowledge base. In addition, the study provided an overview of the theoretical foundation of a conceptual framework on diversity management toward a climate for inclusion used to guide the study. Via a thorough review and meta-analysis, the study provided an amalgamation of diversity antecedents and worker outcomes to create a comprehensive overview of this area. An important strength of the study is its relatively large sample size. With 30 eligible studies and a combined sample size of 496,740 workers, we had enough data to generate effect-size estimates for the relationships between three antecedents and two outcomes. Additionally, although the number of available studies on perceptions of organizational diversity efforts (i.e., diversity management and climate for inclusion) was relatively small (nine studies), the combined sample size of 290,854 workers allowed us to test direct effects related to organizational and worker outcomes.

One limitation of the study was the small number of studies in each category, which prevented us from conducting meta-regression. Meta-regression results would have helped clarify the relative importance of surface-level and deep-level diversity characteristics with respect to beneficial and detrimental worker outcomes. Another limitation was the lack of sufficient studies in some of the categories, such as the relationship between gender and detrimental outcomes or immigration status

and detrimental outcomes, which prevented us from examining our full conceptual model and thus determining the contribution of those characteristics to unfavorable worker outcomes. Finally, there is also the potential for monomethod bias (common-method variance), which is a typical risk when study respondents are the source of information for both predictor and outcome variables.

Implications for future research

Future research on diversity and the workforce should continue to expand the study of climate for inclusion. Specifically, researchers must continue to examine the effect of employee perceptions of organizational diversity efforts on worker and organizational outcomes. Understanding pathways through which diversity influences employee outcomes may inform and facilitate the design of workplace interventions that improve the functioning of diverse workforces. A second critical line of research is the exploration of workplace interventions that promote effective diversity management and an inclusive workplace climate. Evidence-based diversity management practices will serve as powerful tools for managers and administrators to improve organizational performance and the workplace experience of employees.

Results from the current study provide a foundation of what is currently known about diversity in human service organizations, yet more research is needed that builds on results from the current study. For example, the current study examined the direct relationship between organizational diversity efforts and worker outcomes but, due to the limitations of the data, we were unable to study any potential mediating moderating effects. Therefore, future research should investigate the role of diversity management aimed at creating a climate for inclusion as a mediator or moderator between diversity characteristics and worker outcomes. Further, future studies would benefit the field by examining the mechanisms for fostering climate for inclusion through qualitative analysis in order to give voice and gain insights from all members of the workforce. By adding first-person insight from both nonmainstream and mainstream workers, qualitative findings will provide a more comprehensive description of these mechanisms. Additionally, future research could explore other potential factors and antecedents that may be relevant to our understanding of how to channel diversity into beneficial organizational outcomes.

Implications for management practitioners

Findings from our study underscore the importance of effective diversity management and of fostering an inclusive workplace climate with a focus on improving work outcomes in human service organizations. Human service managers and administrators should view diversity management strategies designed to create an inclusive organizational climate as a strategy to improve workplace outcomes. Similar to previous studies, our findings suggest that increasing diversity representation alone will not suffice as a human resource management strategy (Choi, 2009; Choi & Rainey, 2010; Mor Barak & Travis, 2010; Pitts, 2009; Pitts & Wise, 2010). It is important to develop organizational policies and practices that move beyond simply promoting diversity representation to creating policies that actively and effectively manage diversity and engender an inclusive work climate (Hwang & Hopkins, 2012; Pitts & Wise, 2010; Travis & Mor Barak, 2010).

This study has main implications for management practitioners: (1) *Managing for inclusion is a dynamic and cyclical two-stage process*. The first stage is reactive and includes efforts to recruit and employ a more diverse workforce. The second stage is proactive and requires instituting policies and procedures that give every member of the workforce a sense of being valued for who they are and engenders a sense of belonging (Mor Barak, 2015; Mor Barak & Travis, 2010). The findings from our study indicate that increasing diversity within the workforce is essential though insufficient for creating inclusive organizations. (2) *Assessment for climate of inclusion is essential to providing initial diagnosis and subsequent indicators of progress*. There are several measures of

diversity and inclusion that have been used in research and by management practitioners (e.g., Mor Barak, 2014; Mor Barak et al., 1998 Nishii, 2013; Roberson, 2006) and can be used for assessing employee sentiments related to diversity and inclusion policies and practices within the organization. And (3) *Attention to inclusion should focus on all levels of the organization* from workers, to supervisors, to middle manager, and to top management, including boards of directors where they exist.

A potential starting point for developing policies and practices that engender an inclusive workplace may be to minimize structural inequalities, exclusionary decision-making practices, and norms for accepting new employees into the organization that emphasize assimilation (Nishii, 2013). For example, eliminating arbitrary status hierarchies and ensuring that employees are treated fairly can increase positive interactions among employees (Leonardelli & Toh, 2011; Nishii, 2013) and help to promote inclusion in the organization (Mor Barak, 2015; Nishii, 2013). In addition, organizational practices that provide opportunities for shared decision making can foster inclusion through increased employee engagement and participation, provided that all employees feel their input is taken seriously (Mor Barak, 2014: Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). In essence, leaders of human service organizations can cultivate an inclusive environment by inviting, encouraging, and appreciating contributions from members with different diversity characteristics (e.g., education levels, gender, race/ethnicity, professional backgrounds; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). Last, organizational practices that promote an inclusive workplace provide opportunities for employees to get to know one another as people, rather than just the job positions they fill (Nishii, 2013). This can create an environment in which the unique differences people bring to the workplace can be celebrated and appreciated, making the organization an inclusive workplace (Mor Barak, 2015).

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