

REDUCING BLACKS' TURNOVER INTENT:
THE EFFECT OF BLACKS' PERSPECTIVE-TAKING
IN WHITE-DOMINATED WORKSPACES

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Abstract: Facilitating the development of healthy workplace relationships in diverse settings and retaining talented minority professionals are important organizational objectives. Extant research on perspective-taking validates its effectiveness as a relationship management tool used by White group members. In this dissertation, I investigate whether Blacks realize the same benefits when perspective-taking on White supervisors. I argue that in the face of threats perceived by both Blacks and their White supervisors, perspective-taking by Blacks will influence the use of social identity-based impression management strategies, specifically, positive distinctiveness strategies. This work expands theory on social identity-based impression management strategies by examining how Blacks use these strategies to gain familiarity with White supervisors. Finally, I assess the psychological antecedents and organizational ramifications of these strategies. My dissertation reveals that positive distinctiveness strategies increase perceived familiarity between Blacks and White supervisors and reduces Blacks' turnover intent. Organizations may use findings from this study to develop diversity management practices that enhance workplace relationships between Blacks and White supervisors.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

“Black people, in general, feel, because a lot of people believe they are tired just like me, and it’s like, how much more can I do, how much longer, so I feel like that’s why a lot of people leave, because its taxing.” (Participant H, FG2)

Dissertation Background

Diversity and inclusion are on the forefront of organizational conversations. Despite the growing demographic heterogeneity within organizational settings (Smith, Morgan, King, Hebl, & Peddie, 2012), important conversations often occur in silos, where like minds meet and opinions from dissimilar others are overlooked, discouraged, or simply dismissed (Phillips, Northcraft, & Neale, 2006). In other words, we rarely leave our ideological “echo chambers” long enough to take the perspective of dissimilar others (Gruenfeld, Mannix, Williams, & Neale, 1996) that may increase familiarity with them resulting in stronger relationships.

This segregation in American workplaces can be particularly challenging for Blacks who often find it difficult to develop relationships with White coworkers, particularly supervisors. The effect may be a poor diversity climate wherein the strengthening of intergroup relations and retention of Blacks remain persistent organizational challenges (McKay et al., 2007). Indeed, the opening example illustrates the emotional toll one Black professional experiences while continuously attempting to break down relational barriers with White colleagues.

It is therefore important to understand the strategies Blacks may use to integrate into White-dominated workspaces. Perspective-taking is known to be an effective tool for White group members to develop and strengthen relationships with dissimilar others whose social identity may be associated with stigmatized groups (Ku, Wang, & Galinsky, 2015). In this dissertation, social identity refers to racioethnic group identity, specifically, being Black. I depart from extant perspective-taking research because my interest is to understand whether perspective-taking by Blacks increases their familiarity with White supervisors. I argue that Black perspective-takers in White-dominated workplaces will engage in social identity-based impression management strategies that highlight and educate others about their social identity to allay their supervisors' perceived threats or discomfort when interacting with them. In turn, I predict that Blacks using a positive distinctiveness strategy will be able to craft greater familiarity with White supervisors thereby reducing turnover intent.

Insert Figure 1 about here

My research contributes to theory in three ways. First, studies examining perspective-taking were originally crafted to explain how White group members use perspective-taking to strengthen relationships with minorities and other stigmatized groups; however, I shift the focus to how Blacks use perspective-taking to strengthen relationships with White supervisors. Second, M. Williams (2007) threat regulation model is used and extended here by examining how Blacks span relational boundaries between themselves and White supervisors. Third, I broaden research on the impact of social identity-based impression management strategies in White-dominated professional workspaces. While previous work has identified strategies that Blacks use to protect their collective esteem or to craft credible professional images (Roberts, 2005; Roberts, Settles,

& Jellison, 2008), I investigate the psychological antecedents and organizational ramifications of these strategies.

Dissertation Study

Given the importance of linking theory with workplace realities, I examine how Black professionals, primarily accountants, use relationship management tools (i.e., perspective taking and social identity-based impression management strategies) to gain familiarity with White supervisors. I provide evidence that the choice of social identity-based impression management strategy is associated with Blacks' perspective-taking and that choice of social identity-based impression management strategy is crucial to developing closer perceived familiarity with supervisors. With permission from the Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board (see Appendix C), I collected data for this study at the 2016 annual conference of a national nonprofit organization that provides career development services to Black accountants.

The documentation of my research process, examination of the data, and reporting of results unfolds as follows. In Chapter 2, I perform a literature review that supports the development of my theoretical model. In Chapter 3, I develop and present hypotheses for the model. In Chapter 4, I report results of structural path analyses with three-stage serial mediation and to provide context for the practical application of the model, I present data obtained from focus group discussions conducted at the conference. I conclude with two post-hoc analyses that examine the moderating effects of social and professional identity and whether sex and age affect the relationships between perspective-taking and social identity-based impression management strategies. In Chapters 5 and 6, I provide a robust discussion of my findings and conclusions, respectively.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review considers four bodies of knowledge that underpin my theoretical model: perspective-taking; social identity-based impression management strategies; supervisor familiarity (a sub dimension of organizational assimilation); and turnover intent. As previously mentioned, I performed post hoc analyses to assess the moderating effects of social identity and professional identity; accordingly, I consider the literature related to these variables as well.

Perspective-taking

Perspective-taking is defined as “the active cognitive process of imagining the world from another’s vantage point or imagining oneself in another’s shoes to understand their visual viewpoint, thoughts, motivations, intentions, and/or emotions” (Ku et al., p. 17). Perspective-taking has been posited to strengthen social bonds (Galinsky, Ku, & Wang, 2005) through reduced stereotyping of and prejudice towards minority or stigmatized group members (Batson, Early, & Salvarani, 1997; Batson, Polycarpou, et al., 1997; Galinsky & Ku, 2004; Galinsky et al., 2005; Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000; Ku, Wang, & Galinsky, 2010; Shih, Wang, Bucher, & Stotzer, 2009; Sparkman & Eidelman, 2016; Vescio, Sechrist, & Paolucci, 2003; Wang, Kenneth, Ku, & Galinsky, 2014), decrease the denial of intergroup discrimination (Todd, Bodenhausen, & Galinsky, 2012), and subsequently encourage contact with negatively-stereotyped others (Todd et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014). These positive social findings have

been demonstrated across a number of groups that are common targets of racial bias, including African Americans (Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000), Latinos (Todd et al., 2012) and Asian Americans (Shih et al., 2009). Overall, extant studies verify that perspective-taking by White group members can strengthen social bonds with minority group members (Galinsky et al., 2005).

One notable exception is research conducted by Bruneau and Saxe (2012) who examine the effectiveness of minority group members' perspective-taking (Mexican immigrants taking the perspective of White Americans; Palestinians taking the perspective of Israelis). The researchers demonstrated that minority group members' perspective-taking did not improve attitudes towards majority outgroup members. Perspective-taking improves out-group attitudes through self-other merging (Davis, Conklin, Smith, & Luce, 1996; Galinsky et al., 2005). Self-other merging is the cognitive process whereby perspective-takers find common ground between their own self-concepts and their mental depiction of the target's self-concept, resulting in increased perceived oneness (Galinsky et al., 2005). According to Bruneau and Saxe (2012), in the case of minority group members, the self-other merging may actually be threatening and aversive to members of disempowered groups who strongly identify with their in-group. Thus, the efficacy of perspective-taking by minority group members may be limited, particularly when the act of perspective-taking is perceived as threatening to the perspective-taker's social identity (Bruneau & Saxe, 2010; Sagy, Kaplan, & Adwan, 2002); (for a review, see Ku et al., 2015).

In my theoretical model, Blacks utilize perspective-taking to choose social identity-based impression management strategies to gain familiarity with White supervisors. The choice of social identity-based impression management strategies is important on two levels. First, initial impressions formed by supervisors set the tone for Supervisor perceived liking and willingness

to engage in activities that increase familiarity with Blacks. Second, Blacks' choice of social identity-based impression management strategies is tied to protecting a self-concept that is often connected to social identity. An underpinning theory of social identity-based impression management strategies is impression management and I proceed with a review of its fundamental tenets.

Impression Management

The impression management literature is broad and covers how status, familiarity, similarity, and demographic diversity influence how individuals craft and deploy impression management tactics to influence how others perceive them. Gardner and Martinko (1988) found that individuals reveal themselves differently, based on the target's status and their level of familiarity with the target. Wayne and Liden (1995) examined the effect of subordinate impression management behaviors on supervisor evaluations and found that subordinates' impression management actions positively swayed performance ratings due to increased supervisor attraction and perceived similarity to subordinates.

The diversity related impression management literature includes research related to sex-specific behaviors and the utilization of impression management strategies to combat negative stereotypes. Rafaeli, Dutton, Harquail, and Mackie-Lewis (1997) investigated how women use dress to emotionally prepare for work and to boost their confidence. Rudman (1998) explained how self-promotion by women and men affect their relationships with organizational members and that women who self-promote are viewed as more competent; however, they face negative reactions when enacting behaviors that contradict stereotypical views of women as passive. The relevance of these studies for this dissertation is twofold. First, ethnicity inspired professional dress may be used by Blacks to express pride in and uniqueness of their social identity and this

type of expression is a manifestation of one of two social identity-based impression management strategies, positive distinctiveness. Second, certain social identity-based impression management strategies may be viewed as self-promoting and must be tactfully and skillfully used to avoid negative repercussions by White supervisors, who may perceive positive distinctiveness strategies as threatening.

For purposes of this dissertation, the most relevant diversity related impression management literature emanates from Roberts (2005, p. 689), who defines impression management strategy as a “dynamic process that occurs continuously during interpersonal interactions, whereby multiple parties simultaneously attempt to shape each other’s perceptions of one another.” Roberts (2005) introduces social identity-based impression management strategies that are used by Blacks to increase or decrease distance from their social identity while interacting with Whites.

Social Identity-Based Impression Management Strategies

As theorized by Morgan (2002), social identity-based impression management strategies consist of two primary tactics: social recategorization and positive distinctiveness. Roberts (2005) categorizes these tactics as image impression management strategies utilized by members of societally devalued groups to manage how valued outgroup members perceive their abilities and worth. Individuals who utilize social recategorization do not attribute their self-concept to membership in a societally devalued group, rather their self-concept is derived from positive attributes of alternative group membership (Roberts et al., 2008) such as belonging to a particular profession.

Blacks may socially recategorize by emphasizing a shared or professional identity (i.e., assimilation) and/or deemphasizing their social identity (i.e., decategorization). For instance, a

Black employee may engage in assimilation by playing music that White colleagues listen to when traveling together (e.g., listening to rock or country music) and/or engage in decategorization by turning off the radio altogether. Ultimately, the goal of utilizing either social recategorization tactic (assimilation or decategorization) is to distance oneself from the devalued social identity group membership and draw nearer to the valued out-group identity.

Rather than distancing oneself from the devalued social identity group, some Blacks choose to reinforce their membership in their social identity group (Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 2002). For instance, Blacks may display positive distinctiveness by instrumentally playing into (confirmation strategy) certain stereotypical perceptions of their social identity group and/or challenging (integration strategy) negative stereotypes by promoting the favorable attributes of their group (Creed & Scully, 2000). For example, a Black female using a confirmation approach may elect to play into a stereotype of Black female ‘sassiness’ (Bell, 1990) when she wants to convey the message that she is ‘not to be messed with’. However, if this same Black female used an integration approach, she might instead articulate how her sassy attitude is exactly what the organization needs to secure new business.

For devalued group members, their self-concept and self-esteem, as manifested through choice of social identity-based impression management strategy, affects their organizational assimilation experience, which can be measured across six dimensions of the employee-organization relationship: familiarity with others; acculturation; recognition; voluntary participation; competency; and role negotiation (Myers & Oetzel, 2003).

I turn now to the organizational assimilation literature, specifically the dimension of supervisor familiarity. One’s ability to create, nurture, and sustain positive relationships with supervisors is critical to career success, particularly in professional service firms where

employees may work on numerous engagements with different team members, including supervisors.

Supervisor Familiarity

Blacks may experience disadvantages when it comes to supervisor liking (Lefkowitz, 2000) because of salient social identity dissimilarities. This relational distance due to social identity may be reduced by Blacks increasing familiarity with supervisors (Myers & Oetzel, 2003). The historical focus of the subordinate-supervisor literature pertains to the roles of perceived similarity (Pulakos & Wexley, 1983; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002; Strauss, Barrick, & Connerley, 2001), relational demography (Hobman, Bordia, & Gallois, 2003) and deception and insincerity (Carlson, Carlson, & Ferguson, 2011; Valle, Kacmar, & Andrews, 2015). These studies reveal that supervisor appraiser ratings are influenced by perceived similarity based on social in-group status of subordinates; however, little is known about how familiarity affects the interaction between socially dissimilar subordinates and supervisors.

One study examining the effect of familiarity on supervisor and subordinate relationships found that familiarity has a positive effect. Myers (2005) found that getting to know organizational members changed employees' perspectives about the organization. Although this study found familiarity to have a positive influence on establishing stronger relationships with coworkers, Strauss et al. (2001) found that familiarity had no moderating influence on the relationship between supervisors and subordinates.

Establishing familiarity is often the first step towards building trust (Hassan & Semerciöz, 2010; Lascaux, 2008) and as communication increases between Blacks and White supervisors, common ground may be discovered among non-salient social identity differences such as personality, hobbies, family, and even political views. These non-salient commonalities

are antecedents for workplace friendships (Berman, West, & Richter Jr, 2002) that may result in increased liking of Blacks by White supervisors and may influence supervisor appraisals of Blacks' performance.

The challenge for Blacks concerning familiarity with White supervisors is leveling the playing field because their social identity is visibly different from their White coworkers. This difference may be a barrier for supervisors to be open to interacting with Blacks compared with White coworkers, particularly exchanges occurring during non-work related events (e.g., happy hours or sports events) where important information is shared that builds bonding or trust between supervisors and subordinates. Indeed, because research (Lefkowitz, 2000) informs us that performance evaluations are influenced by in-group membership, Blacks must craft ways to positively affect the impressions of White supervisors because failure to do so may jeopardize their career success within the organization and increase turnover intent.

Turnover Intent

Many organizations accept the responsibility to facilitate the development of diversity and inclusion programs that provide minority employees with ways to secure healthy and productive experiences in White-dominated workplaces, particularly since an inclusive work environment may reduce turnover intent (McKay et al., 2007). My review of the robust employee turnover literature is organized it into three categories: types, causes, and consequences.

The types of turnover intent are broadly categorized as involuntary and voluntary. Involuntary turnover may be the most harmful (Hennekam, Hennekam, Bennett, & Bennett, 2016) as it represents outright rejection of the employee through forced separation, not only from the organization, but from multiple social identities (e.g., work, self, professional). Voluntary

(Lee & Sturm, 2016) separation may be the most complicated (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008) because the decision process may span long periods of time resulting in cycles of engagement and disengagement as the employee comes to grips with the decision to leave. Another facet of voluntary turnover is the effect on turnover intent with future (Lee & Sturm, 2016) organizations the employee may work for. For example, if voluntary turnover is due to misperceptions of the legitimacy and sincerity of the diversity and inclusion initiatives in one's current organization, there may be spillover distrust effects at their next organization.

The literature also reveals macro and micro level causes of turnover intent. Macro level causes are contextual features (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000) such as trends in domestic or global economic conditions (Briscoe & Hall, 2006) and the quality of organizational human resource programs that assist employees with adapting to firm expectations (Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007). Micro level causes are triggered by individual issues such as employee mindfulness (Dane & Brummel, 2014), engagement (MacLeod & Clarke, 2011), organizational attachment (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Jones & Harter, 2005), job satisfaction (Hom & Kinicki, 2001), attitudes and perceptions (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007), burnout (Lane, Mathews, & Presholdt, 1988) and a host of demographic (e.g., tenure, age, sex) variables (Hom, Roberson, & Ellis, 2008).

The consequences of turnover include negative employee well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987), counterfactual thinking in terms of one imagining "what might have been" (Roese & Hur, 1997), loss of professional identity (Hennekam et al., 2016), emotional reactions to uncertainty and psychological stress (Bonanno, 2010), and the financial cost of turnover to the organization and the individual. On the upside, one positive outcome of turnover is that individuals may reconstruct their work-related identity. This "reconstruction" is defined as a

significant change in a role that a professional has enacted over time and which has been considered self-defining (Chreim, Williams, & Hinings, 2007). In the ideal case, individuals go through a grieving process and after accepting their job loss, they construct a new work-related identity (Boswell, Gardner, & Wang, 2017; Hennekam et al., 2016)

Thus far, I have considered literature regarding the independent, mediating, and dependent variables in my theoretical model. I move forward with a discussion of the variables examined in my post hoc analyses whereby I assess the conditional direct and indirect effects of professional identity and social identity on the relationship between perspective-taking and social identity-based impression management strategies.

Professional Identity

People are often defined by their work and they may form social identities connected to their professions (Pratt, Rockmann, & Kaufmann, 2006) such as being a physician, lawyer, or accountant (Carr-Saunders & Wilson, 1933; Macdonald, 1995). Regardless of whether they belong to societally devalued or valued groups, professionals share common attributes such as technical competence, strong work ethic, credibility, teamwork, and the desire to advance to higher levels of responsibility throughout their careers. Recall that Blacks face relational barriers due to salience of certain social identity attributes (e.g., skin color, dialect, physical features). For some Blacks, these barriers may be overcome by becoming an exemplary professional thereby positively influencing the perceptions of them by White colleagues.

The professional identity literature is well established, particularly related to fields with strong social service aspects such as medicine (Apker & Eggly, 2004; Pratt et al., 2006) (Helmich et al., 2010) and education (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Hong, 2010; Sachs,

2001). Other literature investigates a variety of dimensions of professional identity and most relevant to my dissertation is the role of professional identity in shaping one's self-concept.

Research (Hogg & Terry, 2000) examining this aspect of professional identity confirms that individuals choose to work for organizations that share their values and represent an image they want to incorporate as a reflection of who they are. Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail (1994) assessed how employees value their organization's image by the strength of its alignment with their self-concept and how firm image influences their desire to be a part of a unique organization. Recent research on "dirty work" (Grandy & Mavin, 2012) and employment associated with controversial issues (e.g., the validity of climate change) (Wright, Nyberg, & Grant, 2012) investigates how individuals strive to manage how the devaluing of their career interests by others affects their self-esteem.

Another relevant area of research is professional identity construction. These studies reveal that professional identity is constructed over time through developmental networks (Dobrow & Higgins, 2005), communities of practice (Hamilton, 2013), trial and error through adaptation of different work styles (Pratt et al., 2006), and the use of provisional selves (Ibarra, 1999) overtime as one discovers the organizational attributes that resonate with their self-concept and strengthens their self-esteem.

Professional identity is not the only identity related factor that influences self-concept and self-esteem. An individual's social identity is also important because it incorporates personal (e.g., the desire to express uniqueness) and social (e.g., the desire to belong) attributes. Social identity theory is the cornerstone of social identity-based impression management theory and the final part of my literature review covers this body of research.

Social Identity

Social identity is ascribed (Ridgeway & Bourg, 2004; Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton, & Smith, 1997) and is often perceived as immutable and impermeable (Sellers et al., 1997). However, individuals vary in the degree to which they hold their social identity as central or important to their self-concept. For example, research has demonstrated that the extent to which ethnic and sex identity strength are important to an individual's core sense of self depends on a host of personal, situational, and environmental factors (Deaux & Major, 1987; Ethier & Deaux, 1994; Swann, 1990).

According to social identity theory, identity group differences become salient in diverse settings and individuals are motivated to arrange themselves into relevant groups of socially similar others (i.e., their in-group) and to distinguish themselves from dissimilar others (i.e., various outgroups; Konrad, 2003; Tajfel, 1978). Specifically, social identity refers to "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from knowledge of their membership in a social group, together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1978, p. 63). Thus, social identity is both the social group to which one belongs (e.g., race, sex, etc.), as well as the meaning or value associated with that grouping (e.g., positive or negative stereotypical perceptions, expectations, or evaluations).

Furthermore, identity group memberships are central to one's sense of worth because individuals derive a sense of collective self-esteem from the societal evaluation of their in-group (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). The literature on identity group bias points to the tendency for individuals to prefer their in-group and also to avoid information and experiences that threaten the value of their in-group (Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990). Such identity threats occur when the attributes of one's social identity group are denigrated or devalued (Ellemers et al., 2002; Tajfel,

1978). In the U.S., racial minorities such as Blacks and Hispanics are frequently stigmatized as lazy and professionally incompetent (Devine, 1989; Sinclair & Kunda, 1999) and they know such negative stereotypes about their social identity group exist (Steele & Aronson, 1995). Experiences of social identity threat are associated with psychological, emotional, and even physical distress (Wang, Ku, Tai, & Galinsky, 2013; Yip & Page, 2016). These individual level experiences of social identity threat play out in the workplace and impact organizational performance. Indeed, how social identity affects firm performance is comprehensively assessed through a wide body of research on social identity theory and organizations (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

In sum, one not only brings their competence and experience to the workplace, but their social identity as well. In White-dominated workspaces, Blacks bring a social identity that is saliently different from their White counterparts. These differences can be sources of pride and confidence, shame and fear, or have no perceived affect at all. For Blacks, reactions by Whites to these differences can be viewed as controllable or overwhelming with respect to impact on career success. Regardless of Blacks perceptions of how these differences may affect their careers, the differences must be managed. I proceed with the theoretical justification for my arguments concerning how Blacks manage their social identities in White-dominated workspaces, the effect of Blacks' choice of social-identity-based impression management strategies on gaining perceived familiarity with White supervisors, and how level of perceived familiarity affects Blacks' turnover intent.

CHAPTER III

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Conceptual Background

According to Roberts (2005), Blacks struggle in professional, White-dominated spaces because their social identity is (a) devalued relative to Whites' and (b) is seen as incongruous with the predominant image of a professional. Blacks also face challenges related to discomfort Whites may feel when interacting with them. The discomfort experienced by Whites may be related to issues such as feeling forced to participate in organizational diversity initiatives, fear that organizational efforts to retain and promote minorities may have an adverse impact on their advancement opportunities (Von Bergen, Soper, & Foster, 2002), and uneasiness interacting with outgroup members who are saliently different across multiple demographic categories.

Before presenting my theoretical arguments for the predicted relationships between the constructs of interest, I discuss the linkage between M. Williams (2007) threat regulation model and social identity-based impression management strategies. Of particular importance is the boundary spanning aspect of her model because the concept is widely discussed in the organizational management literature and is generally understood.

Envisioning Black perspective-takers as boundary spanners of complicated interpersonal relationships that are influenced by salient social identity differences, is a constructive analogy for understanding how positive distinctiveness strategies promote and social recategorization

strategies prevent healthy relationships between dissimilar others. Indeed, when interacting with White colleagues, Blacks may be aware of the discomfort experienced by some Whites and they must address this problem because it may affect their career success. I illustrate how certain aspects of M. Williams (2007) threat regulation model are useful for illuminating how Blacks may use social identity-based impression management strategies to not only decrease identity threats they experience, but to alleviate threats experienced by majority members.

In Williams' model, organizational boundary spanners are individuals (internal or external to the firm) who must work across organizational units and with individuals or groups to improve some aspect of firm performance. Because these boundary spanners must "get into others' business," they may be viewed as opportunistic individuals interested in making themselves profit at the expense of others. Williams explains how these boundary spanners use certain behaviors and communication styles that generate positive emotions and engender trust by reducing perceived threats.

"Threat reducing behavior influences positive emotions in two ways. First, because it demonstrates concern for the fears and threats counterparts may be experiencing, it can generate the positive affect associated with receiving emotional support and interpersonal understanding...Second, because threat-reducing behavior communicates understanding of another's fears and concerns, it can be self-verifying and generate a positive emotional response. The process of having aspects of one's self understood can verify one's identity, build relationships, and generate positive affect (M. Williams, 2007, p. 610)."

I argue that Black perspective-takers may effectively overcome interpersonal relationship boundary limits, that are due to intergroup social identity dissimilarities, by using positive

distinctiveness impression management strategies (Roberts, 2005) to reduce the distance between themselves and White supervisors. Social identity-based impression management strategies may reduce social distance (i.e., boundary limits) by providing opportunities for Blacks and their supervisors to become familiar with each other, thereby laying the foundation for stronger social bonds and trust. While social recategorization and positive distinctiveness strategies may be used to increase familiarity between Blacks and White supervisors, each strategy (and related behaviors) reduces or increases social distance differently, for example, Blacks who value professional identity over social identity may choose to social recategorize. In this case, Blacks cognitively trade their devalued social identity for a relatively more valued professional identity.

Alternatively, Blacks may choose positive distinctiveness strategies to draw closer to their White counterparts. Rather than distancing from their devalued social identity, some Blacks choose to reinforce their social identity in-group membership. Roberts' original conceptualization suggested that Blacks may use a positive distinctiveness confirmation strategy by emphasizing positive stereotypical perceptions of their social identity group or they may use a positive distinctiveness integration strategy by challenging negative stereotypes about their social identity group. For example, a confirmation approach is a Black accountant affirming a White supervisor's expectation that he/she is well-suited for attracting an important Black client by offering to make the first site visit. The same Black accountant may use an integration approach by making the site visit to the Black client, but also use that opportunity to develop new business opportunities with neighboring clients of other races and ethnicities.

Both confirmation and integration strategies assist Blacks with maintaining strong identification with their social identity while simultaneously engendering healthy intergroup

relationships and diminishing the negative side effects of maintaining an inauthentic self-presentation (e.g., distraction, fatigue, resentment; Bell, 1990; see also Ibarra, 1999) that may occur with social recategorization behaviors. Given that social identity-based impression management strategies have different psychological effects on the self and others, I bring into play an important factor that may influence their usage by Blacks, perspective-taking. I proceed with a discussion about the core aspects of perspective-taking that are central to my theory and how it may influence the usage of social identity-based impression management strategies.

The Effect of Minority Perspective-Taking on Choice of Social Identity-Based Impression Management Strategies

To illustrate the operation of perspective-taking and other constructs in my theoretical model, I provide feedback from interviews with Black professionals. As discussed in the introduction section, I collected data at an annual conference of Black accountants. Eleven conference attendees participated in focus group discussions. Similar to Edmondson (1999), the purpose of the focus group discussions was to understand the practical application of the constructs of interest, rather than to test specific hypotheses. See Table 1 for focus group demographic information and Table 2 wherein constructs of interest are explicated and representative quotes of each are provided. Where appropriate in the following discussion, focus group participant comments are denoted by Participant X (FG1) or (FG2).

Black perspective-takers may be less likely to use social recategorization strategies because those strategies threaten their social identity by reducing the extent to which Blacks behave in ways that align with their social identity, which is already substantially threatened because of their stigmatized state (Roberts et al., 2008). By rejecting markers and behaviors of their social identity, Blacks engaging in social recategorization strategies directly threaten their social identity. Participant E (FG2), a young Black male accountant, reflected on advice he was

given by a senior Black male accountant about succeeding in the largest, most competitive firms: “So as a black male we are already physically intimidating, so you don’t want to seem too imposing or anything, you know, we grow up and are thought to be aggressive and assertive...and you get home from work and you are like huh?” Like many others in focus group discussions, this Participant describes the tradeoff that he must make between expressing stereotypically Black characteristics and fitting into a White-dominated organization. Given that use of social recategorization strategies and related behaviors were reported by eight of the eleven focus group participants, the tradeoff appears to be both very common and also mentally taxing.

In comparison, Blacks may find positive distinctiveness strategies more palatable because these strategies allow them to reify their social identity, while building and reinforcing authentic social bonds with White coworkers. Positive distinctiveness strategies are intended to reduce interracial tensions by challenging negative stereotypes. Blacks use positive distinctiveness strategies when they educate White group members about the positive qualities of their in-group (Ellemers et al., 2002; Major, Quinton, McCoy, & Schmader, 2000; Roberts, 2005) or use humor to diffuse tense cross-race interactions (Roberts et al., 2008). For example, Participant A (FG2) states that by merely existing he challenges negative stereotypes that Blacks are unprofessional or incompetent: “if they see you at a Big Four [accounting firm] working alongside them, watching those [Black television] shows and listening to that [hip-hop] music, you’re breaking that stereotype. That’s the way I see it.” Thus, through education, effective communication, or by merely being “productively present,” Black perspective-takers seek to debunk negative stereotypes associated with their social identity by diminishing their derisiveness or re-framing them into something positive (Wang, Whitson, Anicich, Kray, & Galinsky, 2017) .

How Blacks assess threats posed by intergroup interactions may be dependent on situational context and perspective-taking is an important cognitive mechanism that influences one's reaction to such threats via choice of social identity-based impression management strategy. Perspective-taking has been touted as a way that allows "people to better understand what others find threatening to their valued identities and to their material well-being" (M. Williams, 2007, p. 595). If perspective-takers do indeed better identify what threatens others, perspective-taking can serve as a strategy that allows the perspective-taker to effectively navigate a socially complex world (Ku et al., 2015). Specifically, through perspective-taking, Blacks may become more attuned to Whites' concerns and perceived threats and react accordingly to reduce discomfort and strengthen social bonds; moreover, perspective-taking will steer Blacks' reaction toward utilizing a positive distinctiveness strategy that protects their social identity as well. For example, Participant E (FG2) proudly discussed his ability to take White perspectives: "I definitely pay attention to everything. I pay attention to what you're wearing, what you might have on your desk...I just am very observant and that helps me kind of find things to talk about." In sum, perspective-taking may encourage the use of specific social identity-based impression management strategies such that:

H1: Perspective-taking is positively associated with the utilization of positive distinctiveness strategies (H1a); and perspective-taking is not associated with the utilization of social recategorization strategies (H1b).

The Effect of Social Identity-Based Impression Management Strategies on Supervisor Familiarity

Thus far, I have predicted that perspective-taking motivates Blacks to use positive distinctiveness strategies to understand and draw nearer to White supervisors. I further argue that, armed with insights drawn from taking the perspective of their supervisors, Blacks using

positive distinctiveness strategies are more likely to foster familiarity with supervisors compared to Blacks using social recategorization strategies. My prediction is based on the rationale that social recategorization strategies are not associated with supervisor familiarity since (a) these strategies do not challenge negative stereotypes about Blacks, and (b) social recategorization strategies maintain status quo relationships between societally devalued social group members and valued social group members. Participant B (FG1) notes the failure of social recategorization strategy to develop intergroup bonding: “making those folks comfortable, which is exhausting, because they get bothered by anything and everything different that they don't understand... Yes, it is a tool. Because I know that, just at night when I go home to my family and when I am with my peers, I am me... I feel bad about that. I do. It's sad.”

On one hand, social recategorization strategies do not allow Blacks and their White supervisors to develop nuanced or complex understandings of one another; consequently, they tend to maintain artificial relationships. On the other hand, positive distinctiveness strategies motivate Blacks to seek understanding of White supervisors while affirming their social identity. Positive distinctiveness strategies promote the affirmative traits of one's social identity by “challenging others' simplistic or negative stereotypes of that group” (Roberts, 2005, p. 697). For example, Participant C (FG1), who is biracial and openly gay, reveals how she finds balance between affirming her gay identity and maintaining her close supervisor relationship:

“I have a very close relationship with one of my supervisors and he asked me about the gender neutral bathroom bill...having that conversation and having him see me trying to explain something to him, helped me too...and I think having those awkward conversations about gender, sexuality, and my life...is weird because you know, on one

hand, people feel comfortable, maybe too comfortable, but then it gives me room to kind of push back and say, stop talking.”

When positive distinctiveness is effectively used, it relies on a Black person’s ability not only to take and understand the perspective of the White group member, but also to give his or her own perspective in a way that invites deeper mutual understanding and trust (Bruneau & Saxe, 2012). I believe that Blacks working in White-dominated workplaces build deeper levels of familiarity by revealing their authentic selves that ultimately creates the opportunity for strong interpersonal relationships with their supervisors.

H2: The utilization of positive distinctiveness strategies is positively associated with supervisor familiarity (H2a); and the utilization of social recategorization strategies is not associated with supervisor familiarity (H2b).

The Effect of Supervisor Familiarity on Turnover Intent

When Blacks perspective-take, they consider threats perceived by White supervisors and they incorporate this information into their choice of social identity-based impression management strategy. The consideration of threats to others lays the foundation upon which higher levels of familiarity may be attained and mutually positive feelings between Blacks and supervisors are established. Gibson and Petrosko (2014) confirm that subordinates’ favorable feelings toward their supervisors moderate the relationship between their turnover intent and actual turnover, such that actual turnover behavior is suppressed. However, actual turnover increases when the subordinate has negative feelings toward the supervisor. Moreover, for Blacks, establishing familiarity with White supervisors is important for managing negative thoughts or attitudes that could surface due to social identity related dissimilarities with supervisors. Scholars (Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, & Weer, 2006; Jeanquart-Barone, 1996; Tsui

& O'reilly, 1989) have found that “demographic supervisor dissimilarity is related to less support, lower performance ratings, less attraction, and greater role ambiguity and conflict than similar dyads (Avery, Volpone, McKay, King, & Wilson, 2012, p. 85).” Thus, becoming familiar with supervisors may have a direct effect on turnover intent.

H3: Supervisor familiarity is negatively associated with turnover intent.

In sum, in White-dominated workplaces, Blacks face challenges building meaningful relationships with White Supervisors. In attempting to allay perceived threats or discomfort by their supervisors and to protect their own social identities, Black perspective-takers may be likely to use positive distinctiveness strategies, and not social recategorization strategies. The preference to be positive distinctive benefits Blacks because positive distinctiveness strategies require interpersonal engagement that may result in fierce conversations (Scott, 2004) that yield a deeper understanding of how and why, dissimilar others involved in relationship conflict, think and feel the way they do. As a result, positive distinctiveness strategies reveal the authentic self and allow Blacks and White supervisors to gain stronger familiarity with each other thereby lowering Blacks' turnover intent; therefore, I argue that:

H4: The utilization of positive distinctiveness strategies to increase supervisor familiarity, serially mediate the relationship between perspective-taking and turnover intent (H4a); this serial mediation does not occur with the utilization of social recategorization strategies (H4b).

CHAPTER IV

METHODS AND RESULTS

Sample and Procedures

Two hundred and fifty-three Black professionals working primarily for U. S. based public accounting firms were recruited to complete an online questionnaire. Participants were compensated for their involvement via a random drawing for ten gift cards. Thirty-one participants were excluded from the study because they did not satisfactorily complete the questionnaire; therefore, data from two hundred and twenty-two participants was subjected to the main analysis. The mean age of the sample was 26.51 years ($SD = 5.97$). The racial composition of the sample was approximately 93% African American, 3% African, 2% African and Asian American, and 2% consisting of five other ethnicities. The average organizational tenure was 3 years ($SD = 2$) and the average time working for public accounting firms was 3 years ($SD = 2$).

Measures

Perspective-taking. Perspective-taking was measured using a 7-item questionnaire developed by Davis (1980) (see Appendix D). Samples of perspective-taking items include: “I believe that there are two sides to every question and I try to look at them both,” and “When I’m

upset at someone, I usually try to “put myself in his shoes” for a while.” Two items were reverse-coded (e.g., “I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the “other guy’s” point of view.”). All items were measured on a 5-point Likert type scale (0 = does not describe me well to 4 = describes me very well). Participant responses were averaged into a composite score with higher numbers reflecting a greater consideration for another’s perspective and a higher likelihood to use that information to improve interpersonal relationships. The reliability estimate was .63.

Social recategorization. Social recategorization was measured using a 5-item questionnaire developed by Roberts (2005). Samples of social recategorization items include: “Try to be seen as an individual, rather than as a member of a racial group” and “Try to avoid discussing race and racial issues.” All items were measured on a 6-point Likert type scale (0 = not at all to 5 = always). Participant responses were averaged into a composite score with higher numbers reflecting a greater propensity to avoid identification with one’s social identity in favor of other social groups deemed to be of higher social status. The reliability estimate was .57.

Positive distinctiveness. Positive distinctiveness was measured using a 5-item questionnaire developed by Roberts (2005). Samples of positive distinctiveness items include: “Try to represent your race in a positive manner” and “Try to communicate the inaccuracy of stereotypes about your race.” All items were measured on a 6-point Likert type scale (0 = not at all to 5 = always). Participant responses were averaged into a composite score with higher numbers reflecting a greater propensity to define one’s self concept through their social identity and to promote the value of their social identity in the face of threats such as negative stereotypes. The reliability estimate was .84.

Supervisor familiarity. Supervisor familiarity was measured using a 3-item subscale questionnaire developed by Myers and Oetzel (2003). A sample item is: “I feel like I know my

supervisor pretty well.” All items were measured on a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree). Participant responses were reverse-coded and averaged into a composite score with higher numbers reflecting greater self-reported familiarity with supervisors. The reliability estimate was .89.

Turnover intent. Turnover intent was measured using a 2-item questionnaire developed by McKay et al. (2007). The items were “I hardly ever think about leaving” and “It would take a lot to get me to leave the company.” All items were measured on a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Participant responses were averaged into a composite score with higher scores indicating lower turnover intent. The reliability estimate was .85.

Social identity. I controlled for social identity which is the importance of being Black. Social identity was measured using the 8-item racial centrality subscale of the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity developed by Sellers et al. (1997). Samples of the social identity items include: “In general, being Black is an important part of my self-image” and “I have a strong attachment to other Black people.” Three items were reverse coded (e.g., “Being Black is not a major factor in my social relationships.”). All items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Participant responses were averaged into composite score with higher scores indicating a more central Black identity. The reliability estimate was .74.

Professional identity. Professional identity was measured using a 6-item questionnaire developed by Blau (2003). Samples of professional identity items include: “Professional accounting is important to my self-image;” and “I strongly identify with the accounting profession.” All items were measured on a 4-point Likert type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 =

strongly agree). Participant responses were averaged into a composite score with higher scores reflecting a stronger professional identity. The reliability estimate was .93.

Analyses and Results

Measurement model analyses. I examined a combination of six and five factor (perspective-taking, positive distinctiveness, social recategorization, supervisor familiarity, turnover intent) measurement models through confirmatory factor analysis with maximum likelihood estimation using Mplus 7.4. I assessed measurement item reliability by examining item factor loadings on the constructs (see Table 4) and the effect on composite reliability as measured by Cronbach's Alpha. I assessed construct discriminant validity by examining the model estimated squared correlations between the constructs compared to the average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct (see Table 5) and cross loadings of measurement items between constructs (see Table 6) to make conclusions regarding factor structure and construct discriminant validity. I assessed the fit of the measurement model to data by examining chi square (χ^2), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR).

Measurement model results.

Item reliability. Table 4 reports the unstandardized and standardized factor loadings for each item by construct. Significant and standardized item factor loadings greater than or equal to .70 indicate high item reliability. In general, I limit the discussion regarding measurement item reliability to those constructs and related measurement items with problematic factor loadings.

Perspective-taking items PT1, PT5, and PT7 (see Appendix D) had moderate to very low standardized factor loadings of .50, .06, and .05, respectively. The remaining perspective-taking items were significant with factor loadings between .63 and .68. PT5 and PT7 were reverse-

coded items and not significant and excluding either item improves the original reliability score ($\alpha = .63$) to either .66 or .68. If both PT5 and PT7 are excluded, composite reliability improves to .76. Given the improvement in the reliability score if all reverse-coded items are excluded, I conclude that collectively, the perspective-taking items appropriately measure the perspective-taking construct.

Social recategorization item factor loadings were significant; however, items SR1, SR2, and SR5 had low factor loadings at .28, .25, and .18, respectively. The reliability ($\alpha = .57$) does not improve much if any of these items are excluded. Morgan (2002) also found low composite reliability scores for social recategorization. In the current study, feedback from eight out of eleven focus group participants reveals that Blacks engage in social recategorization strategies and while SR1, SR2, and SR5 are questionable indicators of the construct, focus group feedback informs us that the construct is operationalized by Blacks in White-dominated workspaces. I do not believe that excluding the items with low factor loadings is warranted until future studies validate a measurement scale with higher factor loadings; however, I believe it is necessary to further assess whether social recategorization items are distinct to the construct itself and not representative of other constructs in my theoretical model; therefore, later in this section I will assess construct discriminate validity.

Positive distinctiveness item factor loadings were significant; however, items PD1 and PD2 have moderate factor loadings at .45 and .63, respectively. The reliability ($\alpha = .84$) slightly increases to .85 if PD1 is excluded and decreases to .81 if PD2 is excluded. Since the reliability score remains above .70, regardless of the moderate item factor loadings for PD1 and PD2, I conclude that collectively, the items appropriately measure the positive distinctiveness construct.

All but one of the social identity item factor loadings were significant and items SI1, SI2, SI3, SI4 and SI8 had low to moderate factor loadings of .16, .35, .30, .64, and .11, respectively. Items SI1, SI3, and SI8 are reverse-coded and excluding any of these items only increases or decreases the original reliability score ($\alpha = .74$) by .01. Given that the exclusion of reverse coded items does not have a substantial effect on the original reliability score, excluding reverse coded items is not warranted as the items as a whole appropriately measure the social identity construct.

Construct discriminant validity. The social recategorization, positive distinctiveness, and social identity constructs may share some level of commonality related to the influence of racial identity centrality on self-concept. To assess whether there is a high level of commonality between the constructs, I performed the following construct discriminant validity analyses. In addition, while social recategorization, positive distinctiveness, and social identity are of primary concern relative to construct discriminant validity, the following analyses include all constructs.

Model estimated correlations between constructs. Table 5 presents the model estimated correlations between the constructs. Generally, if correlations between factors are not less than .1 and not greater than .85, the constructs are distinct. The only correlation of moderate concern is the correlation coefficient of .64 between social recategorization and positive distinctiveness.

Squared correlations between constructs vs average variance extracted (AVE). AVE is a measure of discriminant validity and the general rule is that all construct AVE estimates should be larger than the corresponding squared inter-construct correlation estimates. AVE estimates meeting these criteria indicate that the measured variables have more in common with the construct they are associated with than they do with the other theoretical model constructs. Per Table 5, except for the social recategorization AVE estimate (.25) compared to the positive distinctiveness squared correlation (.41), all AVE estimates are higher than the corresponding

squared inter-construct correlations indicating acceptable discriminant validity between those constructs.

Cross loadings of items between constructs. I assessed whether the measurement items loaded well onto their theoretical construct, but not onto unrelated constructs. I used standardized factor loadings for this purpose and they are the estimated correlations between the constructs and the measurement items. For evidence of discriminant validity, item loadings for the construct that the item belongs to, must be higher than the item loadings on other constructs. Per Table 6, all measurement item factor loadings were acceptable indicators of discriminant validity between the constructs.

There were five measurement items for social recategorization and five measurement items for positive distinctiveness. All of the social recategorization measurement items had lower loadings on the positive distinctiveness construct compared to the positive distinctiveness measurement item loadings; however, two of the social recategorization items (SR1, SR2) had higher loadings on positive distinctiveness than PD1 indicating some level of commonality between the measure items.

As previously discussed, social identity strength affects one's level of association with social recategorization and positive distinctiveness strategies. Indeed, the results from the construct discriminate validity analyses indicate that some level of commonality between these social identity-based impression management strategies exist and focus group participants revealed their use of both strategies based on situational context and their status in the organization. Given the construct discriminate validity assessment results and focus group feedback, I believe the appropriate way to handle any shared variance between social

recategorization and positive distinctiveness is to control for social identity in the structural path analyses.

Measurement model to data fit. The measurement model initially consisted of six constructs (perspective-taking, social recategorization, positive distinctiveness, supervisor familiarity, turnover intent, and social identity) with 30 measurement items (7 items for perspective-taking of which two items were reverse coded, 5 items for social recategorization, 5 items for positive distinctiveness, 3 items for supervisor familiarity, 2 items for turnover intent, and 8 items for social identity of which three items were reverse coded).

Six-factor measurement model. The six-factor model to data fit results were mixed. The fit indices with unfavorable results were: (1) the chi-square test was significant; therefore, I rejected the null hypothesis of exact model fit to the data; (2) the lower bound of the 90% confidence interval for the RMSEA was .06 which indicates that the model is not a close fit to the data; (3) the probability RMSEA estimate was .00 which indicates that the model was not a close fit; and (3) the CFI and TLI fit scores were .85 and .83, respectively. CFI and TLI scores should be higher than .90 to suggest good model to data fit. The unfavorable fit results are related to perspective-taking reverse-coded items that did not have significant factor loadings and social recategorization items with low factor loadings.

The six-factor measurement model to data fit indices with favorable results were: (1) the RMSEA estimate was .07 which indicates a reasonably approximate fit; (2) the upper bound of the 90% confidence interval for RMSEA was .07 which indicates that the model was not a poor fit; and (3) the SRMR was .08 and must be less than .10 to indicate overall good model to data fit. Because of the mixed results for model to data fit for the six-factor model and the low sample

size to parameter ratio, I expanded the confirmatory factor analyses to assess two different five-factor measurement models that represent the two structural paths in my theoretical model.

Five-factor measurement model for path 1. For the five-factor measurement model representing the path from perspective-taking to positive distinctiveness to supervisor familiarity to turnover intent, while controlling for social identity, indices measuring model to data fit were approximately the same as the six factor model, except for notable improvement in CFI and TLI scores that increased by .04 for both CFI (.89) and TLI (.87) (see Table 7). Identical to the six-factor measurement model, the perspective-taking reverse coded items did not have significant factor loadings. Overall the five-factor model representing structural path 1 is an improvement over the six-factor model.

Five-factor measurement model for path 2. For the five-factor model representing the path from perspective-taking to social recategorization to supervisor familiarity to turnover intent, while controlling for social identity, indices measuring model to data fit results were approximately the same as the six-factor model except for slight improvements for CFI and TLI scores that increased by .01 for both CFI (.86) and TLI (.84), respectively.

The six-factor and five-factor measurement models were adversely affected by perspective-taking reverse coded items and poor fitting social recategorization items; therefore, I further assessed measurement model to data fit by excluding these items from the measurement model analyses. See Table 7 for comparisons between the six and five factor models results. In summary, excluding these items improved model-data-fit for each model and the most notable improvements were for CFI and TLI scores that increased from mid to high .80s to above .90 for both indices for all models.

Finally, there are poor fitting social identity items (SI1, SI2, SI3, SI8) (see Table 4) which I believe are due to commonalities between social identity, positive distinctiveness, and social recategorization because behavior measured through these constructs is affected by one's level of racioethnic self-concept. Prior research (Roberts et al., 2008) has shown that social identity affects the choice of social identity-based impression management strategy; therefore, I controlled for social identity. In conclusion, based upon the measurement model to data fit improvements for the five-factor models versus the six-factor model, I performed three-stage serial mediation analyses for each structural path on a standalone basis.

Structural path analyses and results. Descriptive statistics and correlations are presented in Table 3. The theoretical model was subjected to three-stage serial mediation path analysis using Mplus 7.4 to examine the hypothesized direct and indirect relationships between the constructs of interest. In my theoretical model, there are two hypothesized indirect paths. Path 1 represents perspective-taking to positive distinctiveness to supervisor familiarity to turnover intent. For Path 2, social recategorization replaces positive distinctiveness.

Path 1 serial mediation results. The structural model to data fit was very good: $\chi^2(6) = 7, p < 0.31$, RMSEA = 0.03 (90% CI = 0.00 - 0.10), CFI = .99, TLI = .97, SRMR = .04. The structural path analysis revealed an unstandardized significant and positive relationship between perspective-taking and positive distinctiveness ($B = .25, SE = .13, p = .05$, see Table 9), thus supporting H1a. Positive distinctiveness and supervisor familiarity had an unstandardized significant and positive relationship ($B = .13, SE = .06, p = .02$), thus supporting H2a. Turnover intent and supervisor familiarity had an unstandardized significant and negative relationship ($B = -.66, SE = .08, p = .00$), thus supporting H3. Finally, I tested the full mediation for Path 1 with two mediators (positive distinctiveness and supervisor familiarity). In the presence of the

mediators, the direct association between perspective-taking and turnover intent was not significant ($B = .05$, $SE = .15$, $p = .71$), thus supporting the need for a full mediation model.

I calculated bootstrap standard errors and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the hypothesized indirect effect of perspective-taking to turnover intent using 5,000 bootstrap resamples. Because the confidence interval (CI) does not include zero ($Effect = -.02$, $Boot SE = .02$, 95% $CI = -.063, -.003$), the indirect effect of Path 1 is significant, thus supporting H4a.

Path 2 serial mediation results. The structural model to data fit was not good: $\chi^2(6) = 22$, $p < 0.00$, RMSEA = 0.11 (90% $CI = 0.06 - 0.16$), CFI = .86, TLI = .68, SRMR = .07. The structural path analysis revealed an unstandardized insignificant and negative relationship between perspective-taking and social recategorization ($B = -.03$, $SE = .11$, $p = .83$, see Table 10), thus supporting H1b. Social recategorization and supervisor familiarity had an unstandardized significant and positive relationship ($B = .13$, $SE = .07$, $p = .05$), thus supporting H2b. Turnover intent and supervisor familiarity had an unstandardized significant and negative relationship ($B = -.66$, $SE = .08$, $p = .00$), thus supporting H3. Finally, I tested the full mediation for Path 1 with two mediators (social recategorization and supervisor familiarity). In the presence of the mediators, the direct association between perspective-taking and turnover intent was not significant ($B = .05$, $SE = .15$, $p = .71$), thus supporting the need for a full mediation model.

I calculated bootstrap standard errors and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the hypothesized indirect effect of perspective-taking to turnover intent using 5,000 bootstrap resamples. Because the confidence interval (CI) includes zero, the indirect effect of Path 2 is not significant ($Effect = .00$, $Boot SE = .01$, 95% $CI = -.015, .030$); thus supporting H4b. The path coefficients are also present in figure 2.

Post Hoc Analyses

My first post hoc analysis examines how social identity moderates the relationship between perspective-taking and positive distinctiveness and how professional identity moderates the relationship between perspective-taking and social recategorization. My second post hoc analysis examines whether sex and age affect the theoretical relationships between the constructs of interests in my theoretical model.

Rationale for the Potential Moderating Effects of Social and Professional Identities.

Identity strength refers to the degree to which one feels that a given identity is a core part of their self-concept (Ethier & Deaux, 1994; Sellers et al., 1997). Identity strength illuminates the notion that individuals have multiple identities that are ordered in hierarchies of importance. The degree to which one's identity is strong varies on the basis of situational factors such as salience (the degree to which the situation makes the identity most notable) and visibility (the degree to which one may hide or mask a given identity category) (Hogg & Abrams, 1990; Tajfel, 1978).

If significant moderation effects exist based on the strength of social identity or professional identity, there may be different outcomes compared to the results from the main analysis because as individuals hold multiple identities (Tajfel, 1978; Turner, 1987), certain identities will be considered more important than others (Swann, 1990). I suspect that individuals will be motivated to affirm identities that they see as more important (Pelham & Swann, 1989) to their self-concept and for Black perspective-takers, the strength of social identity (e.g., “being Black is central to how I define myself”) and professional identity (e.g., “being a surgeon is central to how I define myself”) will influence how perspective-taking affects the choice of social identity-based impression management strategy.

Insert figure 3 about here

The effect of social identity on the relationship between perspective-taking and positive distinctiveness. Recent literature (Ku et al., 2015) categorizes self-esteem as a moderator of the effectiveness of perspective-taking. Moreover, Ku et al. (2015) discuss the differing influences of low and high self-esteem on the effectiveness of perspective-taking. A common theme throughout this dissertation is the association between self-concept and social identity. Self-concept is what one knows about themselves; however, self-esteem concerns how one feels about what they know about themselves and how those feelings affect their relationships with others; accordingly, Blacks' emotional connection to their social identity influences their perspective-taking effectiveness.

Blacks with weak social identities may not feel good about their membership in a societally devalued social group or they may have no feelings at all about their social identity as it pertains to its effect on their self-worth. In this case, social identity, at best, has a neutral effect on perspective-taking. Alternatively, Blacks with strong social identities feel good about who they are as a member of a societally devalued group; thus, they can fight through interpersonal interactions where the target (i.e., Whites) of Blacks perspective-taking is threatening because they may display negative stereotypical attitudes towards Blacks. Indeed, Blacks' perseverance during such encounters may be the cornerstone of their ability to boundary span tough relationship barriers. When Blacks' perspective-taking interacts with strong positive feelings about their social identity, Blacks may promote that identity in a positive manner while maintaining the comfort of White supervisors.

The effect of professional Identity on the relationship between perspective-taking and social Recategorization. The role of professional identity as a moderator is supported by Ku et al. (2015) when they discuss target attribution, mimicry and behavior coordination,

cooperativeness versus competitiveness, and in-group identification. In professional organizations, high performers are targets of admiration in the sense that younger professionals aspiring to advance may see them as role models; thus, Blacks may view supervisors as high performers and desire to connect with supervisors on the basis of high professional competence. This attribution may lead to mimicry of what high performers do to gain credibility within the organization and Black perspective-takers may adopt those attributes (e.g., strong ethics and good work habits). In professional service organizations, being a team-player is an important aspect of professionalism and may be indicative of one's willingness to be cooperative to accomplish organizational objectives. Moreover, in-group identification may be based on how much one is committed to the aforementioned qualities of professionalism and Blacks may view their commitment to achieving the performance standards of a professional, as a means for establishing strong relationships with supervisors and the organization as a whole.

Last, individuals can accept facts about their self-concept (e.g., my skin color is Black) without feeling positive or negative about an immutable characteristic. When neutral feelings about self-concept attributes are combined with values associated with professional identity, individuals may not perceive social recategorization strategies as threats to their social identity, on the contrary, some Blacks may view these strategies as tactics for increasing their professional identity and reaping the benefits thereof.

Because social recategorization strategies do not emphasize social identity, they allow Black perspective-takers to have a closer connection with their professional identity, primarily through assimilation behavior that reduces threats or discomfort White supervisors' may experience while interacting with Blacks.

Procedures, analyses, and results for testing moderated mediation. See Table 11 for means, standard deviations, and correlations between the constructs of interest which include social identity, professional identity, age, and sex. The post hoc analyses were conducted utilizing structural equation modeling through Mplus Version 7.4.

I tested for conditional direct effects (i.e., the moderation effect of social identity on the relationship between perspective-taking and positive distinctiveness and the moderation effect of professional identity on the relationship between perspective-taking and social recategorization) and conditional indirect effects (the effect of perspective-taking on turnover intent, as mediated through social recategorization or positive distinctiveness, and supervisor familiarity) by generating two interaction terms (perspective-taking*social identity and perspective-taking*professional identity) and used 95% bootstrapping confidence intervals (Preacher & Hayes, 2004a; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007; Shrout & Bolger, 2002; J. Williams & MacKinnon, 2008).

I conducted moderated-mediation path analyses (see Tables 12 and 13) by mean-centering the mediator and moderator variables and then I computed the interaction terms. I estimated 5,000 bootstrap resamples to construct confidence intervals to test for conditional indirect effects. Statistical significance was determined using the unstandardized effects.

Model fit for perspective-taking to positive distinctiveness to supervisor familiarity to turnover intent with first stage moderated mediation via social identity was very good: $\chi^2 (10) = 11, p < 0.39$, RMESA = 0.02 (90% CI = 0.00-0.08), CFI = 1.00, TLI = .99. Model to data fit for perspective-taking to social recategorization to supervisor familiarity to turnover intent with first stage moderated mediation via professional identity was poor: $\chi^2 (10) = 9.55, p < 0.00$, RMESA = 0.17 (90% CI = 0.14 - 0.21), CFI = .61, TLI = .31, SRMR = .11.

Fig 3 depicts the moderated mediation model although path analyses were conducted separately. As shown in Tables 12 and 13, the perspective-taking x social identity interaction was not significant and the perspective-taking x professional identity interaction was not significant; thus, there was no support for suspected moderation mediation. The path coefficients are presented in figure 4.

Post-hoc analysis considering sex and age. Out of 222 study participants, 202 provided demographic information related to sex and age. See Table 14 for demographic statistics for two primary age groups: 20-29 and 30-43. For the 143 participants in the 20-29 age group, men reported higher usage of positive distinctiveness strategies and women reported higher use of either social recategorization strategies or no social identity-based impression management strategy. For the 59 participants in the 30–43 age groups, women reported higher usage of positive distinctiveness strategies and men reported higher usage use of social recategorization strategies or no social identity-based impression management strategy.

Although I did not hypothesize the effects of sex and age in my theoretical models, I performed a post-hoc analysis to investigate the effects of sex and age given the mixed demographic data related to the self-reported use of social identity-based impression management strategies. First, I tested for significant correlations between sex and age with the other constructs of interest (see Table 11). I found that sex had a significant ($p < .01$) correlation (-.19) with perspective-taking and age had a significant ($p < .05$) correlation (-.14) with social recategorization. Given these results, I reran the Mplus analyses with sex and age included as control variables.

For Path 1, I only controlled for sex because Path 1 does not include social recategorization where age was a significant covariate. Path 1 hypotheses testing results did not

change when I controlled for sex. For Path 2, I controlled for age and sex and Path 2 hypotheses testing results were consistent with the main analysis. The path coefficients are presented in figure 5.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

General Discussion

In this dissertation, I synthesized three theories (perspective-taking, social identity-based impression management, and threat regulation) to develop a theoretical model that examines how Blacks may gain higher levels of familiarity with White supervisors. My theory was tested based on data from two hundred and twenty-two Black professionals working primarily for U.S. public accounting firms. The study participants provided important insights regarding perspective-taking's role in their choice of social identity-based impression management strategies and how these strategies affect their perceived level of familiarity with White supervisors and ultimately, their turnover intent.

Specifically, I extend prior research on perspective-taking by revealing its significance and effectiveness through positive distinctiveness strategies and not social recategorization strategies. I also explain how Williams' threat regulation model is useful for conceptualizing social identity-based impression management strategies as interpersonal relationship boundary spanning strategies useful for overcoming social barriers that inhibit healthy workplace relationships between dissimilar others; particularly, the reduction of White supervisor's perceived threats about interacting with Blacks.

In my theoretical model, Blacks may traverse one of two paths to gain familiarity with White supervisors. In Path 1, Blacks use positive distinctiveness strategies and Path 1 structural analyses supported all serial mediation related hypotheses (H1a, H2a, H3, H4a) for the effect of perspective-taking to turnover intent as mediated through positive distinctiveness and supervisor familiarity. In Path 2, Blacks use social recategorization strategies and Path 2 structural analyses supported all serial mediation related hypotheses except for H2b where I found a significant relationship between social recategorization and supervisor familiarity.

My prediction that there would not be a significant relationship between social recategorization and supervisor familiarity was based on the rationale that supervisors will be more open to frequently sharing information related to work and personal matters with Blacks who use positive distinctiveness strategies as an expression of their authentic self versus Blacks who use social recategorization strategies that maintain superficial workplace relationships.

In my post hoc analyses I found no support for moderated-mediation where I suspected the strength of social identity to significantly affect the relationship between perspective-taking and positive distinctiveness strategies and the strength of professional identity to significantly affect the relationship between perspective-taking and social recategorization.

I contribute to social identity-based impression management theory in two regards. First, social identity-based impression management strategies have been sparsely examined in an organizational context and I examined the operation of these strategies in professional service organizations. Second, Roberts identified a gap relative to whether “intent to engage in positive distinctiveness and social recategorization strategies corresponds with actual overt behaviors in real-life social interactions” (Roberts et al., 2008, p. 299). My research fills this gap based on evidence not only from quantitative analysis, but feedback from focus group discussions

whereby Black professionals confirmed their utilization of social identity-based impression management strategies by sharing on-the-job experiences (see Table 2) that provided significant insight into which strategy is perceived to be effective for improving workplace relationships with White coworkers.

Theoretical Implications

Based on the findings from this study, I offer six considerations for advancement of scholarly understanding of the relationships between the variables in my theoretical model. First, in the face of perceived social identity threats while working in White-dominated workspaces, Blacks' perspective-taking is more cognitively demanding. For Blacks, this increase in perspective-taking complexity is due to the need to cognitively balance perceived social identity threats by both parties, for the purpose of boundary spanning social barriers that inhibit the growth of relationships between dissimilar others. This balancing process increases the importance of accurate perspective-taking in the workplace because the stakes are higher relative to job satisfaction, career success, and retention; thus, Blacks may be more intentional in their perspective-taking process, that is, Blacks are intent on achieving a result that is mutually beneficial.

This orientation towards achieving mutually beneficial results manifests itself in more perspective-giving (Bruneau & Saxe, 2012) to dissimilar others to enhance their understanding of the social barrier. This rationale is in line with emerging theory on ethnic perspective-taking, because Blacks may be predisposed to higher levels of open-mindedness (Sparkman & Eidelman, 2016) and thereby more apt to consider a multitude of variables when analyzing various facets of interpersonal relationships, particularly in the shadow of perceived threats against their self-concept, while considering discomfort experienced by dissimilar others.

Second, as it relates to the effect of social barriers on interpersonal relationships, in White-dominated workspaces Blacks are often “continuous perspective-takers.” Indeed, Blacks may be forced to assess the legitimacy of perceived threats and craft strategic responses more often than their White colleagues. Constantly perspective-taking on perceived social identity threats burns up cognitive resources that could be more productively oriented toward enhancing technical skills or networking with a positive mindset; thus, continuously perspective-taking in this context is another dimension of the perversity of perspective-taking (Ku et al., 2015) due to the negative effect on mental and physical health. In the introduction section, I provided feedback from Participant H (FG2) and I revisit this data-point to explain the perverse aspect of continuous perspective-taking without a mutually beneficial result.

In Participant H’s lament “*how much more can I do, how much longer,*” it is important to note the aspect of time in this expression of frustration. Indeed, given the considerable amount of cognitive energy involved in perspective-taking, if one continuously tries to (a) understand the views of dissimilar others and to (b) change one’s behavior based on perspective-taking, it can be disheartening to give so much yet receive so little with respect to not realizing improved relationships and/or feeling disenfranchised in a White-dominated workspace. The cumulative effect of this dilemma is reflected in Participant H’s statement that “*because a lot of people believe they are tired just like me...because it’s taxing.*” Ultimately, the long-term organizational effect of continuous perspective-taking without a mutually beneficial result is less turnover intent.

This research revealed that most study participants desire to be positively distinctive; however, what happens when Blacks who want to be positive distinctive do not manifest such behaviors in the workplace due to their status (e.g., tenure, level)? The long term effects of not

being positive distinctive and suppressing social identity can increase Blacks' turnover intent; however, effective perspective-taking coupled with protecting one's social identity, can lead to healthy workplace interactions that decrease turnover intent. Participant A (FG1) illustrates this work-life experience for Black accountants.

"I remember when I was a staff...whoever was running the job got to choose the music and often times it was country music or rock and roll and I remember very vividly, every day [thinking to myself], I cannot wait until I run a job cause I'm playing all the rap music I can find, I can't wait. But then when I became a senior, I remember how I felt when all these people were playing country music and I was like, I know they don't like rap, so I gave everyone an opportunity to say what type of music [they want to listen to]. I still kind of juggle what I like and embrace what I like [and] expose them to what I like, but also give them a chance to be who they are as well."

Third, the focus group data reveals evidence that positive distinctiveness strategies may emerge over the course of one's career, such that as their careers develop, Blacks report less use of social recategorization and more use of positive distinctiveness strategies. For example, focus group participants noted that use of social recategorization strategies occurs more often early in one's career compared to later when one reaches supervisory levels. Participant A (FG1) explains:

"I think I do both and that as I evolved I try to be more towards the positive distinctiveness attitude, because I think that that is healthy...I definitely think you got a kind of juggle the two, but I think when I first started I was a lot more social re-categorization, kind of fitting in."

On one hand, this is not surprising given that greater status may allow individuals to be more authentic. On the other hand, serious consideration must be given to the negative psychological effect of “wanting yet waiting” to be positive distinctive and the effect of this dilemma on relationships with White coworkers. Because early socialization of minorities in White-dominated workspaces is crucial to their ultimate retention, the dissonance of wanting but not being able to be authentic to one’s social identity, may be a significant contributor to premature turnover.

Fourth, recall that for Path 2, specifically, hypothesis H2B, I predicted that social recategorization would not have a significant association with supervisor familiarity. This prediction was not validated and I offer the following rationale for why a significant effect occurred. Although the majority of study participants self-identified as positive distinctive, they may use social recategorization strategies based upon situational context. As previously discussed, status within the organization matters with respect to one’s propensity to be positive distinctive when dealing with matters involving social identity threat.

The majority of study participants are in the early (47% less than age 26 and 71% less than age 30) stages of their careers and they may not realize the detrimental long term consequence for using social recategorization strategies in order to “get along” in a White-dominated workspace, particularly when social recategorization strategies are used to maintain a professional image.

Fifth, considering Williams’ threat regulation model and Morgan’s social identity-based impression management strategies, I find that positive distinctiveness behaviors allow for boundary spanning by Blacks through perspective-giving (Bruneau & Saxe, 2012) that also

reduces threats perceived by White colleagues. The focus group data illuminates this observation.

Focus group moderator – “when you do these teachable moments in a way that it’s creating a new perspective for your majority counterparts, what does it look like when it works? And what does it look like when it doesn’t work?” Participant F (FG2) replies: “when it does work, I think you create those amazing relationships...we can hang out, you know, I can tell you that I am going to church today...it becomes something that people respect. When it doesn’t work and you kind of pull back a little bit and you can feel the pushback, but that is life...and that doesn’t mean I am not going to speak to you, that doesn’t mean you can’t tell me your political view, I just may not agree with everything. That’s fine, that’s life, and I just think that we have to be able to just kind of understand that everyone isn’t going to understand every perspective, but present it and let them see it, I mean and just be confident.”

Finally, as discussed in the literature review for supervisor familiarity, the effect of familiarity on the subordinate-supervisor relationship has not been as extensively studied. This work increases understanding of the role of familiarity as a determinate of healthy workplace relationships and effect on retention. This finding is important because for Blacks, and perhaps other minority groups, gaining familiarity with White coworkers may be a conduit to discovering non salient areas (hobbies, family-life, interests) of similarity that contribute to the development of stronger bonds between dissimilar others.

Implications for Practice

In 1965, there were approximately 100,000 certified public accountants in the United States and 100 were Black, despite the fact that Blacks comprised 12% of the population (Hammond & Streeter, 1994). In 2012, the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants launched a major initiative to attract underrepresented groups to the profession and to improve retention. The organization sponsors scholarship programs and hosts annual student conferences to promote careers in accounting and has made significant changes to its marketing materials to reflect the importance of diversity; nevertheless, Blacks represent only 4% of all professional staff working for public accounting firms (Moore, 2013).

While the history of Blacks' participation in public accounting is thoroughly documented (Hammond & Streeter, 1994; Mitchell, 1976), there is scarce scholarly attention to minority work-life experiences in the accounting profession. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study that incorporates social, psychological, and management theories, to empirically investigate how Black accountants manage their social identity in White-dominated workspaces; thus, I offer valuable insight on the effect of perspective-taking and social identity-based impression management strategies and their association with lower turnover intent for Blacks.

Based on this research study, organizations should consider two insights for enhancing diversity management practices. First, encourage authenticity through acceptance and appreciation of professionally appropriate positive distinctiveness behaviors. This is important for younger Black professionals because reducing the waiting period for *wanting* to be positive distinctive, may decrease turnover intent. Second, train organizational members in the art of perspective-taking and giving, realizing that not all perspectives must be agreed with but deserve a voice to facilitate social bonding.

Limitations and Future Research

This study offers noteworthy contributions to the literature on perspective-taking and social identity-based impression management strategies; however, its findings should be interpreted within the context of its limitations. First, the reliability estimate for social recategorization was low ($\alpha = .57$). Although this reliability figure is consistent with that reported in Roberts et al. (2008) study, this may have suppressed my ability to fully test the effect of social recategorization in the theoretical model. Future research should rely on a stronger measure of social recategorization to reexamine the validity of the model.

A second limitation is the racioethnic profile of the sample. The data for this study was collected from Black accountants and this could limit the generalizability of the findings as there may be important differences regarding how various minority groups manage threat related to their social identity (Twenge & Crocker, 2002). Thus, I cannot be sure that the results of this study would necessarily translate to other minority groups working in White-dominated spaces.

A third limitation was that I asked Black accountants to indicate their level of familiarity with White supervisors, thus, data for measuring the effects on supervisor familiarity are self-reported. Future studies should collect data directly from supervisors in order to identify and examine gaps between Black accountant's and supervisor perceptions. My data collection procedures included asking study participants to invite their supervisors to participate in the study by completing a short questionnaire on the supervisor's perceived level of familiarity with their Black coworker. Unfortunately, only twenty-two of the participants asked their supervisors to participate and only nine supervisors responded.

The fourth limitation concerns the number of supervisors an accountant may have in the early years of working in the public accounting profession. In the early stages of one's public

accounting career, an accountant may work with one to many supervisors during the year and organizational demand to assimilate quickly may be more extreme in public accounting compared to other professional service organizations. These differences may also impede generalization of findings; however, I believe that certain social identity devaluation issues faced by Blacks are commonplace (e.g., tokenism, isolation due to being the sole Black accountant in the office, and stereotypes associated with social group membership) and results of this study are relevant to the experiences of Black professionals in general.

This study examined the effect of mediating variables pertaining to the relationship between perspective-taking and turnover intent; however, future research should identify and examine other relevant moderators that further enhance the model. For example, does diversity climate decrease the waiting time to be positive distinctive? In other words, does lower or higher diversity climate result in more social recategorization or positive distinctiveness strategies, respectively?

Finally, over the past three decades, organizational norms relative to professional appearance, work-life balance, and organizational openness to the professional development needs of minorities have become significantly less conservative (e.g., facial hair more prominent for men, business casual dress versus suits for men and women, flextime versus mandatory face time in the office, high profile and expensive diversity and inclusion initiatives) within professional service firms. Social identity expression also benefits from a departure from the old ways of conducting business; however, Blacks still experience higher turnover rates compared to their White counterparts.

Future studies should focus on the differing experiences of Black men and women based on age and organizational status as compared to White counterparts. Questions remain about why

Black women have not realized the same career successes as White women within their peer group, especially when professional service firms have implemented programs designed to retain women.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

In the 1950s and 1960s, race discrimination in the United States was combated with landmark legal cases regarding segregated public schools and passage of the civil rights act (Pettigrew & Martin, 1987). In the 1970s and 1980s, structural barriers relative to discrimination in the workplace were, and continue to be, combated by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission and Affirmative Action. Through the rule of law and advocacy groups for equal rights, the organizational playing field for opportunities and advancement was somewhat leveled; however, the field still has holes and rough patches pertaining to the work experience of minorities in White-dominated workspaces.

Indeed, the “triple jeopardy” (Pettigrew & Martin, 1987) effect of being a minority working in White-dominated work spaces is still very real for many minorities. Social identity devaluation due to negative stereotyping, feelings of isolation, and accusations of receiving undeserved entitlements are a fact of life for many Blacks.

This research offers organizations and their employees, a deeper understanding of how Blacks manage their social identity and the effects of SIM on an important organizational outcome, retention of high quality employees. I provided this understanding by integrating theories on perspective-taking and social identity-based impression management strategies. I found that the combined effects of perspective-taking and positive distinctiveness, had a significant and positive effect on Blacks’ perceived level of familiarity with supervisors thereby decreasing turnover intent. Organizations now have profounder insight into an effective

cognitive and behavioral process used by Blacks to gain perceived familiarity with White supervisors and firms should craft organizational diversity management policies and practices that promote the use of positive distinctiveness strategies.

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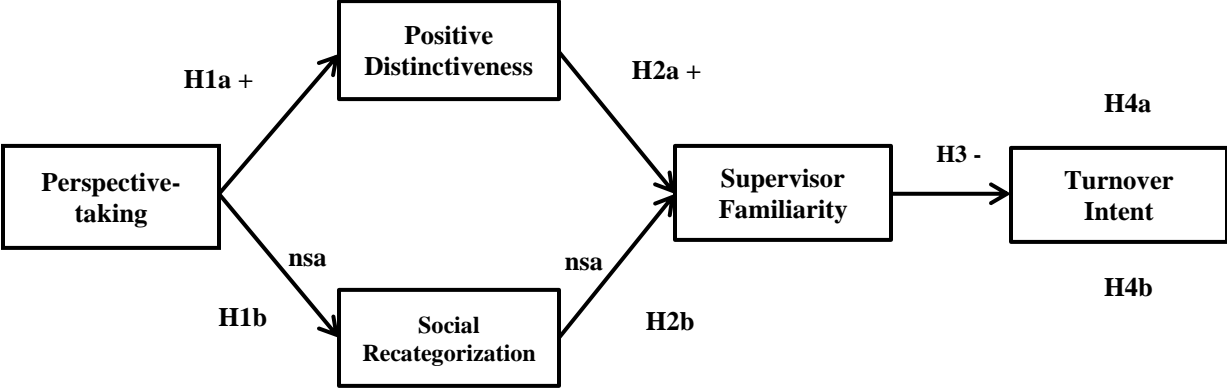
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Figure 1. Theoretical Model



Note: nsa = no significant association

Figure 2. Results for Theoretical Model

Note 1: Regression coefficients are unstandardized

Note 2: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

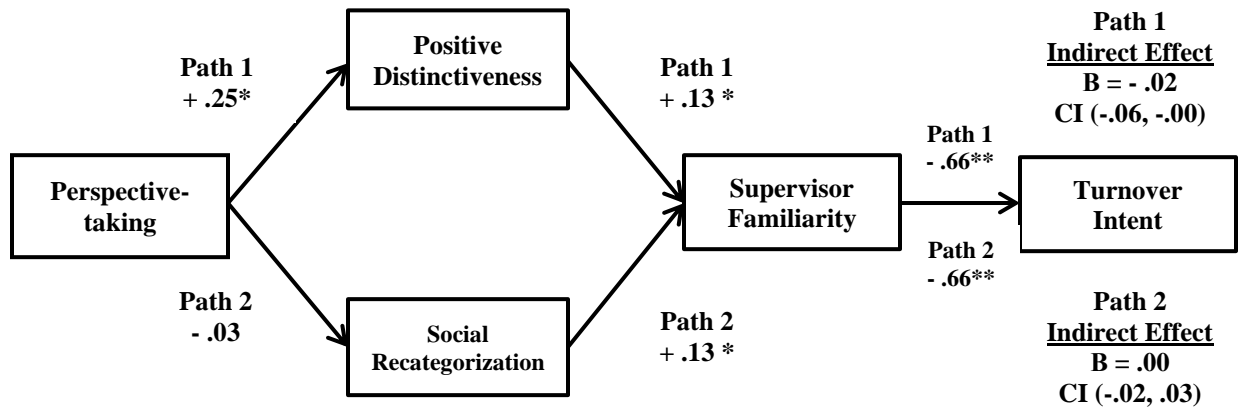
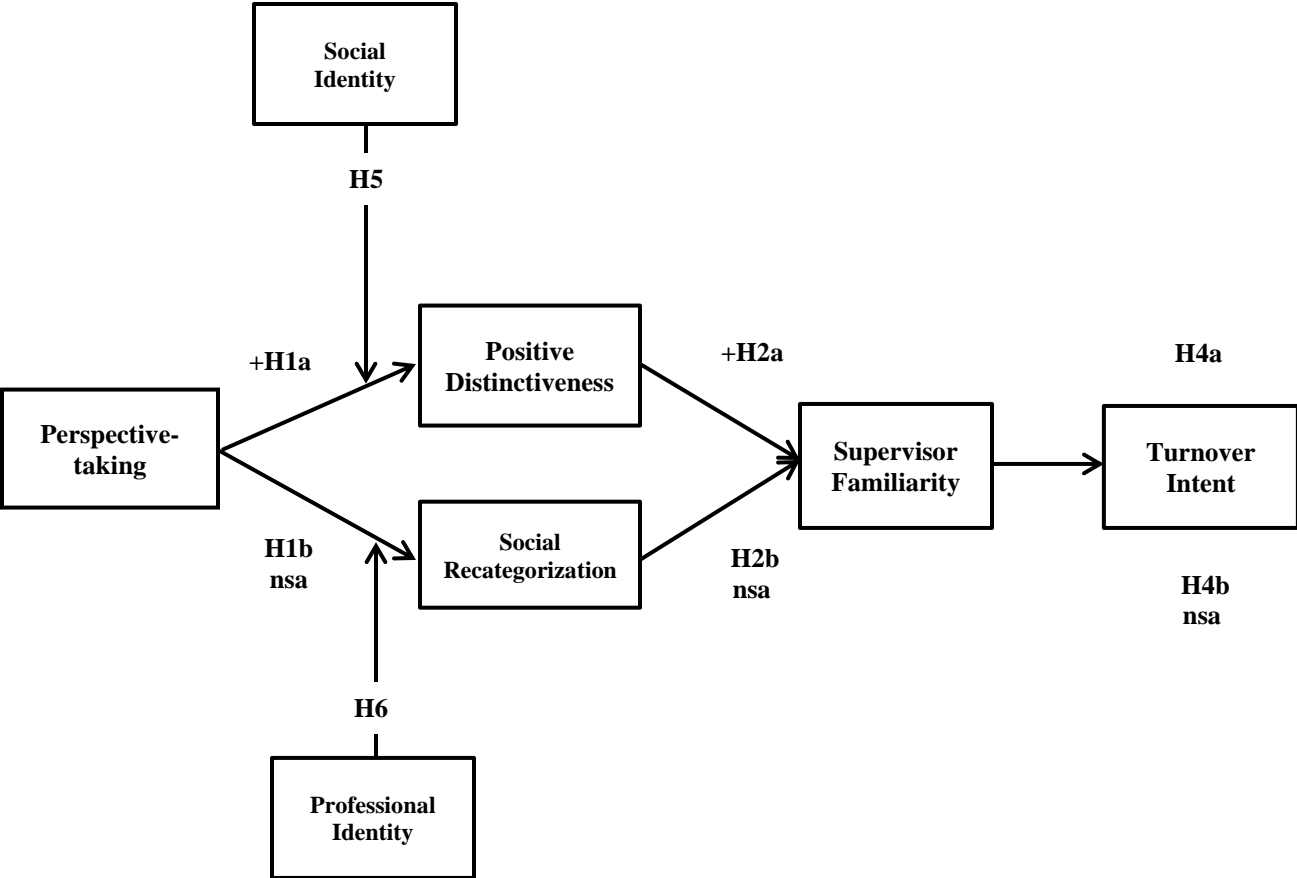


Figure 3. Post hoc Analysis, Theoretical Model with Moderators



Note: nsa = no significant association

Figure 4. Post hoc Results for Theoretical Model with Moderators
Note 1: Regression coefficients are unstandardized
Note 2: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

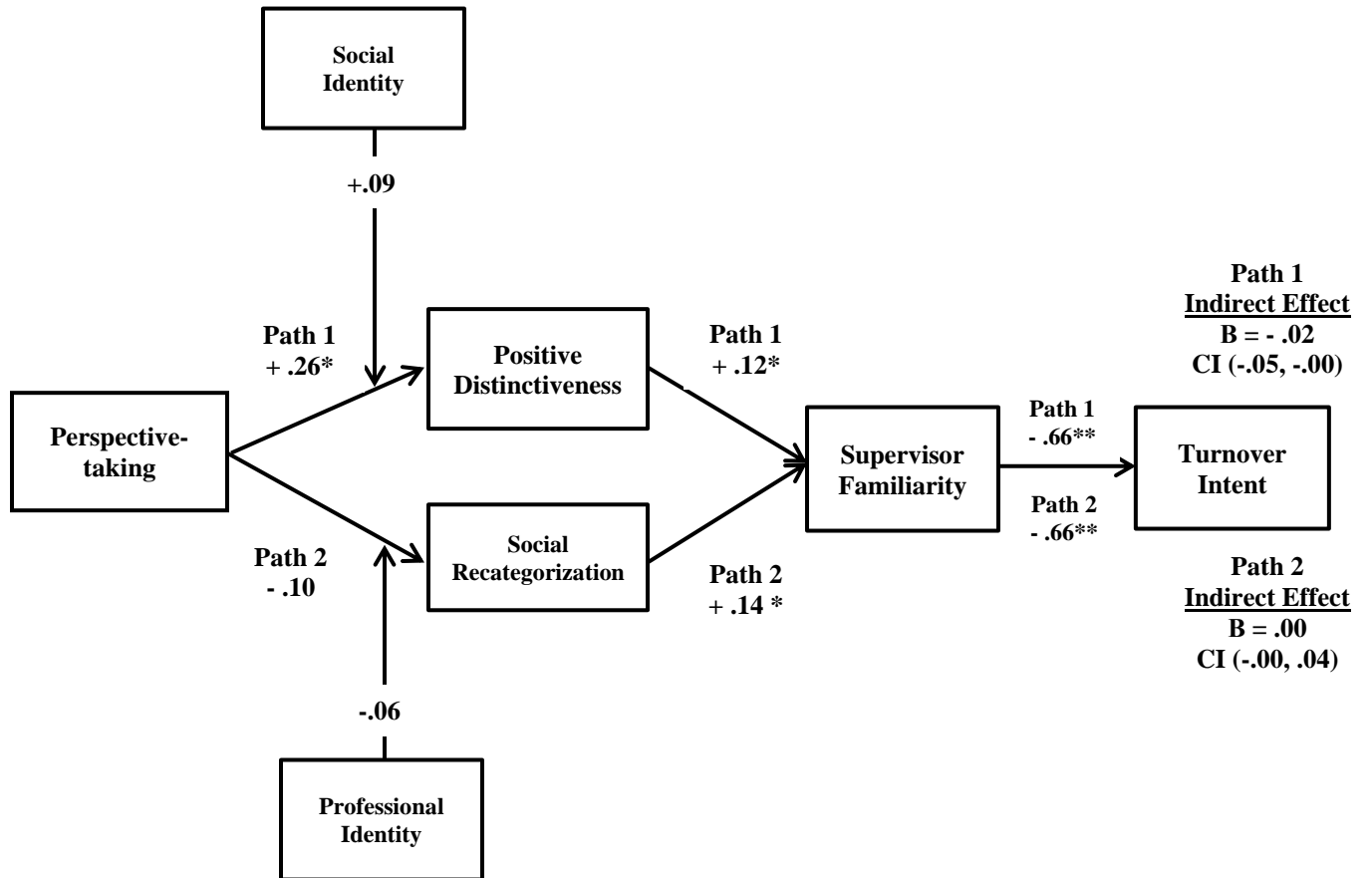


Figure 5. Results for Theoretical Model Controlling for Sex and Age
Note 1: Regression coefficients are unstandardized
Note 2: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

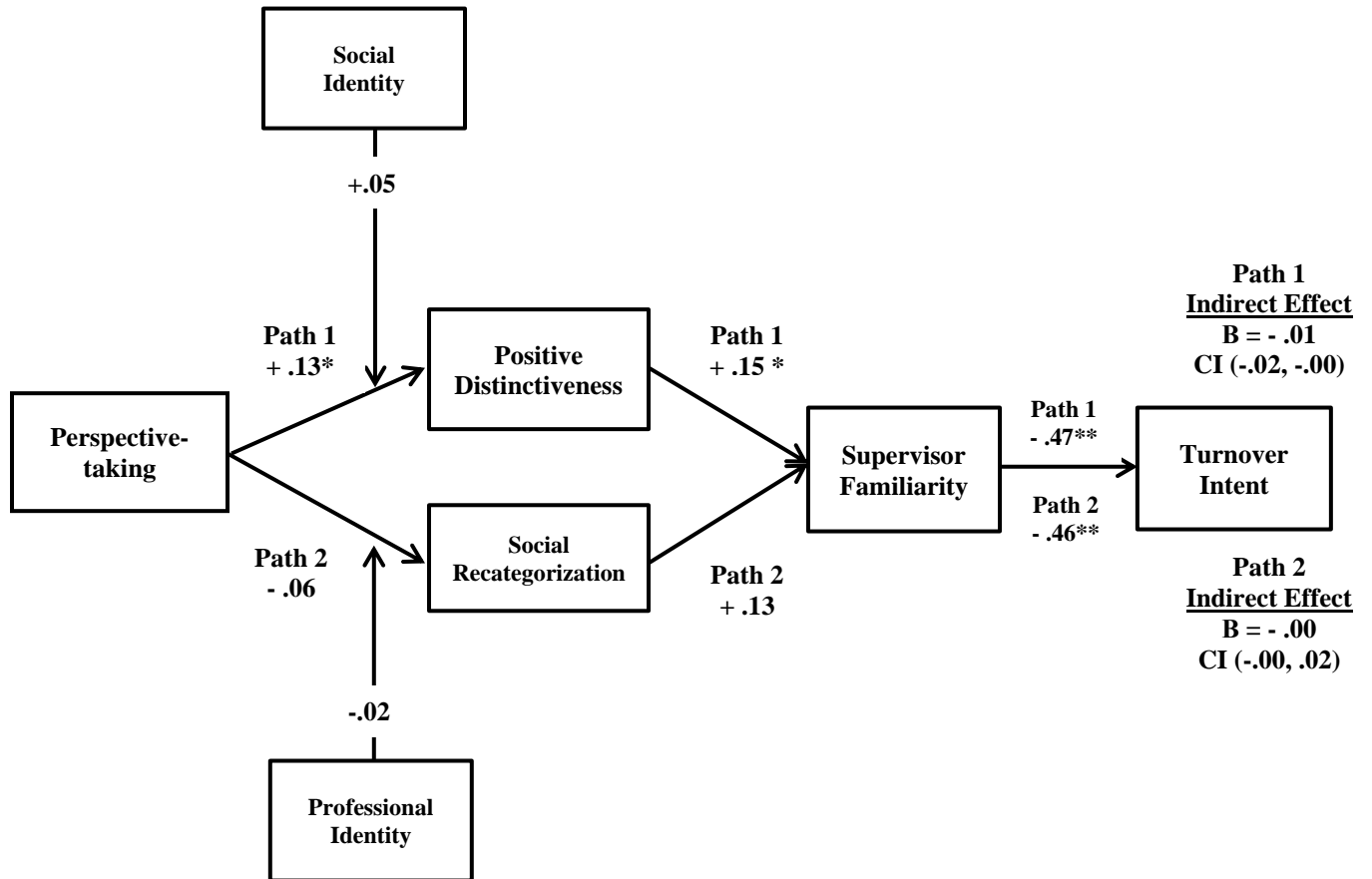


Table 1 - Focus Group Demographic Data

Sex	Age	Self Reported Ethnicity	Years in Public Accounting
Female	27	AFRAS	2
Male	25	AFR	3
Male	24	AA	2
Female	23	AA	3
Female	22	AA	1
Male	22	AA	2
Female	23	AA	2
Female	26	AA	5
Female	25	AA	3

Note: AA = African American; AFR = African; AFRAS = African and Asian American. Focus group demographic information was available for 9 of the 11 participants.

Table 2 – Qualitative Data for Theoretical Model Relationships

Construct	Evidence
<i>Perspective-taking</i>	<p>“Making those folks comfortable is exhausting because they get bothered by anything and everything different that they don't understand. And in my mind that's your problem...I don't know it's exhausting, it's exhausting. But it makes them feel comfortable so I don't get the questions or the weird looks, so they feel comfortable approaching me and talking to me.” (Participant B, Focus Group 1)</p> <p>“So I'm with my white counterparts and 4 white men started talking about fantasy football and I said 'what is fantasy football?' and the room just got dead silent...so for a day at work, I sat there and they taught me everything they collectively knew about fantasy football. They did the draft with me and that was finding the commonality. And that is the piece that I've tried to find with people, there is at least one thing that I will try to find that you are interested in that I don't mind doing to make you feel like it's worth it [to make them comfortable].” (Participant G, Focus Group 2)</p>
<i>Social recategorization - decategorization</i>	<p>“I kind of feel bad about admitting this but, when they started inviting me to lunch, if I drove I would turn it to another station, I would turn it to NPR or talk radio, I would not listen to what I would normally play or when I pull into the parking lot I would roll my windows up or turn my music down.” (Participant B, Focus Group 1)</p> <p>“I will probably not to be the person that is always with the black person in the office. One of my closest friends in the office is [another black person]... I try not to always be at his desk talking. Or even with any other person on the floor if they are a person of color or so forth.” (Participant C, Focus Group 2)</p>
<i>Social recategorization - assimilation</i>	<p>“Nobody ever really asked me about my partner unless I crossed the room and they are talking about their spouses, or what have you in their lives, and I say something like “oh I just bought a house with my wife, I work on my house, I have things like that. I go to this event and oh yeah, my partner and I really enjoyed that event,” you know making it open.” (Participant C, Focus Group 1)</p>
<i>Positive distinctiveness - confirmation</i>	<p>“I could always be different and still bring on my good work and my skills and maybe I do handle the black accounts. Maybe my major client has a good number of black accountants there. Like I liked being there because of that. You know I was like, I have begun to be completely okay with who I am, and I think that you become who you are at work and it makes it a little bit easier.” (Participant F, Focus Group 2)</p>

*Positive
distinctiveness –
integration*

“You can be educated and articulate, and still black.” (Participant G, Focus Group 2)

“I love my blackness. I’ll express it outward. I will find commonalities and all that stuff, but, I think in the beginning of my journey, it was just do your work. And then, people will start respecting you for that. And once they respect you for what you are really here for, then you can move into all these other different things. But that’s kind of the journey that I took.” (Participant F, Focus Group 2)

Familiarity (high)

“Another time I got caught by the rain so I sat in the hotel while an Indian co-worker goes to the client, gets his umbrella, comes back to pick me up..., I wasn’t offended at all because I am black I am not walking in the rain with this hair. It won’t air dry. So, I think, they respect it and they know it and I wasn’t going to hide it because that is fact.”

(Participant G, Focus Group 2)

Familiarity (low)

“We’re not friends, we are there to do a job, and I have nothing in common. I don’t need to kick it with you outside of work.” (Participant F, Focus Group 2)

*Turnover
Intentions*

“Black people in general, feel, because a lot of people believe they are tired just like me, and it’s like, how much more can I do, how much longer, so I feel like that’s why a lot of people leave, because it’s taxing... and until I really deal with the issues, I think I will continue to have this cycle.” (Participant H, Focus Group 2)

Table 3 – Descriptive Statistics and Variable Inter-Correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Perspective-taking	2.87	.57	-					
2. Social Recategorization	2.59	.91	.03	-				
3. Positive Distinctiveness	3.56	1.14	.17*	.37**	-			
4. Supervisor Familiarity	3.95	.89	.16*	.14*	.17*	-		
5. Turnover Intent	3.10	1.24	-.05	-.15*	-.12	-.46**	-	
6. Social Identity	4.97	.91	.12	-.11	.22**	-.03	-.08	-

Note. $N = 222$.

*Correlation is significant at $p \leq .05$

**Correlation is significant at $p \leq .01$

Table 4 – Standardized and Unstandardized Item Factor Loadings

Factor Loadings	Unstandardized Estimate	Unstandardized Error	Standardized Estimate	Standardized Error	R2	Squared Correlations Interpretation	AVE Average Variance Extracted	
Perspective-taking								
PT1	1.00	.00	.50	.06	.25	Note 3	.28	
PT2	1.33	.23	.63	.05	.40	Note 3		
PT3	1.26	.21	.68	.05	.47	Note 3		
PT5	.15	.18	.06	.08	.00	Note 3		
PT6	1.33	.23	.65	.05	.42	Note 3		
PT7	.12	.20	.05	.08	.00	Note 3		
PT9	1.19	.20	.64	.05	.42	Note 3		
Social Recategorization								
SR1	1.00	.00	.28	.07	.08	Note 3		.25
SR2	1.05	.42	.25	.08	.06	Note 3		
SR3	2.79	.81	.74	.05	.55	Note 2		
SR4	2.83	.85	.74	.05	.54	Note 2		
SR5	.74	.38	.18	.08	.03	Note 3		
Positive Distinctiveness								
PD1	1.00	.00	.45	.06	.20	Note 3	.52	
PD2	2.35	.39	.63	.05	.39	Note 3		
PD3	4.05	.62	.83	.03	.69	Note 2		
PD4	3.84	.58	.90	.02	.81	Note 2		
PD5	3.08	.49	.73	.04	.53	Note 2		
Supervisor Familiarity								
SF1	1.00	.00	.80	.03	.63	Note 2	.73	
SF4	1.25	.09	.89	.02	.79	Note 2		
SF5	1.28	.09	.87	.02	.76	Note 2		
Turnover Intent								
Itl1	1.00	.00	.80	.05	.64	Note 2	.73	
Itl2	1.20	.15	.90	.05	.81	Note 2		
Social Identity								
SI 1	1.00	.00	.16	.07	.02	Note 3	.35	
SI 2	2.05	.97	.35	.06	.12	Note 3		
SI 3	1.83	.90	.30	.06	.09	Note 3		
SI 4	2.92	1.30	.64	.04	.41	Note 3		
SI 5	3.73	1.65	.77	.03	.59	Note 2		
SI 6	3.58	1.58	.76	.03	.58	Note 2		
SI 7	4.40	1.95	.98	.02	.96	Note 2		
SI 8	.68	.52	.11	.07	.01	Note 3		

Table 5 – AVE vs. Squared Inter-factor Correlations

Model Estimated Correlations Between Constructs (Note 1)							
	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	
1. Perspective-taking	-						
2. Social Recategorization	.29	-					
3. Positive Distinctiveness	.35	.64	-				
4. Supervisor Familiarity	.26	.21	.15	-			
5. Turnover Intent	-.11	-.21	-.14	-.53	-		
6. Social Identity	.07	.00	.19	-.01	-.01	-	
Squared Correlations Between Constructs vs. AVE (Note 2)							
1. Perspective-taking	-						
2. Social Recategorization	.08	-					
3. Positive Distinctiveness	.12	.41	-				
4. Supervisor Familiarity	.07	.04	.02	-			
5. Turnover Intent	.01	.04	.02	.28	-		
6. Social Identity	.00	.00	.04	.00	.00	-	
	AVE	.28	.25	.52	.73	.73	.35

Note 1 - the correlations between the factors are indicators of discriminate reliability. Ideally, the correlation between any two factors should NOT be less than .1 and NOT greater than .85. The correlations among the constructs indicate that the factors are distinct and not the same. Since there is a high correlation between the social identity-based impression management strategies (i.e., social recategorization and positive distinctiveness), the constructs will be modeled to co-vary in the structural equation analyses.

Note 2 - AVE is a measure of discriminant validity. The general rule is that all construct AVE estimates should be larger than the corresponding squared inter-construct correlation estimates. If they are, this indicates the measured variables have more in common with the construct they are associated with than they do with the other constructs. Except for the social recategorization AVE (.25) compared to the positive distinctiveness squared correlation (.41), all AVE estimates are higher than the corresponding SICs indicating discriminant validity between those constructs.

Table 6 - Cross-loading of Items between Constructs

	Persp Taking	Soc Recat	Pos Dist	Sup Fam	Turn Intent	Soc Ident
PT1	.50	.14	.18	.13	-.06	.04
PT2	.63	.18	.22	.17	-.07	.05
PT3	.69	.20	.24	.18	-.08	.05
PT5	.06	.02	.02	.02	-.01	.01
PT6	.65	.19	.23	.17	-.07	.05
PT7	.05	.01	.02	.01	-.01	.00
PT9	.64	.19	.23	.17	-.07	.05
SR1	.08	.28	.18	.06	-.06	.00
SR2	.07	.25	.16	.05	-.05	.00
SR3	.21	.74	.48	.15	-.16	.00
SR4	.21	.74	.47	.15	-.15	.00
SR5	.05	.18	.12	.04	-.04	.00
PD1	.16	.29	.45	.07	-.06	.08
PD2	.22	.40	.63	.10	-.09	.12
PD3	.29	.54	.83	.13	-.11	.16
PD4	.32	.58	.90	.14	-.12	.17
PD5	.26	.47	.73	.11	-.10	.14
SF1	.21	.16	.12	.80	-.42	-.01
SF4	.23	.18	.14	.89	-.47	-.01
SF5	.23	.18	.13	.87	-.46	-.01
ITL1	-.09	-.17	-.11	-.43	.80	-.01
ITL2	-.10	-.19	-.12	-.48	.90	-.01
SI1	.01	.00	.03	.00	.00	.16
SI2	.03	.00	.07	.01	.00	.35
SI3	.02	.00	.06	.01	.00	.30
SI4	.05	.00	.12	.01	-.01	.64
SI5	.06	.00	.14	.02	.01	.77
SI6	.06	.00	.14	.02	.01	.76
SI7	.07	.00	.18	.02	.01	.98
SI8	.01	.00	.02	.00	.00	.11

Table 7 - Measurement Model to Data Fit Comparisons

Model Fit Index	6 Factor Model <u>PT,SOC,POS,SUP,TOL,RIC</u>		5 Factor Model <u>PT,POS,SUP,TOL,RIC</u>		5 Factor Model <u>PT,SOC,SUP,TOL,RIC</u>	
	All Items	All Items Except PT5, PT7, SR1, SR2, SR5	All Items	All Items Except PT5, PT7,	All Items	All Items Except PT5, PT7, SR1, SR2, SR5
Chi-Square						
Value	763	460	503	419	525	295
Degrees of Freedom	389	259	264	219	264	159
P-Value	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
RMSEA						
Estimate	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.06
90 Percent C.I.						
Lower	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.05
Upper	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.07
Probability RMSEA <= .05	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.04
CFI	0.85	0.91	0.89	0.91	0.86	0.92
TLI	0.83	0.90	0.87	0.89	0.84	0.90
SRMR	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.07

Table 8 - Structural Model to Data Fit Comparisons

Model Fit Index	All Paths	Path 1	Path 2	All Measurement Items Except for PT5, PT7, SR1, SR2, SR5		
				All Paths	Path 1	Path 2
Chi-Square						
Value	2.82	7.08	21.97	3.35	15.66	34.36
Degrees of Freedom	3	6	6	3	6	6
P-Value	0.42	0.31	0.00	0.34	0.02	0.00
RMSEA						
Estimate	0.00	0.03	0.11	0.02	0.09	0.15
90 Percent C.I. (Upper - Lower)						
Lower	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.03	0.10
Upper	0.11	0.10	0.16	0.12	0.14	0.20
Probability RMSEA \leq .05	0.63	0.62	0.02	0.56	0.11	0.00
CFI	1.00	0.99	0.86	1.00	0.93	0.80
TLI	1.01	0.97	0.68	0.99	0.84	0.52
SRMR	0.02	0.04	0.07	0.02	0.06	0.09

Table 9 – Path 1, Serial Mediation Analysis Results (Unstandardized Betas)

Path	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CIs	<i>P</i> -value	<i>R</i> ²
Outcome: Positive Distinctiveness					
Perspective-taking	.25	.13	.00; .5	.05	
Social Identity (control)	.31	.07	.17; .44	.00	
Model summary					.08
Outcome: Supervisor Familiarity					
Positive Distinctiveness	.13	.06	.02; .24	.02	
Perspective-taking	.22	.12	-.02; .46	.07	
Social Identity (control)	-.09	.06	-.21; .04	.17	
Model summary					.05
Outcome: Turnover Intent					
Supervisor Familiarity	-.66	.08	-.82; -.50	.00	
Perspective-taking	.05	.15	-.23; .34	.71	
Model summary					.22
	Effect	Boot SE	95% Boot CI		
Indirect effect of PT→PD→SF→TI	-.02	.02	-.063; -.003		

Note. *N* = 222. Reported regression coefficients are unstandardized. 95% Confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated based on 5,000 resamples.

Table 10 – Path 2, Serial Mediation Analysis Results (Unstandardized Betas)

Path	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CIs	<i>P-value</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Outcome: Social Recategorization					
Perspective-taking	-.03	.11	-.24; .34	.83	
Social Identity	-.20	.06	-.33; -.07	.00	
Model summary					.04
Outcome: Supervisor Familiarity					
Social Recategorization	.13	.07	.00; .28	.05	
Perspective-taking	.25	.12	.01; .47	.04	
Social Identity	-.04	.06	-.16; .09	.55	
Model summary					.04
Outcome: Turnover Intent					
Supervisor Familiarity	-.66	.08	-.81; -.50	.00	
Perspective-taking	.05	.15	-.24; .34	.71	
Model summary					.22
	Effect	Boot SE	95% Boot CI		
Indirect effect of PT→SR→SF→TI	.00	.01	-.015 .030		

Note. *N* = 222. Reported regression coefficients are unstandardized. 95% Confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated based on 5,000 resamples.

Table 11 – Post Hoc Analysis, Descriptive Statistics and Variable Inter-Correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Perspective-taking	2.87	.57	-								
2. Social Recategorization	2.59	.91	.03	-							
3. Positive Distinctiveness	3.56	1.14	.17*	.37**	-						
4. Supervisor Familiarity	3.95	.89	.16*	.14*	.17*	-					
5. Turnover Intent	3.10	1.24	-.05	-.15*	-.12	-.46**	-				
6. Race Identity Centrality	4.97	.91	.12	-.11	.22**	-.03	-.08	-			
7. Professional Identity	3.26	.64	.18**	.31**	.24**	.27**	-.48**	.01	-		
8. Age	26.5	5.97	.04	-.14*	-.12	-.01	-.11	-.06	.01	-	
9. Sex	NA	NA	-.19**	-.05	-.06	.00	.00	-.10	-.01	.06	-

Note. $N = 222$.

*Correlation is significant at $p \leq .05$

**Correlation is significant at $p \leq .01$

Table 12 – Post hoc Analysis, Path 1, Moderated-Mediation Analysis Results (Unstandardized)

Path	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CIs	<i>P-value</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Outcome: Positive Distinctiveness					
Perspective-taking	.26	.13	.06; .47	.04	
Social Identity	.31	.11	-.08; .28	.00	
Perspective-taking * Social Identity	.09	.07	.19; .43	.42	
Model summary					.09
Outcome: Supervisor Familiarity					
Positive Distinctiveness	.12	.05	.03; .21	.03	
Perspective-taking	.21	.12	.02; .41	.08	
Model summary					.05
Outcome: Turnover Intent					
Supervisor Familiarity	-.66	.08	-.79; -.53	.00	
Perspective-taking	.05	.15	-.19; .29	.71	
Model summary					.22
	Effect	Boot SE	95% Boot CI		
Indirect effect of PT→PD→SF→TI	-.02	.01	-.053; -.003		

Note. *N* = 222. Reported regression coefficients are unstandardized. 95% Confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated based on 5,000 resamples.

Table 13 – Post hoc Analysis, Path 2, Moderated-Mediation Analysis Results (Unstandardized)

Path	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CIs	<i>P-value</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Outcome: Social Recategorization					
Perspective-taking	-.10	.10	-.26; .06	.31	
Professional Identity	-.33	.10	.18;.49	.00	
Perspective-taking * Professional Identity	-.06	.14	-.26; .29	.68	
Model summary					.06
Outcome: Supervisor Familiarity					
Social Recategorization	.14	.07	.03; .25	.05	
Perspective-taking	.24	.12	.05; .43	.04	
Model summary					.04
Outcome: Turnover Intent					
Supervisor Familiarity	-.66	.08	-.79; -.53	.00	
Perspective-taking	.05	.15	-.19; .29	.71	
Model summary					.22
	Effect	Boot SE	95% Boot CI		
Indirect effect of PT→PD→SF→TI	.01	.01	-.002; .036		

Note. *N* = 222. Reported regression coefficients are unstandardized. 95% Confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated based on 5,000 resamples. **p* <.05, ***p* <.01, ****p* <.001 (2-tailed).

Table 14 – Sample Size Demographic Data

Sample Size Demographic Data Related to Self-reported Use of Social Identity-Based Impression Management Strategies

<u>Age</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>29</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>33</u>	<u>34</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>36</u>	<u>37</u>	<u>38</u>	<u>39</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>43</u>	<u>Total</u>
Males	6	2	11	10	7	11	3	8	5	4	4	4	6	1	0	1	1	0	4	2	1	1	0	92
Females	4	8	11	6	7	11	8	13	5	3	5	9	1	6	1	0	0	2	3	1	3	1	2	110
Total	10	10	22	16	14	22	11	21	10	7	9	13	7	7	1	1	1	2	7	3	4	2	2	202

	Age Group 22 – 29						Age Group 30 - 43					
	Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total	
Use SIM	58	87%	62	82%	120	84%	13	52%	31	91%	44	75%
Use PD	52	78%	51	67%	103	72%	12	48%	25	74%	37	63%
Use SR	6	9%	11	14%	17	12%	5	20%	6	18%	11	19%
No SIM Use	9	13%	14	18%	23	16%	8	32%	3	9%	11	19%
Total	67	47%	76	53%	143		25	42%	34	58%	59	

Appendix A – Research Study Description and Focus Group Invitation Card

RESEARCH STUDY RE: AFRICAN AMERICAN RETENTION IN PUBLIC ACCOUNTING

Researchers at Oklahoma State University are studying African American retention in public accounting. This study will begin on June 20, 2016 and consist of two parts. African American accountants working for nonminority owned public accounting firms and employed less than five years in public accounting are eligible to participate.

Part 1 – Participants will fill out a 20-minute online survey consisting of multiple-choice questions.

Part 2 – participants may voluntarily partake in a focus group discussion based on available seats. The first 20 volunteers will attend one of two focus groups to be held on:

- Thursday, June 24, 2016, in room 317, from 6:00 pm to 7:30 pm (light refreshments).
- Friday, June 25, 2016, in room 317, from 9:30 am to 11:00 am.

INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATION

\$75 visa gift card for the first 5 eligible Participants completing the survey and participating in the Thursday focus group.

\$75 visa gift card for the first 5 eligible Participants completing the survey and participating in the Friday focus group.

Ten \$225 visa gift cards will be raffled-off to the first 200 study Participants who complete the survey.

Appendix B – Focus Group Protocol

Opening Script - thank you for agreeing to participate in this focus group on black experiences in public accounting. I appreciate your participation in this voluntary and confidential discussion. Please note that this discussion will be recorded for research purposes, but I've put several measures in place to ensure your anonymity. First, none of you will be referred to by your actual names, which is why I've given you each nametags with monikers instead of your real names. Second, I ask that you avoid using the name of your place of employment. And third, my research protocol has been reviewed and approved by the Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board, which protects your rights and privacy as participants of this research. This discussion will be divided in four sections. First, you will answer some demographic questions using the iPads before you. This survey will help reduce the length of my session and also provide us some information about you as my participants. Second, I will ask several questions about your places of employment. Third, I will ask you about your experiences while working in your organizations.

- I. 5 minutes for demographic survey
- II. Background: Ok, now that you have answered the brief demographic questionnaire, I'll turn to my opening questions.
 - a. What is your title and position
 - b. Are you at a majority (white-dominated), balanced (mixed) or minority-dominated firm?
 - c. How are your relationships with others at work?
 - i. Colleagues, Bosses, Clients
- III. Experiences at firm: Now turning to your experiences at work...
 - a. Do you feel you can be yourself (your authentic self) at work?
 - i. What is your authentic self?
 - ii. How much of that self do you show at work?
 - b. When at work, do you see yourself more as an accountant or a person of color?
 - i. Do you feel that you stand out at your firm because of your race? Why?
 - ii. Do you sense that others hold stereotypes about you as a black accountant?
 1. Who holds them (colleagues, bosses, clients, others?)
 2. How do you feel or think about that?
 3. What do you do in response?
 - a. Some research suggests that there are common ways of responding when a part of your identity (here race) is negatively stereotyped. Some people may choose to distance themselves from their racial identity and instead focus on their identity as an accountant. Others may choose to try to dispel negative stereotypes about their race. Do you use either of these strategies? If so, which? If not, what do you do?
 - c. Can you tell us about any experiences when you felt discriminated against or treated differently than others because of your race while at work? What did you do? What did others do? How did you feel about it? Did you try to see it from the other person's perspective? Did that help?

Appendix C – Institutional Review Board Approval

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date: Friday, June 10, 2016
IRB Application No: BU1633
Proposal Title: African American retention in the public accounting profession

Reviewed and Processed as: Expedited

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 6/9/2017

Principal Investigator(s):
Ed Scott Cynthia Wang
219 Business Building
Stillwater, OK 74078 Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

- The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes to the title, PI advisor, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of the research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Dawnell Watkins 219 Scott Hall (phone: 405-744-5700, dawnell.watkins@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Hugh Crether, Chair
Institutional Review Board

Appendix D – Measurement Item Scales

Perspective-taking (Davis, 1980)

1. I believe that there are two sides to every question and I try to look at them both.
2. When I'm upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in his shoes" for a while.
3. I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision.
5. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the "other guy's" point of view. (Reverse scored)
6. Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place.
7. If I'm sure I'm right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments. (Reverse scored)
8. I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective.

Social Recategorization (Morgan, 2002)

1. Try to be seen as an individual, rather than as a member of a racial group.
2. Try to avoid discussing race and racial issues.
3. Try to emphasize the experiences of beliefs you have in common with your (non-Black) colleagues who are not a member of your race.
4. Try to communicate your knowledge of "mainstream" culture.
5. Try to avoid conducting yourself in ways that are considered typical of your race (Blacks).

Positive Distinctiveness (Morgan, 2002)

1. Try to represent your race (Black people) in a positive manner.
2. Try to communicate the inaccuracy of stereotypes about your race (Blacks).
3. Try to educate your (non-Black) colleagues who are not a member of your race about the accomplishments of (Black people) members of your race.
4. Try to share aspects of (Black culture) your race's culture with your colleagues who are not a member of your race.

5. Try to be seen as an advocate for my race (Blacks).

Supervisor Familiarity (Myers and Oetzel, 2003)

1. I feel like I know my supervisor pretty well.
2. My supervisor sometimes discusses problems with me.
3. My supervisor and I talk together often.

Professional Identity (Blau, G., 2003)

1. Professional accounting is important to my self-image
2. I am happy to have entered the accounting profession
3. I am proud to be in the field of professional accounting
4. I like being a professional accountant
5. I like being a professional accountant
6. I strongly identify with the accounting profession
7. I am enthusiastic about the accounting profession

Social Identity (Sellers, et al, 1997)

1. Overall, (being Black) my race has very little to do with how I feel about myself. (Reverse scored)
2. In general, (being Black) my race is an important part of my self-image.
3. My destiny is tied to the destiny of other (Black) people from my race.
4. My race (being Black) is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am. (Reverse scored)
5. I have a strong sense of belonging to my race (Black people).
6. I have a strong attachment to other people (Black people) from my race.
7. My race (Being Black) is an important reflection of who I am.
8. My race (Being Black) is not a major factor in my social relationships. (Reverse scored)

VITA

Edward E. Scott

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: REDUCING BLACKS' TURNOVER INTENT: THE EFFECT OF BLACKS' PERSPECTIVE-TAKING IN WHITE-DOMINATED WORKSPACES

Major Field: Business Administration

Biographical:

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in December, 2017.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Business Administration at Texas Christian University, Neeley School of Business, 2003

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Art in Accounting at Point Park University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Academic Experience:

Rowland School of Business, Point Park University, Pittsburgh, PA, George White Endowed Professor in Accounting, 2012 - Present

Benedictine College, Atchison, KS, Part-time Faculty, Spring-2011

Community College of Allegheny County, Part-time Faculty, 1992-1998

Papers Submitted for Conference Presentation:

Scott, E., Smith, A. N., & Wang, C. S. (2017). Inclusion Strategies: The Effect of Blacks' Perspective-Taking in White-Dominated Spaces. In Guclu Atinc (Ed.), **Proceedings of the Seventy-seventh Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management**. Online ISSN: 2151-6561. **Judged as one of the best accepted papers, Gender and Diversity in Organizations Division*

Scott, E., Does perspective-taking facilitate effective organizational assimilation among devalued social group members? International Conference on Engaged Management Scholarship, Paris, France, September 2016