

ENHANCING RETENTION OF WOMEN, MINORITIES, AND  
EMPLOYEES WITH DISABILITIES:  
AN ORGANIZATIONAL INCLUSION PERSPECTIVE

by

Rashmi Chordiya



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To all public servants across the world, all men, women, and children who strive for social justice,

and,

My Sheroes Rani Lakshmibai of Jhansi, Savitribai Phule, Wangari Maathai, Malala Yousafzai,

Ruth Bader Ginsburg (a.k.a. the Notorious RBG), and all brave women like them

who inspire me to be strong and brave.

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DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of  
The University of Texas at Dallas  
in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements  
for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN  
PUBLIC AFFAIRS

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT DALLAS

May 2018

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my immeasurable appreciation and deepest gratitude to my mentors, professors, friends, and family who have all contributed in countless ways in making this thesis possible. You all are wonderfully positive influences in my life.

I owe my deepest gratitude to my mentor and supervising professor, Dr. Meghna Sabharwal. The meaningful conversations we have shared and the lessons I learned from her diversity management course have helped me translate my passion and commitment to the values of social justice, diversity, and inclusion into a doctoral research study. Without her continuous optimism, enthusiasm, encouragement, patience, guidance, and support, this study would not have reached its potential. Her expertise in human resources management through the lens of social equity, diversity, and inclusion have helped me immensely throughout my dissertation research. It is thanks to her mentoring- which she does with the utmost warmth, care, and kindness for her students- that I have been introduced to wonderful opportunities in the field of public administration.

I am deeply grateful to all my committee members for their most valued feedback on my work. Their guidance and support helped me answer some of the more difficult and philosophical questions that surround diversity and inclusion. I extend my sincerest thanks to Dr. Doug Goodman for advising me on identifying suitable research methods for this dissertation study and for his support in my pursuits throughout my doctoral education. I also thank Dr. Doug Kiel for challenging me to think critically. His prized insights have helped me immensely in improving the quality of my research. I am grateful for his mentorship throughout these

important years in my career. I also wish to thank Dr. Paul Battaglio for his support and advice, which has continuously pushed me to excel and improve the quality of my research. Finally, I extend my deepest thanks to Dr. Donald Kettl for his profoundly valued mentorship in my pursuits as an emerging scholar and a young professional in the field of public administration. I feel immeasurably grateful for his esteemed advice throughout my doctoral career.

I also wish to wholeheartedly extend my thanks to Dr. James Harrington, for his kindness and valuable guidance on research methods for my studies, to Dr. Donald Arbuckle, for his precious inputs at the beginning of my doctoral studies, and to Dr. Sarah Maxwell, for her optimism and encouragement. Thank you to all my professors at the department of Public and Nonprofit Management and the School of Economics, Political, and Policy Sciences. You all have enriched my learning experience in so many ways. I also thank my friend and colleague, Ariel Arguelles, for helping with the editing of this manuscript during the final stages of submission. I also owe thanks to Ms. Katie Doctor for her impeccable administrative support.

I give my deepest gratitude towards my mother Kalpana Chordiya and my father Vijay Chordiya. I cannot ever thank them enough for their innumerable sacrifices, hard work, patience, kindness, optimism, and support. They taught me to never give up and to keep on going. Without their lifetime of support and encouragement, this doctoral journey would never have been possible. I also give thanks to my dearest husband, best friend, and cheerleader, Sahil Pujani, not only for encouraging me to pursue doctoral studies, but for also being my greatest strength and support in every step of this journey. His warmth and positivity make all the difference in the world. I express my sincerest thanks to my mother and father-in-law, Shehnaz Pujani and Shammi Pujani, for being two of my biggest supporters and for all their love and kindness.

I owe a debt of gratitude to my late grandfather Zumberlal Chordiya, who inspired me to chase my dreams and to work hard towards them. I also extend my thanks to my family who has been truly supportive through all these years: my grandmother Basanti Chordiya, uncles Pravin Chordiya, Ashok Chordiya, Kishor Chordiya, aunt Sushila Chordiya. I also thank my sisters Shradha, Kalyani, Sana, Anisha, and Shabnam and my brothers, Hrishikesh and Bhumik, for making life more fun and for making all the experiences the past four years' worth cherishing. Thank you to my best friend Devank Purohit, for believing in me and for always being around.

I am also deeply thankful to all who have supported me in the pursuit of my doctoral studies: my uncle Sameer Baldota, my mentor Dr. Venkatesh Kumar, my professor, the late Dr. Sharit Bhowmik, and to my friends and colleagues, Dr. Ananya Samajdar, Dr. Indira Gartenberg, Heather McKay, and Ulrich Meinecke.

March 2018

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Enhancing organizational diversity and inclusion has received increasing attention from scholars and practitioners. Research suggests that diversity and inclusion positively affects organizational outcomes such as higher employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to stay, higher innovation and performance, and expansion of outreach to diverse client base or customer groups. Significant progress has occurred through legislative and structural reforms to promote diversity and inclusion, yet organizations have a long way to go in bringing a cultural change that genuinely values diversity and enables inclusion for all. This dissertation is motivated to advance research that helps and guides modern organizations in achieving cultural change for higher diversity and inclusion. It aims to contribute to the theory and practice of diversity and inclusion in public organizations by taking a nuanced approach to enhancing retention of groups that are more likely to experience organizational biases based on their social identities. More specifically, this dissertation focuses on the retention of female employees,

racial and ethnic minorities, and employees identifying as people with disabilities, through organizational inclusion.

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# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

Enhancing organizational diversity and inclusion have received increasing attention from scholars and practitioners (Shore et al. 2011; Scanlon et al. 2018; Theus 2018). Research suggests that diversity and inclusion positively affects organizational outcomes such as higher employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to stay, higher innovation and performance, and expansion of outreach to diverse client bases or customer groups (Ferdman et al. 2009; Meier, O’Toole, and Goerdel 2006; Pitts 2009; Shore et al, 2011; Vohra et al. 2015). Therefore, it is not surprising that diversity management was identified as a leading trend in strategic recruitment across the globe (Scanlon et al. 2018; Theus 2018).

Noteworthy progress has occurred through legislative and structural reforms to promote diversity and inclusion, yet organizations have a long way to go in creating a cultural change that genuinely values diversity and enables inclusion for all (Choi 2011a; Cobert 2016; Mor Barak 1999; Riccucci 2002). This dissertation is motivated to advance research that helps and guides modern organizations in achieving cultural change for higher diversity and inclusion. It aims to contribute to the theory and practice of diversity and inclusion in public organizations by taking a nuanced approach to enhancing retention of groups that are more likely to experience organizational biases based on their social identities. More specifically, this dissertation focuses on the retention of female employees, racial and ethnic minorities, and employees identifying as people with disabilities (Cheung et al. 2016; Eagly and Karau 2002; Schur et al. 2017).

The retention of diverse employees is viewed as an important means of not only achieving higher organizational efficiency and lower organizational costs related to employee turnover, but also, a means of increasing organizational diversity and the career success of diverse employees (Cohen, Blake, and Goodman 2016; Sabharwal 2015; Sabharwal, Levine, and D' Agostino 2016; Tett and Meyer 1993). This dissertation constitutes three research studies focused on diversity and inclusion from the perspective of gender, race, and disabilities. All three studies use the federal employees' viewpoint survey (FEVS) data for panel time series analysis.

The first study is entitled "Are Federal Child Care Programs Sufficient for Employee Retention? Critical Examination from A Gendered Perspective". As the title suggests, this study focuses on the implications of child care programs on the retention of federal employees, from a gendered perspective. Work-life balance or family-friendly programs are critical management tools used by the U.S. federal government to meaningfully support ongoing efforts in developing and sustaining an excellent and engaged workforce (Cobert 2016; Ezra and Deckman 1996). Child care programs are important components of family-friendly initiatives and are designed to achieve high priority organizational goals such as increased employee productivity, high employee satisfaction and organizational commitment, reduced absenteeism, and increased employee retention, particularly for female employees with childcare responsibilities (Caillier 2012, 2013, 2016; Feeney and Stritch 2017; Kim and Wiggins 2011; Lee and Hong 2011; Lewis and Taylor, 1996; Park et al. 2017; Roberts et al. 2004).

However, past research shows significant gender differentials in the use of family-friendly programs (including child care programs) with the rates of use being higher among

working mothers than working fathers. Although the use of family-friendly programs led to higher job satisfaction among both male and female employees, female employees with childcare responsibilities expressed lower satisfaction with their work-life balance (Ezra and Deckman 1996). Childcare responsibilities continue to be a crucial factor influencing the withdrawal of women from the paid labor force (Bae and Goodman 2014; Barth, Kerr, and Olivetti 2017; Ezra and Deckman 1996; Goldin et al. 2017; Konrad 2006; Miller 2017; Sicherman 1996; Women's Bureau n.d.). Therefore, it is important to investigate if and how the provision of satisfactory child care programs impacts the retention of male and female employees. This study aims to fill this gap in existing literature.

Feminist theories such as Eagly's (1987) social role theory of sex differences and Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruity theory of prejudice towards female employees are applied to argue that public human resource management strategies such as child care programs will have a differential impact on the retention of employees based on their gender. Based on Brewer's (1991) optimal distinctiveness theory, this study examines the moderating role of organizational inclusion in strengthening the impact of child care programs on enhancing employee retention (Shore et al. 2011). Findings of this study indicate that structural provisions such as satisfactory child care programs are less likely to increase retention of female employees than male employees. However, when compared to male employees, female employees showed higher retention when satisfactory child care programs were combined with inclusive organizational practices. Implications of these findings for public strategic human resources management, diversity management, and inclusion practices, and gender equity are discussed in Chapter 2.

The second paper is titled “Organizational Inclusion and Retention of Employees with Disabilities”. People with disabilities have experienced a long history of prejudice and disenfranchisement. Negative attitudes and stigmas related to disability continue to act as barriers to their employment and career success (Baldwin and Johnson 1995; Bruyere 2000; Levitan and Taggart 1977; Lewis and Allee 1992; Mithaug 1979; Schechter 1977; Schur et al. 2017).

In this context, it is important to note that issues related to disability are under-researched in public administration. In their content analysis of 75 years of published diversity research in seven major public administration journals, Sabharwal, Levine, and D’ Agostino (2016) found that in comparing 218 published articles focused on issues of race and ethnicity and 193 published articles focused on gender-related topics, only 25 articles addressing issues of disability were published since 1940. This study aims to advance the literature on diversity and inclusion by empirically examining the retention issues of employees with disabilities and factors that can improve their retention.

Existing research in public administration, general management, economics, and policy studies have broadened our understanding of the barriers to genuine inclusion for persons with disabilities in mainstream employment. Individuals with disabilities experience negative attitudes from employers and coworkers (Fine and Asch 1988; Kaye, Jans, and Jones 2011; Yuker 1988). They may also face invisible and visible forms of workplace discrimination, such as structural, cultural, and attitudinal barriers to employment and career success, even when they are qualified and productive (e.g., Baldwin and Johnson 1995; Domzal, Houtenville, and Sharma 2008; Fine

and Asch 1988; Lewis and Allee 1992; Schur et al. 2017; Slack 1995; Yelin and Trupin 2003).

Existing research has made valuable contributions to the pursuit of constructive dialogue in achieving civil rights equality, equity, and the inclusion of all persons irrespective of differences in their abilities and their ways of approaching and performing job functions. Yet, the attitudes of persons with disabilities about continued employment with their current organizations and organizational strategies to enhance the likelihood of their retention is still an understudied area of investigation (e.g., Schur et al. 2017).

Therefore, the present study aims to fill this gap in the literature by examining the turnover intentions of federal employees with disabilities as compared to those without disabilities. Based on discrimination theories, it is argued that employees with disabilities will exhibit higher turnover intentions as compared to non-disabled employees (Schur et al. 2017). Based on optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer 1991), this study proposes that inclusive organizational practices (i.e., organizational fairness or justice, empowerment, openness, supportiveness, and cooperativeness) will be effective in lowering the turnover intentions of employees with and without disabilities (Sabharwal 2014; Shore et al. 2011; The United States Office of Personnel Management n.d.).

Findings from this study indicate that employees with disabilities exhibit lower organizational inclusion (i.e., organizational fairness, openness, supportiveness, cooperativeness, and empowerment), and higher turnover intentions. As expected, disability status significantly increased the odds of employee turnover intentions. However, the organizational fairness or justice components of organizational inclusion play a key role in mitigating the negative effects

of disability on turnover intentions. The implications of these findings in the broader context of the movement for disability inclusion are discussed in Chapter 3.

The third and final paper of this dissertation is entitled “Racial Differences in Federal Employees’ Turnover Intentions: Is Perceived Organizational Support and Organization Justice the Key?”. Though the federal government has played a leading role through legislative and structural interventions for promoting diversity and inclusion of racial and ethnic minorities in the workforce (e.g., Anestaki et. al 2016; Choi 2011a; Cobert 2016; Hellriegel and Short 1972; Riccucci 2009), minorities continue to be underrepresented in the federal government and are mostly concentrated in lower grades and occupational levels, having lower pay and less prestigious jobs (e.g., Anestaki et. al 2016; Choi 2011a; Gibson and Yeager 1975; Hsieh and Winslow 2006; Lewis 1988; Riccucci 2009; Rose and Chia 1978).

While there is stark evidence to suggest underrepresentation of minorities in the federal government and particularly in higher grades and in leadership positions (e.g., Choi 2011a; Riccucci 2009), there is also substantial evidence to indicate that a racially diverse workforce makes significant value additions to organizational goals and outcomes (Mann 1974; Main, Bowman, and Peters 1972; Mizio 1972; Kranz 1974; Thompson 1976). Some of the positive outcomes related to a racially diverse workforce include higher job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and retention. Increasing the diversity and inclusion of racial minorities also has a positive impact on expansion of outreach to diverse client base or customer groups, organizational innovation, performance, financial return, and economic success (Ely and Thomas 2001; Ferdman et al. 2009; Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012; Hunt, Layton, and Prince 2015; Ng

and Burke 2005; Pitts 2009; Scanlon et al. 2018; Shore et al 2011; Theus 2018; Thomas and Ely 1996; Vohra et al. 2015). Thus, enhancing diversity and inclusion of racial and ethnic minorities is crucial for workplaces that aspire to fulfill rights of their employees and desire to leverage strategic advantages stemming from diversity (Scanlon et al. 2018; Theus 2018). Achieving such organizational goal implies not only the recruitment of employees from diverse racial and ethnic groups, but also the improvement of their retention (Tapia and Kvasny 2004).

This study approaches increasing retention of minorities in the federal government from perceived organizational support and organizational justice perspectives. It examines the racial differences in turnover intentions of federal employees. Based on the existing literature on the implications of traditional (i.e., formal and overt) and modern (i.e., subtle and interpersonal) forms of racial discrimination on work-related outcomes (e.g., Cheung et al. 2016; Jones et al. 2016), it is argued that turnover intentions will be higher among minorities than non-minorities.

Using perceived organizational support theory, it is proposed that diversity management and career development opportunities will have a negative moderating effect on minority turnover intentions (Choi 2009; Choi and Rainey 2010; Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012). Based on justice theories, it also proposed that organizational practices promoting distributive and procedural justice will be effective in lowering minority turnover intentions (Cho and Sai 2013; Choi 2011b). Overall, findings highlight the existence of racial differences in turnover intentions of federal employees and the importance of diversity management strategies, distributive, and procedural justice practices in lowering the turnover intentions of minorities.

In summary, using a three-study approach, this dissertation aims to contribute to the continuing dialogue on diversity and inclusion of employees who may experience organizational biases due to their gender, racial-ethnic identities, or disabilities. The rest of the dissertation is organized as follows. The three individual research studies are documented separately in Chapters 2, 3, and 4, respectively. Chapter 5 discusses the contributions and implications of this dissertation research for both the theory and practice of public administration.

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**CHAPTER 2**

**ARE FEDERAL CHILD CARE PROGRAMS SUFFICIENT FOR EMPLOYEE  
RETENTION? CRITICAL EXAMINATION FROM A GENDERED PERSPECTIVE**

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## **I. ABSTRACT**

The federal government utilizes diversity management and inclusive organizational practices as principal strategies to achieve higher retention of diverse employees. Child care programs are one of the most important diversity management initiatives to enhance employees' work-life balance and achieve higher retention. However, existing literature suggests that due to gender norms, child care responsibilities and child care programs have different implications for working mothers as compared to working fathers. Using 2010-2015 federal agency level longitudinal panel analysis, this study, therefore, focuses on a gender-based examination of the effect of satisfaction with child care programs on the retention of male and female federal employees. Also examined is the moderating effect of organizational inclusion on the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and employee retention. Findings suggest that structural provisions such as satisfactory child care programs are not adequate in enhancing retention of either male or female employees. Satisfaction with child care programs is less likely to increase retention of female employees than male employees. However, as compared to male employees, female employees more likely to be retained when satisfactory child care programs are combined with inclusive organizational practices. The article discusses implications of these findings for public strategic human resources management, diversity management and inclusion practices, and gender equity.

## II. INTRODUCTION

The United States Office of Personnel Management recognizes work-life balance (henceforth, WLB) or family-friendly programs as critical management tools to meaningfully support ongoing efforts in developing and sustaining an excellent and engaged workforce. These programs help the U.S. Federal government to maintain its “model employer” status for individuals to build their careers and to enjoy enriched lives outside the workplace (Cobert 2016; Ezra and Deckman 1996). Family-friendly initiatives include child care programs and are designed to achieve high priority organizational goals such as increased employee productivity, high employee satisfaction and organizational commitment, reduced absenteeism, and increased employee retention, particularly, of female employees with childcare responsibilities (Caillier 2013, 2016; Feeney and Stritch 2017; Kim and Wiggins 2011; Lee and Hong 2011; Lewis and Taylor 1996; Roberts et al. 2004)

However, past research shows that as compared to working fathers, the utilization of family-friendly programs (including child care programs) was higher among working mothers. And, although utilization of family-friendly programs led to higher job satisfaction among both male and female employees; female employees, particularly those with childcare responsibilities expressed lower satisfaction with their work-life balance (Ezra and Deckman 1996). Childcare responsibilities persist to be a key factor associated with withdrawal of women from the paid labor force (Bae and Goodman 2014; Barth, Kerr, and Olivetti 2017; Ezra and Deckman 1996; Goldin et al. 2017; Konrad 2006; Miller 2017; Sicherman 1996; Women’s Bureau n.d.).

As child care responsibilities have different implications for working women as compared to working men, it is important to investigate whether the provision of satisfactory child care programs has a differential impact on retention of male and female employees. Feminist theories such as Eagly's (1987) social role theory of sex differences and Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruity theory of prejudice towards female employees are applied to argue that public human resource management strategies such as child care programs will have a differential impact on retention of employees based on their gender. This study also examines the moderating role of organizational inclusion in strengthening the impact of child care programs on enhancing employee retention.

Thus, the present study aims to discuss two specific research questions: 1) How does satisfaction with federal child care programs affect retention of female employees as compared to male employees? 2) To what extent do inclusive organizational practices moderate the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and employee retention? The study uses the federal employees' viewpoint survey (FEVS) data from 2010-2015 for an agency level longitudinal panel analysis.

### **III. THEORY AND HYPOTHESIS**

#### **Child Care Programs and Retention of Male Employees: A Social Exchange Perspective**

The lack of quality child care arrangements is a major source of stress for working parents (particularly, for lower-income families) who may find it difficult to effectively fulfill the demands of dependent care at home and high-performance expectations at work (Becerra et al. 2002; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management n.d.). Therefore, many federal agencies provide child care support services to employees including on-site child care, resource and referral services, and a child care subsidy program. Federal agencies have discretionary power to use appropriated funds to help lower-income employees with costs of childcare. The Child Care Subsidy Program applies to employees whose children are under the age of 13, are disabled and under the age of 18, or are enrolled, or will be enrolled, in licensed family child care homes or center-based child care (Feeney & Stritch 2017; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management n.d.).

These child care programs are important constituents of work-life balance initiatives (Caillier 2016; Cobert 2016; Feeney and Stritch 2017; Lee and Hong 2011). Long-term objectives of work-life initiatives focus on broader organizational culture change to create an inclusive environment. These are motivated by altruistic values such as improved quality of life, employee justice, child welfare, employee well-being, and gender equity (Lewis 1996; Lewis and Taylor 1996; Roberts et al. 2004). However, in the short-term and from a utilitarian perspective, the objectives of work-life or family-friendly initiatives such as child care programs

include reduction of absenteeism and increased employee retention, particularly for female employees with childcare responsibilities (Lewis and Taylor 1996; Roberts et al. 2004).

Several studies have examined the impact of WLB initiatives including child care programs on achieving organizational outcomes such as attracting high quality employees, increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, higher productivity, performance, and reduced turnover (Bae and Goodman 2014; Bae and Yang 2017; Caillier 2013, 2016; Durst 1999; Ezra and Deckman 1996; Feeney and Stritch 2017; Lee and Hong 2011). Findings of these studies indicate that child care programs have a positive impact on perceived organizational productivity (Bae and Goodman, 2014; Durst 1999; Ezra and Deckman 1996; Lee and Hong 2011) as well as in reducing employee turnover (Caillier 2016; Lee and Hong 2011).

Scholars have claimed that social exchange theory provides conventional wisdom and the theoretical foundation to examine the effect of organizational support through child care programs on employee retention (Caillier 2016; Ko and Hur 2014; Lee and Hong 2011). Blau's (1964) social exchange theory has been widely applied to explain the motivational sources of employee behaviors and positive work attitudes formed due to reciprocal exchanges between employees and their organizations and immediate supervisors (Caillier 2016; Eisenberger et al. 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Gould-Williams and Davies 2005; Graen and Scandura 1987; Ko and Hur 2014; Lee and Hong 2011; Settoon, Bennett, and Liden 1996; Wayne, Shore, and Liden 1997). The existence of a reciprocal relationship between an organization and its employees is at the foundation of the social exchange theory. If employees perceive that their organization cares for them and benefits from positive actions directed towards them, a high-quality exchange

relationship is likely to be established. This in turn leads to employees' reciprocation through positive work behaviors and attitudes towards the organization (Caillier 2016; Gould-Williams and Davies 2005; Ko and Hur 2014; Lee and Hong 2011; Settoon et al. 1996).

Employees tend to anthropomorphize (i.e., personify) their organizations. More specifically, they view the actions taken by the agents of the organization as actions of the organization itself and engage in reciprocal exchange relationships with the organization (Levinson 1965; Eisenberger et al. 1986). Perceived organizational support can lead to the development of employee's global beliefs about the extent to which personified organization values their contributions and care about their well-being (Eisenberger et al. 1986).

Based on social exchange theory, it can be argued that child care programs to balance work and life responsibilities are a form of organizational support to the employees. It can be expected that employees utilizing these services will have a stronger exchange relationship with the organizations and will be more likely to be retained. Consistent with past research (Caillier 2016; Gullekson et al. 2014; Lee and Hong 2011), it is therefore expected that satisfaction with child care programs will have a positive effect on the retention of male employees.

*Hypothesis 1: Satisfaction with child care programs will have a positive relationship with the retention of male employees.*

## **Child Care Programs and Challenges for Retention of Female Employees: A Feminist Perspective**

While social exchange theory is applied to explain the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and retention of male employees, it may not be adequate enough to explain the retention decisions/behaviors of female employees. Scholars have highlighted that family and employment are gendered contexts (Guy 2017; Mastracci 2013; Sabattini and Crosby 2009). Despite their employment status and financial contributions, working women are still found to share a greater responsibility for housework and childcare than men (Mastracci 2013; Sabattini and Crosby 2009). Managing the demands of work and family, especially child care responsibilities, have different implications for women than men (Sabattini and Crosby 2009).

Eagly's (1987) social role theory of sex differences and Eagly and Karau' (2002) role congruity theory of prejudice towards female employees highlights the existence of societal prejudices against women who strongly pursue their careers as well as barriers posed by gender role stereotypes- including women's role in handling family responsibilities (Burgess and Borgida 1999; Eagly 1987; Eagly and Karau 2002; Fiske and Stevens 1993; Gill 2004; Prentice and Carranza 2002; Rudman and Phelan 2008; Sabharwal 2015). Gender stereotypes not only define desirable traits, behaviors, and roles for men and women, they also have descriptive and prescriptive components (Burgess and Borgida 1999; Fiske and Stevens 1993; Rudman and Phelan 2008). While the descriptive components represent typical perceptions about men and women, the prescriptive components reflect stereotypes about how men and women 'should be'

and even, 'should not be' (Burgess and Borgida 1999; Eagly and Karau 2002; Fiske and Stevens 1993; Gill 2004; Prentice and Carranza 2002; Rudman and Phelan 2008).

Research indicates that although descriptive gender stereotypes based on gender role perceptions are losing their hold due to a larger participation of women in the workforce and leadership positions, prescriptive gender stereotypes continue to persist in societies and organizations (Gill 2004; Prentice and Carranza 2002; Rudman and Phelan 2008). Gender prescriptions or desirable masculine traits such as being aggressive, ambitious, assertive, competitive, dominant, forceful and feminine traits such as being affectionate, cheerful, childlike, shy, soft-spoken, yielding, sensitive to needs of others, gentle, loves children as measured by Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) in the 1970s, continue to be ranked as highly desirable for men and women respectively, even almost 30 years later (Prentice and Carranza 2002; Rudman and Phelan 2008).

Another study found that the descriptive stereotypical traits associated with competence such as intelligent, rational, and worldly were regarded to be equally typical for men and women. However, they were considered as less desirable for women than men. Similarly, traits that are typically desired for leadership such as self-reliance, competitive, strong, forceful, assertive, and persuasive personality were considered less typical and less desirable for women (Prentice and Carranza 2002; Rudman and Phelan 2008).

Barriers posed by gender-role stereotypes affect both women and men. However, feminine stereotypes are found to be more problematic for women in the workplace. Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruity theory of prejudice towards female leaders extends Eagly's (1987)

social role theory of sex differences and informs our understanding of the conflict between expectations from leaders and gender role stereotypes. While socially prescribed gender roles for men coincide with the expectations from organizational leaders, gender role prescriptions for women do not. There is abundant evidence indicating that disconformity with gender role expectations often puts women at the risk of social and economic reprisals (Fiske and Stevans 1993; Heilman et al. 2004; Rudman and Glick 2001; Rudman and Phelan 2008).

One of the strongly prevalent gender role stereotypes is the expectation from men to compete in the workplace and for women to perform ‘wifely and maternal duties’ which has a significant impact on gender socialization and gender role confirming behaviors (Eagly 1987; Eagly and Wood 1988; Rudman and Phelan 2008, 63). Therefore, it is expected that structural provisions such as satisfactory child care programs by themselves may not be effective in producing higher retention of female employees.

*Hypothesis 2a: Satisfaction with child care programs will have a negative relationship with the retention of female employees.*

Based on hypotheses 1 and 2a, it follows that the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and retention will be weaker (i.e., the effect size will be smaller) for female employees than male employees.

*Hypothesis 2b: As compared to their male counterparts, satisfaction with child care programs will have a weaker relationship with the retention of female employees.*

## **Child Care Programs and Retention of Male and Female Employees: Moderating Effect of Organizational Inclusion**

In the preceding discussion, it is argued that structural interventions such as satisfactory child care programs will positively affect the retention of male employees, but may not be adequate enough to enhance the retention of female employees. Scholarship on workplace diversity emphasizes the vital role of organizational inclusion for the success of diversity initiatives (Broadnax 2010; Miller 1998; Riccucci 2002; Sabharwal 2014). Several studies have established that diversity and inclusion has a positive impact on organizational outcomes such as improved innovation, performances, expansion of outreach to diverse client base or customer groups as well as higher employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to stay (Ferdman et al. 2009; Meier, O'Toole, and Goerdel 2006; Pitts 2009; Shore et al 2011; Vohra et al. 2015). Therefore, it is argued that when structural interventions such as satisfactory child care programs interact with inclusive organizational practices, the retention of both male and female employees will increase.

Diversity management through structural changes such as the provision of child care programs is the first step towards creating inclusive environments. However, inclusion extends beyond diversity management to create an organizational environment where individual differences are not only represented in organizational demographics but are truly valued (Sabharwal 2014). Diversity is defined as the “make-up of a group” (Miller 1998, 151) and organizational inclusion is “the degree to which individuals feel part of critical organizational processes”. Organizational inclusion is further defined as being represented by involvement in

the workgroup, access to information and resources, and participation in decision making (Mor Barak and Cherin, 1998, 48).

This understanding of organizational inclusion is guided by the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978, 2010) and the optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer 1991) (Nair and Vohra 2015; Sabharwal 2014; Shore et al. 2011). Tajfel's (1978, 2010). Social identity theory suggests that individuals become attached to one another through a common social group connection and in turn produce a feeling of social identification. This feeling of belonging acts as a source of an individual's social identity and as a source of self-esteem (Tajfel 1978, 2010; Sabharwal 2014). Employees' feeling of belonging at a workplace often lies on the inclusion-exclusion continuum wherein individuals feel involved in the formal and informal processes of organizational decision making (Mor Barak 2013) thus influencing their intention to stay (Nair and Vohra 2015, 17).

In addition to the social element, identity comprises of a personal element based on individual's definition of oneself (Brewer and Gardner 1996). Brewer (1991) proposed the optimal distinctiveness theory which argues that individuals seek to balance the two countervailing needs for validation and likeness to their social groups (i.e., social identity) and the need for uniqueness (i.e., individuation) through an optimal level of inclusion in groups to which they belong. Research indicates that both needs of belongingness and uniqueness are important. However, the salience of one or the other may vary depending on the context of an individual's situation (Correll and Park 2005; Pickett and Brewer 2001; Shore et al. 2011).

Thus, organizational inclusion enables an environment that cultivates feelings of safety, value, and complete engagement among diverse employees. Employees are encouraged to bring

their whole selves to the workplace and are recognized, honored, and appreciated for the complete extent of their social identities (Ferdman et al. 2010). Past research focused on career implications of child care responsibilities and structural interventions such as child care programs to enable full involvement of employees with childcare responsibilities, This indicates that working women tend to bear disproportionate responsibilities for child care which has consequences for their careers and even participation in the paid labor force (Mastracci 2011; Konrad 2006; Women's Bureau n.d.). Significant barriers to effective utilization of child care programs are represented by gender differences in the usage of these structural benefits. Studies have shown that as compared to women, the usage of child care and family and medical leave benefits remains modest among men even when they are made available by the law (Haas and Hwang 1995; Kaufman 2013; Lewis 1996; Seward et al. 2006).

Many of these reflect cultural challenges in achieving the goals of gender equality and equity in the workplace. Feminist scholars have argued that the revolution in “gender egalitarianism” has been asymmetrical and stalled (England 2010, 149). Though a significant proportion of women have moved into traditionally paid ‘male’ or ‘public’ spheres, fewer men have entered traditionally unpaid ‘female’ or ‘private’ spheres of work (England 2010; Hochschild 1997; Kaufman 2013; Mirchandani 1999, 88). Scholars have shown that the lopsided development of the change in gender roles is influenced by society’s disparate value of public or male roles (e.g., government and war) and private or female roles (e.g., homemaking and childrearing). In other words, traditionally masculine or public work is valued while feminine or private work is devalued (England 2010; Kaufman 2013).

Another crucial factor is the belief in gender essentialism, which views men and women as fundamentally different in interests and skills (Charles and Bradley 2009; England 2010; Kaufman 2013; Mirchandani 1999). These gender-essentialist stereotypes are found to be consistent across space and time. Women are perceived to be naturally better at nurturance and interpersonal relations while men are considered stronger and more analytical. These gender-essentialist stereotypes are deeply entrenched and institutionalized leading to sex-segregated educational fields and labor markets resulting in further reinforcement of gender stereotypes of men being stronger and analytical and females being more suited for personal interaction and naturally nurturing (Charles and Bradley 2009).

In addition to pervasive gender-stereotypes about male and female roles, lack of structural and cultural reforms can lead to gendered child care programs, therefore creating an access and usage inequity. Despite progressive changes in the values of couples with respect to sharing childcare responsibilities<sup>1</sup>, there are inadequate structural and cultural changes to enable equitable access to child care programs to create work-family conflict situations for women and men (Kaufman 2013). As noted above, the utilization of child care and family and medical leave benefits is lower among men than women (Haas and Hwang 1995; Kaufman 2013; Lewis 1996; Seward et al. 2006). The negative consequences of access and usage inequity manifest in the

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<sup>1</sup> Research indicated that sharing the caregiving responsibilities was ranked at number 11 out of 15 values of newly married couples in 1980s. And, by late 1990s, it was ranked at number 2 (Kaufman 2013).

form of dual burden of work for women and work-family conflict for both women and men (Kaufman 2013; Mastracci 2011).

An equity approach to work-life balance stresses the need for wider organizational cultural change to reap full benefits of child care program initiatives. Structural changes without addressing the need for cultural change to reflect the evolving nature of gender roles may have implications for organizational outcomes including lower retention of human resources, particularly for females. As noted earlier, child care responsibilities continue to be an important factor leading to withdrawal of women from paid workforce (Barth, Kerr, and Olivetti 2017; Bae and Goodman 2014; Ezra and Deckman 1996; Goldin et al. 2017; Konrad 2006; Miller 2017; Sicherman 1996; Women's Bureau n.d.).

Given the ongoing efforts to bridge disparities in career success and leadership representation of diverse groups, diversity and inclusion scholars have emphasized the significance of inclusive organizational environments as a means for both individual and organizational learning and success (Chrobot-Mason and Thomas 2002; Shore et al. 2011). Consistent with existing literature, this study utilizes Brewer's (1991) optimal distinctiveness theory (ODT) to argue that organizational inclusion as represented by fairness, openness to diversity, empowerment, supportiveness, and cooperativeness is expected to optimally satisfy needs of belongingness and uniqueness for both male and female employees with childcare responsibilities (Detert and Burris 2007; Daya 2014; Nair and Vohra 2015; Nembhard and Edmondson 2006; Sabharwal 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015; Vohra et al. 2015).

Employees working in an inclusive climate characterized by fairness or justice perceive that the organization values their contributions equally (Hayes, Bartle, and Major 2002; Shore et al. 2011; Sabharwal 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015). Openness to diversity refers to management's comprehensive approach through leadership behaviors, policies, procedures, and structures to promote diversity in the workplace. In an open environment, employees of different backgrounds feel safe and open about their identities, to express their opinions, and communicate freely with other group members (Choi 2009; Ferdman et al. 2009; Ferdman et al. 2010; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015). An empowering environment is where employees receive support to perform and excel in their job, have access to important information and resources, and are able to influence work processes (Mor Barak and Cherin 1998; Pelled, Ledford, and Mohrman 1999; Daya 2014; Sabharwal 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015).

Organizational inclusion characterized by supportiveness ensures that supervisors support and value employees. Supportive management is reflected in interpersonal relations between supervisors and subordinates based on feeling of being valued, respect, acceptance, care, and recognition of employee's ideas and contributions (Nembhard and Edmondson 2006; Detert and Burris 2007; Ferdman et al. 2010; Daya 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015; Randel et al. 2016). Cooperativeness is concerned with encouraging communication and collaboration across work units to achieve work objectives (Ferdman et al. 2010; Daya 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015).

Based on existing literature, it is therefore expected that organizational inclusion characterized by fairness, openness to diversity, support, cooperation, and empowerment will help increase the retention of both male and female employees by strengthening the impact of federal child care programs.

*Hypothesis 3a: Organizational inclusion will positively moderate the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and retention of female employees such that the relationship will be stronger when organizational inclusion is higher.*

*Hypothesis 3b: Organizational inclusion will positively moderate the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and retention of male employees such that the relationship will be stronger when organizational inclusion is higher.*

## IV. DATA AND METHODS

This study utilizes the Federal Employees Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) data from 2010-2015 for an agency level longitudinal panel analysis. The regression models used in this study include multiplicative interaction terms. Studies examining the differential impact of interactive effects on males and females frequently employ the strategy of testing the difference between two regression coefficients across independent samples (Paternoster et al. 1998). Therefore, to improve the accuracy of inferences, individual level FEVS data were separated to create independent samples of male and female federal employees.

Similar to past research using longitudinal panel approach for analyzing FEVS data (Fernandez et al. 2015; Oberfield 2014), this study aggregated (i.e., averaged) the individual level data to agency-level data. The data comprised of year-wise agency-specific mean values for study variables. To create a strongly balanced panel dataset for longitudinal analysis, only those agencies were retained that had data for all six years (i.e., from 2010 to 2015). Thus, the final datasets for independent samples of male and female employees were strongly balanced and each comprised of 26 agencies across six years (n=156). Regression models with agency fixed effects were tested separately for males and female employees (Paternoster et al. 1998).

### **Measurements**

#### ***Outcome Variable: Employee Retention***

One of the key objectives of the organizations in utilizing family-friendly initiatives such as child care programs is to enhance employee retention (Caillier 2016; Ko and Hur 2014; Lee and Hong

2011; Lewis and Taylor 1996; Roberts et al. 2004). This study focuses on the impact of satisfactory child care programs and inclusive organizational practices in achieving higher employee retention. A multiple-item scale of employee retention was adopted from 2015 Office of Personnel Management Report (The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015).

Retention is measured based on positive attitudes reflecting employee's motivation and commitment to stay with their organizations. The following three items are used to measure retention: "I recommend my organization as a good place to work" (coded as 5= strongly agree, 1=strongly disagree); "In my organization, (senior) leaders generate high levels of motivation and commitment in the workforce" (coded 5= strongly agree, 1=strongly disagree); and "Are you considering leaving your organization within the next year, and if so, why?" The item includes following responses: a) No; b) Yes, to take another job within the Federal Government; c) Yes, to take another job outside the Federal Government; and d) Yes, other. The item is coded as 1 for the "no" responses and 0 for all three "yes" responses.

All three items loaded on one factor with an eigenvalue of 2.12 for the female sample and 2.18 for the male sample. For both male and female samples, the factor coefficients were 0.70 and above. The Cronbach's alpha value was 0.87 for the female sample and 0.88 for the male sample. Factor scores for retention were developed separately for each year using individual-level data and then averaged at agency level (see data and methods section for details). As all the agency level data are mean values, the outcome variable retention and all the explanatory variables used in this study are continuous variables.

### *Explanatory Variables*

Satisfaction with child care programs was measured by asking employees “How satisfied are you with the following Work/Life programs in your agency? Child Care Programs (for example, daycare, parenting classes, parenting support groups)” Responses were coded on a 5-point Likert-type scale with 5=very satisfied and 1=very dissatisfied. Employees to whom the question was not applicable could select the option of “no basis to judge” which were then excluded from the data as missing values.

Organization’s inclusion quotient was adopted from 2015 Office of Personnel Management Report. The inclusion quotient consists of 20 items measuring organizational inclusion characterized by fairness, openness, cooperation, support, and empowerment (The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015) and was consistent with existing definitions of organizational inclusion (Ferdman et al. 2010; Mor Barak and Cherin 1998; Sabharwal 2014). These 20 questions are described in the appendix A. All items loaded on factor one with an eigenvalue of 16.07 for the female sample and 15.64 for the male sample. For both male and female samples, the factor coefficients were 0.65 and above. The Cronbach’s alpha value was 0.98 for female and male samples. Factor scores for inclusion quotient were developed separately for each year using individual-level data and then averaged at agency level (see data and methods section for details).

This study controls for satisfaction with job, pay, and organization which are expected to have a direct impact on employee retention. These are measured using a global satisfaction scale developed by the Office of Personnel Management. The following items were used to measure

global satisfaction: “Considering everything how satisfied are you with your job?”; “Considering everything how satisfied are you with your pay?”; and “Considering everything how satisfied are you with your organization?” (The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015). All three items loaded on one factor with an eigenvalue of 2.40. The Cronbach’s alpha value was 0.90. The global satisfaction score was developed using factor regression score. Other controls included lagged dependent variable to account for omitted variables that are time-invariant (Oberfield 2014), employee’s age, and supervisory status. Employees who reported to be non-supervisors or team leaders were coded as 0 and those reported to be supervisors, managers/executives, or senior leaders were coded as 1. Age was measured using ordinal variable for age-groups (under 40=1; 40-49=2; 50-59=3; and 60 and older=4). All three control variables were averaged at agency levels for years 2010-2015. The squared term for agency-level average age group was used in the final panel data analysis.

## V. RESULTS

The summary statistics for study variables is provided in Table 2.1. Table 2.1 also reports the difference in mean values for study variables based on the t-test analysis for independent samples of male and female employees. Findings in Table 2.1 show that at an agency level, the attitudes and behaviors of male and female federal employees do not differ significantly with respect to organizational inclusion, global satisfaction (which measures satisfaction with the organization, pay, and job), satisfaction with child care programs, and retention. However, it is important to note that at an agency level, as compared to male employees, female employees are significantly more likely to belong to lower age groups (mean difference = -0.098,  $p < 0.05$ ) and are less likely to be in supervisory positions (mean difference = -0.0788,  $p < 0.001$ ). As compared to their male counterparts, the mean values for interaction between organizational inclusion and satisfaction with child care programs are also significantly lower for female employees participating in child care programs (mean difference = -0.246,  $p < 0.05$ )

Table 2.2 presents results of panel data regression analysis with agency fixed effects for independent samples of male and female employees (Paternoster et al. 1998). A column in table 2.2 reports the Z-test results of differences in regression coefficients for independent samples of female and male employees<sup>2</sup>. The variables were tested for multicollinearity. Results of pairwise

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<sup>2</sup> The difference in regression coefficients for independent samples of female and males, tested using Z-statistic (Paternoster et al. 1998). The formulae used to calculate Z-statistic is:

$Z = \frac{b_1 - b_2}{\sqrt{SEb_1^2 + SEb_2^2}}$ , where  $b_1$  is the regression coefficient for females and  $b_2$  is the regression coefficient for males; SE stands for standard errors.

correlation analysis indicated that for independent samples of both female and male employees, the dependent variable retention had a statistically significant positive correlation with the lag of retention, global satisfaction score, satisfaction with child care programs, inclusion quotient, and the interaction between satisfaction with child care programs and the inclusion quotient. The variance inflation factors for study models were 4.41 and 4.32 for the independent samples of female and male employees, respectively.

Agency level findings (depicted in table 2.2) show that satisfaction with child care programs did not have a significant positive effect on retention of male employees. Thus, hypothesis 1 was not supported. However as expected in hypothesis 2a, at an agency level, satisfaction with child care programs had a significant negative relationship ( $\beta = -0.025$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) with the retention of female employees. The results of the Z test for differences in regression coefficients for independent sample of female and male employees (Paternoster et al. 1998) indicate that as compared to their male counterparts, satisfaction with child care programs had a weaker relationship with retention of female employees ( $\beta_{diff} = -2.43$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), thereby supporting hypothesis 2b.

As expected in hypothesis 3a, at an agency level, organization's inclusion quotient had a significant positive moderating effect ( $\beta = 0.009$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) on the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and the retention of female employees. However, the moderating effect of organizational inclusion was not significant for male employees. Thus, hypothesis 3b was not supported. The results of the Z test for differences in regression coefficients for independent sample of female and male employees (Paternoster et al. 1998)

indicate that as compared to their male counterparts, the moderating effect of organizational inclusion on the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and retention was significantly higher for female employees ( $\beta_{diff} = 2.0, p < 0.05$ ).

The regression models controlled for lagged dependent variable, organization's inclusion quotient, global satisfaction (with the organization, pay, and job), age, and supervisory position. At an agency level, for both male and female independent samples, the lagged dependent variable (i.e., lag of retention), organization's inclusion quotient, and global satisfaction had a significant positive relationship with employee retention. Age did not have a significant effect on retention of either male or female employees. However, being in a supervisory position had a significant negative impact on the retention of female employees.

## VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Attraction and retention of the best and brightest is a key challenge and goal of strategic importance for public sector organizations (Kim 2008; Lewis and Frank 2002; The United States Office of Personnel Management n.d.). The United States Office of Personnel Management places high value on retention its diverse workforce as part of its vision and mission statement. Consequently, diversity management and inclusive organizational practices are utilized as principal strategies to achieve higher retention of diverse employees (The United States Office of Personnel Management n.d.). The broad goal of this study was to examine the effectiveness of diversity management initiatives such as child care programs and organizational inclusion on employee retention from a gendered perspective.

Child care programs are a form of organizational support that can produce a high social exchange relationship between employees and the organizations. As such, they are expected to result in favorable reciprocal employee behaviors (Caillier 2013, 2016; Gould-Williams and Davies 2005; Ko and Hur 2014; Lee and Hong 2011; Settoon et al. 1996). Therefore, based on social exchange theory it was hypothesized that satisfaction with child care programs will positively affect the retention of male employees. However, in the case of female employees, satisfactory child care programs by themselves were not expected to directly lead to higher retention.

Existing literature based on Eagly's (1987) social role theory of sex differences and Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruity theory of prejudice towards female employees suggests that traditional societal gender norms and gender role stereotypes prescribe that men should

compete in workplace and women should perform ‘wifely and maternal’ duties. These gender norms and stereotypes, in turn, influence gender socialization and gender role confirming behaviors (Eagly 1987; Eagly and Karau 2002; Rudman and Phelan 2008, 63). Women are more vulnerable to role conflict due to dual demands of work and family responsibilities (Ezra and Deckman 1996; Hochschild 1997; Hochschild and Machung 2003; Mastracci 2013; Ralston 1990). Therefore, it is argued that despite structural access to satisfactory child care programs, female employees will exhibit lower retention.

In addition to the direct effect of satisfactory child care programs on employee retention, this study also considers the moderating effect of organizational inclusion. Organizational inclusion is expected to have a positive moderating effect on the relationship between satisfactory child care programs and the retention of male and female employees such that the relationship will be stronger when organizational inclusion is higher. These hypotheses were tested using the federal employee viewpoint survey data from the years 2010-2015 and an agency level longitudinal panel analysis.

An agency-level longitudinal panel analysis supports the hypothesis that satisfaction with child care programs does not directly lead to higher retention of female employees. As compared to their male counterparts, the relationship between satisfactory child care programs and employee retention was weaker (i.e., with a significantly lower effect size) for female employees. However, organizational inclusion produced a statistically significant positive moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and retention of female employees, such that the relationship was stronger when organizational inclusion was

higher. As compared to their male counterparts, this moderating effect of organizational inclusion was higher for female employees. None of the proposed relationships were statistically significant for male employees.

Based on these findings, following conclusions can be drawn: a) Structural provisions such as satisfactory child care programs are not adequate in enhancing retention of either male or female employees. b) Participation in satisfactory child care programs is less likely to increase retention of female employees than male employees. Lower retention of female employees is argued to exist based on gender norms and gender stereotypes which may not only affect career decisions of women, but also affect their career opportunities within organizations (Barth, Kerr, and Olivetti 2017; Eagly, 1987; Eagly and Karau 2002; Ezra and Deckman 1996; Goldin et al. 2017; Hochschild 1997; Hochschild and Machung 2003; Miller 2017; Ralston 1990; Rudman and Phelan 2008). c) These retention challenges are can be overcome through organizational efforts. One approach examined in this study is that of organizational inclusion which fulfills an employee's fundamental need of belongingness and of being valued (Sabharwal 2014). Organizational inclusion was found to strengthen the effects of satisfactory child care programs on retention, particularly for female employees. d) Finally, it can also be concluded that while satisfactory child care programs do not have a direct positive effect on retention of female employees; female employees value the support received through child care programs and are more likely to be retained when their organizations have an inclusive environment.

These findings have several important implications for public strategic human resources management, diversity management, and inclusion practices, and for gender equity. Retention of

the best and brightest employees is a matter of urgent importance for public sector organizations from a strategic human resources management perspective (Kim 2008; The United States Office of Personnel Management n.d.). Scholars have argued that it has become increasingly challenging for public sector organizations to compete with the private businesses and nonprofits to attract and retain skilled and talented individuals (Guy 1993; Kim 2008; Lee and Wilkins 2011). Retention of employees is also found to have financial implications for public organizations. Employee retention can lower investment in recruitment, selection, and training, increase the return of this human capital investment, for the preservation of institutional memory which helps to achieve organizational goals (Cho and Lewis 2012; Moynihan and Pandey 2008). The United States Office of Personnel Management (2015) reported that the cost of bringing a new employee to satisfactory performance could vary between 90 to 200 percent of an employee's annual salary based on their joining position level (Chordiya, Sabharwal, and Goodman 2017).

In addition to financial costs, it can be argued, that poor retention of women employees implies a loss of unique values they add for the success of public organizations and public service (D'Agostino 2017; Guy 2017; Guy and Newman 2004; Meier, O'Toole, and Goerdel 2006; Neuse 1978; Stivers 1995, 2003). For instance, Neuse (1978) compared male and female state employees on professional commitments and perceptions of authority. Their findings showed that women ranked higher on measures of professional commitments as well as on measures of responsibility towards non-hierarchical authorities such as responsibility towards the profession and groups served by the organization.

Other scholars have argued that female employees and their management styles add a distinctive capital that improves the performance of public programs (D' Agostino 2017; Guy 2017; Meier et al. 2006). Research shows that compared to their male counterparts, women exhibit higher scores on various emotional intelligence capabilities such as change catalyst, achievement orientation, transparency, empathy, inspirational leadership, developing others, and service orientation (Young 2016). Studies have also shown that as compared to their male counterparts, female managers are more democratic, less directive, less laissez-faire, engage in contingent reward behaviors (transactional), and are found to be more transformational in their leadership styles (Eagly and Carli 2003; Kanter 1993; Meier et al. 2006; Rosener 1990; Young 2016). Viewed in the broader context of existing literature on women in public administration, the findings of this study can be observed to imply that lower retention of women employees with child care responsibilities has repercussions regarding lost human capital that adds distinct value to public organizations and public service.

This study also has implications from the perspective of gender equity in workplace. Findings of this study should be viewed in the context of existing literature which show that gender norms are deeply entrenched in our societies (Guy 2017) and that child care responsibilities and organizational support for child care are gendered in nature (Haas and Hwang 1995; Kaufman 2013; Lewis 1996; Mastracci 2013; Seward et al. 2006). The gender gap in the utilization of child care programs continues to exist (Ezra and Deckman 1996; Sabbatini and Crosby 2009) and working mothers are more likely to spend more hours in caregiving when compared to working fathers (Mastracci 2013; Sabbatini and Crosby 2009). In addition to gender

division of caregiving responsibilities, studies have also focused on economic implications of marriage and motherhood for women. Findings show that gender norms affect women's employment and career decisions especially after marriage and motherhood and significantly widens the differentials in earnings of women as compared to men (e.g., Barth, Kerr, and Olivetti 2017; Goldin et al. 2017; Miller 2017).

Therefore, it can be observed that child care responsibilities raise questions about gender inequity in the workforce from both a human capital and economic perspective. Retention of women employees with child care responsibilities through organizational support- that encompasses both structural provisions and a cultural change- is an important factor not only for achieving gender equity (Barth, Kerr, and Olivetti 2017; Goldin et al. 2017; Miller 2017; Mastracci 2013; Sabattini and Crosby 2009), but to enable the utilization of the human capital to the fullest potential for public service, regardless of gender (D' Agostino 2017; Guy 1993, 2017; Neuse 1978).

This study approaches this challenge from a diversity and inclusion perspective. Findings of this study imply that organizational support through structural provisions such as child care programs by themselves are inadequate in increasing retention of female employees. However, when structural provisions such as satisfactory child care programs interact with an inclusive organizational environment that values fairness, openness to diversity, empowerment, support, and cooperation, it leads to higher retention of female employees. Interestingly, such an interactive relationship between satisfactory child care programs and organizational inclusion

was found to have a stronger effect on retention of female employees than their male counterparts (see table 2.2).

While this study argues and empirically shows that: a) satisfactory child care programs have differential impact on retention of male and female employees and b) that interaction between satisfactory child care programs and organizational inclusion is critical to the retention of female employees, future research is needed to examine specific reasons for lower retention of female employees with child care responsibilities in the federal workforce. Do these employees leave for better employment opportunities? Future research should consider the perspectives of females in leadership and non-leadership roles, as well as their supervisors and human resources managers. Future research should also focus on answering questions about the financial implications and implications related to the loss of human capital due to child care responsibilities. Studies should compare experiences of female employees with their male counterparts. More research is required to study the attitudes and organizational experiences due child care responsibilities for transgender employees, for employees of diverse sexual orientations, racial backgrounds, and disabilities.

While this study has several important theoretical and practical implications, like past studies utilizing FEVS data for longitudinal panel analysis (Caillier 2016; Oberfield 2014), agency level data is used as a unit of analysis instead of individual level data. The absence of individual level identification in the FEVS data does not allow for an individual level panel data analysis and is an important limitation of this study. Another limitation is with respect to the small sample size (n=156) which limits the explanatory power. However, it is important to note

that, despite a small sample size, several key theoretical arguments made in this study were statistically supported.

Another limitation of this study may come from the omission of individual and demographic characteristics. Although models control for important personal and demographic characteristics such as supervisory role and age, the effect of some of the other factors such sexual orientation, marital status, number of children, the impact of work-family conflict, and gender role stereotypes may have been omitted due to data unavailability or inadequacy. Despite these limitations, this study extends existing research on impact of family-friendly programs (Caillier 2016; Ezra and Deckman 1996, Lee and Hong 2011) from a gendered perspective by highlighting gender differences in utilization and impact of federal child care programs and the role of organizational inclusion in enhancing employee retention.

## APPENDIX A: SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR CHAPTER 2

List of items measuring organization's inclusion quotient

All items are coded as: Strongly Agree =5; Strongly Disagree=1, Don't Know=X

Cronbach's alpha= 0.98

### I. Fair: are all employees treated equally?

1. In my work unit, steps are taken to deal with a poor performer who cannot or will not improve.
2. In my work unit, differences in performance are recognized in a meaningful way.
3. Awards in my work unit depend on how well employees perform their jobs.
4. Arbitrary action, personal favoritism and coercion for partisan political purposes are not tolerated.
5. Prohibited Personnel Practices (for example, illegally discriminating for or against any employee/applicant, obstructing a person's right to compete for employment, knowingly violating veterans' preference requirements) are not tolerated

### II. Open: Does management support diversity in all ways?

6. Creativity and innovation are rewarded.
7. Policies and programs promote diversity in the workplace (for example, recruiting minorities and women, training in awareness of diversity issues, mentoring)
8. My supervisor is committed to a workforce representative of all segments of society.
9. Supervisors work well with employees of different backgrounds.

### III. Cooperative: Does management encourage communication and collaboration?

10. Managers promote communication among different work units (for example, about projects, goals, needed resources).
11. Managers support collaboration across work units to accomplish work objectives.

### IV. Supportive: Do supervisors value employees?

12. My supervisor supports my need to balance work and other life issues.
13. My supervisor provides me with constructive suggestions to improve my job performance.
14. My supervisor listens to what I have to say.
15. My supervisor treats me with respect.
16. In the last six months, my supervisor has talked with me about my performance.

### V. Empowering: Do employees have the resources and support needed to excel?

17. I have enough information to do my job well.
18. I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things.
19. My talents are used well in the workplace.
20. Employees have a feeling of personal empowerment with respect to work processes.

Table 2.1: Results of t-test Analysis for Male-Female Mean Differences and Summary Statistics for Study Variables

Study Variables	Mean (SD)		Min.-Max.		Mean Difference
	Females (N=156)	Males (N=156)	Females	Males	Female-Male (t-value)
Retention	0.015 (0.162)	0.031 (0.161)	-0.37 to 0.45	-0.39 to 0.45	-.016 (-0.875)
Satisfaction with Child Care Programs	3.75 (0.444)	3.70 (0.435)	2.79 to 4.42	2.81 to 4.39	0.05 (1.00)
Inclusion quotient	0.026 (0.167)	0.047 (0.173)	-0.34 to 0.52	-0.40 to 0.51	-0.021 (-1.09)
Satisfaction with Child Care Programs * Inclusion Quotient	0.784 (0.781)	1.03 (0.883)	-0.91 to 3.20	-0.97 to 3.89	-.246** (-2.60)
Global Satisfaction	0.17 (0.126)	0.031 (0.136)	-0.23 to 0.35	-0.37 to 0.39	-0.014 (-0.943)
Age Group	2.256 (0.260)	2.354 (0.308)	1.57 to 2.66	1.65 to 2.86	-0.098** (-3.03)
Supervisory Role	0.1966 (0.088)	0.2754 (.1116)	0.09 to 0.55	0.14 to 0.71	-0.079***(-6.93)
<p>Note: Differences in means for the study variables for independent samples of male and female federal employees is tested using two-sample t-test with unequal variances for mean comparison. ***p&lt;0.001; **p&lt;0.05; *p&lt;0.10</p>					

Table 2.2: Results of Panel Data Analysis with Agency Fixed Effects for Male and Female Federal employees

Explanatory Variables	Outcome Variable: Employee Retention		
	Independent sample of Females	Independent sample of Males	Differences in Independent sample regression coefficients Z-value <sup>a</sup>
Dependent Variable (lag)	Females 0.105*** 0.030 (3.49)	Males 0.089** 0.031 (2.83)	0.37
Satisfaction with Child Care Programs	-0.025*** 0.005 (-4.36)	-0.006 0.006 (-0.97)	-2.43**
Inclusion Quotient	0.111* 0.067 (1.66)	0.148** 0.065 (2.27)	-0.39
Satisfaction with Child Care Programs * Inclusion Quotient	0.009** 0.004 (2.17)	-0.001 0.003 (-0.55)	2.0**
Global Satisfaction	0.9*** 0.067 (13.42)	0.896*** 0.056 (15.89)	0.04
Supervisory Role	-0.111** 0.04 (-2.73)	-0.053 0.038 (-1.38)	-1.05
Age Group (Square)	-0.00 0.001 (-0.44)	-0.001 0.001 (-0.98)	0.7
Constant	0.108*** 0.026 (4.06)	.040 0.030 (1.34)	1.71*
R-square: within	0.93	0.96	
R-square: between	0.96	0.97	
R-square: overall	0.95	0.97	
F-stat	188.70***	336.17***	

N(Observations) =156, N(agencies)=26, Observations per agency=6; Time Period: 2010-2015 (6 years)

Note: <sup>a</sup>The difference in regression coefficients for independent samples of females and males, tested using Z-statistic. The formulae used to calculate Z-statistic is:

$Z = \frac{b_1 - b_2}{\sqrt{SEb_1^2 + SEb_2^2}}$ , where  $b_1$  is the regression coefficient for females and  $b_2$  is the regression coefficient for males; SE stands for standard errors (Paternoster et al. 1998).

Standard errors are reported below the regression coefficients & t-statistic is in parenthesis

\*p<0.10; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.001

Table 2.3: Summary of Findings	
Hypothesis	Support for Hypothesis
Hypothesis 1: Satisfaction with child care programs will have a positive relationship with the retention of male employees	Not supported
Hypothesis 2a: Satisfaction with child care programs will have a negative relationship with the retention of female employees.	Supported
Hypothesis 2b: As compared to their male counterparts, satisfaction with child care programs will have a weaker relationship with the retention of female employees.	Supported
Hypothesis 3a: Organizational inclusion will positively moderate the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and retention of female employees such that the relationship will be stronger when organizational inclusion is higher.	Supported
Hypothesis 3b: Organizational inclusion will positively moderate the relationship between satisfaction with child care programs and retention of male employees such that the relationship will be stronger when organizational inclusion is higher.	Not Supported

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**CHAPTER 3**  
**ORGANIZATIONAL INCLUSION AND THE RETENTION OF**  
**EMPLOYEES WITH DISABILITIES**

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## **I. ABSTRACT**

Individuals with disabilities have experienced a long history of prejudice and disenfranchisement. Negative attitudes and stigmas continue to act as barriers to employment and career success of individuals with disabilities. However, diversity and inclusion of individuals with disability is an under-researched area in public administration. This study contributes to the literature by examining the turnover intentions of federal employees with disabilities as compared to those without disabilities. In addition, this study investigates the effects of inclusive organizational practices (i.e., organizational fairness or justice, empowerment, openness, supportiveness, and cooperativeness) in lowering turnover intentions of employees with and without disabilities. Findings of this study indicate that employees with disability exhibit lower organizational inclusion (i.e., organizational fairness, openness, supportiveness, cooperativeness, and empowerment), and higher turnover intentions. Additionally, disability status significantly increases the odds of employee turnover intentions. However, organizational fairness or justice plays a key role in mitigating the negative effects of disability on turnover intentions.

## II. INTRODUCTION

The technological advances of the 21<sup>st</sup> century has led to new jobs and job opportunities for the American workforce. However, significant barriers to utilizing these opportunities are experienced by a segment of the American workforce due to their disabilities and differences in approaching and performing the job functions (Ricucci 2002). In context of the federal government, the civil rights legislations such as the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990 (Bruyere 2000; Ricucci 2002), the Americans with Disabilities Amendment Act (ADAAA) of 2008, and Presidential executive orders underscore the importance of “reducing discrimination against Americans living with a disability, in eliminating the stigma associated with disability, and in encouraging Americans with disabilities to seek employment in the Federal workforce” (Cobert 2015; Obama 2010; U.S. Department of Justice 2009).

In 2010, as a mark of the historic 20<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the signing of the Americans with Disabilities (ADA) Act, President Barack Obama issued Executive Order 13548 to strengthen the federal government’s continued commitment to the goal of becoming a model for the employment of *qualified* individuals with disability and targeted disability through increased hiring, recruitment, and retention (Cobert 2015; Obama 2010). In alignment with the Executive Order 13583 (2011) that focused on promoting diversity and inclusion in the federal workforce, the federal government envisioned hiring 100,000 persons with a disability over a period of five years (Cobert 2015).

Since the enactment of the ADA in 1990, which extended the non-discrimination against persons with disabilities legislation to private sector employers (Bruyere 2000), academic scholarship across disciplines (e.g., economics, policy sciences, and public administration) has advanced our understanding of the barriers to genuine inclusion of persons with disabilities in mainstream employment. These studies highlight that despite being qualified and productive, individuals who live with a disability experience negative attitudes from employers and coworkers (Fine and Asch 1988; Kaye, Jans, and Jones 2011; Yuker 1988), visible and invisible forms of workplace discrimination, and, structural, cultural, and attitudinal barriers to employment and career success (e.g., Baldwin and Johnson 1995; Domzal, Houtenville, and Sharma 2008; Fine and Asch 1988; Lewis and Allee 1992; Schur et al. 2017; Slack 1995; Yelin and Trupin 2003).

These studies have made valuable contributions to the pursuit of a constructive dialogue in achieving equality, equity, and the inclusion of all persons regardless of differences in their abilities and/or their ways of approaching and performing job functions. Yet, one area that is under-investigated is the study of attitudes of persons with disabilities regarding continued employment with their current organizations and management strategies, which can be useful to enhance the likelihood of their retention (e.g., Schur et al. 2017). Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap in the literature by examining the turnover intentions of federal employees with disability as compared to those without disabilities. In addition, this study investigates the effects of inclusive organizational practices (i.e., organizational fairness or justice, empowerment, openness, supportiveness, and cooperativeness) in lowering turnover intentions of employees

with and without disabilities. This study uses 2012-2015 federal employees' viewpoint survey (FEVS) data and pooled time series cross sectional method of analysis.

### **III. THEORY AND HYPOTHESES**

#### **Disability and Retention Likelihood**

Despite legislative actions to protect civil rights of persons with disabilities, barriers to their employment opportunities and career progression have continued to exist (Lewis and Allee 1992; Schur et al. 2017). However, it is important to note that studies focused on both public (federal) and private sector employments indicate that the cost of training, supervision, and accommodations were less significant barriers to the employment and advancement of persons with disability (Bruyere 2000). One of the most important barriers that is consistently supported by research is the existence of stigma, prejudice, and negative attitudes towards persons with disabilities (Bruyere 2000; Colella and Varma 1999; Levitan and Taggart 1977; Lewis and Allee 1992; Mithaug 1979; Nelissen et al. 2015; Schechter 1977; Schur et al. 2017; Westerholm et al. 2005). These studies represent existing inequities and lost opportunities in utilizing qualified human capital.

Barriers due to the disability status of an individual exacerbates existing workplace disparities. Research shows that after controlling for education and impact of disability on performance: a) pay disparities exist among disabled employees and their non-disabled coworkers (Baldwin and Johnson 1995; Davis 1972; Davis 1973; Gunderson and Lee 2016; Lewis and Allee 1992) and b) disability status may lead to biased performance evaluations (Colella and Varma 1999), lower job security, and negative treatment by management (Mitra and Kruse 2016; Schur et al. 2017).

Discrimination theories used to explain disparities against persons with disability are broadly based on: a) Becker's (1957, 1971) taste-based discrimination model - according to this model, discrimination results from employer's prejudice and desire to avoid personal, co-worker or customer interaction with employees with disability- and, b) Arrow (1971; 1998) and Phelps's (1972) statistical discrimination model- which suggests that discrimination results from employer's negative decisions/assessments based on existing beliefs or stereotypes about productivity of persons with disability, particularly when individual level information is lacking (Baldwin and Johnson 1995; Guryan and Charles 2013; Schur et al. 2017).

Support for taste-based and statistical discrimination theories is derived from field experimental studies. These studies have shown that as compared to individuals with identical qualifications, job applicants with a disability are less likely to receive a positive response from employers. Studies have also shown that after controlling for health status, comorbidity, education, and other demographic characteristics, individuals with disabilities have significantly lower employment rates and exit the labor market earlier than those without disabilities (Mitra and Kruse 2016; Yelin and Trupin 2003). Prejudice, discrimination, and unwelcoming corporate cultures pose barriers to the hiring of persons with disabilities and have a profound and long-term consequences for their work experiences. These include: disparities in terms of employment (i.e., higher rates of less secure jobs such as part time, part-year, and episodic employments) (Mitra and Kruse 2016; Yelin and Trupin 2003), career progression within an organization (Colella and Varma 1999; Lewis and Allee 1992; Yelin and Trupin 2003), involuntary job losses,

and drop-outs (Domzal, Houtenville, and Sharma 2008; Mitra and Kruse 2016; Schur et al. 2017; Yelin and Trupin 2003).

In the case of the federal government, significant efforts guided by the vision of becoming a model employer for persons with disabilities are reflected in outcomes such as better accommodations, increased employment, and improved demographic diversity (Cobert 2015; Lewis and Allee 1992; Riccucci 2002). However, the federal government has underperformed in creating an inclusive environment for those with disabilities (Bruyere 2000; Riccucci 2002). Negative stereotypes associated with disability is the biggest barrier to their inclusion. Past research shows that as compared to employees with disability in private sector, disabled workers in federal workplaces faced greater barriers due to unreceptive attitudes and stereotypes among coworkers and supervisors (Bruyere 2000; Riccucci 2002). These barriers pose a serious challenge to the retention of employees with disability (Bruyere 2000). Based on existing research, those with disabilities are expected to have higher turnover intentions compared to federal employees without disabilities.

*Hypothesis 1: As compared to employees without disabilities, odds of turnover intentions will be higher among federal employees with disabilities.*

## **Organizational Inclusion and Retention of Persons with Disability**

### ***Disability Inclusion***

Disability inclusion is defined as “including people with disabilities in everyday activities and encouraging them to have roles similar to their peers who do not have a disability”<sup>3</sup> (National Center on Birth Defects and Developmental Disabilities (NCBDDD) 2017). In practice, disability inclusion involves more than offering encouragement to persons with disabilities; disability inclusion requires that adequate policies and practices are made effective within communities and in organizations (NCBDDD 2017).

In the context of federal organizations, although noteworthy progress has been made in removing legal and structural barriers to employment of persons with disability, attitudinal and cultural barriers continue to exist (Bruyere 2000). To overcome these barriers, in addition to structural interventions (e.g., technologies friendly for persons with disability, recruitment and hiring of persons with disabilities, and provision of accommodations) there is a growing

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<sup>3</sup> It is important to note here, that most national and international efforts for disability inclusion movement have embraced the rights based discourse, and at a strategic level it has enabled additional entitlements to persons with disabilities (Clapton and Fitzgerald n.d.; Lawson 2005). The entitlements are contingent to individuals identifying themselves as persons with disabilities (Clapton and Fitzgerald n.d.). Such an approach has been criticized for failing to question and contest the construct of disability. Scholars have argued for the need to deconstruct the philosophy of inclusion based on common accepted construct of disability that physiological or psychological disabilities exist in specific individuals and reaffirms the humanly contrived dichotomous categorization of individuals based on *abilities* and *disabilities* (Danforth and Rhodes 1997). In the context of disability, term inclusion is critiqued to be problematic as “it implies a norm (i.e., able-ness) and that a minority or oppressed group is being included into that larger normative population, thus unintentionally reinforcing the traditional status quo” (Harbour 2012).

emphasis on the importance of incorporating disability in all diversity and inclusion efforts. These efforts are expected to enable employees with disabilities to be fully engaged in organizational processes and fulfill their desired potential (Donohue and Houghton 2013; NCBD 2017; Vohra et al. 2015).

### ***Defining Diversity and Inclusion***

Before proceeding to a theoretical discussion on the effects of organizational inclusion it is important to define diversity and inclusion. Although the terms ‘diversity and inclusion’ are related and often paired together, they have distinct implications (Vohra et al. 2015). Diversity is defined as the “make-up of a group” (Miller 1998) and can be achieved by recruiting and hiring people with observable (e.g., gender, race, abilities) and non-observable differences (e.g., education, socio-economic backgrounds) (Vohra et al. 2015).

Ely and Thomas (2001) theorized that the rationale for organizational diversity could be based on following three broad perspectives: a) discrimination-and-fairness perspective which emphasizes the moral imperative of equality, justice, and fair treatment of all members, b) the access-and-legitimacy perspective which recognizes that matching organization’s workforce to its diverse markets and constituencies as a means to gaining access and legitimacy in those markets and constituencies, and c) integration-and-learning perspective which is founded on the principle that diverse employees add value to organizational learning and change processes as well as aid in achieving of workgroup goals through differences in their skills, experiences, and insights.

Scholars have argued that organizational inclusion is the key to unleashing the full potential of diversity (Sabharwal 2014; Vohra et al. 2015). Mor Barak and Cherin (1998, 48) defined organizational inclusion as “the degree to which individuals feel part of critical organizational processes” and is represented by the extent to which members have access to information and resources, workgroup involvement, and participation in decision making. Other scholars have emphasized that in an inclusive organization “members of are treated fairly, feel included and are actually included, have equal opportunities, and are represented at all organizational levels and functions.” (Holvino, Ferdman, and Merrill-Sands 2004, 249).

Several studies have established that diversity and inclusion has a positive impact on organizational outcomes such as improved innovation, performances, and expansion of outreach to diverse client base or customer groups as well as higher employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to stay (Bruyere 2000; Donohue and Houghton 2013; Ferdman et al. 2009; Meier, O’Toole, and Goerdel 2006; Pitts 2009; Sabharwal 2014; Schur et al. 2017; Shore et al 2011; Smith 2017; Vohra et al. 2015).

### ***Theoretical Underpinnings of Organizational Inclusion***

The theoretical underpinnings of organizational inclusion are often based on social identity theory (Tajfel 1978, 2010) and the optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer 1991) (Nair and Vohra 2015; Sabharwal 2014; Shore et al. 2011). Tajfel’s (1978, 2010). Social identity theory suggests that individuals become attached to one another through a common social group connection, in turn producing a feeling of social identification. Such a social identification results in creation of in-groups and out-groups (Sabharwal 2014; Shore et al. 2011).

Most workplaces lie on an inclusion-exclusion continuum. Organizations are exclusionary when employees are expected to conform to pre-existing values and norms that are determined by the majority or the mainstream. However, an inclusive workplace model is based on a pluralistic value framework and coevolving organizational culture that continuously strives to change its values and norms to mirror the diversity of its workforce (Mor Barak 2013). The extent of workplace inclusion reflects employees' feelings of belongingness towards their workgroups and their organization and influences their intention to stay (Nair and Vohra 2015).

In addition to the social element, identity comprises of a personal element based on individual's definition of oneself (Brewer and Gardner 1996). Brewer (1991) proposed the optimal distinctiveness theory which argues that individuals seek to balance the two countervailing needs for validation and likeness to their social groups (i.e., social identity) and the need for uniqueness (i.e., individuation) through an optimal level of inclusion in groups to which they belong. Research indicates that both needs of belongingness and uniqueness are important. However, the salience of one or the other need may vary depending on the context of an individual's situation (Correll and Park 2005; Pickett and Brewer 2001; Shore et al. 2011).

### ***Organizational Inclusion and Retention of Employees with Disability: An Optimal Distinctiveness Perspective***

The tension between individuals need for belongingness and uniqueness and the motivation to optimally satisfy both needs is the underlying theme of inclusion literature (Shore et al. 2011).

The failure to recognize and value unique identities can exacerbate stigmas associated with devalued identities (Ragins 2008; Shore et al. 2011). Stigmas are “attributes, characteristics, or

experiences that convey an identity that is devalued in some social settings,” and individuals choosing to keep their identities private are likely to experience psychological strain, emotional stress, and stress-related illnesses (Ragins, 2008, 194).

As noted earlier, there is a long history of stigmas associated with disability status and such negative attitudes continue to persist in workplaces (Baldwin and Johnson 1995; Bruyere 2000; Mithaug 1979; Levitan and Taggart 1977; Lewis and Allee 1992, 390; Schechter 1977; Schur et al. 2017). In the federal government, employees with a disability were found to experience greater barriers to representation and inclusion than other disadvantaged groups like women and most racial minorities (Lewis and Allee 1992). In 2008, individuals with a targeted disability constituted 0.88 % of the federal workforce<sup>4</sup> (U.S. EEOC 2008, I-13) and 0.51 % of the federal senior pay level representation<sup>5</sup> (comprising of Senior Executive Service, Executive Schedule, Senior Foreign Service, and employees earning salaries above grade 15 of the General Schedule) (U.S. EEOC 2008, I-15). Although, there has been a decline in the tendency of non-identification (Lewis and Allee 1992; Riccucci 2002; The U.S. Office of Personnel management n.d.), the fear that negative attitudes and stigmas may hinder career advancement and adversely

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<sup>4</sup> This was as compared to 55.9 % men, 44.1 % women, 4.7 % Hispanic or Latino Men, 3.2 % Hispanic or Latino women, 7.8 % African American men and 10.5 % African American women, 3.3 % Asian men, 2.5 % Asian women, 0.17 % and 0.14 % Native Hawaiian men and women respectively, and 0.7 % and 0.9 % American Indian men and women respectively (U.S. EEOC 2008, I-13).

<sup>5</sup> This was as compared to 85.6 % non-minorities, 27.7 % women, 3.6 Hispanic or Latino, 6.7 % Black or African Americans, 4.0 % Asian, 0.04 % Native Hawaiian, and 0.8 % Indians (U.S. EEOC 2008, I-15)

affect promotion decisions influences employee's decisions of identifying as disabled (Ellner and Bender 1980; Lewis and Allee 1992).

Past research has examined whether similar to the case of women and minorities, federal civil rights legislations (e.g., Rehabilitation Act 1973, and Americans with Disabilities Act 1990) has had a positive impact on the overall employment and the employment at higher grade levels for disabled employees (Lewis and Allee 1992). Lewis and Allee (1992) compared women and minorities to individuals with a disability and found that disability status posed tougher obstacles to career advancement and promotion. While the white male advantage over women and minorities was found to decline over the years between 1977-1989, the advantage of non-disability over disability remained steady. As compared to white males, women and minorities were found to have below-average grades and occupational levels, though they exhibited a gradual progress in shares of federal employment (Gibson and Yeager 1975; Guyot 1979; Hellriegel and Short 1972; Lewis 1988; Rose and Chia 1978; Rosenbloom 1984) as well as salary gains (Lewis 1988).

However, the position of disability showed a contrasting picture. With respect to participation in federal workforce, a 2008 EEOC report indicated that the participation of individuals with targeted disability continued to decline from FY 1999 to FY 2008. Only thirteen agencies achieved the goal of reaching 2% participation rate of individuals with disability, while the overall participation rate declined from 1.12 % in 1999 to 0.88% percent in 2008 (see U.S. EEOC 2008, I-13, I-20 – I-21). Furthermore, employees with disability were less likely to be in professional and administrative positions, had lower grades, salaries, and promotion rates than

employees without disabilities (Lewis and Allee 1992). Both Lewis and Allee (1992) and Kim (1996) conclude that there is no concrete evidence to suggest progress to equality among the *qualified* disabled and the non-disabled workers with respect to opportunities for career advancement.

Given the ongoing efforts to bridge the disparities in career success and leadership representation of diverse groups, diversity and inclusion scholars have emphasized the significance of creating a diverse workforce at all levels and inclusive organizational environments that will value employee differences as means for both individual and organizational learning and success (Chrobot-Mason and Thomas 2002; Shore et al. 2011). Consistent with existing literature, the present study utilizes Brewer's (1991) optimal distinctiveness theory (ODT) to focus on elements of organizational inclusion that are expected to optimally satisfy needs of belongingness and uniqueness for employees with and without disabilities. These are: a) fairness or justice, b) openness to diversity, c) empowerment, d) supportiveness, and e) cooperativeness (Daya 2014; Detert and Burris 2007; Nair and Vohra 2015; Nembhard and Edmondson 2006; Sabharwal 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015; Vohra et al. 2015). The theoretical model is depicted in figure 3.1

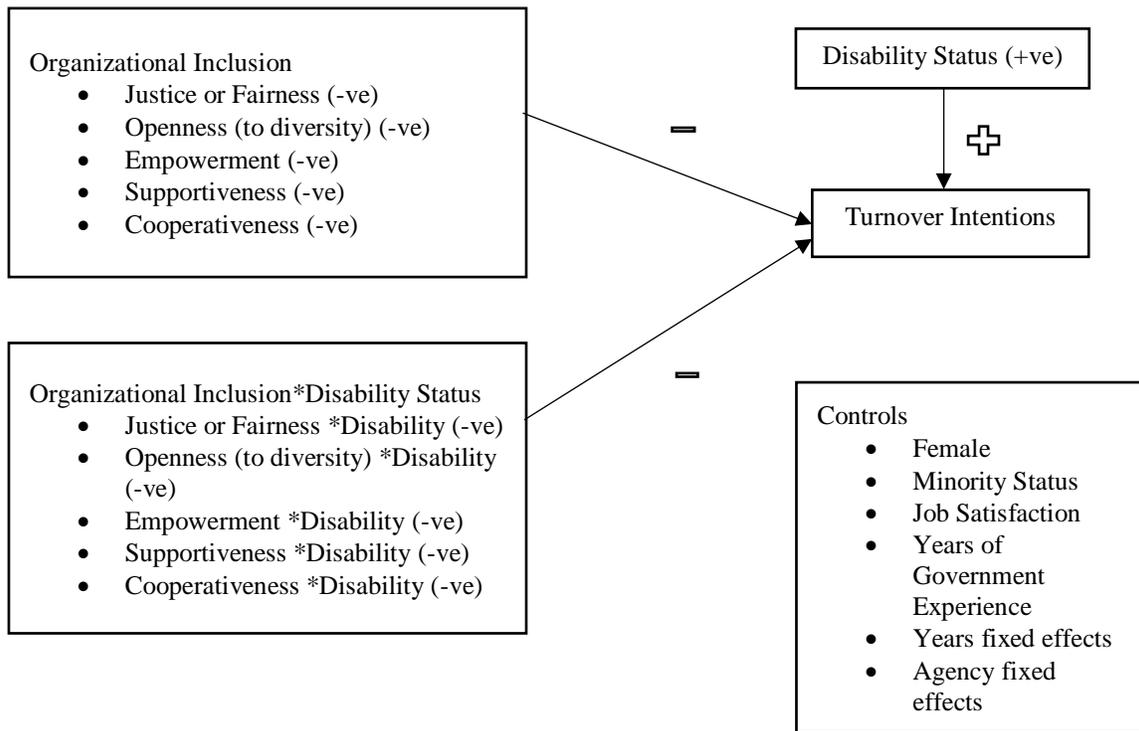


Figure 3.1: Theoretical Model

One of the key characteristics of an inclusive environment is fair and equitable treatment of all social groups, with special focus on groups that face social stigma and are historically disadvantaged with fewer growth opportunities. Employees working in an inclusive climate characterized by fairness or justice perceive that the organization values their contributions equally (Hayes, Bartle, and Major 2002; Shore et al. 2011; Sabharwal 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015). In a fair environment, employees also feel safe to speak up and share potentially valuable information (Daya 2014; Mor Barak and Cherin 1998; Roberson 2006; Detert and Burris 2007; Sabharwal 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015).

Openness to diversity refers to management's comprehensive approach through leadership behaviors, policies, procedures, and structures to promote diversity in workplace. In an open environment, employees from diverse backgrounds feel safe and open about their identities, to express their opinions, and to communicate freely with other group members (Choi 2009; Ferdman et al. 2009; Ferdman et al. 2010; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015). An empowering environment is where employees receive support to perform and excel in their job, have access to essential information and resources, and are able to influence work processes (Daya 2014; Mor Barak and Cherin 1998; Pelled, Ledford, and Mohrman 1999; Sabharwal 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015).

The element of supportiveness ensures that supervisors support and value employees. Supportive management is reflected in interpersonal relations between supervisors and subordinates based on a feeling of being valued, respected, accepted, cared for, and recognized for their ideas and contributions (Daya 2014; Detert and Burris 2007; Ferdman et al. 2010; Nembhard and Edmondson 2006; Randel et al. 2016; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015). Cooperativeness is concerned with encouraging communication and collaboration across work units to achieve work objectives (Daya 2014, 299; Ferdman et al. 2010; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015).

Existing literature suggests that inclusive climates foster a feeling of belongingness and respect for both minority and majority groups (Shore et al. 2011). Furthermore, through enhanced feelings of belongingness, recognition of unique worth of employees, and negating stigmas attached with devalued identities (Shore et al. 2011), inclusive organizational practices

can result in increased employee retention (Nair and Vohra 2015; Vohra et al. 2015) Therefore, it is proposed that:

*Hypothesis 2: The odds of turnover intentions will decline with increased organizational inclusion (fairness, openness, empowerment, supportiveness, and cooperativeness).*

*Hypothesis 3: Organizational inclusion (fairness, openness, empowerment, supportiveness, and cooperativeness have a lower likelihood of expressing turnover intentions) will have a negative moderating effect on the relationship between employees' turnover intentions and disability status.*

#### IV. DATA AND METHODS

This study uses 2012-2015 Federal Employees Viewpoint Survey data<sup>6</sup> made available by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management. The survey sample included 687,687 employees in 2012 out of which 83,306 (13.07 %) identified as disabled; 376,577 employees in 2013 and 45,276 (13.01%) identified as disabled; 392,752 employees in 2014 and 421,748 employees in 2015 out of which 49,274 (13.54%) and 53,817 (13.65%) employees identified as persons with disability, respectively. The FEVS data are weighted or adjusted to represent the population from which the sample are drawn (The U.S. Office of Personnel Management n.d.). These weights were considered for regression analysis.

As noted earlier, this study utilizes a pooled time series cross-sectional data for the years 2012-2015. The outcome variable of interest is turnover intention which is binary in nature (Yes=1; No=0). Therefore, logistic regression method is used for pooled time series cross-sectional (PTSC) analysis. The PTSC method allows an account for space and time variations (Podestà 2002; Tourangeau 2003). In this study, controls include agency and year fixed effects (Park 2009). Robust standard errors were clustered at an agency level to allow for intragroup correlations.<sup>7</sup> These checks helped to improve the precision of the estimates.

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<sup>6</sup> Even though the U.S. Office of Personnel Management has made FEVS data publicly available for additional years, those data are not included in this study because, at the time of this study, the questions about disability status of an employee were available only for the years from 2012-2015.

<sup>7</sup> In other words, the usual requirement that observations be independent was relaxed.

## **Measurements**

### ***Outcome Variable: Turnover Intention***

This study utilizes turnover intention of federal employees as an outcome variable. Turnover intention is measured using the following item: “Are you considering leaving your organization within the next year, and if so, why?” The item includes following responses: a) No; b) Yes, to take another job within the Federal Government; c) Yes, to take another job outside the Federal Government; and d) Yes, other. Turnover intention is coded as 0 for the “no” responses and 1 for all three “yes” responses.

### ***Explanatory Variables***

The disability status of an employee is measured based on the following question: “Are you an individual with a disability?” The “yes” responses were coded as “1” and “no” responses were coded as 0. This study controls for job satisfaction which is expected to have a significant negative impact on employee turnover intentions (Cantarelli, Belardinelli, and Belle 2015, 14). Job satisfaction is measured on a scale of 1-5 (1= very dissatisfied, 5=very satisfied) and measured by the following question: “Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job?”. Other controls include relevant demographic and individual characteristics that are likely to affect the turnover intentions of federal employees. These are: years of government experience (square), veteran status, sex (female=1), and minority status (minorities=1). To control for agency and year fixed effects, dummy variables were generated for all agencies and all years included in this study.

Based on the existing literature, the following five elements of organizational inclusion are considered in this study: fairness or justice, openness to diversity, empowerment,

supportiveness, and cooperativeness (Detert and Burris 2007; Nair and Vohra 2015; Nembhard and Edmondson 2006; Sabharwal 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015; Vohra et al. 2015). The direct and moderating effects of each of these five elements is modeled. Each element was represented using a factor score of respective items used to measure it. All items were measured on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 5 for 'Strongly Agree' and 1 for 'Strongly Disagree'. The Cronbach alpha values, the eigenvalues for the factor, the estimated factor coefficients and the t-test means comparisons (for employees with and without disability) for items measuring organizational inclusion elements are described in table 3.1.

## V. RESULTS

The findings of the t-test mean comparisons of items measuring attitudes and perceptions of employees with and without disability with respect turnover intentions, job satisfaction, and organizational inclusion (represented in terms of being fair, open, supportive, cooperative, and an empowering environment) are presented in table-3.1. These findings indicate that, on an average, employees with disabilities are likely to have significantly lower job satisfaction compared to employees without disabilities (Mean employees with disabilities =3.54, Mean employees without disabilities =3.70,  $p < 0.001$ , scale=1-5) and higher turnover intentions (Mean employees with disabilities =0.397, Mean employees without disabilities =0.310,  $p < 0.001$ , scale= 0-1). It is important to also note that the mean values of all items used for measuring organizational inclusion factors (fairness, openness, supportiveness, cooperativeness, and empowerment) were significantly lower for employees with disabilities than those without disabilities (see table-3.1). These findings indicate that on an average, federal employees with disabilities experience significantly lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational inclusion, and higher turnover intentions.

Pairwise correlations for study variables are reported in table 3.2 and variables did not indicate high multicollinearity issues. Table 3.3 reports the findings of multiple regression analysis for pooled time series cross-sectional (PTSC) data. The logistic regression method was used for analysis, robust standard errors were clustered at agency levels, and controls included agency and year fixed effects. The odds of federal employees' intentions to leave are examined: both coefficients and the odds ratio are described in table 3.3. It is more informative to interpret the findings of a logistic regression by observing the change in odds ratio. An odds ratio above 1

indicates that a unit change in the independent variable leads to an increase in the odds that the dependent variable equals 1, while an odds ratio that is below 1 indicates that a unit change in the independent variable leads to a decrease in the odds that the dependent variable equals 1 (Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal 2012).

As expected in hypothesis 1, the results indicate that compared to employees without disabilities, the odds for turnover intentions among employees with disability are higher by 14% (Odds ratio = 1.14,  $p < 0.001$ ). The organizational inclusion elements were found to have mixed effects on turnover intentions of federal employees. Supportiveness did not have a significant direct relationship with turnover intentions; and, contrary to expectations, openness to diversity has a positive relationship with turnover intentions. However, consistent to the hypothesis, fairness (Odds ratio=0.825,  $p < 0.001$ ), cooperativeness (Odds ratio=0.987,  $p < 0.001$ ), and empowerment (Odds ratio=0.801,  $p < 0.001$ ) were found to significantly lower the odds of employee turnover intentions. Hypothesis two therefore was partially supported.

In the third and final hypothesis, it was expected that organizational inclusion elements will have a significant negative moderating effect on the relationship between disability and employee turnover intentions, with the odds of turnover intentions becoming lower as organizational inclusion becomes higher. In this case, only organizational fairness or justice was found to have a significant negative moderating effect on relationship between disability and turnover intentions. As the perceptions of organizational fairness among employees with disability increased, the odds of turnover intentions declined by 5.4% (Odds ratio= 0.946,  $p < 0.05$ ). With respect to other organizational inclusion elements, the findings lacked statistical

significance (as in the case of openness and cooperativeness) or indicated a positive effect that was contrary to expectations (as in the case of supportiveness and empowerment). It can be noted that the odds of turnover intentions were relatively lower after the moderating effects of inclusion were added to the relationship between disability and turnover intentions as compared when they were not added (compare with odds ratio for the effect of disability on turnover). Thus, the findings indicate mixed support for hypothesis 3.

With respect to control variables, job satisfaction was found to have the strongest impact on turnover intentions; an increase in job satisfaction decreased the odds of turnover intentions by 49.3% (Odds ratio=0.507,  $p<0.001$ ). The individual and demographic controls indicate that the odds of turnover intentions were significantly higher among employees identifying as minorities (Odds ratio= 1.17,  $p<0.001$ ) and veterans (Odds ratio= 1.27,  $p<0.001$ ). The odds of turnover intentions also lowered with an increase in years of government experience.

## VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study makes a novel contribution to the literature on diversity and inclusion by focusing on the under-studied population of federal employees with disability. In their content analysis of 75 years of published diversity research in seven major public administration journals, Sabharwal, Levine, and D' Agostino (2016) found that the issues of disability are under-researched in the field of public administration. Comparing 218 published articles focused on issues of race and ethnicity and 193 published articles focused on gender-related topics, only 25 articles addressing issues of disability were published since 1940.

Individuals with disability have experienced a long history of prejudice and disenfranchisement. Negative attitudes and stigmas continue to act as barriers to employment and career success of individuals with disabilities (Baldwin and Johnson 1995; Bruyere 2000; Mithaug 1979; Levitan and Taggart 1977; Lewis and Allee 1992; Schechter 1977; Schur et al. 2017). The federal government envisions to become a model employer for individuals with disabilities and have taken important steps towards diversifying federal employees through increased hiring of those with disabilities (Cobert 2015; Obama 2010). Along with increased hiring, the retention of employees with a disability is a concurrent objective of the federal government (Cobert 2015; Obama 2010). Examining the turnover intentions of employees with a disability as compared to non-disabled employees and the effects of organizational inclusion in lowering their turnover intention becomes a key area of investigation.

Turnover intention is an important outcome variable for diversity and inclusion research (Caillier 2013; Choi 2009; Ko and Hur 2014; Sabharwal 2015; Sabharwal et al. 2016) as it reflects employee's withdrawal behaviors from the organization and has practical implications for strategic human resource management functions such as recruitment, training, and employee retention (Cohen, Blake, and Goodman 2016; Mowday, Koberg, and McArthur 1984; Tett and Meyer 1993). Withdrawal cognitions include thoughts of quitting, intention to search for alternative employment, and intention to quit (Mowday, Koberg, and McArthur 1984; Tett and Meyer 1993). Thus, turnover intention is a final decisive factor in sequence of withdrawal cognitions (Tett and Meyer 1993). Turnover intention is also argued to represent a critical consequence of barriers to career success of traditionally disadvantaged groups (see Sabharwal 2015). As indicated by past research, disability status can act as a significant barrier (e.g., Baldwin and Johnson 1995; Bruyere 2000; Schur et al. 2017), which - as indicated in this study - if not mitigated, can unfavorably influence employee's withdrawal cognitions including turnover intentions.

Findings of this study (based on t-test mean comparisons) indicate that employees with disabilities exhibit lower job satisfaction, lower organizational inclusion (i.e., organizational fairness, openness, supportiveness, cooperativeness, and empowerment), and higher turnover intentions (see table 3.1) than employees without disabilities. Furthermore, as expected in hypothesis 1, findings based on pooled time series cross-sectional analysis for years 2012-2015 show that after controlling for time and agency fixed effects, various individual and demographic

characteristics, and organizational factors, disability status significantly increases the odds of employee turnover intentions (see table 3.3).

With respect to the effects of organizational inclusion among federal employees in general, the present study found that an increase in perceived organizational fairness or justice, cooperativeness, and empowerment were effective in lowering the odds of employee turnover intentions. The positive effect of openness on turnover intentions might imply that structural provisions such as policies and programs for enhancing organizational diversity may not be adequate in enhancing employee retention. With regards to the moderating effects of organizational inclusion elements on relationship between disability and turnover intentions, only perceived organizational fairness or justice was found to have the desired negative effect. Thus, findings indicated mixed support for hypotheses 2 and 3 (see table 3.3).

Despite these mixed findings, there are two points that are worth noting. Firstly, the significant role of organizational fairness or justice in mitigating the negative effects of disability on turnover intentions. Secondly, other organizational inclusion elements such as openness to diversity, supportiveness, cooperativeness, and empowerment did not have the desired significant negative moderating effect on the relationship between disability and turnover intentions. However, each of the variables representing the moderating effects of organizational inclusion had a lower odds ratio as compared to the direct effects of disability on turnover intentions (see table 3.3). Non-findings or contradictory findings imply that unlike organizational fairness (or justice), other elements of organizational inclusion considered in this study do not sufficiently help to overcome the adverse effects of disability status on employee withdrawal

behaviors. Future research, perhaps with a mixed methods design, is needed to further examine the factors that may be influencing these theoretically contradictory findings.

The findings of this study have important implications for the practice of human resources management with respect to diversity and inclusion of employees with disabilities. Creating such an inclusive environment necessitates going beyond legal and structural reforms to create an inclusive culture (Sabharwal 2014). Such an approach is important from the perspective of equity as well as strategic human resource management. Negative characterization, prejudice, and workplace discrimination against persons with disability has a long history. Studies have shown that although the condition of disability does not limit the individual's productivity, negative attitudes towards persons with disability increase with the intensity of prejudice elicited by the impairment (Baldwin and Johnson 1995; Fine and Asch 1988; Yuker 1988). Previous research has shown that the productivity of persons with epilepsy is not significantly limited by their condition, yet they still experience negative attitudes. However, attitudes towards individuals with chronic back pain or cardiovascular diseases are quite positive, though both conditions can result in substantial productivity losses (Fine and Asch 1988).

In 2014, among people ages 25 and above, 16.4% of people with a disability had completed at least a bachelor's level education, though only 21.6% were employed. This can be seen in comparison to the 34.6% of college graduates without a disability where 75.9% were employed (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015). These statistics imply not only a loss in terms of utilization of existing human capital due to disability status, but also indicate that individuals with a disability have to overcome severe barriers to gain employment. It can be reasonably

argued that qualified persons with disability employed in the federal government have also overcome significant societal handicaps to become employed. Therefore, higher turnover intentions of employees with disabilities may imply that they experience negative differential treatment. Considering past research (e.g., Bruyere 2000; Lewis and Allee 1992), these findings also imply that contemporary human resource management practices still have a long way to go in terms of representation and inclusion of persons with disabilities at all levels of government organizations.

These results show that individuals with a disability are more likely to express turnover intentions as compared to those without disability, but are significantly less likely to express turnover intentions when they perceive their organizations to be fair has important implications for the practice of diversity and inclusion. These results indicate the importance of organizational justice (or fairness) in achieving the goals of retaining employees with disabilities. Based on existing literature, organizational fairness measures was represented whether all employees were treated equally in matters of performance appraisals and related outcomes such as awards and promotions, if they were protected from discriminatory personnel practices, and protected from reprisal for reporting a suspected violation of law, rule or regulation (Daya 2014; Detert and Burris 2007; Cho and Sai 2013; Hayes, Bartle, and Major 2002; Mor Barak and Cherin 1998; Roberson 2006; Shore et al. 2011; Sabharwal 2014; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015).

These are principal issues related to fairness affecting day-to-day management. It is therefore important to ensure that employees with a disability do not experience unjust treatment

from management and are given fair opportunities to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors (that is, discretionary virtuous behaviors that are beyond formal reward systems, and, altogether help to promote organizational effectiveness) to grow and succeed in their organization (Moorman 1991). The implications of these findings can be viewed in the broader context of disability inclusion in the American society.

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (1990) guarantees inclusion of children with disabilities in K-12 education and has provisions for transition planning as students graduate from schools to institutions of higher education. Furthermore, with the passage of ADA (1990), ADAAA (2008), and Higher Education Opportunity Act (2008), institutions of higher education have made advancements in utilizing an inclusive approach to education and training of persons with disabilities (Harbour 2012). The ADA (1990) and the ADAAA (2008) (ADA National Network n.d.; Slack 1995) are of historic importance also because they guarantee qualified<sup>8</sup> persons with disability the right to have equal access to jobs and career opportunities<sup>9</sup> (Slack 1995).

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<sup>8</sup> It is also important to note that ADA recognizes an individual with disability as “qualified” when s/he meets the legitimate skills, education, experience, or other requirements of an employment position held or sought, and s/he can perform essential job functions with or without reasonable accommodation. It is illegal to consider a worker unqualified because of his/her inability to perform marginal or related job functions (Ricucci 2002, 123). However, the employer is not required to lower the performance standards of the position or make extensive accommodations that may result into undue financial hardship (Bishop and Jones Jr. 1993).

<sup>9</sup> Discriminatory practices referred to in ADA include: creating barriers for career advancement of current employee or applicant; using discriminatory evaluation criteria; restricting benefits of equal jobs to a person with disability or someone related to a person with disability; not making

Therefore, from an organizational perspective, when qualified individuals with disabilities enter the workforce after several years of education and training, it is an important goal and challenge to ensure these individuals do not face barriers or unwelcoming experiences as they transition to work environments due to sheer differences in their ways of performing job functions. Individuals with disability are more likely to withdraw from the workplaces when they experience unfair treatment and workplace discrimination from their coworkers and supervisors (Schur et al. 2017). A starting point in bringing cultural change would be to conduct disability inclusion training for employees and supervisors to help them understand and overcome often deep rooted psychological inhibitions and prejudices towards people with disabilities. In addition, this study demonstrates that upholding the standards of organizational justice (or fairness) in personnel practices is critical to preventing withdrawal behaviors of persons with disabilities and enhancing their inclusion in workplaces.

## **Conclusion**

One of the important goals of social equity, diversity management, and inclusion programs is to ensure that all workers with diverse abilities are not only well represented but are also fully integrated in the organizational community to serve public interests (Ricucci 2002). Such a goal can be achieved successfully only when public organizations are able to retain employees with disability. This study shows that even though individuals with a disability are likely to express

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reasonable accommodation within the limits of undue hardship; denying employment on the basis of need to provide accommodation; using employment criteria such that it excludes a class of persons with a similar disability; and not providing accommodations such that in testing the person's true abilities are not revealed (Bishop and Jones Jr. 1993).

higher turnover intentions as compared to those without a disability, inclusive organizational practices focused on achieving the goals of fair treatment and organizational justice can moderate the negative relationship between disability and turnover intentions.

Thus, this study makes an important contribution to the literature on diversity and inclusion from a disability perspective. However, like other studies using the federal employees' viewpoint survey (FEVS) data (e.g., Caillier 2013; Sabharwal 2015), this study has limitations related to the use of survey questions. Self-reports are used for measurements of disability status and are therefore likely to have some degree of inaccuracy due to over or under reporting. Another limitation is related to the inadequacy of measures to distinguish between disability types. Information on disability type is not included in FEVS data to protect employee's anonymity. Future studies can investigate the effects of disability status (if possible, disability types) on job experiences and career success of persons with disabilities belonging to veteran groups and disadvantaged groups based on gender, minority status, and employees identifying as lesbian, gay, heterosexual, and transgender (LGBT). Future research could also examine whether representation of persons with disability in leadership positions translates into active representation outcomes.

## APPENDIX B: SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR CHAPTER 3

Table 3.1: T-test Mean Comparisons on Items Measuring Turnover Intentions, Organizational Inclusion, and Job Satisfaction for Employees with and without Disabilities			
	Employees with Disabilities	Employees without Disabilities	Min-Max
	Mean (S.D.)	Mean (S.D.)	
Turnover Intentions (Yes=1, No=0)	.397*** (.489)	.310 (.462)	0-1
<i>Job Satisfaction</i> Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job?	3.54 (1.16)	3.70*** (1.06)	1-5
<i>Organizational Fairness or Justice (Are all employees treated equally?)</i> <i>Cronbach's Alpha= 0.906; Eigenvalue=4.50; Factor loadings= 0.60 and above</i>			
My performance appraisal is a fair reflection of my performance	3.58 (1.24)	3.74*** (1.13)	1-5
I can disclose a suspected violation of any law, rule or regulation without fear of reprisal.	3.39 (1.34)	3.62*** (1.20)	1-5
Promotions in my work unit are based on merit.	2.69 (1.25)	2.94*** (1.22)	1-5
In my work unit, steps are taken to deal with a poor performer who cannot or will not improve.	2.69 (1.23)	2.76*** (1.20)	1-5
In my work unit, differences in performance are recognized in a meaningful way.	2.78 (1.21)	2.91*** (1.16)	1-5
Awards in my work unit depend on how well employees perform their jobs.	2.87 (1.29)	3.06*** (1.22)	1-5
Arbitrary action, personal favoritism and coercion for partisan political purposes are not tolerated.	3.14 (1.32)	3.37*** (1.23)	1-5
Prohibited Personnel Practices (for example, illegally discriminating for or against any employee/applicant, obstructing a person's right to compete for employment, knowingly violating veterans' preference requirements) are not tolerated	3.44 (1.28)	3.76*** (1.08)	1-5
<i>Openness (Does management support diversity in all ways?)</i> <i>Cronbach's Alpha = 0.82; Eigenvalue=2.07; Factor loadings= 0.68 and above</i>			
Creativity and innovation are rewarded.	2.89 (1.22)	3.06*** (1.16)	1-5

Policies and programs promote diversity in the workplace (for example, recruiting minorities and women, training in awareness of diversity issues, mentoring)	3.37 (1.16)	3.55*** (1.04)	1-5
My supervisor is committed to a workforce representative of all segments of society.	3.67 (1.16)	3.84*** (1.04)	1-5
Supervisors work well with employees of different backgrounds.	3.48 (1.16)	3.66*** (1.04)	1-5
<i>Cooperative: Does management encourage communication and collaboration? Cronbach's Alpha=0.92; Eigenvalue=1.61; Both factor loadings=0.89</i>			
Managers promote communication among different work units (for example, about projects, goals, needed resources).	3.24 (1.23)	3.35*** (1.17)	1-5
Managers support collaboration across work units to accomplish work objectives.	3.32 (1.21)	3.46*** (1.14)	1-5
<i>Supportiveness (Do supervisors value employees?) Cronbach's Alpha = 0.91; Eigenvalue=3.34; Factor loadings= 0.68 and above</i>			
My supervisor supports my need to balance work and other life issues.	3.88 (1.16)	4.07*** (1.03)	1-5
My supervisor provides me with constructive suggestions to improve my job performance.	3.48 (1.25)	3.64*** (1.16)	1-5
My supervisor listens to what I have to say.	3.80 (1.16)	3.99*** (1.04)	1-5
My supervisor treats me with respect.	3.93 (1.13)	4.12*** (1.00)	1-5
In the last six months, my supervisor has talked with me about my performance.	3.86 (1.10)	4.01*** (1.00)	1-5
<i>Empowering (Do employees have the resources and support needed to excel?) Cronbach's Alpha = 0.84; Eigenvalue=2.23; Factor loadings= 0.69 and above</i>			
I have enough information to do my job well.	3.61 (1.08)	3.73*** (.989)	1-5
I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things.	3.51 (1.27)	3.77*** (1.15)	1-5
My talents are used well in the workplace.	3.26 (1.29)	3.43*** (1.19)	1-5
Employees have a feeling of personal empowerment with respect to work processes.	3.05 (1.20)	3.15*** (1.14)	1-5
Note: Several items used for measuring organizational inclusion elements are adopted from The U.S. Office of Personnel Management's 2015 FEVS report. * $p < .05$ ; ** $p < .01$ ; *** $p < .001$ .			

Table 3.2: Pairwise Correlations Matrix of Study Variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
1	Turnover	1											
2	Disability	0.06***	1										
3	Female	-0.02***	-0.10***	1									
4	Minority	0.02***	0.03***	0.12***	1								
5	Veteran	0.07***	0.30***	-0.36***	-0.00***	1							
6	Fairness	-0.31***	-0.07***	-0.04***	-0.03***	-0.02***	1						
7	Openness	-0.30***	-0.06***	-0.04***	-0.09***	-0.01***	0.82***	1					
8	Supportiveness	-0.26***	-0.06***	-0.02***	-0.04***	-0.02***	0.66***	0.74***	1				
9	Cooperativeness	-0.26***	-0.03***	-0.00***	0.01***	-0.00***	0.68***	0.72***	0.54***	1			
10	Empowering	-0.34***	-0.04***	-0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.76***	0.75***	0.62***	0.67***	1		
11	Job Satisfaction	-0.41***	-0.04***	-0.00***	0.00***	-0.00***	0.64***	0.64***	0.56***	0.56***	0.72***	1	
12	Years of Government Experience (Square)	-0.04***	-0.05***	0.07***	-0.00***	-0.12***	0.01***	-.02***	-.04***	-0.0***	0.01***	0.01***	1

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

Table 3.3: Pooled Time Series Cross-Sectional Analysis for Years 2012-2015

Statistical Procedure: Multiple Logistic Regression Analysis with Agency & Year Fixed Effects,  
Robust Standard Errors Clustered at Agency Level

Outcome Variable: Turnover Intention

	Coefficient	Odds Ratio
Disability (Yes=1)	.131*** (.029)	1.14 (.033)
Female	.018 (.039)	1.01 (.040)
Minority (Yes=1)	.166*** (.010)	1.17 (.012)
Veteran (Yes=1)	.245*** (.039)	1.27 (.049)
Fairness	-.191*** (.014)	.825 (.011)
Openness	.052*** (.012)	1.05 (.013)
Supportiveness	.000 (.007)	1.00 (.007)
Cooperativeness	-.012*** (.009)	.987 (.009)
Empowering	-.221*** (.007)	.801 (.006)
Disability* Fairness	-.055** (.015)	.946 (.014)
Disability* Openness	.025 (.015)	1.02 (.016)
Disability* Supportiveness	.027** (.008)	1.02 (.009)
Disability*Cooperativeness	-.025 (.018)	.975 (.018)
Disability*Empowering	.039** (.013)	1.04 (.014)
Job Satisfaction	-.677*** (.008)	.507 (.004)
Square of Years of Government Experience	-.015*** (.006)	.984** (.006)
Controlled for Year fixed effects	Yes	
Controlled for Agency fixed effects	Yes	
Intercept	1.96*** (0.05)	7.10*** (0.355)
Pseudo R2	15.47	
* $p < .05$ ; ** $p < .01$ , *** $p < .001$ . Robust standard errors clustered at agency levels in parentheses. Please see 'data and methods' section above for details on sample size.		

Table 3.4: Summary of Findings	
Hypothesis	Support for Hypothesis
Hypothesis 1: As compared to employees without disabilities, odds of turnover intentions will be higher among federal employees with disabilities.	Supported
Hypothesis 2: The odds of turnover intentions will decline with increased organizational inclusion (fairness, openness, empowerment, supportiveness, and cooperativeness).	Partially Supported
Hypothesis 3: Organizational inclusion (fairness, openness, empowerment, supportiveness, and cooperativeness have a lower likelihood of expressing turnover intentions) will have a negative moderating effect on the relationship between employees' turnover intentions and disability status.	Partially Supported

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**CHAPTER 4**

**RACIAL DIFFERENCES IN FEDERAL EMPLOYEES' TURNOVER INTENTIONS:  
IS PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT AND  
ORGANIZATION JUSTICE THE KEY?**

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## **I. ABSTRACT**

The literature on diversity and inclusion of racial and ethnic minorities demonstrates a striking contrast. Though minorities continue to be underrepresented in public organizations, especially at the upper echelons of leadership, there is strong evidence to suggest a positive correlation between increased racial-ethnic diversity and organizational success. Existing literature suggests that increased racial-ethnic diversity can be of strategic advantage to organizations and thus, diversity efforts need to focus not only on recruitment but also on retention of a diverse workforce. This study extends the literature by examining racial differences in turnover intentions of federal employees and organizational factors that can contribute to increased retention of minorities. Using 10 years of pooled time series cross-sectional federal employee viewpoint survey data, this study examines the role of perceived organizational support in the form of career development opportunities and diversity management and perceived organizational justice represented by distributive and procedural justice in lowering turnover intentions of minority employees.

## II. INTRODUCTION

Since the 1940s, the federal government has played a leading role in the promotion of diversity and inclusion of racial and ethnic minorities in the workforce. These efforts have included civil rights legislation, affirmative action programs, presidential executive orders, and progressive human resource management policies and programs (Choi 2011a; Anestaki et.al 2016; Cobert 2016; Hellriegel and Short 1972; Riccucci 2009). Despite these efforts, minorities continue to be underrepresented in the federal government and are mostly concentrated in below average grades and occupational levels with lower pay and less prestigious jobs (Anestaki et. al 2016; Choi 2011a; Gibson and Yeager 1975; Hsieh and Winslow 2006; Lewis 1988; Riccucci 2009; Rose and Chia 1978).

There is stark evidence to suggest underrepresentation of minorities in the federal government, particularly in higher grades and in leadership positions (e.g., Choi 2011; Riccucci 2009). However, there is also substantial evidence to indicate that a racially diverse workforce makes significant value additions to organizational goals and outcomes. Past research has established that a racially diverse and representative workforce is instrumental in enhancing the effectiveness of public services among different racial and ethnic groups because of the ability of minority administrators to understand the language and the culture of minority clients helps provide better services (Main, Bowman, and Peters 1972; Mann 1974; Mizio 1972; Kranz 1974; Thompson 1976).

More recent studies examining the business case for diversity has shown that an increase in racial and ethnic diversity is correlated with an organization's financial return and economic

success (Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012; Hunt, Layton, and Prince 2015). In addition to enhancing individual outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and retention, increasing diversity and inclusion of racial minorities also has a positive impact on organizational innovation, performance, and expansion of outreach to diverse client groups (Ferdman et al. 2009; Ely and Thomas 2001; Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012; Ng and Burke 2005; Pitts 2009; Scanlon et al. 2018; Shore et al. 2011; Theus 2018; Thomas and Ely 1996; Vohra et al. 2015).

This discrepancy in poor representation of minorities despite their value addition to organizations has received increased attention of scholars and practitioners. Managing diversity is identified as the highest-ranking trend in strategic recruitment across the globe (Scanlon et al. 2018; Theus 2018). While diversity encompasses various aspects such as gender, age, race, ethnicity, abilities, and sexual orientation (Ricucci 2002), the present study is focused on studying racial aspects of diversity and inclusion. Enhancing diversity and inclusion of racial and ethnic minorities is critical for evolving workplaces that aspire to fulfill rights of their employees and desire to leverage strategic advantage stemming from diversity (Scanlon et al. 2018; Theus 2018). Therefore, it is important to not only recruit and hire employees' representative of racial minorities, but also to enhance their retention (Tapia and Kvasny 2004, 84). Nevertheless, there is limited empirical research that investigates the retention attitudes of minorities and the factors enhancing minority retention in the federal context (e.g., Choi 2011a; Pitts, Marvel, and Fernandez 2011). The present study aims to fill this gap in the literature by approaching retention

of minority employees in the federal government from perspective of perceived organizational support and organizational justice.

More specifically, this article aims to examine racial differences in turnover intentions of federal employees. Based on existing literature on implications of subtle and overt racial discrimination on work related outcomes (e.g., Cheung et al. 2016), it is argued that turnover intentions will be higher among minorities than non-minorities. However, using the social exchange perspective (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002) and the social cognitive career theory (Hackett and Byars 1996; Lent and Brown 1996), it is proposed that perceived organizational support through diversity management approaches and career development opportunities, respectively, would lower turnover intentions among minorities. In addition, based on organizational justice theories (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001; Cheung et al. 2016) it also proposed that organizational practices promoting distributive and procedural justice will be effective in lowering minority turnover intentions. This study utilizes the federal employees' viewpoint survey (FEVS) data for years between 2006-2017 for pooled time series cross-sectional (PTSC) analysis that allows to control for agency and time fixed effects.

### III. THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

#### **Racial Differences in Federal Employees' Turnover Intentions**

Despite civil rights legislations and structural reforms guiding organizational practices to prohibit workplace discrimination against protected social groups, disadvantaged groups continue to experience unfair treatment at work (Cheung et al. 2016; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunities Commission [EEOC], n.d.). A vast body of literature focused on advancing the concept of *modern discrimination* helps in understanding racial-ethnic discrimination in the post-civil rights era and its implications for organizations and target individuals or groups. Before delving into the discussion of racial differences in federal employees' turnover intentions, the following section defines workplace discrimination and describes the various forms in which it manifests.

#### ***Defining Perceived Workplace Discrimination***

Perceived workplace discrimination refers to “an employee or job applicant’s perception of unfair or negative treatment based on membership in a particular social group” (Dhanani, Beus, and Joseph 2018, 2). Acts of discrimination can be understood using following dominant typologies: formal versus interpersonal, subtle versus overt, and microaggressions (Cheung et al. 2016, 103). While formal discrimination manifests in illegal organizational practices such as not hiring or promoting someone based on their social identity, interpersonal discrimination refers to mistreatment in informal interactions (e.g., negative verbal and non-verbal behaviors such as demeaning remarks and inappropriate jokes). Such interpersonal discrimination is mostly untouched and unprotected by law (Hebl et al. 2002; Shen and Dhanani 2018). For example, one

cannot be sued for showing less interest, less positivity, or being for uncivil towards coworkers identifying with certain social groups (Hebl 2002).

Overt discrimination refers to blatant and unambiguous actions that display the denigration of a person due to their social identity characteristics. However, subtle discrimination includes “actions that are ambiguous in intent to harm, difficult to detect, low in intensity, and often unintentional but are nevertheless deleterious to target employees” (Jones et al. 2016, 1589). Scholars highlight that changes within our society that have made outright display of discrimination both legally and socially unacceptable with prejudicial displays having transitioned into subtle or covert forms of discrimination (Cortina 2008; Dovidio et al. 2002). These subtle forms of discriminations are entrenched in everyday interactions and manifest in forms such as avoidance, disrespectful treatment, and incivility (Cheung et al. 2016). Like conscious or explicit and unconscious or implicit biases, discriminatory behaviors may also be explicit or implicit (Dovidio et al. 2002).

Microaggressions are an emerging typology and refer to intentional or unintentional, brief and everyday verbal, behavioral, or environmental indignities that displays hostility, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults towards the target person or group (Sue et al. 2007). These behaviors can be identified as microassaults (i.e., attacks made with an intention to harm the target), microinsults (e.g., rude or insensitive comments about target’s identity), and microinvalidations (i.e., actions that trivialize others’ feelings or experiences).

Certain aspects of these three types of discrimination (i.e., formal versus interpersonal; subtle versus overt; and microaggressions) may be covered by an overarching concept of modern

discrimination (Cheung et al. 2016). Modern discrimination is a broad conceptualization of discrimination and can be described as potentially unconscious and representative of subtle, low-intensity behaviors that segregate or handicap others and are often nonverbal in nature but can become evident through verbal and paraverbal (e.g., intonation, volume) behavior (Cheung et al. 2016; Marchiondo, Ran, and Cortina 2018). Thus, modern discrimination is distinct from traditional forms of discrimination that are overt, formal, and severe in nature (Cheung et al. 2016).

### ***Implications of Modern Discrimination for Turnover Intentions of Racial and Ethnic Minorities***

Past research indicates that racial and ethnic minorities report higher perceived discrimination as compared to non-minorities (e.g., Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley 1990; Jones, Ni, and Wilson 2009). For instance, Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) found that as compared to white managers, black managers perceived lower acceptance in their organizations, lower discretion on their jobs, received lower ratings from their supervisors on job performance and promotability, were more likely to have reached career plateaus, and had lower levels of career satisfaction. Research also underscores that as compared to traditional, overt forms of discrimination, modern discrimination (manifesting in the form of subtle or interpersonal discrimination) though often normalized or overlooked, may be equally detrimental for targets of discrimination (such as, racial discrimination) and adversely affecting their psychological and physical well-being (e.g., stress and burnout), and in turn their work-related outcomes (e.g., withdrawal behaviors) (e.g., Jones et al. 2014; Jones et al. 2016; Singletary 2009; Salvatore and Shelton 2007; Volpone and Avery 2013).

With respect to work-related outcomes, extant literature suggests both overt and subtle forms of discrimination can result in negative work attitudes and subsequently produce withdrawal behaviors including lateness, absenteeism, and turnover intentions (Avery et al. 2007; Volpone and Avery 2013). Scholars have utilized social exchange theory and job demands-resources model to explain the relationship between perceived discrimination based on social identity and negative attitudes and withdrawal behaviors of target individuals (Cheung et al. 2016; Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Volpone and Avery 2013).

Social exchange theory espouses the norm of reciprocity which is critical to the formation and sustenance of social relationships (Blau 1964a). Social relationships are often long-term in nature and involve an expectation of reciprocity such that when individuals devote resources, they expect other parties to return that obligation in future. In an organizational context, social exchange theory extends to justice theories such that when justice expectations are fulfilled the norms of reciprocity are upheld and an equal social exchange is experienced (Blau 1964b; Cheung et al 2016; Masterson et al. 2000). However, when individuals perceive discrimination based on social identities, an injustice occurs which is a violation of the norms of reciprocity, resulting in negative attitudes such as reduced satisfaction and commitment (Cheung et al 2016; Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001).

Volpone and Avery (2013) utilized the job demands-resources (JD-R) model to systematically investigate the under-researched topic of relationship between perceived employee discrimination (including racial discrimination) and physical withdrawal represented by lateness, absenteeism, and intention to quit. Job demands are referred to as psychosocial work

characteristics that require sustained psychological (i.e., cognitive or emotional) effort and are therefore associated with psychological costs. Although job demands may not be necessarily negative, they may result into job stressors when fulfilling those demands high efforts and is consequently associated with high costs that produce negative responses such as depression, anxiety, or burnout (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004; Volpone and Avery 2013).

Volpone and Avery (2013) conceptualized perceived discrimination as a job demand because perceived discrimination based employee's core identity (e.g., color or race) represents a form of victimization (like bullying, incivility), and those encountering such demands will seek to withdraw themselves from the environment associated with the demand (i.e., workplace) (Podsakoff, LePine, and LePine 2007; Volpone and Avery 2013). Based on JD-R theory, Volpone and Avery (2013) found that perceived discrimination (such as perceived race discrimination) is related to physical withdrawal through intervening role of psychological withdrawal (e.g., burnout, disengagement). Employees who have to transact with psychological stressors of subtle or overt workplace discrimination and exclusion may manage it by withdrawing from organizations (Podsakoff, LePine, and LePine 2007; Volpone and Avery 2013). Withdrawal cognitions include thoughts of quitting, intention to search for alternative employment, and intention to quit (Mowday, Koberg, and McArthur 1984; Tett and Meyer 1993). Turnover intention is a final decisive factor in sequence of withdrawal cognitions (Tett and Meyer 1993).

In sum, the existing literature indicates that employees belonging to racial and ethnic minority groups are more likely to experience discrimination based on their social identity (e.g.,

Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley 1990; Jones, Ni, and Wilson 2009). Racial discrimination may manifest in traditional (i.e., formal and overt) or modern (i.e., subtle or interpersonal) forms (e.g., see Cheung et al. 2016). Additionally, perceived discrimination based on one's racial or ethnic identity is found to increase withdrawal behaviors of target individuals (Cox and Blake 1991; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley 1990; McKay et al. 2007; Volpone and Avery 2013). Therefore, it is expected that the racial status of a federal employee will have a differential effect on turnover intention in that employees identifying as minorities will be more likely to express turnover intentions.

*Hypothesis 1: As compared to non-minorities, odds of turnover intentions will be higher among minority federal employees.*

### **Effects of Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Justice on Turnover Intentions**

Organizational research has widely supported the importance of justice and perceived organizational support as critical factors in enhancing inclusion and retention of diverse workforce (Caillier 2016; Cheung et al. 2016; Choi 2011b; Sabharwal 2014, 2015). Therefore, this study investigates the moderating effects of organizational justice represented by distributive and procedural justice and perceived organizational support represented by diversity management strategies and career development opportunities on the relationship between turnover intentions and employees' racial status. The formal theoretical model is depicted in figure-4.1.

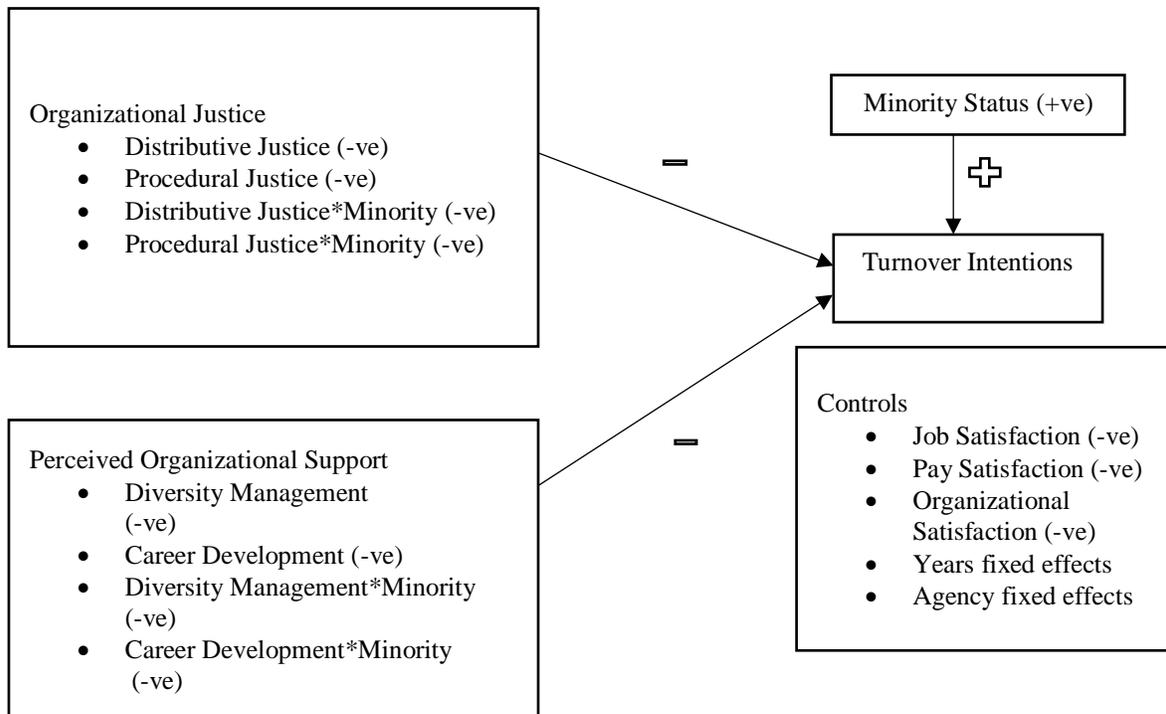


Figure 4.1: Theoretical Model

### *Justice in Organizations*

The core notion of justice, whether social or not, involves an allotment of something to persons (e.g., duties, goods, offices, opportunities, penalties, punishments, privileges, roles, status) (Cohen 1987; Frankena 1962). Organizational justice or fairness (both terms are used interchangeably) is argued to be “first virtue of social institutions” (Choi 2011b, 186; Colquitt et al., 2006; Greenberg 1990, 1993; Lind 2002; Rawls 1971; Van den Bos 2001). It is defined as

“the individual’s and the group’s perception of fairness of treatment received from an organization and their behavioral reaction to such perceptions” (Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen 2002, 269).

The beginning of the study of fairness in psychology was marked by Adams’s work on equity theory (Adams 1963, 1965). Adam used the social exchange theoretical framework to focus on the distributive aspect of organizational justice that is concerned with perceived fairness of outcomes (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001; Cropanzano and Ambrose 2002). Distributive justice involves a notion of comparative allotment (Cohen 1987; Frankena 1962). Three allocation rules that have received significant attention are: equality, need, and equity (Adams 1965; Colquitt et al. 2001; Cropanzano and Ambrose 2002; Leventhal 1976). Based on the application of equality rule, distributive justice is expected to result in allocation of equal outcomes among every member of a given social group. The need rule implies that one who is most in need receives the most compensation. As per the equity rule, distributive justice occurs when individuals are compensated based on their contributions or inputs (Colquitt et al. 2001; Cropanzano and Ambrose 2002).

In organizational contexts, the equity rule has received most attention (Cropanzano and Ambrose 2002) with distributive justice being largely equated with people’s reactions to economic allocations such fairness in pay, rewards, and promotions (Choi 2011; Cropanzano and Ambrose 2002). Judgments about distributive justice are often made based on the comparison of one’s outcome/input ratios with those of others (Adams 1965, Choi 2011b; Colquitt et al. 2001). However, the narrow focus of distributive justice on outcomes (mostly economic) and the

inadequacy in explaining and predicting peoples' reactions to perceived injustice has led to a shift in attention to procedural aspects of justice (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001).

Thibaut and Walker (1976) introduced the study of process in examining legal contexts. They argued that procedures are viewed to be fair if parties involved in a dispute perceived that they exercised process control (e.g., allotted sufficient time to present their case and had control over presentation of arguments). In the literature, this process control effect is referred to as "fair process" effect or "voice" effect (e.g., Colquitt et al. 2001, 426; Folger 1977; Lind and Tyler 1988). Leventhal and colleagues (1980) extended the concept of procedural justice to non-legal contexts such as organizational settings (Colquitt et al. 2001; Leventhal 1980; Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry 1980). Existing literature describes procedural justice as perceptions of fairness of procedures or a means for allocating outcomes (Choi 2011b; Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Lind and Tyler 1988). Leventhal (1980) argued that procedures are viewed as fair when they are perceived to be consistent, accurate, unbiased, ethical and moral, have mechanisms to correct flawed decisions, and consider opinions of various groups affected by the decision (Choi 2011b; Colquitt et al. 2001; Leventhal 1980).

The literature on justice was further advanced by Bies and Moag (1990) who focused on the quality of interpersonal treatment received by people when procedures are implemented. This aspect of justice was referred to as interactional justice (Bies and Moag 1990; Colquitt et al. 2001). Subsequent scholarship expanded the concept of interactional justice to include two types of interpersonal treatment, namely interpersonal justice and informational justice (e.g., Cohen-

Charash and Spector 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001; Greenberg 1990, 1993). Interpersonal justice is described as the extent to which “people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by authorities or third parties involved in executing procedures or determining outcomes” (Colquitt et al. 2001, 427). Informational justice focuses on the quality of information received by employees from communication with their supervisor or managers (Cho and Sai 2013; Colquitt et al. 2001; Greenberg 1993).

Existing literature suggests that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice are strongly related, yet distinct constructs (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001, Colquitt et al. 2001). Research also suggests that procedural and distributive justice are adequate in making satisfactory predictions of several organizational outcomes (Colquitt et al. 2001). Interactional justice may be an organizational outcome that contributes to perceived distributive justice and is a part of organizational practice that determines perceived procedural justice (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001). In their meta-analysis of scholarship on organizational justice, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) found that distributive and procedural justice equally predict turnover intentions and interactional justice is least effective predictor of turnover intentions. Based on existing literature, this study focuses on the role of distributive and procedural aspects of organizational justice in lowering turnover intentions of federal employees, and particularly, their moderating effect on the relationship between turnover intentions and minority status of employees.

### ***Effects of Distributive and Procedural Justice on Employees' Turnover Intentions***

As noted above, the earliest concept associated with socio-psychological literature on organizational justice is the notion of distributive justice (Adams 1963, 1965). Distributive justice which refers to fairness in allocation of outcomes has significant implications in organizational contexts. Given the emphasis on outcomes, existing scholarship suggests that distributive justice is associated with cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions to specific outcomes. When an outcome (e.g., pay, awards, promotions) is perceived to unfair, it is expected to have an emotional impact on an individual (e.g., anger, guilt) (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Weiss, Suckow, and Cropanzano 1999) and has an effect on their cognitions (dissatisfaction about inequitable inputs/outputs ratio as compared to others; Adams 1965), and ultimately their behavior (e.g., withdrawal behaviors such as turnover intentions) (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001). Perceived fairness in distribution of outcomes is expected to have favorable impact on individual's emotions, cognitions, and behavioral responses. Therefore, it is expected that perceptions of distributive justice will have a negative impact on employees' turnover intentions.

*Hypothesis 2a: The odds of turnover intentions will decline with increase in perceived distributive justice.*

Similarly, because organizational procedures represent the mechanism by which an organization allocates resources, fairness in procedures is also expected to be associated with positive cognitive, emotional, and behavioral reactions towards the organization, such as organizational commitment and turnover intentions (e.g., Choi 2011b; Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Martin and Bennett 1996; Mossholder et al. 1998). However, in contrast to

reactions to distributive justice which are focused on outcomes, when an individual perceives (un) fairness in a process leading to specific outcome, his/her reactions are predicted to be directed at the entire organization (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001). When employees perceive procedural fairness in organizations, they have positive evaluations of their organizations and the management producing favorable behaviors such as higher organizational commitment and lower turnover intentions (Choi 2011b). It is therefore expected that:

*Hypothesis 2b: The odds of turnover intentions will decline with increase in perceived procedural justice.*

### ***Racial Differences in Effects of Distributive and Procedural Justice on Employees' Turnover Intentions***

Past research suggests that racial group membership will moderate employees' reactions to justice perceptions (Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen 1997). Potential explanations include self-interest or egocentric bias (Kulik et al. 1996; Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen 1997). The arguments based on ego-centric bias or self-interest suggest that certain outcomes and procedures might be preferred by beneficiaries of those outcomes and procedures than others (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Kulik et al. 1996; Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen 1997).

Existing studies indicate that two of the most commonly reported acts of workplace discrimination are not getting hired for a job and not getting promoted (e.g., Kessler, Mickelson, and Williams 1999). By nature, procedural and distributive aspects of organizational justice are expected to eliminate discrimination in procedures and economic outcomes (e.g., pay and promotion), respectively (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001). Therefore, while all employees are

expected to value fairness in distribution of outcome and procedures, employees belonging to racial and ethnic minorities are expected to attach higher value to distributive and procedural justice (e.g., Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley 1990; Jones, Ni, and Wilson 2009; Kahneman, Knetsch, and Thaler 1986; Rutte and Messick 1995). Marked differences in the subjective experiences of racial groups are expected to cause differences in their responses to organizational practices that enhance fairness (Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen 1997).

In summary, racial and ethnic minorities are expected to be particularly sensitive to fairness in treatment that contributes to receiving desired organizational rewards, helps to overcome organizational biases, and leads to fairer organizational decision making, thereby reacting more favourably through positive attitudinal consequences (Parker, Baltes, Christiansen 1997) such as diminished turnover intentions (Choi 2011b; Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Sabharwal 2015). Therefore, it is expected that:

*Hypothesis 2c: As compared to non-minorities, the odds of turnover intentions will be lower among minorities when they perceive distributive and procedural justice.*

### ***Managing Diversity***

The U.S. workforce has increasingly become more racially diverse. These diversity trends are even higher in public sector employment. In the context of the federal government, concerted and continued efforts have been made to increase racial diversity of workforce by making diversity a key issue in employee recruitment (Choi 2009; Riccucci 2002). While significant advancements are made in diversified recruitment to fulfil legal and policy requirements,

effective diversity management is critical to achieving organizational outcomes and success (Choi 2009; Mor Barak 1999).

The concept of diversity management evolved from the concept of affirmative action programs to make a business case for diversity to achieve organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Choi 2009; Wise and Tschirhart 2000). The term “managing diversity” was coined by Roosevelt Thomas in 1990 where he argued for the need to move beyond affirmative action (AA) and equal opportunities (EO) policies to develop the full potential of a growing workforce diversity (Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012; Thomas 1990). Ely and Thomas (2001) theorized that the rationale for organizational diversity could be based on the following three broad perspectives. Firstly, discrimination-and-fairness perspective which emphasizes the moral imperative of equality, justice, and fair treatment of all members. Secondly, the access-and-legitimacy perspective which recognizes that matching organization’s workforce to its diverse markets and constituencies is a means to gaining access and legitimacy in those markets and constituencies. And finally, integration-and-learning perspective which is founded on the principle that diverse employees add value to organizational learning and change processes as well as aid in achieving of workgroup goals through differences in their skills, experiences, and insights.

### ***Effects of Diversity Management Practices on Employees’ Turnover Intentions***

As noted above, one of the chief principles in diversity management paradigm is the recognition of individual differences for organizational success (Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012; Thomas and Ely 1996; Verbeek 2011). It differs from affirmative action and equal opportunity approaches

which are based on moral and legal grounds of non-discrimination and equality and focuses on the importance of diversity management for the economic success of organizations (Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012; Thomas 1990; Thomas and Ely 1996). While AA and EO traditionally focus on increasing the influx of racial and ethnic minorities into organizational employment at specific positions, diversity management focuses on the internal workings of organizations and considers behavioral change to address issues of integration and retention of racial and ethnic minorities after they are hired (Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012).

Existing research suggests that if not managed effectively, increased diversity may undermine group members' job satisfaction, decrease the individual's sense of social belonging and identification with their organization, consequently increasing employee turnover (Ancona and Caldwell 1992; Choi 2009; O'Reilly, Caldwell, and Barnett 1989; Smith et al. 1994). However, when diversity management practices are utilized effectively, it may result in achieving positive organizational outcomes such as reduced turnover intentions. As noted earlier, effective diversity management emphasizes respect for individual differences, promotion of workgroup diversity and representation, and integration of individuals from different backgrounds in workgroups (Choi 2009). In an age when working with a diverse workgroup has increasingly become an organizational reality (Thomas 1990), diversity management may alleviate potential conflicts that may arise when people of different backgrounds work together, and more importantly, may enhance social integration among individuals resulting in reduced turnover intentions (Choi 2009; Mor Barak 1999; Thomas 1990; Thomas and Ely 1996).

*Hypothesis 3a: The odds of turnover intentions will decline as perceived diversity management increase.*

***Racial Differences in Effects of Diversity Management on Employees' Turnover Intentions***

Social exchange theory has been widely applied to explain the effect of perceived organizational support through diversity management programs on employee retention (Caillier 2016; Ko and Hur 2014; Lee and Hong, 2011). The fundamental principle underlying social exchange theory is the existence of a reciprocal relationship between an organization and its employees. A high-quality exchange relationship may be established if employees perceive that their organization cares for them and benefit from positive actions directed towards them. Consequently, employees' will reciprocate through positive work behaviors and attitudes towards the organization (Caillier 2016; Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005; Ko and Hur 2014; Lee and Hong, 2011; Settoon et al., 1996).

Employees are likely to anthropomorphize (i.e., personify) their organizations. The actions taken by agents of the organization are thus viewed as actions of the organization itself, which in turn, produces reciprocal exchange relationships by employees with the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Levinson 1965). Perceived organizational support can result in the development of employee's global beliefs of the extent to which personified organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). Based on social exchange theory, it can be argued that organizational support in the form of diversity management programs will strengthen the reciprocal exchange

relationship between minority employees and their organizations resulting in lower turnover intentions.

Diversity management is a key element for creating an inclusive organization for minority employees. Through diversity management, organizations can promote an environment where employees of diverse backgrounds (e.g., racial minorities) feel safe and open about their identities, express their opinions, and communicate freely with other group members (Choi 2009; Ferdman et al. 2009; Ferdman et al. 2010; Pitts 2009; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015). The functional and structural interventions under the umbrella of diversity management (e.g., mentoring, coaching, and supervisory support and respect for employees of different backgrounds) are primarily directed to increase recruitment and retention of socially disadvantaged groups including racial and ethnic minorities (Sabharwal 2014).

In addition to the social exchange perspective, the self-interest perspective can be applied to develop a hypothesis about racial differences in responses to perceived organizational support through diversity management (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen 1997). Self-interest perspective suggests that organizational actions and programs directed to enhance equity and support for certain racial groups will be perceived more positively by racial groups primarily benefiting from the outcomes (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen 1997; Truxillo and Bauer 1999).

The literature on racial differences in attitudinal reactions to perceived organizational support through Affirmative Action (AA) and Equal Opportunities (EO) indicates that because these programs are designed to benefit racial-ethnic minorities, perceptions of organizational

support for AA/EO will enhance the career advancement expectancies among racial-ethnic minorities and produce positive attitudinal reactions (Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen 1997). These arguments can be extended to propose that perceived organizational support through diversity management programs, which are expected to have a similar impact on equitable treatment and career advancement expectancies of racial-ethnic minorities, will have a positive moderating effect on the relationship between turnover intentions and minority status. It is therefore expected that;

*Hypothesis 3b: Diversity management will have a negative moderating effect on the relationship between turnover intentions of employees and minority status.*

### ***Career Development Opportunities***

In addition to diversity management, career development opportunities are also expected to be perceived as positive organizational support for employees, resulting in lower turnover intentions. Career development focuses on the development of employees in that it benefits both individuals and the organization. The access to career development opportunities indicates an organization's willingness to develop a cadre of skilful employees that grow with the organization (Tan 2008a, 2008b).

### ***Effects of Career Development Opportunities on Employees' Turnover Intentions***

Based on social exchange theory, it can be argued that employees will perceive career development opportunities as organizational support and will reciprocate through lower turnover intentions (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Tan 2008; Wayne, Shore, and Liden 1997).

Organizations make significant investments in terms of money, time, and efforts for the

development of their employees. Existing research suggests that development opportunities signal employees' that their organizations cherishes and cares for them (Aguinis and Kraiger 2009; Kraimer et al. 2011; Tan 2008a). Such a developmental support is expected to not only facilitate individual learning and growth, enhance skills, competencies, and job performances of the employees' benefiting from the developmental programs, but to also enhance the organization's relationship with its employees, resulting in increased retention (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, and Axelrod 2001; Kraimer et al. 2011; Tan 2008a). It is therefore expected that:

*Hypothesis 4a: The odds of turnover intentions will decline as perceived career development opportunities increase.*

### ***Racial Differences in Effects of Career Development Opportunities on Employees' Turnover Intentions***

This study claims that minorities will respond more positively to career development opportunities than non-minorities. The social cognitive career theory (SCCT) guides the hypothesis regarding racial differences effects of career development opportunities on employees' turnover intentions (Hackett and Byars 1996; Lent and Brown 1996). The SCCT framework is derived from Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory and "focuses on the processes through which a) academic and career interests develop, b) interests, in concert with other variables, promote career-relevant choices, and c) people attain varying levels of performance and persistence in their educational and career pursuits" (Lent and Brown 1996, 311).

SCCT highlights that individuals regulate their own career behavior based on self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, and personal goals (see Lent and Brown 1996). Race and ethnicity are argued to be one of the important personal and contextual variables that shape an individual's career development. SCCT views race as a socially conferred and constructed status that transcends biological properties and is concerned with psychological and social effects of race status. Socially conferred and constructed racial status has a determining effect on an individual's exposure to learning opportunities, the characteristic reactions (support or discouragement) they receive for performing various activities, and the future outcomes they anticipate. In other words, race and ethnicity affect career interest, choice, and performance through differential learning experiences that give rise to individual's subjective self-efficacy and outcome expectations (Lent and Brown 1996).

In addition to these early influences of racial status, SCCT claims that individual's career efficacy and outcome expectations are influenced by ongoing contextual factors that act as moderators, facilitators, or deterrents (e.g., structural opportunities and barriers) (Hackett and Byars 1996). Minority employees may perceive organizational support in the form of career development opportunities as structural opportunities to cope with challenges posed by their racial status (e.g., overt or subtle discrimination) and enhance their career outcome expectancies (Hackett and Byars 1996). This consequently results in more favourable attitudes and to lower turnover intentions than their non-minority counterparts.

*Hypothesis 4b: Career development opportunities will have a negative moderating effect on the relationship between minority status and turnover intentions of employees.*

## IV. DATA AND METHODS

This study uses Federal Employees Viewpoint Survey data for ten time-periods<sup>10</sup> between the years 2006-2017 (see table 4.1). These data are made available by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management. Table 4.1 provides year-wise details of total sample of employees identifying as minorities and non-minorities. Of the total employees considered in this study across years, minorities represented between 29% to 32%. The FEVS data are weighted or adjusted to represent the population from which the sample are drawn (The U.S. Office of Personnel Management n.d.). These weights were considered for regression analysis.

As noted earlier, this study used a pooled time series cross-sectional data for the 10 years between 2006-2017. And, the outcome variable of interest is turnover intention which is binary in nature (Yes=1; No=0). Therefore, logistic regression method is used for pooled time series cross-sectional (PTSC) analysis. The PTSC method allows to control for space and time variations (Podestà 2002; Tourangeau 2003). In this study, controls include agency and year fixed effects (Park 2009). Robust standard errors were clustered at an agency level to allow for intragroup correlations.<sup>11</sup> These checks helped to improve the precision of the estimates.

### **Measurements**

#### ***Outcome Variable: Turnover Intention***

This study utilizes turnover intention of federal employees as an outcome variable. Turnover intention is measured using the following item: “Are you considering leaving your organization

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<sup>10</sup> Data were not available for years 2007 and 2009.

<sup>11</sup> In other words, the usual requirement that observations be independent was relaxed.

within the next year, and if so, why?” The item includes following responses: a) No; b) Yes, to take another job within the Federal Government; c) Yes, to take another job outside the Federal Government; and d) Yes, other. Based on responses, turnover intention was separated into two categories: ‘intention to leave for another federal government job’, and ‘intention to leave for outside federal government job’. Dummy variables were created for each category. The ‘no’ responses indicated by ‘a’ were coded as 0 for both categories. ‘Another federal government job’ and ‘outside federal government job’ responses were coded as 1, respectively. For example, dummy variable labeled as ‘intention to leave for another federal government job’ included ‘no’ responses showed as ‘a’= 0 and ‘yes’ responses indicated by ‘b’ = 1.

### ***Explanatory Variables***

#### ***Minority Status***

Minority status of an employee is represented by a demographic measure included in the FEVS asking individuals to identify as ‘minority’ or ‘non-minority’. The “yes” responses were coded as “1” and “no” responses were coded as 0. For years 2006 and 2008, the FEVS asked individuals to identify as ‘American Indian or Alaskan Native’, ‘Asian’, ‘Black or African American’, ‘Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander’, ‘White’, and ‘Two or more races’. For consistent coding of this variable across years, responses to ‘White’ were coded as ‘0’ and all other responses were coded as ‘1’.

#### ***Organizational Justice, Diversity Management, and Career Development Opportunities***

Based on the existing literature, the following two elements of organizational justice are considered in this study: distributive and procedural justice (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001). In addition to effects of organizational justice, this study also focuses on the

racial differences in the impact of perceived organizational support represented by diversity management (Choi 2009; Ferdman et al. 2009; Ferdman et al. 2010; Pitts 2009; The U.S. Office of Personnel Management 2015) and career development opportunities (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, and Axelrod, 2001; Kraimer et al. 2011; Tan 2008a; Tan 2008b) on turnover intentions.

The direct and moderating effects of each of these variables (i.e., distributive and procedural justice, diversity management, and career development opportunities) are modeled. Each variable was represented using a factor score of respective items used to measure it. All items were measured on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 5 for ‘Strongly Agree’ or ‘Very Satisfied’ responses and 1 for ‘Strongly Disagree’ or ‘Very Dissatisfied’ responses. To meet face validity, all measures for these variables were based on respective definitions of the constructs and are consistent with measures used in past research using FEVS data (e.g., Choi 2011; Cho and Sai 2013; Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001; Pitts 2009). Measures were also tested for reliability and discriminant validity. The Cronbach alpha values, the eigenvalues for the factor, the estimated factor coefficients and the t-test means comparisons (for employees with and without disability) for items measuring distributive and procedural justice, diversity management, and career development opportunities are described in table 4.2.

### *Controls*

This study controls for job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, and organizational satisfaction which are expected to have a significant negative impact on employee turnover intentions (Cantarelli, Belardinelli, and Belle 2015). All three variables (job, pay, and organizational satisfaction) are measured on a scale from 1-5 (1= very dissatisfied, 5= very satisfied) and measured, by the following questions: “Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job?”;

“Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job?”; and “Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your organization?”. Other controls<sup>12</sup> include employee’s sex (female=1) and supervisory status (yes=1). To control for agency and year fixed effects, dummy variables were generated for all agencies and all years included in this study.

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<sup>12</sup> Controls for relevant demographic variables such as age and years of government experience were not included in the fixed effects models due to issues of multicollinearity. Education was not included as the data was not available for all years.

## V. RESULTS

The findings of the t-test mean comparisons of items measuring attitudes and perceptions of minority and non-minority employees with respect turnover intentions, job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, organizational satisfaction, career development opportunities, diversity management, and distributive and procedural justice are presented in table 4.2. These findings indicate that, on an average, minority employees are likely to have significantly higher overall satisfaction with their organization compared to non-minority employees (Mean minority employees =3.52, Mean non-minority employees =3.51,  $p<0.001$ , scale=1-5), yet have a lower satisfaction with their pay (Mean minority employees =3.43, Mean non-minority employees =3.56,  $p<0.001$ , scale=1-5), and lower job satisfaction (Mean minority employees =3.71, Mean non-minority employees =3.73,  $p<0.001$ , scale=1-5). With respect to turnover intentions, on average, minority employees expressed higher intention to leave for another federal government job (Mean minority employees =.236, Mean non-minority employees =.179,  $p<0.001$ , scale=0-1), but a lower intention to leave for outside federal government jobs (Mean minority employees =.055, Mean non-minority employees =.037,  $p<0.001$ , scale=0-1) compared to non-minority employees.

It is important to also note that the mean values of all items used for measuring career development opportunities, diversity management, and procedural justice were significantly lower for minority employees. With respect to items used for measuring distributive justice, the mean values of all except one item (i.e., “pay raises depend on how well employees perform their jobs”) were significantly lower for minority employees when compared to non-minority employees (see table-4.2).

Pairwise correlations for study variables are reported in tables 4.3 and 4.4. These tables used two separate measures of turnover intentions: ‘intention to leave for another federal government job’ and ‘intention to leave for outside federal government job’, respectively. Study variables did not show high multicollinearity issues. Table 4.5 reports the findings of multiple regression analysis for pooled time series cross-sectional (PTSC) data.

The logistic regression was used for analysis, with robust standard errors clustered at agency levels, and controls including agency and year fixed effects. The odds of federal employees’ intentions to leave for ‘another federal government job’, and ‘outside federal government job’ were separately examined (see table 4.5 for both coefficients and the odds ratio). It is more informative to interpret the findings of a logistic regression by observing the change in odds ratio. An odds ratio above 1 indicates that a unit change in the independent variable leads to an increase in the odds that the dependent variable equals 1, while an odds ratio that is below 1 indicates that a unit change in the independent variable leads to a decrease in the odds that the dependent variable equals 1 (Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal 2012).

Table 4.5 describes results for two measures of outcome variable turnover intention, that is, ‘intention to leave for another federal government job’ (see model 1), and ‘intention to leave for outside federal government job’ (see model 2). Findings for each model with regards to support for theoretical hypotheses will be examined separately below.

### **Findings for Intentions to Leave for Another Federal Government Job: Model 1**

Model 1 shows support for hypothesis 1. As compared to non-minority employees, the odds for turnover intentions for another federal government job (hereafter turnover intentions) among

minority employees were found to be significantly higher by 46% (Odds ratio = 1.46,  $p < 0.001$ ). Hypotheses 2a and 2b were also supported. Accordingly, distributive justice (Odds ratio = 0.92,  $p < 0.001$ ) and procedural justice (Odds ratio = .90,  $p < 0.001$ ) were found to significantly lower the odds of federal employee turnover intentions by 8% and 10%, respectively. And, as expected in hypothesis 2c, model 1 indicates support for significant racial differences in the effect of distributive and procedural justice on federal employee turnover intentions. As compared to non-minorities, the odds of turnover intentions were significantly lower for minorities, by 4% and 3%, respectively, when they perceived higher distributive justice (Odds ratio = 0.96,  $p < 0.05$ ) and procedural justice (Odds ratio = 0.97,  $p < 0.10$ ).

Contrary to expectations in hypothesis 3a, organizational support for diversity management was found to increase the odds of federal employee turnover intentions (Odds ratio = 1.29,  $p < 0.001$ ). However, as expected in hypothesis 3b, there were indications of significant racial differences in the effect of diversity management on federal employee turnover intentions. As compared to non-minorities, the odds of turnover intentions were significantly lower (by 5 %) for minorities when perceived organizational support for diversity management increased (Odds ratio = 0.95,  $p < 0.05$ ).

With respect to the effect of career development opportunities on turnover intentions, model 1 showed support for hypothesis 4a, but indicated contradictory results for hypothesis 4b. As proposed in hypothesis 4a, perceived organizational support for career development opportunities were found to lower the odds of federal employee turnover intention by 28% (Odds ratio = 0.72,  $p < 0.001$ ). However, contrary to hypothesis 4b, the odds of turnover intentions were

significantly higher (by 8%) for minorities as perceived organizational support for career development opportunities increased (Odds ratio = 0.95,  $p < 0.05$ ). Thus, except for hypothesis 3a and 4b, findings for model-1 with respect to turnover intentions for another federal government job indicated support for all other study hypotheses.

### **Findings for Intentions to Leave for Outside Federal Government Job: Model 2**

As stated earlier, model 2 (presented in table 4.5) examined all the study hypotheses with respect to turnover intentions for outside federal government jobs. The first hypothesis about racial differences in turnover intentions of federal employees was not supported in model 2. As compared to non-minority employees, the odds for turnover intentions for outside federal government job (hereafter turnover intentions) among minority employees were found to be significantly lower by 29% (Odds ratio = 0.71,  $p < 0.001$ ).

With respect to direct effects proposed in hypotheses 2a, 2b, 3a, and 4a, these findings indicated support for only hypotheses 2a and 4a. More specifically, procedural justice (Odds ratio = 1.02, not significant at  $p < 0.10$ ) and perceived organizational support for diversity management (Odds ratio = 1.35,  $p < 0.001$ ) did not have the desired negative effect on the odds of federal employee turnover intentions. However, distributive justice (Odds ratio = 0.86,  $p < 0.001$ ) and perceived organizational support for career development opportunities (Odds ratio = 0.88,  $p < 0.001$ ) were found to lower the odds of federal employee turnover intentions by 14% and 12%, respectively.

Hypotheses 2c with respect to racial differences in the effects of distributive justice and procedural justice on turnover intentions was supported in model 2. As compared to non-

minorities, the odds of turnover intentions were significantly lower for minorities, by 12% and 4%, respectively, when they perceived higher distributive (Odds ratio = 0.88,  $p < 0.05$ ) and procedural justice (Odds ratio = 0.96,  $p < 0.10$ ). Contrary to hypotheses 3b and 4b, no significant racial differences were found in the effects of perceived organizational support for diversity management and career development opportunities, respectively.

In both models 1 and 2, control variables, job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, and overall organizational satisfaction were found to significantly lower the odds of federal employee turnover intentions. The individual and demographic controls for sex and supervisory position of an employee indicated that the odds of turnover intentions for outside federal government jobs were significantly higher for those in supervisory positions (Odds ratio= 1.25,  $p < 0.001$ ) and significantly lower for female employees (Odds ratio= 0.64,  $p < 0.001$ ) (see model 2, table 4.5).

## VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The federal government aims to enhance the representation of racial and ethnic minorities at all levels of government (Cobert 2016). Increased racial diversity is found to add value to public organizations by enabling the expansion of outreach to a diverse client bases (Mann 1974; Main, Bowman, and Peters 1972; Mizio 1972; Ely and Thomas 2001; Kranz 1974; Thompson 1976; Thomas and Ely 1996) and is positively associated with organizational outcomes such as increased performance and innovation, higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Ely and Thomas 2001; Ferdman et al. 2009; Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012; Ng and Burke 2005; Pitts 2009; Shore et al 2011; Vohra et al. 2015; Scanlon et al. 2018; Theus 2018; Thomas and Ely 1996). However, existing literature suggests that based on their social identities, minority employees are more likely to experience subtle and overt forms of organizational discrimination (e.g., Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley 1990; Jones, Ni, and Wilson 2009) which is expected to increase their withdrawal behaviors Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley 1990; Cox and Blake 1991; McKay et al. 2007; Volpone and Avery 2013).

This study applies modern discrimination theories (Marchiondo, Ran, and Cortina 2018; Cheung et al. 2016) to argue that as compared to non-minorities, minority federal employees will exhibit higher odds of turnover intentions. Furthermore, perceived organizational support and organizational justice perspective were considered as a way of examining factors that could enhance turnover intentions of federal employees in general, as well as for racial-ethnic minorities (Cheung et al. 2016; Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001;

Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). Figure 4.1 depicts the theoretical model used in this study.

While minorities were expected to show higher odds of turnover intentions (hypothesis 1), it was also expected that organizational justice factors, represented by distributive and procedural justice will have a negative impact on turnover intentions of federal employees (hypotheses 2a and 2b, respectively), and this negative effect would be higher for racial and ethnic minorities (hypothesis 2c). It was also proposed that perceived organizational support in the forms of diversity management and career development opportunities would have a negative effect on turnover intentions of federal employees (hypotheses 3a and 4a, respectively), and that negative effect would be higher for racial and ethnic minorities (hypothesis 3b and 4b).

This study used two measures for outcome variable turnover intentions: ‘intention to leave for another federal government job’ and ‘intention to leave for outside federal government job’. The findings for both regression models (models 1 and 2) are described in table 4.5. Logistic regression with pooled time series cross-sectional analysis was used. Both models included controls for agency and year fixed effects. Other controls included demographic and individual characteristics (i.e., sex and supervisory status), organizational satisfaction, pay satisfaction, and job satisfaction. In addition to regression analysis, t-test means comparisons for minorities and non-minorities on items used to measure study variables revealed significant racial differences (see table 4.2).

The findings based on the t-test analysis showed that with exception to one of the items used for measuring distributive justice, minorities had lower mean values for all other items

measuring distributive justice, procedural justice, diversity management, and career development opportunities. Interestingly with respect to turnover intentions minorities showed higher mean values for intentions to leave for another federal government job, but lower mean values for intentions to leave for outside federal government job compared to non-minorities (see table 4.2).

These findings are consistent with the findings of models 1 and 2 of regression analysis (see table 4.5). While model 1 supports hypothesis 1 and indicates that the odds of turnover intentions for another federal government job were higher among minority employees, model 2 reveals that minority employees had lower odds of turnover intentions for outside federal government jobs than non-minorities. These findings were consistent with the existing literature on racial differences on turnover intentions for federal employees (e.g., Choi 2009; Pitts, Marvel, and Fernandez 2011).

Using the 2004 Federal Human Capital Survey (FHCS) data administered by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management, Choi (2009) found that minority employees exhibit higher turnover intentions as compared to non-minorities. However, another study by Pitts et al. (2011) using 2006 FHCS data distinguished employee turnover intentions to leave their agencies from intentions to leave the federal government. They found that although minority employees were more likely to have intentions of leaving existing jobs for employment in other federal agencies, they were less likely to have intentions of leaving the federal employment compared to non-minorities.

These differential turnover attitudes of minority employees can be explained based on sectoral differences in employment opportunities and experiences of racial and ethnic minorities

(Cho and Lewis 2012; Llorens, Wenger, and Kellough 2008; Long 1975). While racial disparities continue to exist in modern organizations (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley 1990; Jones, Ni, and Wilson 2009; Lewis 1998; Riccucci 2002), the protection for discrimination against members of “protected” groups such as minorities was found to be more effective and the wage differential between majority and minorities was lower in the federal government than the private sector (Asher and Popkin 1984; Blank 1985; Lewis and Frank 2002). Systematic investigation of sectoral differences in employment opportunities for minorities have indicated that race-based wage differentials and payoffs from education were higher in the public sector than private sector (Cho and Lewis 2012; Llorens, Wenger, and Kellough 2008; Long 1975).

Furthermore, studies examining the sectoral differences in diversity policies indicate that in comparison to private sector organizations, public sector organizations report a greater number of diversity policies that are designed to improve the influx of ethnic minorities and managing ethnic diversity (Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012). Altogether, these findings indicate implicit support in favor that the public sector is a “low discriminator or non-discriminator” compared to the private sector. This can be attributed to factors such as the “special interest effect” of minorities as well as bureaucratic rules and regulations that are designed to safeguard fairness in hiring and career advancements (Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012; Long 1975). It also implies that employment guidelines for protected groups such as minorities are more effectively enforced by the government, than for private sector employment (Blank 1985). Moreover, past research also indicates that as compared to non-minorities with similar characteristics, racial minorities exhibit a significantly higher preference to work for the government (Lewis and Frank 2002).

In the broader context of existing literature on sectoral differences in employment preferences of minorities, the findings of this study have important implications for the retention of the best, the brightest and racially diverse employees in the federal government. As the intensity of sectoral competition for hiring and retaining continues to rise (Guy 1993; Kim 2008; Lee and Wilkins 2011), the findings of this study demonstrates that the federal government is more effective in retaining its minority employees. This finding implies that the recruitment and retention of minorities can give the federal government a strategic advantage through increased diversity by promoting a higher continuance commitment among employees, consequently lowering the costs due to employee turnover. This study also argued (in hypotheses 2c) and showed that as compared to non-minorities, the odds of intentions to leave for outside federal government jobs are significantly lower for minority employees when perceived distributive and procedural justice increases (see model 2, table 4.2).

While minorities (were found to have lower odds of turnover intentions for outside federal government job, they were also found to have significantly higher odds of leaving their agencies for another federal government job. This finding is particularly important as the odds of leaving for another federal government job declined, particularly for minorities, when they perceived higher distributive and procedural justice (hypotheses 2a-2c) and higher organizational support for diversity management (hypothesis 3a and 3b). These findings imply that federal agencies can retain their racially diverse talent and benefit from them through effective management of diversity through enhanced fairness in distribution of outcomes (i.e., distributive justice) and in fairness in organizational procedures (i.e., procedural justice).

Interestingly, contrary to expectations in hypothesis 3a, both models 1 and 2 (in table 4.5) showed that in general, an increase in perceived organizational support for diversity management was associated with higher odds of federal employee turnover intentions. An analysis of findings for hypotheses 3a and 3b for effects of diversity management on turnover intention suggests that while perceived organizational support in the form of diversity management has desired negative moderating effect on reducing turnover intentions of minorities for another federal government job), it has a positive effect on turnover intentions of federal employees in general. One of the potential explanation for this finding is offered based on egocentric bias or self-interest perspective (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen 1997; Truxillo and Bauer 1999).

As stated earlier, self-interest perspective suggests that organizational efforts to enhance equity for certain racial groups through diversity management programs may be perceived more positively by racial groups primarily benefiting from its outcomes (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen 1997; Truxillo and Bauer 1999). On the contrary, white employees who may not directly benefit from diversity management efforts and/or those who view these efforts as a challenge to career opportunities may express unfavorable responses to diversity management programs (Parker, Baltes, and Christiansen 1997) such as higher turnover intentions.

Overall, findings of this study contribute to the existing literature on diversity, inclusion, and retention of racially diverse workforce across years and agencies by highlighting the importance of perceived organizational justice (i.e., distributive and procedural justice) and

perceived organizational support for diversity management. These findings have important practical implications for public management. Organizational leaders working towards enhancing retention of their racially and ethnically diverse workforce should pay special attention to effective implementation of diversity management programs and enhancing distributive and procedural justice. More research is needed to understand the effect of diversity management on employees belonging to majority groups (e.g., whites) as such programs may have negative side-effects on the attitudes and behaviors of these groups. Future research is also needed to understand means of making diversity management programs beneficial to all employees.

Like similar studies using the federal employees' viewpoint survey (FEVS) data (e.g., Caillier 2016; Sabharwal 2015), this study has limitations related to the use of survey questions. Self-reports are used for measurements of minority status and are therefore likely to have some degree of inaccuracy due to over or under reporting. Another limitation is related to inadequacy of measures to distinguish between types of racial minorities. Information on minority type is not available for all years of FEVS data to protect employee's anonymity. Further research is needed to investigate the effects of perceived organizational support and organizational justice on retention of minorities classified based on type of race and ethnicity, sexual orientation, disabilities, and gender. For instance, existing literature suggests that minority women may face dual disadvantage due to their race and gender identities (Hackett et al. 1996). Future research can use such a nuanced approach to examine the experiences of minorities in the government.

**APPENDIX C: SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR CHAPTER 4**

Table 4.1: Year-Wise Total Sample Size of Minority and Non-Minority Employees					
Year	Minorities		Non-Minorities		Total Employees
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	
2006	64,739	29.23	156,740	70.77	221,479
2008	65,975	31.09	146,248	68.91	212,223
2010	81,188	33.16	163,684	66.84	244,872
2011	83,003	34.34	158,721	65.66	241,724
2012	211,091	33.86	412,299	66.14	623,390
2013	112,942	34.08	218,452	65.92	331,394
2014	120,168	34.36	229,578	65.64	349,746
2015	130,153	34.46	247,557	65.54	377,710
2016	126,498	34.63	238,806	65.37	365,304
2017	125,798	31.78	270,057	68.22	395,855

Table 4.2: T-test Mean Comparisons of Key Study Variables for Minority and Non-Minority Employees			
	Non-Minorities	Minorities	Min-Max
	Mean (S.D.)	Mean (S.D.)	
Intention to leave for another federal government job (Yes=1, No=0)	.179 (.383)	.236*** (.425)	0-1
Intention to leave for outside federal government job (Yes=1, No=0)	.055*** (.228)	.037 (.189)	0-1
<i>Distributive Justice</i> <i>Cronbach's Alpha=0.82; Eigenvalue= 2.15; Factor loadings=0.58 and above</i>			
My performance appraisal is a fair reflection of my performance	3.76*** (1.11)	3.68 (1.18)	1-5
Promotions in my work unit are based on merit.	3.01*** (1.22)	2.91 (1.24)	1-5
Awards in my work unit depend on how well employees perform their jobs.	3.13*** (1.21)	3.08 (1.25)	1-5
Pay raises depend on how well employees perform their jobs.	2.56 (1.16)	2.71*** (1.19)	1-5
<i>Procedural Justice</i> <i>Cronbach's Alpha = 0.85; Eigenvalue= 1.86; Factor loadings=0.71 and above</i>			
I can disclose a suspected violation of any law, rule or regulation without fear of reprisal.	3.65*** (1.19)	3.50 (1.24)	1-5
Arbitrary action, personal favoritism and coercion for partisan political purposes are not tolerated.	3.45*** (1.22)	3.26 (1.25)	1-5
Prohibited Personnel Practices (for example, illegally discriminating for or against any employee/applicant, obstructing a person's right to compete for employment, knowingly violating veterans' preference requirements) are not tolerated	3.84*** (1.06)	3.57 (1.17)	1-5
<i>Diversity Management</i> <i>Cronbach's Alpha = 0.79; Eigenvalue= 1.56; Factor loadings= 0.68 and above</i>			

Policies and programs promote diversity in the workplace (for example, recruiting minorities and women, training in awareness of diversity issues, mentoring	3.68*** (.982)	3.38 (1.15)	1-5
My supervisor/team leader is committed to a workforce representative of all segments of society.	3.88*** (1.00)	3.72 (1.12)	1-5
Managers/supervisors/team leaders work well with employees of different backgrounds.	3.76*** (.997)	3.53 (1.12)	1-5
<i>Career Development Opportunities</i> <i>Cronbach's Alpha = 0.85; Eigenvalue = 2.34; Factor loadings = 0.66 and above</i>			
How satisfied are you with your opportunity to get a better job in your organization?	3.00*** (1.20)	2.99 (1.23)	1-5
I am given a real opportunity to improve my skills in my organization.	3.64*** (1.10)	3.56 (1.17)	1-5
Supervisors/team leaders in my work unit provide employees with the opportunities to demonstrate their leadership skills.	3.78*** (1.13)	3.69 (1.19)	1-5
Supervisors/team leaders in my work unit support employee development.	3.78*** (1.10)	3.67 (1.18)	1-5
<i>Control Variables</i>			
Job Satisfaction: Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job?	3.73*** (1.06)	3.71 (1.07)	1-5
Pay Satisfaction: Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your pay?	3.56*** (1.13)	3.43 (1.18)	1-5
Organizational Satisfaction: Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your organization?	3.51 (1.10)	3.52*** (1.11)	1-5

Table 4.3: Pairwise Correlations Matrix of Study Variables

Outcome Variable: Intention to Leave for Another Federal Government Job

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Turnover for another federal government job	1										
2	Minority	.06***	1									
3	Female	-.001**	-.13***	1								
4	Supervisor	-.05***	-.06***	-.10***	1							
5	Distributive Justice	-.29***	-.01***	-.02***	.18***	1						
6	Procedural Justice	-.29***	-.09***	-.06***	.17***	.69***	1					
7	Diversity Management	-.27***	-.12***	-.06***	.14***	.68***	0.74***	1				
8	Career Development Opportunities	-.34***	-.04***	-.03***	.16***	.73***	.69***	.76***	1			
9	Job Satisfaction	-.40***	-.004***	-.009***	.09***	.60***	0.58***	.60***	.69***	1		
10	Pay Satisfaction	-.21***	-.05***	-0.00	.10***	.44***	.35***	.36***	.40***	.43***	1	
11	Organizational Satisfaction	-.36***	.001***	.007***	.09***	.64***	.63***	.63***	.67***	.77***	.44***	1

Table 4.4: Pairwise Correlations Matrix of Study Variables

Outcome Variable: Intention to Leave for Another Federal Government Job

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Turnover for outside federal government job	1										
2	Minority	.04***	1									
3	Female	-.05**	-.13***	1								
4	Supervisor	-.006***	-.06***	-.10***	1							
5	Distributive Justice	-.18***	-.01***	-.02***	.18***	1						
6	Procedural Justice	-.15***	-.09***	-.06***	.17***	.69***	1					
7	Diversity Management	-.14***	-.12***	-.06***	.14***	.68***	0.74***	1				
8	Career Development Opportunities	-.20***	-.04***	-.03***	.16***	.73***	.69***	.76***	1			
9	Job Satisfaction	-.29***	-.004***	-.009***	.09***	.60***	0.58***	.60***	.69***	1		
10	Pay Satisfaction	-.18***	-.05***	-0.00	.10***	.44***	.35***	.36***	.40***	.43***	1	
11	Organizational Satisfaction	-.25***	.001***	.007***	.09***	.64***	.63***	.63***	.67***	.77***	0.44***	1

Table 4.5: Pooled Time Series Cross-Sectional Analysis				
Statistical Procedure: Multiple Logistic Regression Analysis with Agency & Year Fixed Effects, Robust Standard Errors Clustered at Agency Level				
Outcome Variable: Turnover Intention				
	Model 1		Model 2	
	Intention to leave for another federal government job		Intention to leave for outside federal government job	
	Coefficient	Odds Ratio	Coefficient	Odds Ratio
Minority (Yes=1)	.380*** (.031)	1.46*** (.046)	-.34*** (.035)	.71*** (.025)
Female	-.010 (.047)	.989 (.046)	-.45*** (.039)	.64*** (.025)
Supervisor (Yes=1)	-.005 (.037)	.994 (.036)	.226*** (.057)	1.25*** (.071)
Distributive Justice	-.088*** (.019)	.92*** (.018)	-.15*** (.035)	.86*** (.03)
Procedural Justice	-.10*** (.013)	.90*** (.011)	.028 (.023)	1.02 (.024)
Diversity Management	.260*** (.014)	1.29*** (.019)	.30*** (.028)	1.35*** (.038)
Career Development Opportunities	-.325*** (.018)	.722*** (.013)	-.13*** (.017)	.88*** (.015)
Distributive Justice*Minority	-.042** (.017)	.96** (.017)	-.13** (.054)	.88** (.047)
Procedural Justice*Minority	-.029* (.015)	.97* (.015)	-.043* (.023)	.96* (.022)
Diversity Management*Minority	-.05** (.02)	.95** (.02)	.034 (.034)	1.03 (.035)
Career Development Opportunities*Minority	.08*** (.020)	1.08*** (.022)	-.022 (.021)	.98 (.021)
Job Satisfaction	-.56*** (.012)	.570*** (.007)	-.747*** (.019)	.473*** (.009)
Pay Satisfaction	-.105*** (.009)	.899*** (.008)	-.276*** (.012)	.758*** (.009)
Organizational Satisfaction	-.239*** (.013)	.787*** (.010)	-.33*** (.026)	.716*** (.018)
Controlled for Year fixed effects <sup>a</sup>	Yes		Yes	
Controlled for Agency fixed effects	Yes		Yes	
Intercept	2.18*** (.067)	8.91*** (.598)	2.17*** (.114)	8.78*** (1.00)
Pseudo R2	0.1828		0.2227	
N	1838114		1568645	

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Robust standard errors clustered at agency levels in parentheses.  
<sup>a</sup> 10 time-periods are included: 2006, 2008, and 2010-2017

Table 4.6: Summary of Findings		
Hypothesis	Support for Hypothesis	
	<i>Model 1</i>	<i>Model 2</i>
Hypothesis 1: As compared to non-minorities, odds of turnover intentions will be higher among minority federal employees.	Supported	Not Supported
Hypothesis 2a: The odds of turnover intentions will decline with increase in perceived distributive justice.	Supported	Supported
Hypothesis 2b: The odds of turnover intentions will decline with increase in perceived procedural justice.	Supported	Not Supported
Hypothesis 2c: As compared to non-minorities, the odds of turnover intentions will be lower among minorities when they perceive distributive and procedural justice	Supported	Supported
Hypothesis 3a: The odds of turnover intentions will decline as perceived diversity management increase.	Not Supported	Not Supported
Hypothesis 3b: Diversity management will have a negative moderating effect on the relationship between turnover intentions of employees and minority status.	Supported	Not Supported
Hypothesis 4a: The odds of turnover intentions will decline as perceived career development opportunities increase.	Supported	Supported
Hypothesis 4b: Career development opportunities will have a negative moderating effect on the relationship between turnover intentions of employees and minority status.	Not Supported	Not Supported
Note: See table 4.5 for more details on model 1 and 2		
Model 1: Outcome Variable is Intention to Leave for Another Federal Government Job		
Model 2: Outcome Variable is Intention to Leave for Outside Federal Government Job		

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## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS**

This dissertation research contributes to the existing literature on social equity, diversity, and inclusion from a strategic human resources management perspective. The three studies constituting this dissertation focus on retention attitudes of employees contributing to organizational diversity, namely those identifying as women, employees with disabilities, and racial-ethnic minorities (see chapters 2, 3 and 4). Turnover intentions represent a final decisive factor in sequence of withdrawal cognitions of employees (Tett and Meyer 1993). Withdrawal cognitions are a result of contributing factors such as an employee's job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and career advancement opportunities (Tett and Meyer 1993; Sabharwal 2015). Motivating employees and enhancing their retention are one of the chief managerial challenges, particularly in era of high inter-sectoral competition for the best and the brightest and increased workforce diversity.

Existing literature has broadened our understanding of the importance and the value of representative bureaucracy and diversity in public organizations, yet we know little about the attitudes, challenges, and experiences of public employees who contribute to the representativeness and diversity in public organizations. This dissertation is an effort to advance empirical research in such a direction. Another major goal of this dissertation is to enhance our understanding of diversity and inclusion from a nuanced perspective by focusing on some of the understudied issues that are relevant to women, minorities, and employees with a disability.

The first study (chapter 2) focuses on gender differences in satisfaction with structural provisions such as child care programs and its differential impact on retention of male and female federal employees. Based on Eagly's (1987) social role theory of sex differences and Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruity theory of prejudice towards female leaders, this study argued and empirically established that significant gender differences exist in the utilization and impact of child care programs. Using agency-level longitudinal panel analysis from 2010-2015 federal employees' viewpoint survey (FEVS) data, this study also showed that structural provisions such as child care programs are not adequate in the retention of employees, particularly, among female employees. However, organizational inclusion plays a critical role in achieving the desired impact of child care programs on retention of female employees. Thus, the first study (chapter 2) contributes to the literature and practice of human resources management by demonstrating that the formulation and implementation of diversity management programs that have gender implications, such as child care programs, should account for gender differences that are often determined by cultural norms and gender stereotypes. It is also important to recognize that organizational inclusion, through practices that enhance perceived fairness or justice, openness to diversity, empowerment, supportiveness, and cooperativeness, is the key to success of structural provisions such as child care programs aimed at enhancing the welfare and retention of female employees with child care responsibilities.

The second study (chapter 3) focuses on critically under-researched area of diversity and inclusion, concerning the attitudes of employees with disabilities (Sabharwal, Levine, and D'Agostino 2016; Schur et al. 2017). This study contributes to the theory and practice of public

human resources management by examining turnover attitudes of federal employees with a disability as compared to non-disabled employees. Findings of this study are based on a pooled time series cross sectional analysis of 2012-2015 FEVS data and establish that when compared to the non-disabled employees, the odds of turnover intentions are higher among employees with disabilities. However, organizations can significantly lower these turnover attitudes by enhancing organizational inclusion factors represented by justice or fairness.

The third and final study of this dissertation (chapter 4) contributes to the literature on diversity and inclusion of racial-ethnic minorities. Though the importance and value of racial and ethnic diversity in public organizations for organizational success is widely established (e.g., Pitts 2009; Scanlon et al. 2018; Shore et al. 2011; Theus 2018; Thomas and Ely 1996; Vohra et al. 2015), we know little about the racial differences in turnover attitudes of public employees (Choi 2009; Pitts et al. 2011). This study contributes to the theory and practice of public human resource management by examining racial differences in turnover attitudes of federal employees and the role of perceived organizational support and organizational justice in reducing these turnover attitudes. The study uses pooled time series cross sectional analysis of FEVS data for 11 years from 2006-2017.

The findings of this study have strong implications for public sector strategic human resources management. Compared to non-minorities, employees who identified as a minority were found to have higher turnover intentions for another job within federal government, but significantly lower turnover intentions for a job outside the federal government. This finding has important implications for federal employee retention in the context of increased inter-sectoral

competition for hiring the best and the brightest diverse employees (Guy 1993; Kim 2008; Lee and Wilkins 2011). It suggests that the federal government may have an advantage over other organizations (e.g., other public sector and private sector organizations) with regards to retention of minority employees.

Furthermore, findings of this study also establish that perceived organizational support in the form of diversity management and perceived organizational justice in the forms of distributive and procedural justice contributes to lowering turnover intentions of racial-ethnic minorities for another job within the federal government. It implies that federal agencies can be effective in retaining and leveraging the strategic advantage of their racial diversity through enhanced diversity management and organizational justice (i.e., distributive and procedural justice).

Overall, this dissertation contributes to an increased theoretical understanding and offers practical implications for retention of diverse employees in public sector organizations. Findings of this research suggest that women, minorities, and employees with disabilities, when faced with barriers related to their social identities, exhibit higher turnover attitudes. However, organizational interventions through practice of fairness or justice and inclusion for all can be effective in lowering their turnover attitudes. It is also important to note that organizational inclusion, particularly diversity management and organizational justice are important to enhance perceived fairness and career advancement opportunities for diverse employees. Therefore, the findings of this study may be argued to imply that employees with diverse identities value organizational interventions that increase fairness in career advancement opportunities and are

consequently more likely to reciprocate with higher retention intentions (i.e., lower turnover intentions).

It also important to note that practice of fairness and justice in organizations, a key element of organizational inclusion, was found to be effective in lowering turnover intentions of employees identifying with diverse social identities (i.e., women, minorities, and employees with disabilities). However, other elements of organization inclusion were found to be more effective in lowering turnover intentions of employees identifying with certain social groups than others. For instance, diversity management or an openness to diversity, was found to be effective in lowering turnover intentions of racial and ethnic minorities but did not have significant impact on turnover intentions of employees with disability. These findings imply that while diversity and inclusion practices are aimed at all social groups, they may have differential impact on diverse employees based their social identities and the specific stigmas and barriers related to those identities. It also suggests that the common approach to diversity management may not work for social groups with different identities and related challenges. Further research, perhaps with a mixed methods design and a comparative framework focused on diverse social groups, is needed to understand the effects of stigma and barriers related to specific social identities and to develop approaches that will help to overcome them.

Overall, this dissertation has helped to improve our understanding of retention attitudes of diverse employees working in federal government context. It also has led to several unanswered questions that need further investigation using a mixed methods approach. Despite its limitations, this dissertation research has implications of significance to strategic human

resources management of the federal workforce. With changing demographics, diversification will continue to be a reality of the U.S. workforce. This presents a major challenge and opportunity for the federal government to serve as a model for employment and retention of diverse workforce. This dissertation study theoretically argues and empirically proves that investing in diverse workforce, ensuring equitable opportunities for career advancement through organizational justice, and creating an inclusive environment will have a significant return on investment through improved retention of a diverse and engaged workforce.

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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Rashmi Chordiya was born in India. She attended Ferguson College, Pune University for her undergraduate studies in Political Science. Subsequently, she pursued her Master's Degree in Globalization and Labor from the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai, India. In 2014, she enrolled for doctoral studies in Public Affairs in the Department of Public and Nonprofit Management at The University of Texas at Dallas. Chordiya is committed to the ideals of social equity and justice. She is passionately driven to contribute to these ideals through her research, teaching, and professional engagements.

Her research goal is to contribute to the field of public management from a cross-national comparative lens and, from the perspective of equity, organizational diversity, and inclusion. Her cross-national research agenda is focused on answering questions about similarities and dissimilarities in public management approaches and human resource management practices of government organizations operating in the contexts of diverse societal cultures and civil service systems. She aims to advance cross-national learning in the field of public administration.

Chordiya is also interested in studying the challenges and opportunities for making organizations equitable, diverse, and inclusive. She approaches organizational justice, diversity, and inclusion as important means to achieve the goals of genuinely inclusive, engaged, and sustainable organizations, where individuals are motivated to work, reach their fullest potential, and experience the feelings of belongingness. Chordiya has published an article in *Public Administration*, a book review in *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, a column for *Public Administration Times* and has several articles under review and in works.

In the past, Chordiya worked on implementation of two major federal policies in India- the Corporate Social Responsibility Policy and the Higher Education Reform Policy. Her experience of working on the two federal policies helped her contribute to the process of social change and development through action-oriented research, evidence based decision-making, engagement with multiple stakeholders, and through collaborative governance led by public, private, and nonprofit organizations.

In addition to research, Chordiya is passionate about teaching courses in public management, human resources management, organizational theory and behavior, diversity and inclusion, and research methods. Her teaching philosophy is to design an effective teaching learning environment to help her students learn cognitively and experientially. She encourages her students to think independently and critically. Her teaching philosophy is defined by her commitment to the values of public service, the ideals of equality and equity, diversity and inclusion for all.

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Dissertation Chair: Dr. Meghna Sabharwal  
Committee Members: Dr. R. Paul Battaglio Jr., Dr. Doug  
Goodman, Dr. Doug Kiel, and Dr. Donald F. Kettl

Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai, India. May 2010  
School of Management and Labor Studies.  
Master of Arts in Globalization & Labor

Thesis Title: Gendered Bargaining for Public Space: A Case  
Study of SEWA Ladies Market

Fergusson College, University of Pune, India. May 2008  
Department of Political Science  
Bachelor of Arts in Political Science

### **Professional Experience**

The University of Texas at Dallas, August 2014-Present  
Richardson, Texas  
Graduate Teaching Assistant and Instructor

## **Teaching Experience**

*Pursuing Graduate Teaching Learning  
Certificate*

The University of Texas at Dallas

## **Instructor for Courses Developed and Taught**

PA 3380: Organizations: Theory and Behavior. Online Class. Spring 2018

PA 3380: Organizations: Theory and Behavior. Online Class. Fall 2017

PA 3333: Human Resource Management. Spring 2017

PA 3380: Organizations: Theory and Behavior. Fall 2016

## **Invited Guest Lecturer**

PA 6326: Decision Tools for Public Managers (*Topic: Linear Programming*)

PA 4370: Leadership (*Topic: Gender and Leadership*)

**Research Interests:** Public Management, Organizational Behavior and Theory, Comparative and International Public Administration, Human Resources Management, Social equity, Diversity, and Inclusion

## **Publications**

1. **Chordiya, Rashmi**, Meghna Sabharwal, and Doug Goodman. 2017. "Affective Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction: A Cross-National Comparative Study." *Public Administration* 95 (1): 178-95. doi:10.1111/padm.12306.
2. **Chordiya, Rashmi**. 2017. "Book Review: Women in Public Administration: Theory and Practice." *Review of Public Personnel Administration* 37 (3): 369–72. doi:10.1177/0734371X17723402.
3. **Chordiya, Rashmi**. 2016. "What You Think About Yourself Matters: The Importance of Self-Efficacy for Public Employees' Job Satisfaction." *PA TIMES Online*. August 19. <http://patimes.org/matters-2/>.

## **Articles under review**

1. **Chordiya Rashmi** "Are Federal Child Care Programs Sufficient for Employee Retention? Critical Examination from A Gendered Perspective". *Administration and Society*.

2. **Chordiya, Rashmi**, Sabharwal, Meghna, and R. Paul Battaglio Jr. “Dispositional and Organizational Sources of Job Satisfaction: A Cross-National Study.” *Public Management Review* (Revise & Resubmit).

### **Works in progress**

1. **Chordiya Rashmi**, Meghna Sabharwal, Jeannine E. Relly, and Evan M. Berman. “Protecting Whistleblowers as an Anti-Corruption Strategy: A Multidimensional Approach.” (Preparing to submit to Public Management Review).
2. **Chordiya Rashmi** “Organizational Inclusion and Retention of Employees with Disabilities” (Preparing to submit to Public Administration Review).
3. **Chordiya Rashmi** “Racial Differences in Federal Employees’ Turnover Intentions: Is Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Justice the Key?” (Preparing to submit to Public Administration Review).
4. **Chordiya Rashmi**, Meghna Sabharwal, and Evan M. Berman. “New Public Management Reforms and Job Satisfaction: A Cross Country Comparison”.
5. Charlene L. Roach, Wayne-Charles-Soverall, **Chordiya, Rashmi**, and Meghna Sabharwal. “Examining the Impact of PSM & Leadership on Turnover Intentions of Government Employees in Barbados.”
6. Charlene L. Roach, Wayne-Charles-Soverall, Meghna Sabharwal, and **Chordiya, Rashmi**. “Examining the Impact of Ethics on Performance in Barbados.”
7. Charlene L. Roach, Wayne-Charles-Soverall, Meghna Sabharwal, and **Chordiya, Rashmi**. “Culture and Performance in a Caribbean Public Service Context.”

### **Academic paper presentations at professional meetings**

1. Meghna Sabharwal and **Rashmi Chordiya**. Organizational Performance and Culture: A Comparative Analysis of Two Islands. The American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) Annual Conference, Denver, Colorado, March 8-12, 2018.
2. **Chordiya Rashmi**. Are Federal Child Care Programs Sufficient for Employee Retention: A Critical Examination from Gendered Perspective. The Southeastern Conference for Public Administration (SECoPA) Annual Conference, Hollywood Beach, Florida, October 4-7, 2017.

3. **Chordiya Rashmi**, Meghna Sabharwal, Jeannine E. Relly, and Evan Berman. Protecting Whistleblowers as an Anti-Corruption Strategy: A Multi-Dimensional Approach. The Southeastern Conference for Public Administration (SECoPA) Annual Conference, Hollywood Beach, Florida, October 4-7, 2017.
4. **Chordiya Rashmi**, Meghna Sabharwal, and Evan Berman. New Public Management Reforms and Job Satisfaction: A Cross Country Comparison. The American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) Annual Conference, Atlanta, Georgia, March 17-21, 2017.
5. Charlene L. Roach, Wayne-Charles-Soverall, Meghna Sabharwal, and **Rashmi Chordiya**. Examining the Impact of PSM & Leadership on Turnover Intentions of Government Employees in Barbados. ASPA Annual Conference, Atlanta, Georgia, March 17-21, 2017.
6. **Chordiya Rashmi**, Meghna Sabharwal and Paul Battaglio. Examining the Dispositional and Organizational Sources of Job Satisfaction. Southeastern Conference for Public Administration (SECoPA) Annual Conference, Raleigh, North Carolina, October 13-16, 2016.
7. **Chordiya Rashmi**, Meghna Sabharwal, Jeannine E. Relly, and Evan Berman. Impact of Ethical Leadership and Legal Human Resources Practices on the Work Environment of Public Employees in South Asia. ASPA Annual Conference, Seattle, Washington, March 18-22, 2016.
8. **Chordiya Rashmi**, Meghna Sabharwal and Paul Battaglio. Does Transformation-Oriented Leadership Impact Overall Job Satisfaction? Importance of Institutional Mechanisms. ASPA Annual Conference, Seattle, Washington, March 18-22, 2016.
9. Charlene M. L. Roach, Wayne Charles-Soverall, Akhentoolove Corbin, Meghna Sabharwal, and **Rashmi Chordiya**. The Impact of Leadership on Public Service Motivation in Barbados. ASPA Annual Conference, Seattle, Washington, March 18-22, 2016.
10. **Chordiya Rashmi**, Meghna Sabharwal, and Doug Goodman. Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment among Mid-Career Public Managers: A Comparative Study between India and the United States. SECoPA Annual Conference, Charleston, South Carolina, September 30-October 3, 2015.
11. **Chordiya Rashmi**, Meghna Sabharwal and Paul Battaglio. Determinants of Job Satisfaction among Public Managers in India. SECoPA Annual Conference, Charleston, South Carolina, September 30-October 3, 2015.

12. **Chordiya Rashmi**, James Harrington and Evgenia Gorina. Fiscal Consequences of Underachievement under NCLB: A Case of Texas School Districts. Western Social Science Association (WSSA) Annual Conference, Portland, Oregon, April 8-11, 2015.

### **Professional Memberships**

- Pi Alpha Alpha Honor Society (PAA)
- American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) (2015-Present)
  - Student and New Administration Professionals Section (SNAPS)
  - Section on International and Comparative Administration (SICA)
  - Section for Women in Public Administration (SWPA)
  - Section on Personnel Administration and Labor Relations (SPALR)
  - Section on Democracy and Social Justice (DSJ)
  - The LGBT Advocacy Alliance

### **Professional Engagement**

#### Executive Leadership Positions with American Society for Public Administration

- National audit committee member for ASPA under the Presidency of Janice Lachance (2017)
- National audit committee member for ASPA under the Presidency of Jane Pisano (2018)
- Chair for ASPA's Student and New Administration Professionals Section (2018-2019)
- Secretary for ASPA's Section on International and Comparative Administration (2017-2019)
- Board Member: ASPA's Section for Women in Public Administration (2018-2021)
- Co-led a collaborative training project on '*Ally Training for Social Equity: Understanding and Promoting Diversity and Inclusion in Public Administration*' for ASPA's 2018 annual conference in Denver, Colorado
- Co-leading a collaborative training project on '*Ally Training for Social Equity: Understanding and Promoting Diversity and Inclusion in Public Administration*' for ASPA's 2019 annual conference in Washington D.C.
- Member of ASPA 2017 Founders' Fellow Committee's Mentoring Working Group

#### *Other professional engagements*

- Served on UTD's School of Economic, Political and Policy Sciences' Expert Panel: How to be a Great Teaching Assistant
- Invited Guest Speaker for UTD's Public and Nonprofit Management Department's Brown Bag sessions on "Public Administration Conferences" and "Academic Job Market"

- Ad-hoc journal reviewer for Review of Public Personnel Administration
- Chordiya, Rashmi. “Role of Lived Experience, Politics, Language in Effective and Democratic Public Service.” Role: Discussant. 2018 Annual ASPA Conference. Denver, Colorado

### **Professional Recognitions and Honors as a Ph.D. Student**

- 2018 Section on Personnel Administration and Labor Relations (SPALR) Dissertation Award to be received at ASPA annual conference in Denver, CO
- 2017 NASPAA Emerging Scholar Award received at 2017 NASPAA annual conference in Washington D.C.
- 2017 Section on International and Comparative Administration’s David Gould Scholarship at ASPA conference, Atlanta
- 2017 Section for Women in Public Administration Scholarship at ASPA conference, Atlanta
- 2017 Larry D. Terry Graduate Scholarship, School of Economic, Political and Policy Sciences (EPPS), UT Dallas
- Participated in American Society for Public Administration’s Fifth International Young Scholars Workshop, July 2016 in Cape Town, South Africa
- Received Best Paper-Honorable Mention Award at American Society for Public Administration’s Fifth International Young Scholars Workshop, July 2016 in Cape Town, South Africa
- 2016 Founders Fellow of the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA), Seattle, 2016
- 2016 Vibhooti Shukla Graduate Fellowship, School of Economic, Political and Policy Sciences (EPPS), UT Dallas
- EPPS Graduate Studies Scholarship (Fall 2014 till Present) at UT Dallas
- EPPS Graduate Teaching Assistant (Fall 2014 till Present) at UT Dallas
- PhD Research Small Grant at UT Dallas, September 2017; February 2016; April 2015

### **Past Work Experience**

**Tata Institute of Social Sciences (TISS), Mumbai, India**                      November 2011 – August 2014

1. **Senior Research Associate** at National Corporate Social Responsibility Hub (NCSR Hub). This organization was established by Department of Public Enterprises, Government of India (GoI) at TISS to facilitate CSR initiatives of public enterprises.
  - Engaged with multiple stakeholders including Department of Public Enterprises, Government of India (GOI), various state-owned enterprises/multinational

- corporations, government bodies at district and local administrative levels, target beneficiary communities, implementing non-governmental organisations, to advise and facilitate collaborative partnerships on the CSR initiatives of public sector enterprises
- Conducted research studies to assess needs of the target communities, pre-intervention baseline assessments, and evaluate outcomes and impacts of CSR project interventions. (Worked on 11 research projects across 10 states of India covering 23 districts and 150 villages including the backward and insurgency affected areas). A mixed methods and qualitative research approach was applied while conducting these studies. These studies helped companies make evidence based decisions on their CSR initiatives, to conduct mid-course corrections, and to identify potential areas of CSR interventions.
2. **Consultant from TISS** for All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE) for preparation of the *Report on Status of Technical Education in India*
  3. **Consultant from TISS** in working with States where a National Policy on Higher Education, 2013 was being implemented.
  4. **Team member** in the preparatory and planning process for Academic Leadership Academy in India as a part of collaborative effort between TISS and Rutgers University under Obama-Singh Knowledge Initiative (OSKI). Participated as a delegate under the OSKI for a study tour to Rutgers and College of Education at Penn State where recent trends in higher education policies in USA and potential opportunities for collaboration between to the two countries were discussed and formalized.
  5. **Principal Co-ordinator** for One-Week In-Service Training Programmes for Mid- Career Indian Administrative Officers as well as State Administrative Officers. These trainings are conducted by Tata Institute of Social Sciences for Department of Personnel and Training, Government of India and also for the State governments

#### **Selected Reports written for National Corporate Social Responsibility Hub, TISS, Mumbai, India**

1. 2012-Need Assessment Study in Khandwa District, Madhya Pradesh, commissioned by NHDC Ltd.
2. 2012-Need Assessment Study in Narainpur district, Chhattisgarh, commissioned by Rail Vikas Nigam Ltd. (co-authored)
3. 2012-Impact Assessment Study of Fame India and Yashaswini Swavalamban Trust, commissioned by Duetsche Bank
4. 2013-Need Assessment Study in Banihal and Doda district, Jammu and Kashmir, commissioned by IRCON International Ltd. (co-authored)

5. 2013-Need Assessment Study in Nagpur district in Maharashtra and Chhindwara district in Madhya Pradesh, commissioned by Western Coal Fields Ltd. (co-authored)
6. 2013-Impact Assessment and Evaluation of CSR Projects at RCF Thal and RCF Trombay Units, Commissioned by Rashtriya Chemical Fertilizers (RCF) (co-authored)
7. 2013-Impact Assessment of GAIL-IL&FS Skill Development Centres, commissioned by Gas Authority of India Limited (co-authored)
8. 2013-Impact Assessment of GAIL-Sulabh International Total Sanitation Campaign, commissioned by Gas Authority of India Limited (co-authored)
9. 2013-Impact Assessment of HPCL CSR projects of FY- 2012-13, commissioned by Hindustan Petroleum Corporation Limited (co-authored)
10. 2013-Concurrent Evaluation Report for CSR Projects for FY- 2012-13, commissioned by Goa Shipyard Limited (co-authored)

**Computer Society of India, Mumbai, India**

April 2010 – November 2011

Worked as an **Assistant Manager (Membership Services and Development)** at Computer Society, which is a professional body for Information Technology professionals in India. Key role included management of membership services and its development at a national level (CSI).

**Clips India Foundation, Mumbai, India**

January 2010 – March 2010

Worked as **Researcher** for Social Impact Assessment Study of Solid Waste Management Project of Mumbai Metropolitan Region Development Authority (MMRDA). Conducted (ex-ante) social impact assessment in 25 villages of Ambernath and Shilphata areas in vicinity of Mumbai city and was involved in drafting of report commissioned by MMRDA

**Self Employed Women’s Association, Delhi, India (Intern)**

June 2009 – November 2009

Engaged as a co-coordinator of the Street Vendor’s Programme of SEWA Delhi, and as a principal coordinator for the SEWA Ladies Market to establish exclusive market for 200 women vendors in Delhi. The market was envisioned to provide women vendors with opportunities to earn livelihood with dignity. Responsibilities also included liasoning and negotiating with the Municipal Corporation of Delhi for the provision of licenses to street vendor members of SEWA Delhi under the National Street Vendors’ Policy. This work also culminated into Master’s thesis which was entitled “Gendered Bargaining for Public Space: Case Study of SEWA Ladies Market”.

**Volunteer for social service**

- Adult Literacy Programme in collaboration with Tata Consultancy Services (TCS) in Karawale village of Ambernath district in Maharashtra state.
- Assistant to special educator in an inclusive school – “Ankur” in Pune, Maharashtra state.