

## CROSSING THE THRESHOLD: THE SPILLOVER OF COMMUNITY RACIAL DIVERSITY AND DIVERSITY CLIMATE TO THE WORKPLACE

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We examined the spillover of community diversity to the workplace using a sample of 2,045 professionals living in communities across the U.S. Spillover effects were examined using 2 measures of community diversity: the degree to which employees were racially or ethnically similar to others in their community and perceptions of their community's diversity climate. Aligned with theories of group threat and racial segregation, Whites who were racially dissimilar to their communities expressed stronger intentions to leave their communities, and ultimately their workplaces, than those living in primarily White communities. However, community diversity climate offset these relationships; Whites who lived in communities that were racially dissimilar to them, but experienced the climate as inclusive, had lower moving intentions than those in communities that were experienced as racially intolerant. In contrast, for people of color, community diversity climate, rather than racial similarity to the community, predicted moving intentions. For both groups, the diversity climate in the community predicted moving intentions, which in turn predicted work turnover intentions, job search behaviors, and physical symptoms of stress at work. These findings suggest that the intention to leave one's community, and ultimately one's workplace, is

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influenced by community experiences and the community's perceived diversity climate.

Even though our lives are nested within our communities, we know relatively little about the effects of community on the workplace. The idea that community experiences spill over to the workplace is not new. In fact, organizational scholars first investigated the spillover of community characteristics to work attitudes over 40 years ago (Hulin, 1966; Wild & Kempner, 1972). These research pioneers recognized that our lives are embedded in our communities and that we carry our life experiences with us into the workplace. Despite the importance of this topic, subsequent work-life research focused primarily on the spillover of family to the workplace (see review by Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005), and the interface between community and the workplace became a neglected topic of inquiry. Fortunately, we now witness a resurgence of interest in the role of community in organizational life. Recent perspectives on job embeddedness acknowledge that the community plays a key role in employees' decisions to stay in their organization, and researchers have found that employees' turnover intentions are predicted by such community characteristics as access to valued leisure activities, home ownership, and the physical climate or weather in the community (see review by Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablinski, 2004).

But what is the role of diversity in these relationships? We know little about the effects of community diversity on employees' attachment to their workplace. This is a serious omission, given the current and projected changes in the population. For example, half of newborns in the U.S. are children of color (U. S. Census Bureau, 2010), and by 2019 the majority of those under the age of 18 will be people of color (Tavernise, 2011). Europe, Australia, and other parts of the world also face unprecedented racial and ethnic diversity as a consequence of record immigration and shifting population patterns (International Organization for Migration, 2010). For some communities, diversity brings challenges in the form of intergroup threat, racial conflict, and segregation (Charles, 2003; Dancygier, 2010), but for others, diversity is a source of strength, learning, and growth (DeParle, 2010). How a community deals with its diversity has important implications for residents, who may carry these experiences with them into the workplace (cf., Brief et al., 2005). Given these seismic changes, we can no longer afford to take an insulated view of the workplace.

Accordingly, the overarching purpose of this study is to address these empirical gaps and to develop and extend theory that explains the relationship between the community and the workplace within the context of racial and ethnic diversity. Because our study addresses the uncharted theoretical intersection of community, diversity, and the workplace, we

draw upon and integrate theoretical traditions from the community psychology, intergroup relations, and organizational science literatures in order to build a multidisciplinary bridge between the workplace and the community within the context of diversity.

Our study seeks to accomplish three specific objectives. First, we offer a theoretically driven examination of the spillover of individuals' experience of community diversity to the workplace. Using a national sample of American employees, we examine two key aspects of community diversity. First, drawing on theoretical and empirical work on race and residential decisions, we examine racial dissimilarity to community, which is defined as the degree of dissimilarity between the race or ethnicity of the individual and the residents in his or her community. As reviewed later, this objective construct is commonly used by sociologists, demographers, and geographers in research on race, residential preferences, and relocation (e.g., Clark, 1992, Pais, South, & Crowder, 2009; van Ham & Feijten, 2008; Zubrinsky & Bobo, 1996). Second, we examine "community diversity climate," which taps an individual's personal experiences and perceptions regarding the degree to which people of different racial backgrounds get along in his or her community. Drawing on definitions of workplace diversity climate (e.g., Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998), community diversity climate is defined here as an individual's perception of the importance or value his or her community places on racial and ethnic diversity, and the degree to which he or she experiences the community as an environment characterized by inclusion and acceptance of differences. The term "inclusive" is used to reflect positive climates that support diversity, and the term "adverse" is used to reflect negative climates that are not inclusive or supportive of diversity. Because we are interested in assessing individuals' intentions to leave their communities, and research suggests that experiences of racial climates in communities may vary by race (Krysan, 2002a; Krysan & Farley, 2002), community diversity climate is approached as an individual-level psychological construct rather than as the aggregate of perceptions of all community residents.

Second, we examine the intention to leave the community (i.e., "moving intentions") as an intermediary link in the relationship between community diversity and work outcomes.<sup>1</sup> Specifically, we expect that community diversity will affect employees' intentions to move away from their

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<sup>1</sup>Geographers observe that moving intentions is an important construct to study because it offers unique insights not captured when assessing actual moving behaviors (Feijten & van Ham, 2009). Although moving intentions predict relocation (Clark & Ledwith, 2006; Lee, Oropesa, & Kanan, 1994), the ability to move is constrained by housing discrimination and the monetary and nonmonetary costs associated with relocation (Clark & Ledwith, 2006; Lu, 1998; cf., Permentier, van Ham, & Bolt, 2009; van Ham & Feijten, 2008). Moving intentions are viewed as a direct response to residential stress, while actual moving

communities and that these moving intentions will in turn influence their work turnover intentions, work stress, and job search behaviors. To date, moving intentions has not been included in research that explores the relationship between community characteristics and workplace attachment. Job embeddedness research has found that community characteristics predict people's intentions to leave their jobs, and although it is assumed that moving intentions may play a role in this relationship, this assumption has not been articulated or examined in the literature (Yao et al., 2004). Including the "missing link" of moving intentions may offer a more precise and informative model of the role of community characteristics in work turnover intentions.

Third, we explore whether the proposed relationships between community diversity and the workplace vary by race. As reviewed later, some research has found that both Whites and residents of color respond similarly to living in communities that reflect their racial or ethnic backgrounds (Clark, 1992, 2002; Pais et al., 2009; van Ham & Feijten, 2008), but other studies suggest that these responses vary by race (Lewis, Emerson, & Klineberg, 2011; Swaroop & Krysan, 2011; Zubrinsky & Bobo, 1996). Although there has been a lack of research on community diversity climate, parallel research has found that organizational diversity climate affects the work turnover intentions, organizational commitment, and work-related stress of both White employees and employees of color (Chrobot-Mason, Ragins, & Linnehan, in press; McKay et al., 2007). Accordingly, we examine whether the relationships between community diversity and work outcomes hold for White professionals as well as professionals of color in the U.S.

In accomplishing these objectives, this study makes two primary contributions. First, by including racial diversity, we broaden the theoretical lens used to examine the interface between organizations and communities. Current models do not address the role of community diversity in organizational attachment. For example, job embeddedness theory holds that the characteristics of a community, its geographic climate, and even its political and religious climate may influence employee workplace attachment (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001). However, it does not include diversity as a community characteristic, even as emerging research points to the importance of this topic (e.g., Brief et al., 2005; McKay & Avery, 2006; Pugh, Dietz, Brief, & Wiley, 2008).

The second contribution speaks to practice and calls attention to the role organizations play in their communities. Many organizations are stymied in their quest to retain professionals of color, and practitioners

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behaviors, even as they may signal greater motivation, may be influenced by respondent's socioeconomic status and/or race (Feijten & van Ham, 2009).

speculate that the diversity climate in the community contributes to this problem (Potapchuk, 2008). The findings of this study could offer a powerful incentive for organizations to partner with their communities to improve diversity climates, particularly if its effects were found to influence not only professionals of color but also their White counterparts.

### *Theoretical Background and Hypotheses*

As this study spans both work and community domains, we take a multidisciplinary approach in integrating theory from the community psychology, sociology, geography, social psychology of prejudice, and organizational literatures to explain the spillover of community diversity to the workplace. Specifically, our work is informed and guided by job embeddedness theory (Mitchell et al., 2001), which posits a spillover between community characteristics and employee attachment to the workplace; sociological models of community attachment (Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974), which explain how and why people become attached to their communities; and theories of intergroup relations and segregation (Blumer, 1958; LeVine & Campbell, 1972; Schelling, 1969, 1971), which illuminate the role of race in these relationships. As we discover in our review, existing research has progressed in parallel streams with little integration. In addition, community diversity climate has not been included in these investigations.

### *Community Diversity and Moving Intentions*

In this section, we draw on models of community attachment, which offer a foundation for understanding why people stay in their communities, and theories of intergroup relations, which illuminate the role of race in the intention to leave communities (i.e., moving intentions).

*Models of community attachment.* Community attachment is defined as the emotional ties one has to a local area and includes residents' feelings about whether they feel rooted or "at home" in a community and their thoughts about moving (Hummon, 1992). Attachment is not driven by a single factor but involves multiple factors that "push and pull" individuals into staying or leaving their communities (Lee, Oropesa, & Kanan, 1994; Lu, 1998).

Kasarda and Janowitz (1974) identified two models of community attachment that can be applied to the diversity arena. Both models are supported in the literature, and each represents a different aspect of how and why people become attached to their communities (cf., Hummon, 1992). The "linear development model," based on the classic works of Töennies (1887) and Wirth (1938), holds that population heterogeneity

weakens ties among neighbors, increases social isolation, and ultimately decreases community attachment. An extension of this perspective holds that greater dissimilarity to the community alienates members and decreases attachment (Hummon, 1992). The "systemic model," further refined by Sampson (1988), holds that attachment emerges over time through interpersonal associations that lead to a sense of inclusion and connection with the community. Although community psychologists stop short of using the term "community climate," they offer the similar construct of "sense of community," defined as a sense of belonging, identification, and a shared emotional connection with a geographic area and its residents (cf., McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Sarason, 1974). Sense of community has been found to predict community attachment (Chavis & Pretty, 1999).

Extending this literature to the diversity arena suggests that community attachment may be influenced not only by racial or ethnic similarity to a community (i.e., the linear development model) but also by personal experiences of the community's diversity climate (i.e., the systemic model and sense of community). Theories of intergroup relations and segregation offer additional insights into the role of race on moving intentions.

*Theories of intergroup relations and segregation.* Two theoretical frameworks have been used to explain the impact of race on residential decisions: group threat theory and ethnocentrism (Bobo, 1999; Charles, 2003; Clark, 1991, 2002). These theories address both the "push" and the "pull" underlying individuals' community attachment and moving intentions.

Group threat theory holds that increasing proportions of out-group populations increases the potential for hostility, threat, intergroup conflict, prejudice, and discrimination in a community (Blalock, 1967). Two variants of this theory are relevant here. Blumer's group position theory (Blumer, 1958; cf., Bobo, 1999; Bobo & Hutchings, 1996) holds that there are historically and collectively held beliefs about the status, rights, power, and privilege of different racial groups. Threat, competition, and conflict emerge when low-status group members challenge these beliefs and seek a greater share of the resources and privilege held by higher status groups. Realistic group conflict theory (Campbell, 1965; LeVine & Campbell, 1972) holds that competition for scarce resources is a source of conflict that increases ethnocentrism, discrimination, and intergroup hostility. According to this perspective, minority groups also compete with one another for scarce resources (Bobo & Hutchings, 1996).

The ethnocentric or in-group preference hypothesis holds that all groups have the desire to live near similar others (Clark, 1991, 1992, 2002). This hypothesis is based on models of racial segregation (cf., Schelling, 1969, 1971) and is aligned with theories of social identity (Tajfel, 1982) and the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971). The ethnocentric

hypothesis holds that people prefer same-race communities because of the comfort inherent with being around one's "own kind." Although this hypothesis is often presented as the benign desire to live near similar others (e.g., Clark, 2002), group threat theorists point out that the presence of dissimilar others heightens awareness of in-group identities and boundaries, which can create group competition, hostility, and prejudice (Campbell, 1965; Giles & Evans, 1985).

Both group threat theory and the ethnocentric hypothesis converge on the idea that people should experience less attachment and stronger intentions to leave a community that is racially or ethnically dissimilar to them. Existing research generally supports this prediction, although the effects may be more pronounced and consistent for Whites. Whites are more likely to report wanting to leave communities that are racially or ethnically dissimilar to them (Krysan, 2002b; van Ham & Feijten, 2008) and are more likely to actually move from these communities (Crowder, 2000; Pais et al., 2009; van Ham & Clark, 2009). Whites also report that they do not want to move into communities that are racially dissimilar to them (Clark, 1991; Lewis et al., 2011; Zubrinsky & Bobo, 1996), and those living in racially dissimilar communities report less community satisfaction (Swaroop & Krysan, 2011) and attachment (Putnam, 2007; Taylor, Gottfredson, & Brower, 1985) than those in racially similar communities.

There has been less research on people of color, and the findings have been more inconsistent. Some studies found that people of color prefer to live in communities that match their race or ethnicity (Clark, 1991, 1992, 2002), and ethnic minorities in the Netherlands report somewhat stronger intentions to move when their community does not match their ethnic background (van Ham & Feijten, 2008). However, other research indicates that racial similarity fails to predict their neighborhood preferences (Lewis et al., 2011) or has a weaker relationship than that found for Whites (Zubrinsky & Bobo, 1996). Some segregation scholars observe that these inconsistent findings may be due to the socioeconomic status of one's community and point out that residential choice may be influenced by "racial proxies," which are factors that reflect the socioeconomic status of the community (e.g., property values, quality of schools, police protection; Harris, 1999, 2001). Although research is sparse, some research suggests that socioeconomic factors may have a stronger impact on people of color than Whites (Krysan, Couper, Farley, & Forman, 2009; Lewis et al., 2011). However, Swaroop and Krysan (2011) found that even after controlling for respondents' income and racial proxy variables, Whites reported stronger neighborhood satisfaction when living in primarily White communities. Blacks were also more satisfied when living in communities that matched their race, but Latinos were more satisfied in White as compared to Latino neighborhoods. The authors observed that Blacks

may prefer same-race neighborhoods not only because of in-group preferences but also because of the lower likelihood of racial discrimination and hostility in same-race communities (Krysan & Farley, 2002). In contrast, neighborhood satisfaction for Latinos may be driven more by the services afforded to predominantly White communities. Given the complexity of these findings, our study examines racial dissimilarity to community for specific groups, and we control for individual and community SES in our analyses.

Accordingly, based on existing theory and research, we hypothesize that an individual's racial or ethnic dissimilarity to his/her community will have a positive relationship with one's intention to move. Given the inconclusive findings across Whites and people of color, we then explore whether this hypothesized relationship varies within each group as a research question.

*Hypothesis 1:* Employees' racial dissimilarity to their community will be positively related to their moving intentions.

*Research Question 1:* Will this effect vary for Whites and people of color?

*Community diversity climate.* Although racial similarity to community is important, it does not completely capture the domain of community diversity, nor may it fully explain the relationship of community diversity with moving intentions and work outcomes. As in organizations, community diversity goes beyond racial composition. Individuals' everyday experiences of inclusiveness and intergroup relations may play a key role in their attachment to their community and their intentions to move.

Support for this idea comes from multiple disciplines. Political scientists observe that although people are threatened when they live near others who are not like them, this doesn't happen in all communities (Cheong, Edwards, Goulbourne, & Solomos, 2007); the ideological climate of the community can counter the negative relationship between community diversity and engagement (Kesler & Bloemraad, 2010). Sociologists concur with this view. As reviewed earlier, systemic models of community attachment hold that attachment is influenced not only by objective characteristics but also by the subjective experiences that makes residents feel connected and included (Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974). Similarly, community psychologists offer the idea that people become more attached when they experience a sense of belonging and connection to their community (McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Sarason, 1974).

Geographers also agree that it is not just the racial diversity of a community but what the diversity means to the individual that matters when looking at moving intentions (Lu, 1998). Extant research, for example,



suggests that increasing proportions of ethnic minorities predict moving intentions among Whites, but this effect disappears when controlling for perceptions about whether the racial change represents an improvement or deterioration of the neighborhood (Feijten & van Ham, 2009) and the community's reputation as a good place to live (Permentier et al., 2009). These findings are also aligned with research showing that people have lower moving intentions when they are more satisfied with their community (Lee et al., 1994; Lu, 1998).

Although the construct of community diversity climate has not been investigated or even broached in these literatures, an extension and integration of these multidisciplinary perspectives yields the straightforward idea that employees' personal perceptions of their community's diversity climate should predict their moving intentions such that the more inclusive and accepting the climate, the more they will want to stay in their community. We also explore whether this relationship will vary by race. As reviewed earlier, existing theory suggests that community climate should affect all residents (Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974; McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Sarason, 1974), but one could also argue that a community's diversity climate represents a special case that, given the current and past history of race discrimination in the U.S., may have greater valence for people of color. Because of the lack of research on this topic, we assess this relationship with a research question.

*Hypothesis 2:* Employees' perceptions of an inclusive climate for diversity in their community will be negatively related to their moving intentions.

*Research Question 2:* Will this effect vary for Whites and people of color?

### *The Spillover of Community Diversity to the Workplace*

*Community attachment and the workplace.* Job embeddedness theory holds that people become attached to the workplace through a range of on-the-job and off-the-job factors, which include their connections or links to other people or activities in their workplace or community, the extent to which they fit or are compatible with their workplace or community, and their perceptions of the sacrifice or perceived cost of leaving their workplace or community (Mitchell et al., 2001). Of particular interest to this study is the theory's prediction that community characteristics influence employees' perception of their fit or compatibility with their community and that these perceptions and experiences predict their intention to leave their organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). Existing research has in fact found that community embeddedness predicts turnover intentions,

job search behaviors, and voluntary turnover (Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). However, community fit has typically been measured in general terms (e.g., "This community is a good match for me") and by employees' reports of the physical climate and leisure activities in their communities (e.g., "The weather where I live is suitable for me," "The area where I live offers the leisure activities I like"; Mitchell et al., 2001, p. 1121). Although Mitchell et al. (2001, p. 1105) mention that community fit should include the general climate in the community, and even cite specific dimensions reflecting the community's political and religious climate, diversity is not addressed.

This topic, however, is receiving increased attention by diversity scholars. Although they have not studied the effects of community diversity climate, they have found that the racial composition of the community predicts employees' perceptions of their organization's diversity climate (Pugh et al., 2008), their reports of discrimination in their workplace (Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008), and their incivility towards out-group members at work (King et al., 2011). Extending group threat theory to the workplace, Brief et al. (2005) found that Whites who live in diverse communities had more negative reactions to diversity in their workplace and reported lower quality work relationships than those living in primarily White communities. They also found that White students were less attracted to organizations depicted as diverse, and this negative evaluation increased for those who lived in more racially diverse neighborhoods and experienced more racial conflict while growing up.

Although these studies offer important insights, we extend this research in three key ways. First, following the call of McKay and Avery (2006), we examine not only employees' racial or ethnic similarity to their community but also their experience of the community's climate for diversity. McKay and Avery's (2006) model holds that both factors play a role in minorities' reactions to site visits and their decision to join the organization. Second, we examine the spillover of community diversity to work turnover intentions, work-related stress, and job search behaviors: outcomes that have not been investigated in prior work. Third, unlike prior research, our sample includes both White employees and employees of color. By surveying members of a national association of accounting professionals, our sample also offers variability in community diversity and controls for potential effects of occupational race differences.

Given the research and theory reviewed above, we predict that employees with stronger intentions to leave their community will report greater intentions to leave their jobs and ultimately more job search behaviors than those with weaker moving intentions. We also explore the role of work-related stress in these relationships. As a life event, moving is a significant source of stress (Myers, Lindenthal, Pepper, & Ostrander, 1972; Scully,

Tosi, & Banning, 2000) that can be carried into the workplace (Edwards, Cockerton, & Guppy, 2007; Munton & Forster, 1990). Accordingly, we expect that moving intentions will have a positive relationship with physical symptoms of stress experienced at work. Negative forms of work stress have also been found to have a moderate positive relationship with work turnover, work turnover intentions, and job search behaviors (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). We expect to replicate these findings in this study.

*Hypothesis 3:* Moving intentions will have a positive relationship with (a) work turnover intentions and (b) reports of stress in the workplace.

*Hypothesis 4:* Reports of stress in the workplace will have a positive relationship with work turnover intentions.

*Hypothesis 5:* Work turnover intentions will have a positive relationship with reports of job search behaviors.

### *Method*

#### *Sampling Procedure and Description*

The sample was procured from a large national association of accounting professionals. In order to increase diversity, the sample was stratified by gender and oversampled for race and ethnicity. The data were collected in two waves using web-based surveys. First, an introductory e-mail was sent to 8,266 members who gave the association information about their race and ethnicity. Although we are unsure as to how many members actually received this e-mail, 473 expressed interest in participating and were sent a link to the survey. Of these, 49% completed the survey ( $n = 232$ ). In the second wave, we sent an introductory e-mail to 112,899 members for whom we had no information on race. In order to increase gender diversity, equal proportions of men and women were selected for this wave. A total of 2,859 individuals reported interest and were sent a link to the survey, and 74% of these individuals completed the survey ( $n = 2,104$ ). To increase responses, we sent multiple reminders and offered raffles for a range of gift certificates (20 – \$100 gift certificates, 30 – \$50 gift certificates, and 60 – \$25 gift certificates). This yielded 2,336 completed surveys. We excluded those who were self-employed ( $n = 212$ ), retired ( $n = 12$ ), unemployed ( $n = 11$ ), on leave ( $n = 5$ ), and those who did not indicate their race ( $n = 16$ ) or reported that their race was multiracial/other ( $n = 35$ ).

Our final sample thus consisted of 2,045 respondents. This comprised 1,419 women and 599 men; 27 did not report their gender. A total of 88% were White ( $n = 1,801$ ) and 12% ( $n = 244$ ) were people of color (55 African American, 66 Latino, 112 Asian, and 11 Native Americans). Mean respondent age was 43, mean organizational tenure was 8.5 years, and mean length of residence was 16 years. A total of 89% owned their own home, and 43% lived and worked in the same community.

### *Measures*

Established instruments were used for all variables except community diversity climate and moving intentions. Because there were no established measures for these constructs, we developed measures using a separate validation sample, as described later. Reliability estimates for all measures exceeded 0.70. Higher values represent stronger levels of each construct (e.g., greater dissimilarity between respondents' race or ethnicity and that of their community, more inclusive diversity climates, stronger moving, and work turnover intentions, etc.).

*Racial dissimilarity to community.* In line with existing research, we used zip codes and U.S. Census data to compute respondents' racial or ethnic dissimilarity to their community (e.g., Avery et al., 2008; Brief et al., 2005; Sacco & Schmitt, 2005). Racial dissimilarity to community was operationalized as the proportion of residents within the respondent's community that are of a different race or ethnicity than the respondent. To capture this proportion, we asked respondents to provide their residential zip code and then used U.S. Census data to assign them a score on racial dissimilarity to community. For example, for an individual reporting her race as "Asian," the number of Asian residents was divided by the total number of residents in her zip code. Racial dissimilarity, or the proportion of "non-Asian" residents, was calculated as one minus this value. Racial dissimilarity to community was therefore individually assessed on a group-by-group basis for the Whites, African Americans, Latinos, Asians, and Native Americans in our sample. As reviewed earlier, this measurement focus is aligned with existing research and theory (e.g., group threat/ethnocentrism), which concerns the presence of those different than oneself in an individual's environment.

*Perceived community diversity climate.* Perceived community diversity climate was assessed with the Community Diversity Climate Index (CDCI), a measure developed for this study. The five-item measure was piloted on 96 working adults attending graduate school at a midwestern university. In the pilot study, a principal components analysis with varimax rotation revealed that the five items loaded on a single component with all loadings exceeding 0.87. The measure yielded good reliability

( $\alpha = 0.90$ ), and preliminary estimates of convergent and discriminant validity were satisfactory. Specifically, the CDCI was positively correlated with Allen, Long, and Perdue's (1991) Community Satisfaction scale ( $r = 0.42, p < 0.01$ ), Buckner's (1988) Neighborhood Cohesion scale ( $r = 0.39, p < 0.01$ ), Puddifoot's (2003) Sense of Community Identity scale ( $r = 0.44, p < 0.01$ ), and Adams (1992) Local Safety scale ( $r = 0.26, p < 0.01$ ). The CDCI was unrelated to Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton, and Smith's (1997) Racial Centrality scale ( $r = 0.03, p > 0.05$ ).

In line with other geographic definitions of community (Gusfield, 1975; Hoffer, 1931; Puddifoot, 2003; Willis, 1977), respondents were given the following instructions and definition of community: "The following questions ask about your current community. Please consider 'community' as the town, city, or suburb that is your primary place of residence." A five-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*) was used to indicate agreement with the following five statements: "My community welcomes people of different races and ethnicities," "Racial and ethnic diversity are not tolerated in my community" (reverse-scored), "People of different races and ethnicities would want to move to my community," "My community fosters a positive climate for people of different races and ethnicities," and "My community is a model for valuing racial and ethnic diversity."

*Moving intentions.* The intention to leave one's community was assessed with the Community Moving Intentions Scale (CMI), a three-item measure developed for this study. The items were: "I will probably move from my community in the next year"; "I often think about moving from my community"; and "I intend to stay living in this community" (reverse-scored). The first two items were modified from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh's (1983) turnover scale, and the third was taken from Puddifoot's (2003) Sense of Community Identity scale. Agreement was indicated on a five-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

The CMI was included in the validation study described earlier. Principal components analysis with varimax rotation revealed that the items loaded on a single factor with all loadings exceeding 0.81. The measure had acceptable reliability ( $\alpha = 0.82$ ), and validity estimates were satisfactory; the CMI was negatively correlated with Allen et al.'s (1991) Community Satisfaction scale ( $r = -0.48, p < 0.01$ ), Buckner's (1988) Neighborhood Cohesion scale ( $r = -0.80, p < 0.01$ ), Puddifoot's (2003) Sense of Community Identity scale ( $r = -0.70, p < 0.01$ ), and Adams (1992) Local Safety scale ( $r = -0.55, p < 0.01$ ).

*Work turnover intentions, job search behaviors, and stress at work.* Work turnover intentions were measured with Cammann et al.'s (1983) three-item turnover intentions scale, which uses a seven-point scale

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). Job search behavior were measured with Peters, Jackofsky, and Salter's (1981) four-item Job Search Behaviors scale, which uses a five-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Stress at work was measured with eight items from Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, and Pinneau's (1975) Somatic Complaints at Work scale, which uses a three-point scale (1 = *never* to 3 = *three or more times*) to assess physical symptoms of stress experienced at work (e.g., shortness of breath, stomach ache, trembling hands).

*Controls.* We controlled for home ownership and length of residence as these variables influence moving intentions (Lee et al., 1994; Permentier et al., 2009). A logarithmic transformation of length of residence was conducted to correct for nonnormality. Because mobility may be influenced by one's spouse/partner (Permentier et al., 2009), we also controlled for partner status. Spillover may also be influenced by whether the organization is situated in the respondent's community (Pugh et al., 2008), so we controlled for whether the individual worked and lived in the same community. Finally, because socioeconomic status may affect community attachment and the ability to move (Harris, 2001), we controlled for respondents' annual family income and, using Census data, the per capita income of their residential zip code. Each of the control variables was treated as having an exogenous influence on latent endogenous variables.

### Results

Means, standard deviations, scale reliabilities, and correlations are reported in Table 1.

#### Measurement Model

We performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to ensure the appropriateness of the measurement model. CFA results of the specified five-latent-factor model demonstrated good fit:  $\chi^2(220) = 1306.93$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; CFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.05. Supporting convergent validity, all items loaded significantly on their specified latent construct. The mean standardized factor loading for all items was 0.71. All factor covariances were freely estimated in the CFA. To further confirm the good fit of the measurement model, we compared the results of the specified five-latent-factor model to numerous alternate models in which one or more of the factor covariances were constrained to one. For each comparison, the original five-factor model provided superior fit:  $\chi^2_{\text{diff}}(1 \text{ to } 4) = 18.11 \text{ to } 2545.88$ ,  $p < 0.001$  for each test. These results offer evidence of discriminant validity between the latent constructs (Hom et al., 2009). As an additional assessment of discriminant validity, we followed Fornell and Larcker

TABLE 1  
Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities, and Correlations of Study Variables

Variable <sup>a</sup>	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Partner status	0.82	0.39												
2. Live/work in same community	0.43	0.50	-0.03											
3. Home ownership	0.89	0.31	0.29***	-0.06**										
4. Length of residence	2.16	1.09	0.07**	0.18***	0.09***									
5. Family income	5.19	1.56	0.30***	-0.12***	0.07**	0.01								
6. Per capita income	27.23	9.96	-0.01	-0.10***	-0.07**	-0.12***	0.25***							
7. Racial dissimilarity to community	0.29	0.27	-0.08*	0.07**	-0.10***	-0.04	0.08***	-0.01						
8. Community diversity climate	3.60	0.65	0.01	-0.03	0.04	0.00	0.07**	0.15***	0.17***	<b>0.84 (0.75)</b>				
9. Moving intentions	2.17	0.94	-0.10**	-0.03	-0.10***	-0.12***	-0.04	-0.03	0.11***	-0.14***	<b>0.83 (0.79)</b>			

*continued*

TABLE 1 (continued)

Variable <sup>a</sup>	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
10. Work stress	1.21	0.29	-0.06**	-0.01	-0.08***	-0.03	-0.06**	-0.04	-0.03	-0.08***	0.08***	<b>0.78 (0.57)</b>		
11. Work turnover intentions	2.90	1.74	-0.10***	-0.07**	-0.07**	-0.10***	-0.07**	0.01	0.07**	-0.03	0.33***	0.21***	<b>0.92 (0.90)</b>	
12. Job search behaviors	2.36	0.96	-0.04	-0.01	-0.03	-0.09***	-0.05*	-0.01	0.07**	-0.05*	0.22***	0.15***	0.62***	<b>0.89 (0.82)</b>
Race/ethnicity of respondent			-0.04	-0.01	-0.08***	-0.06**	0.05*	0.06**	0.68***	0.05*	0.08***	-0.04	0.07**	0.09***

Correlations between race/ethnicity of respondent and study variables

*Notes.* Boldface entries on the diagonal are scale reliabilities. Boldface entries in parentheses are the square root of the average variance explained. <sup>a</sup>Partner status coded 1 = *married/living with a partner*, 0 = *not married/not living with a partner* (*i.e., single*). Live/work in same community coded 1 = *live and work in the same community*, 0 = *does not live and work in the same community*. Home ownership coded 1 = *yes*, 0 = *no*. Length of residence reflects a logarithmic transformation. Per capita income is listed in thousands. Race/ethnicity coded 1 = *People of color*, 0 = *Whites*. \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . \*\*\* $p < .001$ .



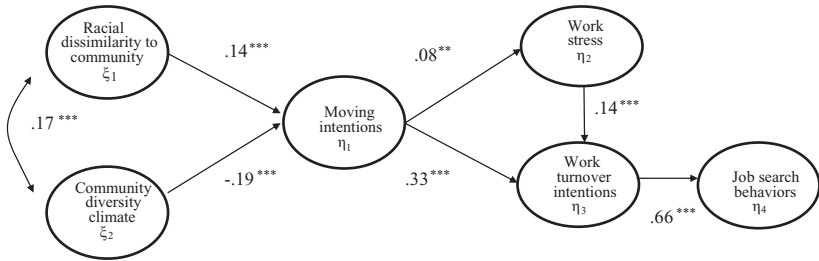


Figure 1: Structural Equation Model With Standardized Path Coefficients.

Notes. Measured item loadings, measured item errors, latent factor variances, disturbance terms, and control variable paths are omitted for brevity.  $N = 2045$ .  $\chi^2(354) = 1619.44$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; CFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.04. \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

(1981) by calculating the square root of the average variance explained for each latent variable, which represents the variance accounted for by the items that comprise a latent construct. To demonstrate discriminant validity, the value must “exceed the corresponding latent variable correlations in the same row and column of the correlation matrix” (Andrews, Kacmar, & Harris, 2009, p. 1431). As evident in Table 1, this condition was satisfied for all latent measures.

*SEM Analysis, Tests of Hypotheses, and Research Questions*

We used structural equation modeling (SEM) with full information maximum likelihood as the estimation method to conduct the analyses. Following recognized standards outlined by Hu and Bentler (1999), we found good fit for the hypothesized model:  $\chi^2(354) = 1619.44$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; CFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.04. Figure 1 provides a summary of structural model relationships.

*Study hypotheses.* In support of Hypothesis 1, employees’ racial dissimilarity to their community was positively related to moving intentions ( $\gamma = 0.14$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Hypothesis 2 was also supported; employees’ perceptions of the inclusiveness of the diversity climate in their community were negatively related to moving intentions ( $\gamma = -0.19$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). In line with Hypothesis 3, moving intentions predicted work turnover intentions ( $\beta = 0.33$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and physical symptoms of stress experienced at work ( $\beta = 0.08$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). In support of Hypothesis 4, those experiencing greater stress at work also reported stronger work turnover intentions ( $\beta = 0.14$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Hypothesis 5 also received support as work turnover intentions predicted reports of job search behaviors ( $\beta = 0.66$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

TABLE 2  
*Comparison of Multigroup Structural Equation Models for Tests of the Moderating Effect of Race*

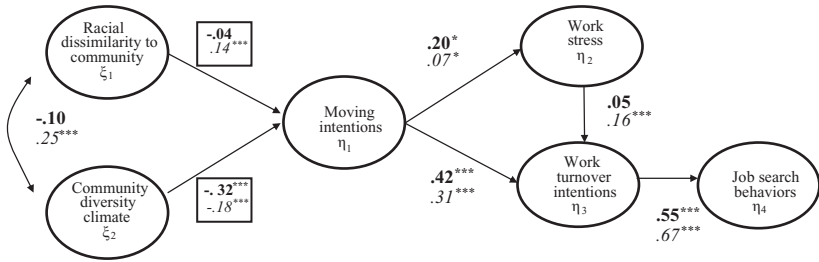
Model <sup>a</sup>	$\chi^2$	df	CFI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Model comparison
Model 1: All model paths fixed across groups	2041.65	714	0.95	0.03	-	-
Model 2: Path between racial dissimilarity to community and moving intentions freed	2036.80	713	0.95	0.03	5.15*	Model 2 to Model 1
Model 3: Path between community diversity climate and moving intentions freed	2032.96	712	0.95	0.03	3.84*	Model 3 to Model 2
Model 4: Path between moving intentions and work stress freed	2031.22	711	0.95	0.03	1.74	Model 4 to Model 3
Model 5: Path between moving intentions and work turnover intentions freed	2032.25	711	0.95	0.03	0.71	Model 5 to Model 3
Model 6: Path between work stress and work turnover intentions freed	2032.38	711	0.95	0.03	0.58	Model 6 to Model 3
Model 7: Path between work turnover intentions and job search behaviors freed	2029.31	711	0.95	0.03	3.65	Model 7 to Model 3

*Note.* N = 2045. Estimation method is full information maximum likelihood.

<sup>a</sup>Model comparison based on  $\chi^2$  difference test. Order of tests is downward through the table with particular model comparisons based on previous test findings.

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

*Research questions.* We conducted a multigroup SEM analysis for Whites and people of color to answer our research questions, which explored whether the relationship between the community diversity measures (racial dissimilarity and diversity climate) and moving intentions varied by group. First, we determined the fit of a model in which all structural paths were treated as equal across the two groups. Then, we tested a series of less constrained models in which individual structural model paths were freely estimated within the groups. As reported in Table 2, acceptable fit was initially found for a multigroup model in which all structural paths were fixed across the two groups. However, a model that allowed the path between racial dissimilarity to community and moving intentions to be freely estimated within each group demonstrated increased fit over this initial model:  $\chi^2_{\text{diff}}(1) = 5.15$ ,  $p < 0.05$ , suggesting that this relationship may vary by race. Similarly, model fit was improved by allowing the path from community diversity climate to moving intentions to be freely estimated within each group:  $\chi^2_{\text{diff}}(1) = 3.84$ ,  $p = 0.05$ , and also suggests this relationship varies by race.



**Figure 2: Within-Group Structural Equation Models for Whites<sup>a</sup> and People of Color<sup>b</sup> With Standardized Path Coefficients.**

*Notes.* Measured item loadings, measured item errors, latent factor variances, disturbance terms, and control variable paths are omitted for brevity. Standardized path coefficients for respondents of color are reported in boldface. Standardized path coefficients for white respondents are reported in italics. Those coefficient pairs enclosed in a box are statistically significant between groups.

<sup>a</sup>Whites:  $N = 1801$ .  $\chi^2(354) = 1492.47$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; CFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.04.

<sup>b</sup>People of color:  $N = 244$ .  $\chi^2(354) = 531.74$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; CFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.05.

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

Continued freeing of any of the remaining four structural model paths did not lead to significant model fit improvements.

To more precisely ascertain the nature of these group differences, we conducted within-group SEM analyses of the hypothesized model for the two groups. Figure 2 provides the overall model fit for each of these analyses and the path estimates for each group. The analyses revealed that the path between community racial dissimilarity and moving intentions was significant for Whites ( $\gamma = 0.14$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) but not for people of color ( $\gamma = -0.04$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). In addition, although personal perceptions of the community’s climate for diversity significantly predicted moving intentions for both Whites and people of color, the magnitude of this relationship varied by race; people of color reported a significantly stronger negative relationship between community diversity climate and moving intentions ( $\gamma = -0.32$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) than did Whites ( $\gamma = -0.18$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

Taken together, these results indicate that racial dissimilarity to community predicts moving intentions for Whites but not for people of color. For people of color, it is their personal experiences and perceptions of the diversity climate in their community that predicts their moving intentions. In addition, although both Whites and people of color report stronger intentions to leave communities that are experienced as having adverse diversity climates, this relationship plays a stronger role in moving intentions for people of color than for Whites.

*Post-Hoc Analyses*

We conducted two additional post-hoc analyses. First, we examined mediating effects for moving intentions. Second, we explored whether racial dissimilarity to community interacted with diversity climate in predicting intentions to move. Given the race differences found earlier, we conducted these post-hoc analyses separately for Whites and people of color.

*Mediating effects.* We examined whether moving intentions mediated the relationship between the two community diversity variables (racial dissimilarity and diversity climate) and work outcomes involving turnover intentions and stress. Mediation was assessed with a product of coefficients test (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002).<sup>2</sup> As reported in Table 3, moving intentions mediated the relationship between community diversity climate and both work outcomes (work stress and turnover intentions), and this effect was found for both Whites and people of color. In essence, employees' perceptions of their community's climate for diversity predicted their intentions to leave their community, which in turn affected both their intentions to leave their job and their physical symptoms of stress experienced at work. Moving intentions also mediated the relationship between racial dissimilarity and work turnover intentions but only for Whites. For Whites, living in a community that was racially dissimilar to them predicted their intentions to leave their community and ultimately their jobs. Moving intentions did not mediate the relationship between racial dissimilarity to community and work turnover intentions for people of color, which follows from the fact that their racial dissimilarity to their community did not significantly affect their intentions to leave the community ( $\gamma = -0.04, p > 0.05$ ).

*Interaction between racial dissimilarity to community and community diversity climate.* We next explored whether the two aspects of community diversity interacted in predicting moving intentions. SEM was used to assess the interaction following procedures described by Marsh, Wen, and Hau (2004). Racial dissimilarity to community interacted with community diversity climate in predicting moving intentions for Whites ( $\gamma = -0.11, p < 0.05$ ) but not for people of color. As displayed in Figure 3, for Whites, the influence of community racial dissimilarity on individuals' moving intentions was more pronounced when their communities were perceived as having adverse climates. Further, variations in climate had less impact on their moving intentions when their community was racially/ethnically

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<sup>2</sup>As to provide the most conservative test possible, we drew path and standard error estimates from a model that included all indirect and direct paths between pertinent constructs.

TABLE 3  
*Summary of Post-Hoc Mediation Tests for Moving Intentions*

	Whites			People of color		
	$\alpha$ ( $\alpha_{SE}$ ) <sup>a</sup>	$\beta$ ( $\beta_{SE}$ ) <sup>b</sup>	$\alpha^*\beta^c$	$\alpha$ ( $\alpha_{SE}$ )	$\beta$ ( $\beta_{SE}$ )	$\alpha^*\beta$
Mediated effect test <sup>d</sup>						
Community diversity climate to work stress	-0.190 (.030)	0.037 (.018)	-0.01*( - 0.01)	-0.339 (.077)	0.103 (.045)	-.04*( - 0.07)
Community diversity climate to work turnover intentions	-0.190 (0.030)	0.833 (0.068)	-0.16**(- 0.06)	-0.339 (0.077)	1.046 (0.200)	-0.36**(- 0.14)
Racial dissimilarity to community to work stress	0.494 (0.100)	0.037 (0.018)	0.02(0.01)	-0.153 (0.250)	0.103 (0.045)	-0.02(- 0.01)
Racial dissimilarity to community to work turnover intentions	0.494 (0.100)	0.833 (0.068)	0.41** (0.05)	-0.153 (0.250)	1.046 (0.200)	-0.16(- 0.02)

Note. Computations of the test statistic for the mediating effect are based on Sobel's first-order standard error formula.

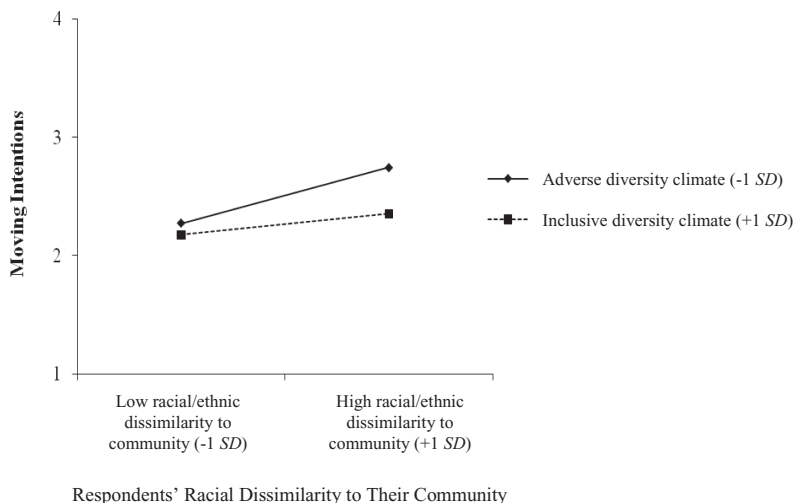
<sup>a</sup> $\alpha$  = Unstandardized path coefficient from the "independent variable" to moving intentions.

<sup>b</sup> $\beta$  = Unstandardized path coefficient from moving intentions to the "dependent variable."

<sup>c</sup> $\alpha^*\beta$  = Indirect effect. Standardized indirect effects are in parentheses.

<sup>d</sup>The "independent variable" is listed first and the "dependent variable" is listed second.

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



**Figure 3: Interaction Between Racial Dissimilarity to Community and Perceived Community Diversity Climate in Predicting Moving Intentions for Whites.**

similar to them (i.e., White). However, as the proportion of racially dissimilar others in their community increased, their experiences of community diversity climate became increasingly important in predicting moving intentions. In essence, White respondents were most likely to report wanting to leave their community when it had a large proportion of people of color and an adverse climate for diversity. The positive flip side of this relationship is that Whites who lived in racially dissimilar communities, but experienced the climate as inclusive and accepting, expressed lower intentions to move than those in communities that were experienced as being adverse to diversity.

For people of color, the interaction between racial similarity to community and diversity climate was not significant, indicating that their experiences of community diversity climate acts as an important driver of moving intentions regardless of whether or not they lived in a community that was racially or ethnically similar to them.

### *Discussion*

The findings of this study underscore the importance of community in organizational life and illustrate that we cannot afford to ignore the effects of community diversity on the workplace. Using a national sample of 2,045 accounting professionals in the U.S., we found that community diversity

influenced employees' intentions to leave their community, which in turn predicted their reports of turnover intentions, stress-related symptoms at work, and ultimately their job-search behaviors. Our study also revealed a number of interesting and provocative findings that offer fresh insights and directions for future research in this area.

To start, a central premise of our study is that although objective indicators of community racial diversity are important, we need to understand what racial diversity means to residents in their everyday life. This experience may vary by individuals, groups, and communities (Krysan, 2002a; Krysan & Farley, 2002); some communities are more racially tolerant than others, but even within a given community, some individuals and racial groups may experience racial prejudice and intolerance, but others may experience acceptance and inclusion (Krysan, 2002a; Pais et al., 2009; Swaroop & Krysan, 2011). Accordingly, we introduced and tested the psychological construct of perceived community diversity climate and found that it played a key role in the spillover between community and the workplace for both White employees and employees of color. Those who lived in communities experienced as having inclusive diversity climates had lower intentions to leave their communities and were less likely in turn to report work turnover intentions and job-search behaviors than those who experienced adverse and racially intolerant community climates.

We also found that race played a key role in many of these relationships. Although existing theory predicts that residents will be more attached to communities that match their race and ethnicity (Clark, 1991, 2002; Schelling, 1969, 1971), we found this relationship held only for the Whites in our study of American workers. In line with research from the racial segregation, geography, and sociology arenas (Krysan, 2002b; Pais et al., 2009; van Ham & Feijten, 2008), we found that, even after controlling for SES, Whites living in communities with greater proportions of people of color were more likely to report wanting to leave their community than those in primarily White communities. However, racial dissimilarity to community did not predict moving intentions for people of color. For people of color, it was their personal perceptions of the racial climate in their community, rather than their racial similarity to the community, that predicted their intentions to move.

There are a number of possible explanations for these race differences. First, segregation scholars point out that irrespective of racial prejudice, Whites may be less comfortable being in the minority in their community compared to people of color, who tend to have more experience being in racially dissimilar environments in the U.S. (Krysan, 2002b; Lewis et al., 2011). Swaroop and Krysan (2011) observe that Whites may be threatened by co-residence with people of color because it implies their superior social position may be diminished or threatened. However, different

dynamics may be present for the professionals of color in our sample, who may have selected to move to primarily White middle-class communities for schools and services (Harris, 2001), and because patterns of racial segregation in the U.S. limit their residential options (Pager & Shepherd, 2008). Our study suggests that for people of color, it may not be the presence of similar others that predicts their attachment to their community but rather their personal experiences and perceptions of their community as a place that accepts diversity. In fact, we found that although both Whites and people of color reported stronger intentions to leave communities that were experienced as having an adverse diversity climate, this relationship was significantly stronger for people of color than for Whites.

Our results also suggest that the community's diversity climate may offset the disturbing relationship between Whites' racial similarity to their community and their moving intentions found in this study, as well others (van Ham & Feijten, 2008; Krysan, 2002b). White professionals in our study were more likely to report wanting to leave their communities, and ultimately their workplaces, when they lived in communities with higher proportions of people of color. However, this relationship was diminished when they experienced their community as having an inclusive diversity climate. Aligned with group threat theory, racially diverse communities that are experienced as accepting may be less threatening for individuals than communities that are perceived as racially intolerant. This finding underscores the importance of including community diversity climate and not limiting assessment to racial indicators.

### *Implications for Theory, Research, and Practice*

The results of this study have significant implications for theory, research, and practice. To start, this study informs the growing literature on the role of community in organizational life.

It has particular implications for job embeddedness theory, which presents a number of community characteristics that may influence worker attachment and retention but has been silent on the role of community diversity. Our study not only widens the job embeddedness lens to include diversity as a community characteristic but also offers an additional link to the model. Applying related literature from sociology and geography, we introduced the concept of moving intentions and found that it was a mediating mechanism that explained the relationship between community characteristics and workplace attachment. This finding helps to "flesh out" existing spillover models and illustrates the utility of including not only community diversity but also moving intentions in future theory building and testing of job-embeddedness models.



This study also offers the field of workplace diversity new insights into the role of community in the workplace. Diversity scholars have started down this path by developing models that explore the role of community diversity in minorities' reactions to site visits and their decision to join an organization (McKay & Avery, 2006). Building on this important work, this study suggests that community diversity may influence not only recruitment but also retention and that these effects may extend not only to people of color but also to their White counterparts. Equally important, our results suggest that racial demographics are an important but insufficient indicator of community diversity. Community psychologists and sociologists have long contended that community attachment is a function of both subjective and objective factors, and our findings support this view. Racial composition is important but needs to be examined within the larger context of the experience and meaning of diversity in everyday life.

This study also offers valuable implications for practice. Most organizations recognize the advantage of fostering inclusive climates within the workplace (Mor Barak et al., 1998), and this study suggests that the benefits of climate extend well beyond the workplace threshold. Community climates for diversity may either help or hinder an organization's ability to retain talented employees, irrespective of their race.

The findings of this study can further be viewed as a call to action for organizations to partner with their communities to eradicate intolerance and to create more inclusive diversity climates. A first step is for companies to support community programs and initiatives that offer opportunities for positive intergroup contact and interaction (e.g., community events, mentoring programs). However, much deeper change is needed; communities characterized by inequality in income, political power, and education are unlikely to foster climates that make people of all races and ethnicities feel welcome. Organizations therefore need to partner with their communities in long-term initiatives that create equity and economic opportunity, such as supporting minority-owned businesses and investing in programs supporting educational, economic, and political equality.

### *Limitations*

Like other studies, our study had limitations that also offer possibilities for future research. Our first set of limitations involves the sample. Although we had a large sample of accounting professionals who lived across the U.S., we did not have the sample size needed to conduct a fine-grained analysis of the experiences of specific racio-ethnic groups. In addition, although the size of our sample generally offered adequate statistical power, our ability to detect an effect for the post-hoc interaction

between racial dissimilarity to community and community diversity climate for the people of color subgroup may have been limited because of this subgroup's sample size (cf., McClelland & Judd, 1993). Where possible, future research could seek out larger samples of employees of color and offer a more detailed comparison of the experiences of different racial and ethnic groups. In addition, our study was conducted in the U.S., and the results may not generalize to other countries with different histories of racial and ethnic relations. Future research could replicate this study in other countries and with other racial and ethnic groups that face prejudice and discrimination. Our study focused on race and ethnicity, but it would be interesting to study other populations that experience discrimination in their communities, such as religious (e.g., Muslims, Sikhs) and sexual minorities (e.g., LGBT population), and to compare these experiences using an international perspective. It should be noted that our sample of accountants allowed us to control for occupational and human capital effects but may not generalize to other workers. Future research could examine these relationships with blue-collar and working class employees.

Other limitations also need to be acknowledged. To start, our study examined intentions to move and quit rather than actual behaviors. Although intentions are psychological precursors to moving and quitting behaviors (Griffeth et al., 2000; Lee et al., 1994), they may be susceptible to negative affectivity. However, intentions are not susceptible to economic and social constraints that influence individuals' actual ability to leave a job or community. Future research could examine moving and turnover intentions and behaviors while controlling for the large range of constraints that influence respondents' (particularly respondents of color) ability to translate moving/quitting intentions into behaviors.

Another potential limitation involves the gap in our operationalization of community for the diversity climate and racial dissimilarity to community measures. As described earlier, we used an established definition of community for our climate measure. Similarly, the use of zip codes is an established method for assessing racial dissimilarity in communities. Nevertheless, although both measures approach community from a geographic perspective, the definition used for the climate measure (i.e., "Please consider 'community' as the town, city, or suburb that is your primary place of residence") may reflect a larger geographic area than zip codes. Zip codes often cover entire towns, suburbs, and small cities. However, in larger metropolitan areas, residents could live in one zip code but view their community in a broader way. In this case, the objective measure of racial dissimilarity to community may not perfectly mirror respondents' perceptions of the geographic boundaries of their community. To assess this possibility, we included a question that asked respondents to report their perceptions of the racial diversity in their community,

giving them the exact same definition of community as was used for the climate measure. For both Whites and people of color, this perceptual measure of racial diversity yielded the same pattern of relationships with moving intentions as our objective measure of racial dissimilarity to community. The perceptual measure was also significantly related to our objective measure for both Whites ( $r = 0.42, p < 0.001$ ) and people of color ( $r = 0.42, p < 0.001$ ), respectively. These results suggest that differences in perceptions of geographic boundaries of the community, although conceivable, are not a likely explanation for study findings. It is also important to note that racial dissimilarity to community and community diversity climate were not combined in our analyses; rather, our SEM analyses offered insight into the unique impact of each of these variables on moving intentions.

An additional limitation is that our cross-sectional research design does not allow us to make causal inferences about the directions of the relationships found in this study. Although we were interested in examining the spillover of community to the workplace, it is possible that workplace experiences may also spillover to influence community attachment and moving intentions. Accordingly, we examined a number of alternative models that reversed the directions of the paths between the community and work domains, along with several models that suggested independent, simultaneous effects of the community and work domains on job search behaviors. Based on a series of nonnested model comparisons conducted using the full sample, White respondents, and people of color, we found that our model was better fitting than each of these alternative models.<sup>3</sup> Still, we encourage researchers to use longitudinal methods to examine the relationships among community diversity, moving intentions, and turnover intentions in future research.

A final concern is the potential for common method variance (CMV). CMV cannot explain core findings that involved our objective measure of racial dissimilarity to community, the interaction found between racial dissimilarity and diversity climate, and, perhaps most important, the race differences found in this study (Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010). Nevertheless, we assessed CMV by comparing the fit of the five-factor measurement model to an alternate model, which included an additional uncorrelated method factor. As this alternate model showed an improvement in fit ( $\chi^2_{\text{diff}}(23) = 524.58, p < 0.05.$ ), we calculated the sum of the squared loadings for each item on the method factor to determine the influence of CMV (Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989). The variance explained by common methods was 7%, substantially less than the norm of 25% found

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<sup>3</sup>Details on these analyses are available from the authors.

in other studies (Williams et al., 1989; cf., Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008). This suggests that only a small amount of variation in the data was due to the method factor. We further reran the SEM analyses with an additional control variable, life satisfaction (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985), which taps respondents' general levels of affectivity (cf., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Model paths underwent only small changes in magnitude, with all but one path remaining statistically significant.<sup>4</sup> Taken together, these results suggest that CMV is not a likely explanation for our key findings.

In conclusion, our quality of life depends on the climates in which we live and work. Like the air we breathe, toxic diversity climates can permeate our lives and deplete our ability to function effectively across life domains. Life is not left at the workplace door. Organizations and communities are intricately connected through their members' experiences. They cannot afford to maintain the illusion of isolation but instead must work together to create climates in which all can thrive.

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<sup>4</sup>The path from moving intentions to work stress originally demonstrated a small, yet significant effect ( $\beta = .08$ ,  $p < .05$ ), but lost significance when we controlled for life satisfaction.

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