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Making Connections: Understanding How Social Interaction Patterns Influence Work-related Outcomes for Individuals with Disabilities

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ABSTRACT

In the United States, approximately eight million individuals with disabilities are active in the workforce (Erickson et al., 2008). These individuals seek employment that allows for full use of their education, experience, and abilities, and provides growth and development opportunities (Ali et al., 2011). Despite protective legislation and inclusive organizational policies, individuals with disabilities are at least twice as likely as individuals without disabilities to experience underemployment and reduced access to advancement opportunities (Schur et al., 2009). Evidence suggests that some of these issues may be related to social interaction patterns. It appears that individuals with disabilities have a strong tendency to ask for work-related advice from people with whom they perceive as accepting of their disabilities. Underutilization may, in part, be the result of an inability to access necessary social capital resources due to social interaction partner preference (Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2011). A lack of overarching theory hinders our ability to explain the motives that drive individuals with disabilities to prefer interactions with some individuals and not with others, how within person fluctuations in disability identity salience, which might be driven by factors such as disability progression, influence social interaction patterns, or how those social interaction preferences translate to positive or negative outcomes.

Drawing from socioemotional selectivity and social network theories I propose and test a theoretical model that examines the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities and an important work-related outcome: full utilization. Results from a experiential sample methodology reveal that disability identity salience leads to perceptions of future time as limited and that this relationship is stronger when disability progression is high versus low. This research also provides evidence that future time perspective predicts the likelihood that individuals with

disabilities will engage in social interactions or avoid social interactions. This pattern suggests that self-development and self-maintenance interactions are positively related to full utilization, whereas avoiding social interactions is negatively related. Findings from this study advance our understanding of the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities, how they help or hinder career advancement efforts, and suggest how organizations could better support individuals with disabilities at work.

DEDICATION

For Sabine, Nnrbp *<3∞+1*

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Individuals with disabilities represent the largest minority group in the world (United Nations, 2018). According to the 2010 United States Census, nearly 20% or 18 million people in the United States identify as an individual with disabilities. From this population, approximately 33% to 46% of working-age individuals (i.e., 21 - 64 years of age) are active in the workforce (Erickson et al., 2008), and 80% of non-employed working-age individuals with disabilities desire to work now or in the future (Ali et al., 2011; Bond et al., 2001). The number of capable and qualified individuals with disabilities prepared to enter the U.S. workforce is likely to increase (Kruse et al., 2010) as we continue to make improvements in health care, expand the definitions of disability, and enact legislation to protect the access rights of individuals with disabilities to education, training, and employment (Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990; Lengnick-Hall et al., 2008; Ruggs et al., 2013; Schur et al., 2014).

Disability, as established by the American with Disabilities Act of 1990, includes any individual who has (1) a physical or mental impairment that significantly impacts one or more major life activities, (2) a history of such impairment or, (3) been regarded or treated by others as having an impairment, regardless of actual impairment status (ADA.gov, n.d.). In spite of legislation and protections, individuals with disabilities continue to struggle to achieve success in the workplace. The job-related needs and expectations of individuals with disabilities do not differ significantly from those of individuals without disabilities (Ali et al., 2011). Many individuals with disabilities are qualified, experienced persons seeking employment that offers a viable income, job security, access to health and retirement benefits, (re)training, and advancement opportunities (Ali et al., 2011; Rumrill et al., 2015). Individuals with disabilities

are not significantly more reluctant to enter the job market or perform certain jobs than individuals without disabilities; however, they are not optimistic regarding their ability to secure and retain meaningful work (Ali et al., 2011). Employment entry barriers stemming from prejudice, stereotypes, and unfounded employers' fears regarding poor job performance, the cost of providing accommodations, and negative co-worker perceptions persist (Colella et al., 1998; Domzal et al., 2008; Lengnick-Hall et al., 2008; Schur et al., 2014).

For those individuals with disabilities who do secure employment, what we know about their workplace experience is discouraging. Individuals with disabilities are as likely as individuals without disabilities to earn a high school diploma and take some college courses (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2008; Ali et al., 2011), yet there are disproportionally more individuals with disabilities than without disabilities occupying part-time, entry-level, minimum wage, low- or semi-skilled jobs, with no clear path for career advancement (Braddock & Bachelder, 1994; Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014; Schur et al., 2009; Yelin & Trupin, 2003). There is also evidence of a persistent wage gap between individuals with and without disabilities (Kraus et al., 2018; Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014; Schur et al., 2009). Individuals with disabilities are at least twice as likely as individuals without disabilities to experience job insecurity, involuntary unemployment and, underemployment (Barclay et al., 2012; Konrad et al., 2013; Mitra & Kruse, 2016; Schur et al. 2009). They have reduced access to flexible work schedules, healthcare, pensions and, training and advancement opportunities (Barclay et al., 2012; Schur, 2002; Schur et al., 2009; Yelin & Trupin, 2003).[1]

[1] The workplace experience of individuals with disabilities described here is consistent with that of many individuals around the globe (e.g., Australia, Canada, England); however, in some countries (e.g., India, China), the workplace disparities between those with and without disabilities are more pronounced (Barclay et al., 2012).

The employment experience for many individuals with disabilities is financially and psychologically unfulfilling (Kraus et al., 2018; Maag, 2006; Yelin & Trupin, 2003). This experience is related to a reduction in positive outcomes such as employee well-being, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and an increase in negative outcomes including perceptions of injustice and disability-related discrimination as well as turnover intentions: all undesirable outcomes (Goldman et al., 2008; Konrad et al., 2013; Schur et al., 2009; Snyder et al., 2010). At the same time that individuals with disabilities attempt to navigate the often-negative workplace experience, organizations are facing a labor shortage while simultaneously failing to capture and retain a source of valuable human capital (Ali et al., 2011; Kruse et al., 2010; Lengnick-Hall et al., 2008). Baby-boomers are exiting the workforce and their numbers will not be replaced by the offspring of subsequent generations (Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014). Full utilization, that is employment of individuals with disabilities that allows for full use of their education; experience; knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs); and provides growth and development opportunities (Maynard et al., 2015; O'Brien, 1982; Parker et al., 2013), represents a viable solution to staffing shortages organizations may face in the future.

Legislators, scholars, and practitioners are concerned about the workplace experiences of individuals with disabilities. However, most disability studies examine significant issues such as accommodations, discrimination, and employment concerns (e.g., Baldridge & Swift, 2016; Gewurtz et al., 2016; Schur et al., 2014), and largely overlook the role of social interaction in these outcomes. This is unfortunate, as among members of the general workforce, a relationship between patterns of social interaction and outcomes including job satisfaction, team performance, conflict, and leader-member exchange quality has been well documented (e.g.,

Jehn et al., 1997; Kacmar et al., 2009; Kaufmann & Wagner, 2017; Wesolowski & Mossholder, 1997).

What we do know about the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities comes to us from a limited number of social network and disability studies. Findings from this research suggest that individuals with disabilities have small, dense social networks composed primarily of family members and close friends (Bainbridge & Fujimoto, 2018; Dimakos et al., 2016). Individuals with disabilities have a strong tendency to rely on those relationships even for work-related matters. For example, when seeking a job, the preferred contact-point for help and advice is family and friends rather than hiring supervisors or human resource officers (Ali et al., 2011). Individuals with disabilities are reluctant to ask for help or accommodations from a coworker or supervisor regardless of whether that individual does or does not have a disability (Schur et al., 2014). In one case study, individuals with disabilities purposefully created a social network composed only of other individuals with disabilities with the intention that those of greater standing or with greater social capital resources could mentor, support and advocate for the career advancement and success of members of the group (Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014).

As can be seen from these findings, our understanding of the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities is limited. There is no overarching theory that explains the motives that drive individuals with disabilities to prefer interactions with some individuals and not with others. We do not understand how within person fluctuations in disability identity salience, which might be driven by factors like disability progression, influence social interaction patterns overtime. In addition, the extant literature fails to describe how those social interaction preferences translate to positive or negative outcomes. Without this knowledge, it is difficult to

know what organizations could do to support more positive outcomes for individuals with disabilities.

In this dissertation, I draw from socioemotional selectivity and social network theories to propose a conceptual model illuminating the relationships between the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities and an important work-related outcome: full utilization. Then, I test the relationships hypothesized by this model with an 8-wave, within-person, repeated measures experiential sample methodology (ESM). This strategy facilitates detection of changes or shifts in social interaction behaviors as they unfold and change over time (Gabriel et al., 2019; Uy et al., 2010). Findings from this study should advance our theoretical understanding of the relationship between the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities and work-related outcomes. And, on a more practical level, findings from this study should suggest how organizations could better support individuals with disabilities, through the development of organizational resources and policies better equipped to meet their needs, and in so doing, make greater use of important human capital (Ali et al., 2011; Follmer & Jones, 2018; Kruse et al., 2010; Lengnick-Hall et al., 2008; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

In order to consider how the interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities influence work-related outcomes, this chapter begins with a brief review of the social interaction literature. My goal is not to provide an exhaustive review of this vast literature, as that has been done by other scholars (e.g., Berscheid & Reis, 1998; Brass et al., 2004; Byrne, 1997; Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007; Riordan, 2001; Tasselli et al., 2015; Wrzus et al., 2013). Rather, within the context of the workplace, I define social interaction and, discuss several influential theories used in organizational science. Next, a summary of empirical evidence related to social interaction in the workplace is provided with emphasis, where applicable, on the empirical findings of studies examining social interaction in the workplace experienced by individuals with disabilities. I then conclude this chapter with a critical discussion of the limitations of this work, areas where we have not concentrated, and why it is important to do so.

Social Interaction

Social interaction, the currency of all sociological analysis (Turner, 1988), may be defined as a system of mutually reinforcing relationships in which the actions of one individual are interpreted by, and influence the actions of, another individual (Adams, 1967; Turner, 1988). This highly adaptive tool, that all human beings use across their lifespans to learn about their environment, identity, values, and culture, represents a complex interplay between attraction, affiliation, need, and obligation (Adams, 1967). Initial interactions often occur on the basis of familiarity, proximity, surface similarity, positive affect, and/or physical attractiveness, while

continued or repeated interactions are likely the result of consensus of deep similarity or expectations of reciprocity (Adams, 1967; Turner, 1988).

The study of social interaction has enjoyed a long history and informs many disciplines, including but not limited to: anthropology, sociology, psychology, political science, and organizational behavior. Broadly speaking, social scientists attempt to describe and predict the process of social interaction from attraction to maintenance to dissolution of many types of relationships (e.g., cooperative vs. hostile; equal vs. unequal; intense vs. superficial; informal vs. formal) at the individual, dyadic and group levels (Berscheid & Reis, 1998). In an organizational context, the study of social interaction represents an attempt to understand patterns of social behavior and the way in which these interactions compel or constrain behaviors (Brass et al., 2004) likely to predict important work-related outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, team performance, conflict, LMX quality) for both the individual and the organization (e.g., Jehn et al., 1997; Kacmar et al., 2009; Kaufmann & Wagner, 2017; Wesolowski & Mossholder, 1997). Historically, four theoretical perspectives have been used to examine social interaction in the workplace. It is to these perspectives that I turn next.

Theoretical Perspectives

Similarity-Attraction Paradigm

Developed to examine the origins of interpersonal relationships, the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971, 1997), argues that initial attraction, relationship formation, and relationship maintenance are a function of perceived similarity between two people. That is, similarity-attraction predicts that individuals are initially attracted to strangers based on perceptions of familiarity, proximity, visible surface similarity (e.g., age, gender, race), and expectations of reciprocity (e.g., Adams, 1967; Byrne, 1971, 1997; Turner, 1988). Whereas,

long-term relationships form and remain stable over time as deep similarities (e.g., values, attitudes, beliefs) are revealed through continued involvement (e.g., Berscheid & Reis, 1998; Mannix & Neale, 2005; Newcomb, 1961). Indeed, over time, the effect of similarities based on surface attributes weakens while the effect of similarities based on deep attributes strengthens (Harrison et al., 1998). Relationship scholars describe interactions with others based on deep similarities as self-reinforcing (e.g., Riordan, 2001; Singh, 1974). Namely, interactions based on deep similarity are more likely to be continued (Riordan, 2001) because those interactions tend to be rewarding (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989), low in conflict (Lincoln & Miller, 1979), and linked to positive affect (e.g., Adams, 1967; Byrne, 1971; Turner, 1988), self-esteem, and validation of self (Byrne & Clore, 1970; Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1985).

In organizational research, the similarity-attraction paradigm has been applied to examine several types of dyadic relationships (e.g., applicant-recruiter, supervisor-subordinate) in order to better understand the extent to which perceived similarity contributes to interaction behavior (Berscheid & Reis, 1998; Kenny, 1984) and work-related outcomes (e.g., Avery et al., 2007; Epitropaki & Martin, 1999; Goldberg, 2005). The most frequently measured similarity dimensions studied within this paradigm include age, ethnicity, gender, education, and tenure. In general, similarity is positively related to job satisfaction, retention, performance, communication, and commitment (Chatman & Flynn, 2001; Mehra et al., 1998; Mueller et al., 1999; Vecchio & Bullis, 2001; Wagner et al., 1984). More specifically, both surface- (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity) and deep-level (e.g., attitudes, values, beliefs) applicant-employer similarity are positively related to recruitment (Esposito et al., 2018; Riordan & Shore, 1997), selection (Goldberg, 2005; McCarthy et al., 2010), and retention (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Vecchio & Bullis, 2001). The similarity of the actors in the supervisor-subordinate relationship (e.g., age,

race, gender, education, tenure, company) influences supervisors' ratings of employee performance, attraction, and liking (Hu et al., 2016; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). In this same relationship, the similarity of actors also predicts employees' rating of ambiguity and conflict, absenteeism, job satisfaction, and perceived procedural justice (Avery et al., 2007; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Wesolowski & Mossholder, 1997). In leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships, employee attitudes and well-being, leader identification, and agreement on LMX relationship quality (Epitrokaki & Martin, 1999; Kacmar et al., 2009; Marstand & Epitrokaki, 2018) have been attributed to both surface- and deep-level leader-employee congruence (e.g., age, gender, tenure, values). Between co-workers, similarity in age is positively related to knowledge sharing (Burmeister et al., 2018), whereas, similarity in attitudes, beliefs and values are positively related to perceptions of performance and equity of compensation (Griffeth et al., 1989), victim response-reactions to workplace offenses (Kim et al., 2008), as well as willingness to communicate, verbal aggressiveness (Martin & Anderson, 1995), and levels of conflict (Jehn et al., 1999).

Similarity-attraction paradigm has not been applied to studies related to individuals with disabilities (for an exception see Schmelkin, 1985). Be that as it may, similarity-attraction is not an ideal theoretical lens for studying the social interactions of individuals with disabilities primarily because of its reliance on visible similarity characteristics (e.g., age, gender, race) to predict initial attraction. Many disabilities are invisible to others (e.g., colitis, multiple sclerosis, visual impairments, hearing impairments) and the lack of outwardly visible attributes would exclude a significant portion of this population from study. Indeed, the US Census Bureau (2002) estimates that approximately 20% of all individuals with disabilities do not have physical symptoms or do not use assistive devices or technology that might signal a disability.

Relational Demography

Building on the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971, 1979), self-categorization (Turner, 1987) and social identity theories (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), relational demography examines the similarity of one individual to a referent group (e.g., individual-team, supervisor-subordinates) to predict interaction behavior and work-related outcomes (Klein et al., 1994; Lawrence, 1997). Specifically, the more alike a person is relative to their work group, the more likely that individual will enact positive attitudes and behaviors (Riordan, 2001). Like the similarity-attraction paradigm, relational demography considers the influence of surface- (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity) and deep-level (e.g., attitudes, values, beliefs) similarities and differences on work attitudes and performance. The most frequently measured similarity dimensions studied within relational demography include age, ethnicity, gender, education, and tenure.

In general, similarity of an individual within the work group contributes to increased citizenship behaviors, (Perry et al., 1999), group cohesion (Harrison et al., 1998), and cooperation (Chatman & Flynn, 2001), whereas, dissimilarity contributes to increased conflict (Chatman et al., 1998), absenteeism (Rosse & Hulin, 1985), and turnover (e.g., Wagner et al., 1984; Zatzick et al., 2003). More specifically, perceived surface- and deep-level similarities, between an individual and a comparison group, are positively related to perceptions of person-environment and person-group fit (Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007), and organizational attachment (Tsui et al., 1992), as well as perceptions of advancement opportunities and career mobility (McGinn & Milkman, 2013; Riordan & Shore, 1997). Furthermore, perceived similarity predicts liking and willingness to work with co-workers (Glavin et al., 1996; Harrison et al., 2002) as well as formation and perceptions of psychological contracts and responses to psychological contract breach (Thomas et al., 2003). Supervisor similarity in terms of gender, age, and tenure,

relative to that of the subordinate group, is positively related to increased cooperative behavior (Chatman & Spataro, 2005; Pelled et al., 2001) and improved performance (Smith et al., 1994). Likewise, supervisors who are similar to their employees on the above dimensions are more likely to engage in a participative leadership style (Somech, 2003) and encourage the open exchange of opinions and ideas during conflict (Pelled et al., 2001). Relational demography has also been extended to study organizational outcomes. For example, group perception of demographic homogeneity on the dimensions of nationality, race, and gender is positively related to increased interactions, productivity, creativity, and decreased conflict (Chatman et al., 1998), while, group perception of racial homogeneity is positively related to team empowerment and effectiveness (Kirkman et al., 2004).

There are no relational demography studies that have included disability as an independent or control variable. Relational demography and similarity-attraction share the same limitation—reliance on the influence of surface-level similarities (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity) risks exclusion of individuals with non-visible disabilities. Thus, relational demography is not an ideal theoretical lens for studying the social interactions of individuals with disabilities.

Social Network Theory

The study of social networks may be best characterized as a line of inquiry, built on theory and methods drawn from many disciplines (e.g., mathematics, social psychology, anthropology), that considers relationships as a system of interactions (e.g., Kilduff & Tsai, 2003; Scott & Davis, 2015). This approach to studying interpersonal social interactions is broader than the similarity-attraction or relational demography perspectives previously discussed, in that the social network approach is concerned with all aspects of the "web of group affiliations" (Simmel, 1955) that comprise social interaction. Viewed from this systems

perspective, social network scholars are interested in the actors, structure, and content of the network. More specifically, social network research evaluates the characteristics of the actors or nodes, where the actors are positioned within the network (i.e., distance), how important an actor is within that system (i.e., centrality), and whether an actor is redundant or serves as a unique bridge between two otherwise unconnected actors (i.e., structural hole; e.g., Kilduff & Tsai, 2003; Scott & Davis, 2015). The characteristics of the connections or ties within the structure of the network, the quality of the ties (e.g., strong, weak, short-, long-term), the degree to which everyone is interconnected (i.e., density), as well as whether everyone is equally interconnected (i.e., centralization) are also examined (e.g., Kilduff & Tsai, 2003; Scott & Davis, 2015). The content of an individual's social network refers to resources gained as a result of the kinds of relationships that have been created (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006). Two types of distinct relational ties identified by social network scholars are particularly important to this discussion: expressive ties and instrumental ties (e.g., Balkundi & Harrison, 2006; Ibarra, 1992, 1993).[2]

Expressive ties, also known as affective or friendship ties, serve as conduits for psychosocial support that may include providing for an individual's emotional, social and spiritual needs (Ibarra, 1992; ICAP, 2011). In an organizational context, these voluntarily chosen ties, often formed on the basis of similarity or homophily, describe interpersonal interactions with others related to both work (e.g., sharing good/bad news, gossip) and non-work topics (e.g., hobbies, family, personal accomplishments). These interactions foster affection, belonging, trust (Ibarra, 1992, 1993), self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Luthans & Youssef, 2004), self-esteem

[2] Expressive and instrumental ties are both theoretically and empirically distinct; however, these are not mutually exclusive relationships (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006; Borgatti & Foster, 2003; Ibarra, 1992, 1993). One type of interpersonal social relationship may bring about another (e.g., a supervisor may become a close friend; Krackhardt & Stern, 1988), creating multiplex ties, that is, relationships that serve both expressive and instrumental purposes (Hill, 1992; Ibarra, 1992, 1993; Kotter, 1982).

(Brockner, 1988), hope, and optimism (Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans et al., 2007). Expressive ties, often used for coping with or making sense of the environment and people at work (Baldwin et al., 1997; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, Ibarra, 1992, 1993; LePine et al., 2011), can influence decisions as well as work-related attitudes and behaviors (Lincoln & Miller, 1979). Additionally, expressive ties are positively related to well-being (Rook, 1984), job satisfaction (Roberts & O'Reilly, 1979) and organizational commitment (Morrison, 2002).

Instrumental ties convey work-related advice, constructive feedback, information, influence, or material resources (e.g., Balkundi & Harrison, 2006; Heaney & Israel, 2008; Ibarra, 1992, 1993). These ties, more formally linked to the organization hierarchy (e.g., mentors, managers, supervisors), describe interpersonal interactions with others related to completing a task or job, or achieving work- or career-related goals (e.g., promotions, raises, training; Ibarra, 1992). When used for navigating organizations, instrumental ties serve as vital resources that may be critical for job effectiveness and career advancement (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006; Ibarra, 1993; Kilduff & Tsai, 2003). Specifically, instrumental ties facilitate access to jobs (Granovetter, 1977), interesting projects, career-building and advancement opportunities (Brass, 1984; Burt, 1992; Kilduff & Tsai, 2003), and training. They also influence performance ratings (Mehra et al., 1998), salary negotiation (Seidel et al., 2000), and recommendations (Kilduff & Tsai, 2003).

While the picture remains incomplete, a handful of studies focus on the social networks of individuals with disabilities. For example, Dimakos et al. (2016) find that individuals with disabilities generally have lower social capital than individuals without disabilities, and the networks of individuals with disabilities are typically composed of a small number of strong kinship-type ties. The individuals that comprise the nodes in these networks are typically family members, close friends, and support professionals that have intimate knowledge of that

individual's disabilities (Dimakos et al., 2016). It is not uncommon for family members, friends, job coaches, and other support staff to be integrally involved in work-related matters (Bressler & Lacy, 1980; Dimakos et al., 2016; Tschopp et al., 2009) providing both expressive and instrumental resources to the individuals with disabilities (i.e., multiplex ties). For example, several scholars demonstrate that these social network ties play a critical role in the job search process (Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2011; Miller et al., 2014; Perez et al., 2015).

Disability studies have identified numerous barriers to success that many individuals with disabilities struggle to overcome (e.g., underemployment, over-qualification, lagging career advancement). That being said, not all individuals with disabilities fail to achieve career success. One important social network study describes how individuals with disabilities purposefully create homogenous networks composed only of individuals with physical disabilities in order to self-manage their careers (Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014). Members intentionally engage with each other to proactively seek expressive and instrumental support for themselves and provide expressive and instrumental support to others (Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014). This strategic solidarity network facilitates increased signaling of KSAs and willingness to learn new skills, feedback seeking, and self-advocacy (Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014), and, is positively related to career advancement, job satisfaction, and well-being (Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014). This study demonstrates that individuals with disabilities *can* leverage their social networks to successfully self-manage their careers.

Socioemotional Selectivity Theory

Socioemotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, 1991, 1995) is a lifespan theory largely applied to research that examines the relationship between social interaction and aging (e.g., Kim & Kang, 2017; Kunze et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). Early in the theoretical development

stage, scholars recognized a correspondence between human development and social interaction preferences. In particular, it was noted that social interaction preferences change to reflect the salience of the instrumental (i.e., knowledge acquisition) and psychosocial goals (i.e., emotion regulation, identity validation) that human beings have at each stage in life (Carstensen, 1991; Carstensen et al., 1998). For example, young people tend to prioritize interactions likely to provide security, comfort, generate positive affect (i.e., emotion regulation), or affirm self-concept (i.e., identity validation) over interactions that could provide useful or novel information (i.e., knowledge acquisition; Carstensen, 1991; Carstensen et al., 1998). In adolescence and through mid-life, human interactions are much more directed toward accessing information that may be needed now or in the future (i.e., knowledge acquisition) rather than toward emotion regulation (Carstensen, 1991; Carstensen et al., 1998). However, as human beings cross into late middle and old age, they again tend to prioritize familiar, emotion regulation-based interactions over knowledge-based interactions (Carstensen, 1991; Carstensen et al., 1998).

Some scholars posit that the knowledge and experiences accumulated over a lifetime reduce the need for seeking further knowledge (Carstensen, 1992). Others suggest that preferences for interactions with close family and friends may be part of coping with old age (Folkman et al., 1987; Fredrickson & Carstensen, 1990), the result of a shortage of interaction partners, unfamiliar social environments (Carstensen & Fremouw, 1988), a tendency toward social withdrawal (Fredrickson & Carstensen, 1990), or preparation for death (Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009). Be that as it may, while age has demonstrated relatedness to changes in goals and social interaction patterns, socioemotional selectivity scholars later theorized and found support for *time* as the underlying mechanism for this phenomenon (Carstensen, 1992; Carstensen et al., 1998; Carstensen et al., 1999). Specifically, when the perception of future time

is open-ended and unlimited, people tend to prioritize social interactions likely to provide knowledge acquisition over emotion regulation (Carstensen, 1992; Carstensen et al., 1998; Carstensen et al., 1999). However, when future time is perceived as limited or constrained, people tend to prioritize social interactions likely to provide emotion regulation over knowledge acquisition (Carstensen, 1992; Carstensen et al., 1998; Carstensen et al., 1999). This phenomenon, first demonstrated in the elderly (Carstensen, 1991; Lockenhoff & Carstensen, 2004), has been replicated with healthy young persons (e.g., Carstensen, 1992; Fung & Carstensen, 2006; Pruzan & Isaacowitz, 2006). Indeed, these social interaction patterns persist regardless of age, gender, education, or income (Fung & Carstensen, 2006). Thus, it is shifting perceptions of future time (Carstensen et al., 1999), triggered by cues of symbolic or significant endings (e.g., age, illness, death awareness, graduation, moving, retirement) that motivate individuals to give primacy to emotion regulation- versus knowledge-based interactions (Carstensen, 1992; Carstensen et al., 1998; Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009).

Recently, in response to a workforce that is getting older and working longer (Toossi, 2012, 2013), organizational scholars have begun to apply socioemotional selectivity theory to better understand the relationships between aging, mortality cues, and retirement, on important work-related outcomes such as engagement, motivation, and performance (Doverspike et al., 2019; Kim & Kang, 2017; Kooij & Van De Voorde, 2011; Ng & Feldman, 2013). Using this theoretical perspective, scholars have found that older workers demonstrate greater interest in the quality of social interactions, helping others, and contributing to society, than in personal advancement or development of knowledge, skills and abilities (Kooij & Van De Voorde, 2011; Wang et al., 2015). They are more intrinsically than extrinsically motivated (Kooij & Van De Voorde, 2011). Likewise, older employees are more receptive to feedback, and to using that

feedback to understand how others perceive them, though they are less likely to use that feedback to enhance their careers (Wang, et al., 2015). In sum, older employees are inclined to give preference to social interactions that provide friendship, generate positive affect, or affirm self-concept (Carstensen, 1991; Carstensen et al., 1998; Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009). The positive emotional state derived from these social interactions is positively related to greater work engagement (Kim & Kang, 2017), performance, and citizenship behaviors, and negatively related to counterproductive work behaviors (Ng & Feldman, 2013).

Given that socioemotional selectivity theory was specifically developed to study social interaction patterns among the aging, it is understandable that organizational scholars have not yet extended their research beyond the limited applications described here. Currently, there are no work-related studies of individuals with disabilities that use this theoretical lens.

Limitations of Prior Research in the Existing Literature

A great body of research is devoted to understanding the workplace treatment of individuals with disabilities (e.g., accommodations, discrimination, employment concerns; Baldridge & Swift, 2016; Gewurtz et al., 2016; Schur et al., 2014). However, as this literature review reveals, there is no overarching theoretical model to explain the relationship between the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities and their work-related outcomes (Langford et al., 2013). Yet, understanding the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities and how these patterns influence their workplace experiences over time is crucial if we are to improve support to individuals with disabilities through the development of organizational resources and policies better equipped to meet their needs. The preceding literature review suggests four important ways in which our understanding of the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities is incomplete.

First, available research paints an unclear picture regarding interaction partner choices at work. On the one hand, some studies suggest that individuals with disabilities are more likely to prefer interactions with other individuals with disabilities (e.g., Colella & Varma, 2001; Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014). On the other hand, it also appears that individuals with disabilities, prefer to ask for work-related advice and help from people at work with whom they feel comfortable, or from those at work who they perceive as accepting of their disabilities, individuals who may have only limited social capital resources, rather than to ask for advice and help from a broader range of coworkers or supervisors (Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2014; Miller et al., 2014; Perez et al., 2015). There is no single motive or set of motives attributable to this preference. Instead, reasons vary from concerns regarding over-burdening others to fear of negative treatment at work (e.g., Glade et al., 2020; Koch et al., 2021; Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2014).

Second, the relationship between social interaction partner choice and work-related outcomes is under-examined. Two studies suggest that reliance on family and friends, instead of organizational members (e.g., human resource personnel), while searching for a job, may contribute to underemployment and underutilization due to the limited social capital resources of these interaction partners (Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2011; Langford et al., 2013). Another study demonstrates that social interactions within a network composed only of persons with physical disabilities is positively related to career advancement, job satisfaction, and well-being among mid-level managers (Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014). While encouraging, the conditions that made this homophilous networking possible may not be available in many organizations. More simply put, there may not be enough other individuals with disabilities within the organization, who have greater standing or social capital, to form a network. Many individuals

with disabilities will work with coworkers and supervisors without disabilities. The literature is silent on work-related outcomes related to these social interactions.

Third, no research as of yet considers how social interaction preferences might be influenced by individual or organizational factors such as disability progression or climate for inclusion. Nevertheless, there is evidence that both are likely to affect employees' attitudes and behaviors. For example, Garthwaite (2015) demonstrates that onset of disability is related to shifts in social interaction patterns (e.g., withdrawal). Following this logic, disability progression, or changes in disability that could negatively impact an individual's ability to work, are likely to affect social interaction partner choice (Follmer & Jones, 2018; Sullivan-Singh et al., 2015). Similarly, an inclusive climate, that is, one in which all persons are valued for their uniqueness and experience a shared sense of belonging (Shore et al., 2011), is likely to influence the willingness of individuals with disabilities to engage with coworkers and supervisors regardless of their disability status (e.g., Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2011, 2014; Zhu et al., 2019).

A final limitation is methodological. The majority of studies that explore the workplace experiences of individuals with disabilities are qualitative (Dwertmann, 2016). Qualitative studies ask individuals to talk about events, thoughts and feelings that have occurred in the past (Kerlinger & Lee, 2010; Patton, 2015). From these narratives, themes emerge that are useful for developing grounded theory regarding the complex issues that individuals with disabilities face at work (Anderson, 2010; Kerlinger & Lee, 2010; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Nevertheless, qualitative studies are unable to capture the extent to which individuals with disabilities create and maintain the networks to which they belong over time (e.g., Burt, 1982; Kilduff & Tsai, 2003, Taselli et al., 2015). Nor are they able to uncover how purposefully engaging in some

interactions and passing on others, contributes to or restricts goal achievement (Kilduff & Tsai, 2003, Taselli et al., 2015). Lastly, qualitative studies do not meet the requirements for inferring generalizability or causality (Anderson, 2010; Kerlinger & Lee; Shaddish et al., 2002).

Taken together, these gaps in our research hinder our ability to develop a theoretical model to explain the relationships between the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities and their work-related outcomes. This, in turn, interferes with our ability to evaluate organizational resources and policies, recommend organizational interventions, or construct inclusive organizational climates (Follmer & Jones, 2018; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016) that would reduce obstacles to career advancement opportunities and improved work-related outcomes among employees with disabilities.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Overview

The purpose of this dissertation is to address the theoretical and empirical gaps discussed in the previous chapter and in so doing, make several contributions to the disability and social interaction literatures. First, drawing from socioemotional selectivity and social network theories, I build a conceptual model to explain the relationships between the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities and important work-related outcomes such as full utilization. Development of this model is important because it allows disability scholars to make sense of the hidden mechanism, future time perspective, which drives the social interaction preferences of individuals with disabilities. It also affords an opportunity to better understand how the expressive and instrumental resources associated with those social interaction preferences are likely to help or hinder the career advancement efforts of individuals with disabilities. This more complete understanding of the social interaction process of individuals with disabilities will aid scholars and practitioners in the development and implementation of organizational resources and policies better equipped to meet the needs of individuals with disabilities as they strive for success in the workplace (Follmer & Jones, 2018; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016).

Socioemotional selectivity theory argues that a limited future time perspective is activated by cues that signal actual or symbolic endings (e.g., Carstensen, 1992; Carstensen et al., 1998; Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009). Most of these cues are associated with the passing of time or the end of an era (e.g., aging, thoughts of mortality, retirement). A second contribution of this dissertation is the introduction of a new type of cue, associated with the salience of an

identity, capable of activating a limited future time perspective. Drawing from the identity and identity threat literatures, I explain how disability identity salience, an identity that is both stigmatized and associated with the notion of limited ability, narrows perceptions of future time. As a result, preservation of self-concept assumes primacy over expansion of self, and social interaction partner preferences shift accordingly (Fredrickson & Carstensen, 1990; Lockenhoff & Carstensen, 2004). The addition of this new cue adds richness to the socioemotional selectivity and future time perspective literatures by expanding the types cues that could trigger a limited future time perspective, thereby opening the door for investigations of social interaction preference of other individuals with marginalized identities such as racial, religious or sexual minorities.

Finally, I test the relationships hypothesized by this model with an 8-wave, within-person, repeated measures experiential sample methodology (ESM). This design facilitates detection of changes or shifts in thoughts and feelings likely to influence future time perspective and related social interaction behaviors as they unfold and change over time (e.g., days, weeks; e.g., Gabriel et al., 2019; Uy et al., 2019). This study design specifically answers calls from within the disability literature for theoretically-based, within-person, longitudinal research focused on gaining a detailed understanding of how individuals with disabilities experience work over time with respect to their social interaction patterns and subsequent outcomes (Dwertmann, 2016; Langford et al., 2013; Peterson et al., 2017).

The remainder of this chapter is devoted to building theoretical support for the conceptual model presented in Figure 1. I begin with a discussion of future time perspective as a motive for social interaction partner choice and introduce disability identity salience as a novel antecedent that cues a limited future time perspective. Next, drawing from both socioemotional selectivity

and social network theories I describe the social interaction pathways that a limited future time perspective evokes. Then, I trace the relationship between those social interaction preferences and full utilization. Last, I discuss the degree to which disability progression and climate for inclusion moderate the abovementioned relationships.

Theory Development and Hypotheses

Human beings construct the future within the boundaries of time (Carstensen et al., 1999; Carstensen et al., 2003). Future time perspective refers to beliefs regarding an individual's own ability to visualize, plan, and realize future goals (Carsetensen, 1992; Keough et al.,1999; Kooij et al., 2018). People who have confidence in their power to exercise control over circumstances and events that affect their lives perceive the future as open, expansive, and filled with many opportunities (Fung & Carstensen, 2006; Kooij et al., 2018; Shipp et al., 2009). This open-ended future time perspective motivates these individuals to focus on knowledge acquisition and other forward-looking behaviors that will facilitate goal achievement (Aspinwall, 2005; Bandura, 2006; Fung & Carstensen, 2006; Sullivan-Singh et al., 2015; Zacher & Frese, 2009). However, cues that signal actual (e.g., aging, mortality) or symbolic (e.g., graduation, retirement) endings (Fung & Carstensen, 2006; Lockenhoff & Carstensen, 2004) diminish a person's belief in their power or ability to achieve goals (Bandura, 1982, 2006). These cues create a cognitive burden (Carstensen et al., 1999) that leads to perceptions of future time as limited (Carstensen, 1992) and redirects attention (Carstensen et al., 2003) toward emotion regulation and other coping behaviors (e.g., Cate & John, 2007; Kooij et al., 2017; Lockenhoff & Carstensen, 2004; Sullivan-Singh et al., 2015). Numerous cues may be responsible for the shift of future time perspective (Bandura, 1991) from open-ended to limited. Thus far, scholars have identified age, changes in health condition and thoughts about mortality (e.g., Carstensen, 1992; Grant & Wade-Benzioni,

2009; Sullivan-Singh et al., 2015), gender, socioeconomic status, and personal agency (e.g., Padawer et al., 2007; Shipp, 2009), as well as graduation, moving, and retirement (e.g., Carstensen, 1999; Griffin et al., 2012) as antecedents of a limited future time perspective.

Disability Identity Salience

Each person possesses a unique sense of self that is derived from multiple personal as well as social identities (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Identities may be defined by personal attributes such as age, gender, or disability (Ashforth et al., 2008; Richter et al., 2006; Tajfel, 1978). Individual experiences and interactions with like-minded group members provide narratives that guide thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dunn & Burcaw, 2013; Hogg et al., 2010; Van Stekelenburg & Klandermans, 2013; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016) that shape the way people see themselves and, influence their interactions with others (Bandura, 1991, 2006; Lockenhoff & Carstensen, 2004).

Many persons with disability have developed a disability identity.[3] Disability identity is defined by important aspects of the self (Von Schrader et al., 2014), independent of the biological components of impairment (Bogart, 2014; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016) as well as by identification with other persons with disability (Dunn & Burcaw, 2013). Together, personal experiences and group narratives inform an individual with disabilities' attitudes and beliefs regarding disability (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dunn & Burcaw, 2013; Hogg et al., 2010; Van Stekelenburg & Klandermans, 2013; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016). For example, disability identity plays an important role in impression management and social interaction choices including help seeking, and career and self-advocacy decisions (Croteau et al., 2008; Nario-Redmond et al., 2013; Oyserman, 2007; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016; Von Schrader et al., 2014).

[3] The presence of a disability does not imply the formation of a disability identity (e.g., Nario-Redmond, 2013, Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016; Watson, 2002).

A disability identity is not necessarily related to a negative self-concept or self-stigma (Darling, 2003; Goffmann, 1963; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016). Most scholars associate the development of a disability identity with a positive self-concept (e.g., Bogart, 2014; Dunn & Burcaw, 2013; Nario-Redmond et al., 2013; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016). Indeed, positive, healthy disability identities contribute to well-being, self-acceptance, and realistic appraisals of self-capabilities and limitations (Nario-Redmond et al., 2013; Roccas & Brewer, 2002; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016; Watson, 2002). However, one function of social identity is to pass on the narrative of the group; this facilitates group identification (Van Stekelenburg & Klandermans, 2013; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016). For individuals with disabilities, part of the disability identity group narrative includes a history of marginalization and disadvantage in both society and in the workplace (e.g., Nario-Redmond, 2013; Santuzzi et al., 2014). Experiences of stigma, shame, discrimination, over-qualification, and underutilization in the workplace are well documented (e.g., Carstensen et al., 1997; Elraz, 2018; Glade et al., 2020; Koch et al., 2021). Knowledge of these outcomes, even if not personally experienced, is likely to be taken into account when disability identity is made salient (Bain et al., 2016; Andre et al., 2018).

Like other identities, disability identity may not be salient at work unless prompted (Baldridge & Swift, 2013; Bodenhausen, 2010; Galvin, 2005). But for many, disability identity is salient. Part of an individual with disabilities' lived work experience includes regular and frequent thoughts about the disability, how that disability could impact work, or how that disability might inform coworker and supervisor attitudes, decisions, and behaviors (Glade et al., 2020, Koch et al., 2021). Disability identity salience includes a reminder that individuals with disabilities, have been, and in some case remain disadvantaged (e.g., Nario-Redmond, 2013; Santuzzi et al., 2014). For example, offers for help, casual remarks from a supervisor or co-

worker, or requests to serve as a disability awareness advocate that make the disability identity salient, may also serve as a place marker of disadvantaged status (Cahill & Eggleston, 1995). Similarly, opportunities for training, promotion or taking on a new project make the disability identity salient and may lead to thoughts about how the disability, or others' perceptions of the disability, might inhibit the ability to pursue or receive a raise, promotion, training, or job change. The knowledge that there is a possibility for future mistreatment creates uncertainty regarding the anticipated response of co-workers and supervisors (Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016; Quinn et al., 2014) and casts a shadow of doubt over the positive aspects of disability identity self-concept (Corley & Gioia, 2004). Disability identity salience leads to thoughts about the barriers, obstacles, and limited opportunities that confront individuals with disabilities as they attempt to achieve their work-related goals. These thoughts of limitedness, defined by Spielberger (1966, 1972) as threats to the physical or phenomenological self, create a cognitive burden (e.g., Cate & John, 2007; Kooij et al., 2017; Kooij & Van de Voorde, 2011; Zacher & de Lange, 2011) and are likely to foreshorten an individual's future perception of time (Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016; Quinn et al., 2014) in the same manner that other cues such as aging, mortality, graduation, or retirement create a cognitive burden that leads to perceptions of future time as limited (Carstensen, 1992; Carstensen et al., 1999; Grant & Wade-Benzioni, 2009; Griffin et al., 2012).

Hypothesis 1: Within persons, disability identity salience is negatively related to future time perspective.

Future Time Perspective and Social Interaction Preferences

As described in the previous chapter, socioemotional selectivity theory posits patterns of social interaction that depend on an individual's future perception of time (e.g., Carstensen,

1992; Fredrickson & Carstensen, 1990). Motivated by perceptions of future time as either limited or open-ended, people seek out social interactions along one of two trajectories in order to either fulfill needs for emotion regulation or knowledge acquisition (e.g., Carstensen, 1992; Fredrickson & Carstensen, 1990).[4] More specifically, when future time is perceived as open-ended and the pursuit of long-term goals assumes primacy, people tend to prioritize social interactions likely to lead to self-development (e.g., Carstensen, 1992; Carstensen et al., 1998; Carstensen et al., 1999). Interactions along this knowledge acquisition trajectory allow the seeker to encounter novel social interaction partners who have access to the physical, intellectual, and social capital resources likely to enable growth and development (Carstensen, 1992; Carstensen et al., 2003; Fung & Carstensen, 2006; Sullivan-Singh et al., 2015). However, when future time is perceived as limited and personal agency is diminished (Bandura, 2006), people tend to prioritize social interactions likely to promote self-maintenance (Carstensen, 1992; Penningroth & Scott, 2012). Social interaction partners at work, along this emotion regulation trajectory, include close friends, social group members, and trusted companions (Carstensen et al., 1999). In other words, coworkers and supervisors who can be trusted to provide social support, feelings of connectedness, and validation of self-concept (e.g., Carstensen, 1992; Carstensen et al., 1999; Penningroth & Scott, 2012; Sullivan-Singh et al., 2015). Thus, within persons, when future time perspective motivates a goal shift from self-development to self-maintenance, there is a corresponding shift in social partner preference (Carstensen, 1992; Lockenhoff & Carstensen, 2004). These social interaction patterns generalize across age, gender, education, and income

[4] The emotion regulation and knowledge acquisition trajectories are theoretically and empirically distinct but not mutually exclusive constructs (Carstensen, 1992). Social interaction partners may simultaneously fill both the self-development and self-maintenance roles (Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014).

categories (e.g., Carstensen, 1991, 1992; Fung & Carstensen, 2006; Lockenhoff & Carstensen, 2004; Pruzan & Isaacowitz, 2006).

Hypothesis 2: Within persons, future time perspective is (H2a) positively related to self-development social interactions along the knowledge acquisition trajectory and (H2b) negatively related to self-maintenance social interactions along the emotion regulation trajectory.

Full Utilization

Full utilization describes the extent to which an employee believes that their job allows full use of their current education, prior experience, and KSAs (i.e., knowledge, skills, and abilities), and provides growth and development opportunities (Maynard et al., 2015; O'Brien, 1982; Parker et al., 2013). Full utilization is positively related to affective well-being, self-efficacy, and feelings of self-worth (Bandura, 1997; Morrison et al., 2005). It is also positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and decision-making effectiveness, and negatively related to turnover and turnover intentions (Alyahya, 2005; Feldman & Bolino, 2000; Lai & Kapstad, 2009; Nelissen et al., 2017; O'Brien, 1982; Parker, 2003). Access to the physical, informational, and social capital resources necessary to achieve full utilization occurs via social interaction at work with coworkers and supervisors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Feldman & Bolino, 2000; Lai & Kapstad, 2009; Parker et al., 2013).

Socioemotional selectivity theory describes how personal goals, influenced by perceptions of time, motivate social interaction choices (e.g., Carstensen et al., 1999; Fung & Carstensen, 2006, Lockenhoff & Carstensen, 2004). However, this theory does not address what resources might be conveyed via the knowledge acquisition or emotion regulation trajectories or how those resources might be leveraged to contribute to specific work-related outcomes.

Fortunately, research on social networks does provide evidence of resources gained, and related outcomes, as a result of the kinds of at work relationships that have been created through instrumental and expressive ties (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006). In addition, the characteristics of the two trajectories proposed by socioemotional selectivity theory (i.e., knowledge acquisition, emotional regulation) correspond to the characteristics of two types of social interaction ties described by social network theory (i.e., instrumental, expressive). Specifically, both instrumental ties and the knowledge acquisition trajectory describe seeking interpersonal interactions with more knowledgeable coworkers and supervisors who are likely to convey advice, constructive feedback, information, influence, or material resources critical for job effectiveness, enrichment, and skill development (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006; Carstensen, 1992; Heaney & Israel, 2008; Ibarra, 1992, 1993). Social network research demonstrates that these at-work interactions facilitate access to jobs, interesting projects, as well as career-building and advancement opportunities (Brass, 1984; Burt, 1992; Granovetter, 1977; Kilduff & Tsai, 2003; Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2011; Miller et al., 2014; Perez et al., 2015). These findings suggest that the resources gained as a result of the kinds of at-work relationships that have been created through instrumental ties and the knowledge acquisition trajectory contribute to self-development and are likely to be positively related to full utilization.

Expressive ties and the emotion regulation trajectory describe at-work psychosocial support relationships (Ibarra, 1992; ICAP, 2011; Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014) with close friends, social group members, and trusted companions (Carstensen, 1992) that foster affection, belonging, trust (e.g., Carstensen, 1992; Ibarra, 1992, 1993), and self-esteem (Brockner, 1988). Both are frequently used for coping with or making sense of the work environment (Baldwin et al., 1997; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, Ibarra, 1992, 1993; LePine et al., 2011; Lockenhoff &

Carstensen, 2004). Social network research demonstrates that these at-work interactions influence decisions and, exhibit a positive relationship with work-related attitudes and behaviors (Lincoln & Miller, 1979), including well-being (Rook, 1984), job satisfaction (Roberts & O'Reilly, 1979), and organizational commitment (Morrison, 2002). These findings suggest that the resources gained as a result of the kinds of at-work relationships that have been created through both expressive ties and the emotion regulation trajectory contribute to self-maintenance and, therefore, prioritizing such interactions over more instrumental interactions, is likely to be negatively related to full utilization.

Hypothesis 3: Within persons, (H3a) self-development social interactions along the knowledge acquisition trajectory are positively related to full utilization and (H3b) self-maintenance social interactions along the emotion regulation trajectory are negatively related to full utilization.

Two Alternate Trajectories

In addition to the two trajectories argued by socioemotional selectivity theory, there is evidence within the disability literature of two alternative social interaction trajectories that may occur when future time is perceived as limited.[5] First, several papers demonstrate that family and friends, as well as outside vocational support professionals represent a significant source of work-related support (e.g., job search, job coaching) for individuals with disabilities (e.g., Ali et al., 2011; Bainbridge & Fujimoto, 2018; Dimakos et al., 2016; Miller et al., 2014; Perez et al., 2015). As a result, when future time is perceived as limited, an individual with disabilities may prefer to interact with individuals outside of the organization rather than with coworkers and supervisors inside of the organization. This trajectory is most likely to support self-maintenance

[5] These two social interaction trajectories are not hypothesized in this dissertation.

social interactions. However, some interactions along this trajectory, for example social interactions with support workers, may promote both self-maintenance and self-development goals (i.e., multiplex ties). Second, there is evidence to suggest that some individuals with disabilities may respond to a limited future time perspective by withdrawing and ceasing contact with all others (Carstensen & Fremouw, 1988; Garthwaite, 2015). This may support self-maintenance goals but is unlikely to support self-development goals.

Indirect Effects

The relationship between a limited future time perspective and a preference for social interactions along the emotion regulation trajectory as opposed to the knowledge acquisition trajectory is strongly supported by empirical evidence (e.g., Carstensen, 1992). Full utilization is dependent on the resource content of social interactions (e.g., Parker et al., 2013). Building on the arguments presented above, this theoretical and empirical evidence suggests that individuals with disabilities may not reach full utilization during a given week, because disability identity salience cues a limited future time perspective that inhibits the preference for social interactions along the knowledge acquisition trajectory. By foregoing social interactions along this trajectory, individuals with disabilities are unable to access the self-development resources that will lead to full utilization. Thus, future time perspective and social interactions along the knowledge acquisition trajectory mediate the relationships between disability identity salience and full utilization. Similarly, as disability identity salience cues a limited future time perspective, this motivates a preference for social interactions along the emotion regulation trajectory. Social interactions along this trajectory provide emotional and social support needed for maintenance of self-concept; however, these social interaction partners are unlikely to have access to the resources that will lead to full utilization. Thus, future time perspective and social interactions

along the knowledge acquisition and emotion regulation trajectories mediate the relationships between disability identity salience and full utilization.

Hypothesis 4a: Within individuals, there is a negative indirect effect of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and self-development social interactions along the knowledge acquisition trajectory.

Hypothesis 4b: Within individuals, there is a negative indirect effect of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and self-maintenance social interactions along the emotion regulation trajectory.

Moderators

The conceptual model proposed in this dissertation incorporates two significant moderators—disability progression and perceived climate for inclusion. More specifically, the effect of disability progression on the relationship between disability identity salience and future time perspective is examined, as well as, the influence of a perceived climate for inclusion on the relationships between future time perspective and social interaction preference.

Disability Progression

The ability to work, to maintain levels of effort and performance over time (Ilmarinen, 2001; Toumi et al., 2001; Vohs & Heatherton, 2000), is a valuable resource (Hobfoll, 1989). In addition to providing financial gain, work is positively related to life satisfaction, well-being, self-efficacy, and personal fulfillment (de Boer et al., 2008; Hobfoll, 1989; Lewis et al., 1999; University of Cambirdge, 2019). Numerous factors such as skill, education, and stamina, influence an individual's ability to work (e.g., de Boer et al., 2008; Ilmarinen, 2001; Toumi et al., 2001). In general, people devote significant effort to marshal and conserve these resources in order to maximize their ability to work and achieve long-term goals (Bandura, 1991; Hobfoll,

1989). Individuals with disabilities may require additional resources (e.g., accommodations, assistive devices, aides); however, the process is the same. Provided that the individual with disabilities' health condition is stable, these finite resources are allocated such that ability to work and future goal achievement are not threatened (Bandura, 1991; Hobfoll, 1989; Vohs & Heatherton, 2000).

Changes in physical or mental health for the worse, for any person, have the potential to disrupt or negatively impact an individual's ability to work or continue to work at previous levels (de Boer et al., 2008). Disability progression, defined as a chronic worsening of an individual's condition (e.g., physical, mental or emotional; Farlex, n.d.), limits an individual with disabilities' ability to maintain previous levels of effort and performance and depletes or expends the limited reservoir of resources (e.g., stamina, sick leave) at a faster than anticipated rate (Hobfoll, 1989; Vohs & Heatherton, 2000). Disability progression is likely to impact the relationship between disability identity salience and future time perspective. When disability progression is high, this may cause an individual with disabilities to revise their cognitions regarding future self-efficacy and capability (Bandura, 1991; Barlow & Hainsworth, 2001; Hobfoll, 1989; Spielberger, 1966, 1972; Reiso et al., 2003;). Increased cognitions of limitedness (Barlow & Hainsworth, 2001; Spielberger, 1966, 1972; Sullivan-Singh et al., 2015), triggered by high disability progression, suggest the likelihood that an individual with disabilities would adopt a limited future time perspective in order to cope with the immediate challenges associated with disability identity (Bandura, 1991; Baldwin et al., 1997; Lockenhoff & Carstensen, 2004). As a result, the negative relationship between disability identity salience and future time perspective described in Hypothesis 1would be stronger when disability progression is high. On the other hand, when disability progression is low, individuals with disabilities may be more readily able to cope with

small or subtle shifts in change in their disability, health condition and/or impairment. Low disability progression may act as a buffer to thoughts of limitedness an individual with disabilities may harbor relative to their ability to work and achieve future goals. Thus, the negative relationship between disability identity salience and future time perspective described in Hypothesis 1 would be weaker when disability progression is low.

> *Hypothesis 5: Disability progression moderates the within-person relationship between disability identity salience and future time perspective, such that the negative relationship between disability identity salience and future time perspective is stronger for high- versus low-disability progression individuals.*

Perceived Climate for Inclusion

Perceived climate for inclusion is conceptualized as the extent to which employees perceive that the organization's policies and practices are fair (Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000; McKay et al., 2007; Mor Barak et al., 1998), promote inclusive behavior by all employees toward all employees regardless of age, gender, race/ethnicity, disability or social group (e.g., Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Li et al., 2019; Nishii, 2013), and encourage full participation from all organizational members (Mor Barak, 2011, 2015; Roberson, 2006; Roberson et al., 2017). It encourages employees to express authentic identities (Kahn, 1990; Ramarajan, 2009) and share expertise and opinions in both formal and informal work contexts (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Mor Barak, 2016; Mor Barak et al., 1998; Pelled et al., 1999) without fear of retribution, unwanted attention, or negative consequences (Kulkarni & Valk, 2010; Ragins, 2008). Perceived climate for inclusion creates a positive work environment by building trust and removing barriers that would inhibit social interaction with dissimilar others (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Dwertmann & Boehm, 2016; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Peterson et al., 2017; Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall,

2011, 2014; Zhu et al., 2019). It opens the gateway to social interaction with a broader base of new non-threatening individuals. This facilitates the formation of novel instrumental ties within which the knowledge resources necessary for growth and development are embedded (Ensari & Miller, 2006; Hansen, 1999; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016). Thus, the influence of a strong climate for inclusion, in spite of a limited future time perspective, encourages individuals with disabilities to *not* limit interactions to known actors along the emotion regulation trajectory (e.g., close coworker-friends, other persons with disability) but to also engage in interactions with unknown safe actors along the knowledge acquisition trajectory (e.g., coworker-acquaintances, supervisors, human resource personnel) because there is less perceived risk in doing so, and because such interactions are also more likely to be affectively rewarding.

However, the positive effects of climate for inclusion are hindered when organizational policies and practices are perceived as unfair, contributing to negative attitudes and behaviors (DiTomaso et al., 2007), or restricting an individual's ability to participate and be heard (Avery, et al., 2008). When a person believes that they are not viewed as a valued member of the organization (Ely & Thomas, 1996, 2001) they feel unsafe (Kulkarni & Valk, 2010; Ragins, 2008). In general, they are less motivated to interact with coworkers, feel less obligated to help or share information, and are less inclined to ask for help, advice, or information (Baldridge & Veiga, 2001; Colella, 2001; Colella et al., 2004; Paetzold, et al., 2008; Konrad, et al., 2017; Shore et al., 2011). Under these threatening conditions, individuals will rely on social interactions with known individuals for psychosocial support (Ibarra, 1992; ICAP, 2011; Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014). Thus, for individuals with disabilities, when future time is perceived as limited, the influence of a weak climate for inclusion reinforces the preference for interactions restricted to safe, known actors along the emotion regulation trajectory.

Hypothesis 6a: Within persons, perceived climate for inclusion moderates the relationship between future time perspective and self-development social interactions along the knowledge acquisition trajectory, such that the positive relationship between future time perspective and self-development social interactions along the knowledge acquisition trajectory is stronger for high- versus low-perceived climate for inclusion.

Hypothesis 6b: Within persons, perceived climate for inclusion moderates the relationship between future time perspective and self-maintenance social interactions along the emotion regulation trajectory, such that the negative relationship between future time perspective and self-maintenance social interactions along the emotion regulation trajectory is weaker for high- versus low-perceived climate for inclusion.

Conditional Indirect Effects

Drawing from the aforementioned arguments, the mediating indirect effects of future time perspective on social interaction preference signifies that disability identity salience will be negatively related to full utilization. Disability progression as a moderator to the disability identity salience and future time perspective relationship is likely to attenuate that negative relationship by decreasing the cognitive load when disability progression is low and likely to exacerbate that relationship by increasing the cognitive load when disability progression is high. Climate for inclusion as a moderator to the future time perspective and knowledge acquisition relationship is likely to attenuate the negative relationship between disability identity salience and full utilization when climate for inclusion is high as it expands the base of individuals that the person with disability may safely access for knowledge resources thereby facilitating full utilization. However, climate for inclusion as a moderator to future time perspective and emotion

regulation relationship is likely to exacerbate that relationship when climate for inclusion is low, thereby hindering full utilization.

Hypothesis 7a: There is a conditional indirect effect of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and self-development social interactions along the knowledge acquisition trajectory, such that the indirect effect is less strongly negative for individuals with low- versus high-disability progression and high-versus low-perceived climate for inclusion.

Hypothesis 7b: There is a conditional indirect effect of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and self-maintenance social interactions along the emotion regulation trajectory, such that the indirect effect is less strongly negative for individuals with low- versus high-disability progression and high- versus low- perceived climate for inclusion.

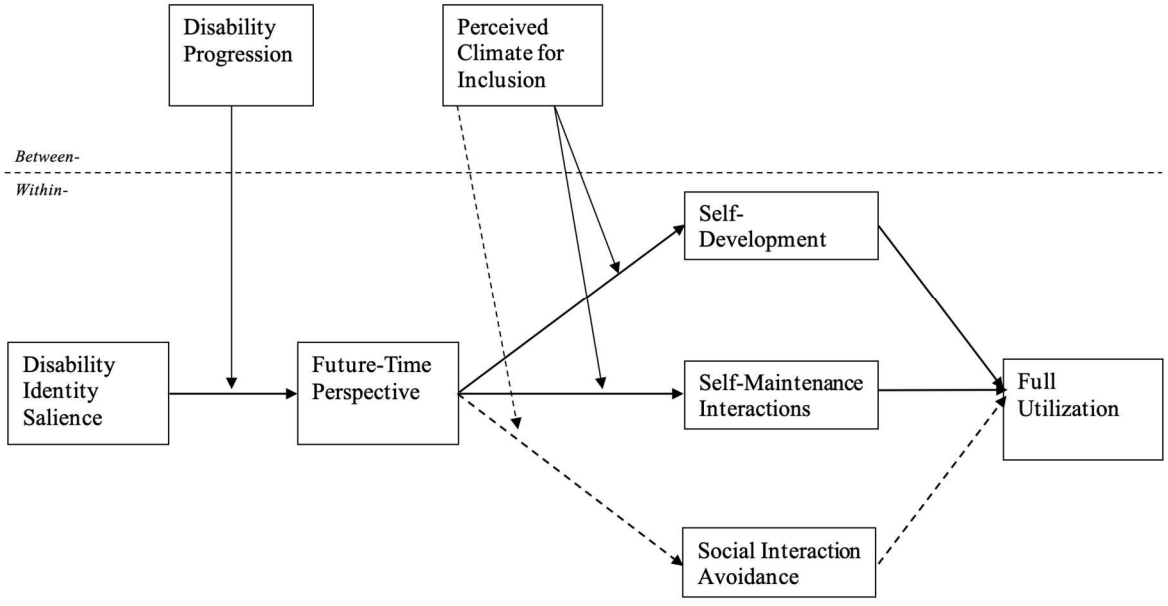

Figure 1: Conceptual Model
Note: I did not hypothesize the role of social interaction avoidance; however, I do account for this effect by including it in my multilevel analyses.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

Overview

The purpose of this study is to better understand the workplace experiences of individuals with disabilities by focusing on the within-person variability of their workplace social interaction preferences. In order to do so, this dissertation tests the hypotheses described in the previous chapter, by using an experience sampling methodology (ESM). ESM is a data collection technique used to study person-situation, within- and between-person phenomenon by collecting repeated measures of an individual's lived experiences, as opposed to simulated experiences, at or close to time of occurrence (e.g., Gabriel et al., 2019). These detailed experiential accounts aid in detecting changes or shifts in thoughts, feelings and behaviors as they unfold and change over time (e.g., days, weeks; Uy et al., 2019). The strength of ESM is that it permits the researcher to detect phenomena that might otherwise be missed or misattributed, thus increasing ecological validity, while also reducing respondent recall errors resulting from memory bias (Beal, 2012; Fisher & To, 2012; Gabriel et al., 2019; Uy et al., 2019; Verhhagen et al., 2016). Organizational behavior scholars have used ESM to examine dynamic workplace phenomenon including social interactions (Fisher & To, 2012; Gabriel et al., 2019). For example, research has studied the influence of social interactions with customers on employee well-being (Volmer et al., 2012), the likelihood of engaging in future helping behaviors following an occurrence of helpful social interaction (Gabriel et al., 2019), or the likelihood of engaging in incivility following an experience of incivility (Rosen et al., 2016). In this chapter I describe the study participants, recruitment, sample, study procedure, and survey measures.

Participants

The study participants were employed adults with disabilities, health conditions and/or impairments that have lasted or are expected to last at least 12 months. The sample includes individuals at least 18 years old, who are citizens or permanent residents of the United States or Canada, work a minimum of 20 hours per week at a single job (preferably Monday through Friday),[6] with at least one supervisor (i.e., not self-employed), and interact with at least one coworker. The minimum number of working hours per week was set at 20 hours because individuals eligible to receive Social Security Disability Benefits in the United States are limited in the amount of monthly income they are permitted to earn before benefits are terminated (Social Security Administration, 2019). Minimum wage varies by state and several states (e.g., Arizona, California, Colorado) have set the minimum wage at $11 per hour, meaning that employees in these states could be limited to working only 20 hours per week. The target sample size for this study was 100 participants.[7]

Individuals interested in taking part in a university study on the 'workplace experiences of persons with long-term health conditions, impairments and/or disabilities' were recruited through Prolific Academic (www.prolific.ac), a crowd-sourcing platform that that allows the researcher to specify the population parameters (e.g., demographics, employment status, country) from which respondents should be drawn. Prolific Academic has safeguards and processes in place to protect data quality including pre-screening and verification of respondents to reduce or eliminate the occurrence of duplicate or automated accounts (Palan & Schitter, 2018); however, because participant profile data may be out of date or profile questions may not exactly match

[6] Weekly surveys were distributed each weekend, Friday evening through Sunday evening.

[7] ESM scholars argue that within-person ESM studies do not suffer from issues associated with low statistical power as the large volume of data points compensates for small sample size (Beal & Weiss, 2003; Gabriel et al., 2019; Larson & Almeida, 1999; Uy et al., 2010).

researcher requirements, Prolific Academic recommends that researchers use a screening survey to confirm that candidates meet study eligibility requirements.

Using the criteria described above, 420 individuals from the Prolific Academic participant pool responded to the call for study participants and completed a brief screening form to confirm study eligibility. Two hundred twenty-four individuals (53%) were eliminated because they did not meet the study criteria. Specifically, 138 individuals (32%) indicated that they did not have a disability; 29 individuals were unemployed, laid-off or furloughed; 23 individuals had a vacation scheduled during the study window; 16 individuals did not have a manager/supervisor or coworkers; 13 individuals did not reside in the United States; and 5 individuals did not complete all items on the screener survey. From the remaining 196 individuals invited to participate in the study, 170 returned a completed initial survey.

After data collection was complete, I eliminated cases with fewer than three completed weekly surveys, and any with one or more failed attention checks. One person changed jobs during the study; I only used responses from this individual prior to the job change. My final sample was comprised of 941 weekly observations from 136 individuals. The average number of weekly responses was 6.9. The sample was 48% male and 75%White. Participants' ages ranged from under 30 years (41.9%), 31–40 years (37.5%), 41–50 years (12.5%), 51–60 years (4.4%), and over 60 years (3.7%). Nearly 46% of participants earned at least a Bachelor's degree and, on average, participants worked at their current organization for 4.5 years (SD = 4.6). Table 1 describes participant disability types and Table 2 describes participant level of education, and industry in which they were employed.

Table 1: Participant Disability Characteristics (n = 136)

Disability Type				
Acute Bronchitis (n = 2)	Blindness/Visual Impairment (n = 5)	Dysgraphia (n = 1)	Kidney Disease (n = 2)	Physical Disability (n = 1)
Addiction (n = 3)	Cancer (n = 2)	Dysthymia (n = 2)	Learning Disability (n = 1)	Pituitary Tumor (n = 1)
Agoraphobia (n = 1)	Carpal Tunnel Syndrome (n = 1)	Epilepsy (n = 2)	Lung Disease (n = 1)	Polycystic Ovary Syndrome (n = 1)
Amputation (n = 2)	Cauda Equina Syndrome (n = 1)	Fibromyalgia (n = 2)	Lupus (n = 4)	Polycythemia Vera (n = 1)
Anemia (n = 1)	Cerebral Palsy (n = 2)	Grave's Disease (n = 1)	Mast Cell Disorder (n = 1)	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (n = 4)
Anxiety (n = 29)	Charcot-Marie-Tooth Disease (n = 1)	Heart Disease (n = 6)	Migraine (n = 3)	Premenstrual Dysphoric Disorder (n = 1)
Asperger's Syndrome (n = 2)	Colitis (n = 2)	HIV/AIDS (n = 1)	Multiple Sclerosis (n = 1)	Rheumatoid Arthritis (n = 1)
Asthma (n = 3)	Deafness/Hearing Impairment (n = 2)	Hypertension (n = 1)	Narcolepsy (n = 1)	Schizoaffective Disorder (n = 1)
Attention Deficit Disorder/Hyperactive Disorder (n = 5)	Depression (n = 34)	Hypothyroidism (n = 3)	Obsessive Compulsive Disorder (n = 1)	Spina Bifida (n = 1)
Autism (n = 1)	Diabetes Types I & II (n = 15)	Insomnia (n = 1)	Osteoarthritis (n = 1)	Spinal Injury (n = 10)
Bipolar Disorder (n = 5)	Dissociative Identity Disorder (n = 1)	Irritable Bowel Syndrome (n = 2)	Panic Disorder (n = 4)	Stroke (n = 1)

Table 2: Participant Education and Industry Characteristics (n = 136)

Education	Industry	
H.S. Diploma (n = 14)	Arts & Entertainment (n = 7)	Manufacturing (n = 8)
Some College (n = 22)	Construction (n = 4)	Non-profit (n = 3)
2-year Degree (n = 13)	Education (n = 17)	Professional Services (n = 4)
4-year Degree (n = 62)	Finance (n = 8)	Research (n = 3)
Master's Degree (n = 22)	Food Service (n = 3)	Retail (n = 20)
Doctoral Degree (n = 3)	Government (n = 3)	Security (n = 1)
	Healthcare/Social Svs. (n = 21)	Telecommunications (n = 7)
	Hospitality (n = 4)	Transportation (n = 3)
	Information Technology (n = 19)	

Many ESM researchers use money or monetary equivalents (e.g., gift cards) to attract, retain, and encourage high quality responses (e.g., Gabriel et al., 2019; Rosen et al., 2016; Simon et al., 2015). In line with recommendations and common practices drawn from seasoned ESM scholars (Fisher & To, 2012; Gabriel et al., 2019; Uy et al., 2019; Verhagen et al., 2016), respondents for this study were compensated a maximum of $41.25 USD delivered through the Prolific Academic platform. Specifically, respondents were paid $1.25 USD for completing the registration screener survey, and $4.00 USD each for completion of the initial, weekly (8), and exit surveys.

Ethics Statement

In accordance with the guidelines and standards established for conducting research with human subjects, all study procedures and measures were approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Arkansas, Protocol #2002252055 (Appendix A). Participants recruited through Prolific Academic were assigned unique 24-digit alphanumeric identification codes used to link surveys across time. Prolific Academic safeguards all data on an encrypted, secure server. Researchers never receive any identifying personal information (e.g., participant name, address, email) and all communication (e.g., survey invitations, reminders, payments) are

delivered through the Prolific Academic platform. Informed consent to participate in this study was obtained on the first page of the initial survey.

Procedure

All surveys, described below, were administered online through Qualtrics, and delivered through the Prolific Academic platform, over a period of approximately 8 weeks. As described above, participants completed a brief screening survey to verify eligibility. Qualified participants then completed an informed consent document and were immediately prompted to complete the initial survey. Next, respondents were prompted each week via the Prolific Academic platform to take the 8 weekly surveys. Once the final weekly survey was completed, participants were prompted via the Prolific Academic platform to complete an exit survey, which was part of a larger data collection effort not specific to this study. In order to be compensated for participation, surveys were to be completed within the time frames specified. Specifically, respondents had six days to complete the initial and exit surveys and three days to complete each of the weekly surveys.

The initial survey asked participants to answer questions about relatively stable constructs unlikely to change over the course of the study (e.g., disability progression, perceived climate for inclusion, demographics). Weekly surveys, 8 in total, available each weekend (Friday evening through Sunday evening), ask participants to respond to questions about constructs that may vary from week to week (e.g., disability identity salience, future time perspective, self-maintenance and self-development interactions, social interaction avoidance, and full utilization, as well as within-person control variables).

Measures

The hypotheses presented in the previous chapter were tested using the following measures. Unless otherwise stated, all measures used a 5-point Likert-type scale with anchors, *1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree*. Items from the initial and weekly surveys may be viewed in Appendix B.

Initial Survey

Disability Progression. Disability progression was measured using a single-item, functioning and well-being measure developed by Stewart and Ware (1992). I asked respondents, "Compared to ***one year ago***, how would you rate your health ***in general*** now? Response options for this measure were: "Much better now than one year ago; Somewhat better now than one year ago; About the same as one year ago; Somewhat worse than one year ago; Much worse than one year ago."

Perceived Climate for Inclusion. Perceived climate for inclusion was assessed using Nishii's (2013) 15-item climate for inclusion scale. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with statements that assess equitable employment practices, integration of differences, and inclusion in decision-making (Nishii, 2013). Sample items included, "***In general***, … this organization has a fair promotion process," "… this organization is characterized by a non-threatening environment in which people can reveal their 'true' selves," and "… in this organization, employee input is actively sought" ($\alpha = .94$).

Weekly Survey

Disability Identity Salience. Disability identity salience was assessed using a 3-item stigmatized identity salience scale (Quinn et al., 2014). Items were adapted so that they referred to disability identity salience. Specifically, respondents were asked to indicate the frequency with

which they agreed with each of the following statements: "During the ***past week***, … I have often thought about my health condition/impairment/disability," "… I have spent a lot of time thinking about my health condition/impairment/disability," and "… my health condition/impairment/disability often crossed my mind for no reason" ($\alpha = .84$).

Future Time Perspective. Future time perspective was measured using a 7-item measure of future time perspective (Lang et al., 2002). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement regarding their perception of future time during the past work-week. Sample items included, "During the ***past week at work***, I have felt that … I will set many goals in the future," "… my future is filled with possibilities," and "… my future seems infinite to me" ($\alpha = .81$).

Self-maintenance Interactions. Self-maintenance interactions were assessed using a 3-item emotional support measure of expressive or friendship ties (Ibarra, 1992). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they engaged, during the past week, in social interaction relationships at work that provided psychosocial support (e.g., acceptance, comfort, compassion, friendship). Items included, "During this ***past week at work***, I interacted with people who … I can count on for emotional support," "… I view as an emotional support ally," "… are dependable in times of emotional need" ($\alpha = .86$).

Self-development Interactions. Self-development interactions were assessed using a 5-item measure of instrumental ties (Linderbaum & Levy, 2010). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they engaged, this week, in social interaction relationships at work that provided instrumental support (e.g., advice, feedback, help, material resources). Sample items included, "During this ***past week at work***, I have interacted with people who provided

feedback critical for … reaching my goals," "… developing my skills at work," and "… improving my performance" (α = .85).

Full Utilization. Full utilization describes the extent to which an individual perceives that their skills and abilities are used and developed in the performance of their job (O'Brien, 1982; Parker et al., 2013). This construct was assessed using the 7-item full utilization measure developed by Morrison et al. (2005). Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed that, "***This week at work***, my job has provided me with the opportunity to … use all of the skills, talents, and abilities I possess," "… develop new knowledge and learn new skills," and "… improve on the skills and abilities I possess" (α = .79).

Control Variables

There were a number of variables that could potentially influence the relationships hypothesized in this study. First, it was necessary to account for gender and race/ethnicity, as research on sexual and racial/ethnic minorities has demonstrated that these differences influence social interaction patterns (e.g., Ibarra, 1992, 1993). Similarly, evidence suggests that certain factors related to health conditions, impairments, and disabilities, such as disability severity, and absences due to disability, may influence the extent to which individuals with disabilities interact with others (e.g., Colella et al., 1998; Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014; Langford et al., 2013). Drawing from the literature, I asked respondents to describe the severity of their health condition/impairment/disability by rating the extent to which they agreed with the following three statements, "My health condition/impairment/disability is severe," "My health condition/impairment/disability symptoms are intense," "I would describe the severity of my health condition/impairment/disability as high" (α = .88). I also asked participants "***During this past week***, how many whole days have you been off work because of your health

condition/impairment/disability?" and, "***During the last 12 months***, how many whole days have you been off work because of your health condition/impairment/disability?" (Tuomi et al., 1998).

Second, evidence suggests that some individuals with disabilities may respond to a limited future time perspective by withdrawing and ceasing contact with all others (Carstensen & Fremouw, 1988; Garthwaite, 2015). While I did not hypothesize this relationship, social interaction avoidance was included in my multilevel models to account for non-interaction behaviors. Drawing from the literature, social interaction avoidance was measured using the following three items: "***During the past week at work***, I … have withdrawn from social interaction," "… haven't really interacted with my coworkers," "… have needed to keep more to myself" ($\alpha = .82$).

Third, work group composition and organization type both have the potential to influence the extent to which individuals interact with others (e.g., Baldridge & Swift, 2016; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001) at work. Evidence suggests that individuals with disabilities, in search of inclusive climates, non-discriminatory treatment, and stable health care packages, may prefer jobs with government agencies and select non-profit organizations (Araten-Bergman, 2016; Ali et al., 2010). Indeed, there is a greater concentration of individuals with disabilities working in government and non-profit organizations that serve individuals with disabilities (e.g., American Council of the Blind), than occurs in privately held organizations (Ali et al., 2010; Baldridge & Swift, 2016). This homophily, as a result of employment and hiring preferences, is likely to influence social interaction patterns (e.g., Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014; McPherson et al., 2001). The work group composition measure developed by Ragins and Cornwell (2001) was adapted to refer to disability and health status. I asked participants to respond to the phrase "The disability/health status of my co-workers can best be described as …" by choosing from one of

three options: “Most of my co-workers do ***NOT*** have health conditions, impairments and/or disabilities,” “My work group is about equally balanced,” “Most of my co-workers are have health conditions, impairments and/or disabilities.” Organization type was measured with a single item, “Is your organization’s mission primarily to serve individuals with health conditions/impairments/disabilities?” Respondents were asked to indicate “no,” “yes,” or “I don’t know.” Week of study was also included as a control variable.

Attention Checks. An independent study evaluating several crowd-sourcing platforms demonstrates that data quality, reliability, and reproducibility of Prolific Academic are comparable to and not significantly different from those of Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Specifically, Prolific Academic respondents are slightly more naïve and slightly less inclined toward dishonesty than MTurk respondents; however, they also tend to pay slightly less attention to instructions than MTurk respondents (Peer et al., 2017). In light of this, and based on best-practice recommendations from Prolific Academic (www.prolific.ac), I included attention checks in my initial and weekly surveys. Participants who failed at least one attention check on any survey were not included in my analysis. The following attention checks were used: “It is important that you ***pay attention*** to this study. Please choose ‘Neutral’ for this question,” “The color test is simple, when asked for your favorite color, you must enter the word ***violet*** in the text box below,” and “It is important that you pay attention during this study. Please select ‘yes’.”

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CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Overview

The hypotheses discussed in Chapter 3 were tested using the data set collected as described in Chapter 4. The results of my analyses are reported in this chapter. Prior to reporting the results of my hypothesis tests, I describe the analytical approach, model specification, and provide descriptive statistics for study variables.

Analytical Approach

I conducted multilevel path analysis, with Mplus 8.6 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012 - 2021), to test my hypotheses following two preliminary analyses. First, because of the nested structure of my data, I ran a null model to calculate the percentage of within-person variance for each of my repeated measures variables. Results of these analyses (Table 3) show that 36.60% of the variance in disability identity salience, 22.04% of the variance in future time perspective, 33.24% of the variance in self-development interactions, 23.71% of the variance in self-maintenance interactions, 37.15% of the variance in social interaction avoidance, and 21.47% of the variance in full utilization is within-person, supporting the appropriateness of multilevel analyses for my data.

Next, I conducted a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that included items for disability identity salience, future time perspective, self-development interactions, self-maintenance interactions, and full utilization at Level 1 (within-person), and items for perceived climate for inclusion at Level 2 (between-person). I did not include disability progression, a level-two variable, in this analysis because this construct was measured by a single item. Items for the within-person (week-level) variables were group-mean centered and modeled only at the

within-person level as five separate factors. Items for the between-person measure was uncentered and modeled at the between-person level as a single factor. This model fit the data well, $\chi^2_{(355)} = 734.59$, CFI = .94, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .03, $SRMSR_{[within]} = .04$; $SRMSR_{[between]} = .06$.

Table 3: Percentage of Within-person Variance Among Weekly Variables (n = 136)

Construct	Within-Person Variance (σ^2)	Between-Person Variance (τ_{00})	% of Within-Person Variance
Disability Identity Salience	0.45	0.78	36.60%
Future Time Perspective	0.18	0.62	22.04%
Self-Development Interactions	0.34	0.68	33.24%
Self-Maintenance Interactions	0.32	1.02	23.71%
Social Interaction Avoidance	0.46	0.79	37.15%
Full Utilization	0.18	0.67	21.47%

Note. % of total variance that is within-person was computed using the formula $\sigma^2/(\sigma^2+ \tau_{00})$.

Model Specification

Two separate path models were estimated to test my hypotheses. The first model (Model 1) was estimated to assess the main effects of disability identity salience on future time perspective, future time perspective on interaction behaviors (i.e., self-development, self-maintenance, avoidance interactions[8]), and interaction behaviors on full utilization. In addition, Model 1 was estimated to assess the indirect effects of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective, as well as the indirect effects of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and interaction behaviors. In Model 1, at the within-person level, disability identity salience was specified as a predictor of future time perspective, which was specified as a predictor of interaction behaviors, which were in turn specified as predictors of full utilization. Direct paths from disability identity salience to

[8] Although not hypothesized, social interaction avoidance was included in both Model 1 and Model 2 analyses as a control.

interaction behaviors and full utilization were modeled, as well as a direct path from future time perspective to full utilization. All within-person relationships were specified with random slopes[9]. At the between-person level, disability progression was modeled as a predictor of future time perspective and climate for inclusion was modeled as a predictor of interaction behaviors. The within-individual predictors were person-mean centered, so that the effects of disability identity salience, future time perspective, and interaction behaviors represented only within-person effects (Algina & Swaminathan, 2011; Enders & Tofigi, 2007; Scott et al., 2010). Between-individual predictors were grand-mean centered.

To calculate the size of the indirect effects of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and interaction behaviors (i.e., self-development, self-maintenance, avoidance interactions), I used the Model Constraint command in Mplus to take the product of coefficients a_j, b_j, and c_j, where for each of the hypothesized relationships, a_j is the effect of the predictor disability identity salience on the mediator, future time perspective, b_j is effect of the predictor future time perspective on the mediator, interaction behaviors, and c_j is the coefficient between the mediator, interaction behaviors, and the outcome, full utilization. Because the covariances between a_j, b_j, and c_j for each of the hypothesized mediated effects were non-significant, they were not added to the product of the indirect effect in calculating the effect size (Tofigi et al., 2013).

In the second model (Model 2), I added to Model 1 the cross-level interaction effects. Disability progression was modeled as a predictor of the within-person disability identity salience–future time perspective slope (first stage moderation), and perceived climate for

[9] Following the examples of recently published experience sampling method (ESM) studies, controls in both Model 1 and Model 2 were modeled with fixed slopes to reduce model complexity (e.g., Gabriel et al., 2020).

inclusion was modeled as a predictor of the within-person future time perspective–self-development interaction slope, future time perspective–self-maintenance interaction slope, and future time perspective–social interaction avoidance slope (second stage moderation; Edwards & Lambert, 2007). As with Model 1, within-person relationships were estimated using random slopes[10], within-person variables were person-mean centered, and between-person variables were grand-mean centered. Conditional indirect effects were also calculated using the Model Constraint command in Mplus which I describe in the section below.

For control variables, I included week, and weekly absences due to health condition/impairment/disability, group-mean centered, to address time-related trends (Beal & Weiss, 2003). I controlled for race/ethnicity and gender because research has demonstrated that these differences influence social interaction patterns (e.g., Ibarra, 1992, 1993), and controlled for number of absences during the past 12 months due to health condition/impairment/disability to provide context for number of weekly absences reported. I also controlled for severity of health condition/impairment/disability, work group composition, and organization type because evidence from research suggests that each of these factors has the potential to influence the extent to which individuals interact with others (e.g., Baldridge & Swift, 2016; Colella et al., 1998; Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014; Langford et al., 2013; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). These control variables were within-person centered. Following the examples of recently published experience sampling method (ESM) studies, controls were modeled with fixed slopes to reduce model complexity (e.g., Gabriel et al., 2020).

Tests of the Hypotheses

Means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables are reported in Table 4.

[10] As with Model 1, controls in Model 2 were modeled with fixed slopes to reduce model complexity (e.g., Gabriel et al., 2020).

Results from the multilevel path analyses are shown in Figure 2. Main effects are estimated from Model 1, whereas cross-level moderating effects estimates are estimated from Model 2. All reported multilevel model estimates are unstandardized. All direct and moderated paths were modeled and are reported in Table 5. All indirect and conditional indirect paths were modeled and are reported in Table 6. Hypothesized relationships are reported below.

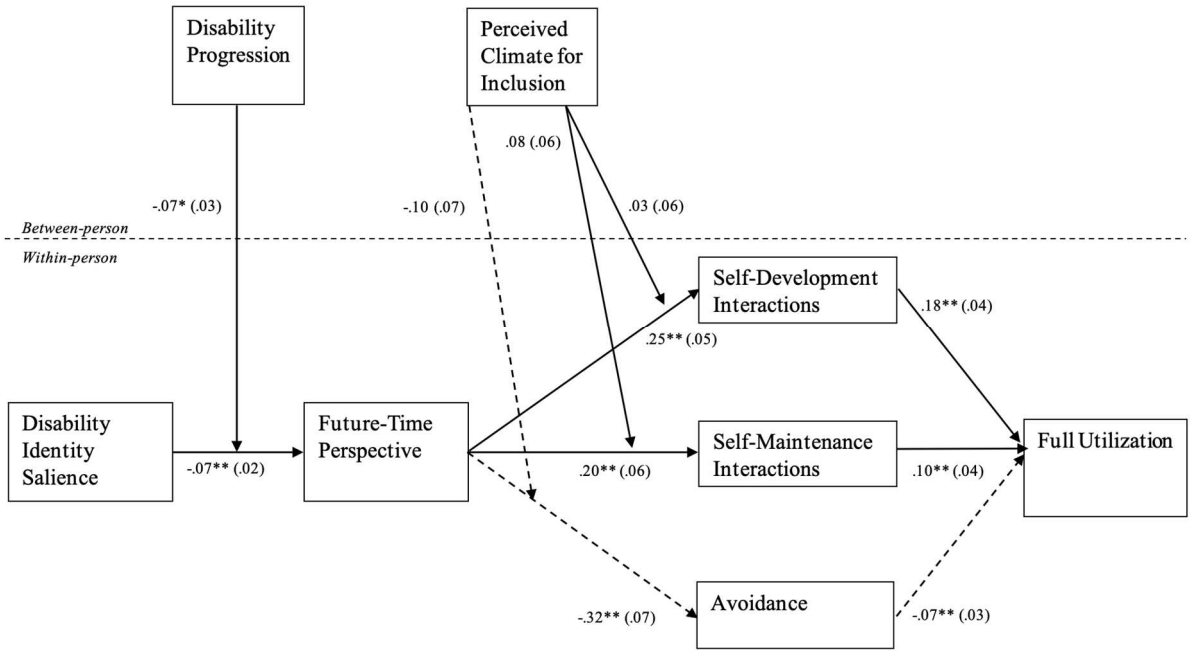

Figure 2: Multilevel Path Analysis Model
Note: Results of multilevel path analysis. Estimates are unstandardized. Standard errors for each estimate are displayed in parentheses. Main effects of disability identity salience on future time perspective, future time perspective on interaction behaviors (i.e., self-development, self-maintenance, avoidance) on full utilization were estimated from Model 1, which did not include interaction effects. Estimates of interactive effects were derived from Model 2. The model explained 17% of the total variance in future time perspective, 33% of the total variance in self-development interactions, 22% of the total variance in self-maintenance interactions, 28% of the total variance in social interaction avoidance, and 55% of the total variance in full utilization. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Consistent with Hypothesis 1, within persons, disability identity salience was negatively related to future time perspective ($\gamma = -.07$, $SE = .02$, $p < .01$). For Hypothesis 2: (a) future time perspective was positively related to self-development interactions ($\gamma = .25$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$);

however, (b) future ti perspective did not exhibit the anticipated negative relationship to self-maintenance interactions; future time perspective was instead significantly and positively related to self-maintenance interactions ($\gamma = .20$, $SE = .06$, $p = .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 2a, but not 2b, was supported. Consistent with Hypothesis 3a, self-development interactions were significantly and positively related to full utilization ($\gamma = .18$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$); however, self-maintenance interactions did not exhibit the anticipated negative relationship to full utilization predicted by Hypothesis 3b ($\gamma = .10$, $SE = .04$, $p < .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3a, but not 3b, was supported.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b focused on the indirect effects of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and interaction behaviors. As expected, (a) within individuals, along the knowledge acquisition trajectory, there was a negative indirect effect of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and self-development social interactions ($\gamma = -.003$, $SE = .002$, $p < .10$). However, (b) within individuals, along the emotion regulation trajectory, the negative indirect effect of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and self-maintenance social interactions was non-significant ($\gamma = -.001$, $SE = .001$, $p = .12$). Hypothesis 4a, but not 4b, was supported.

As hypothesized, the strength of the negative relationship between disability identity salience and future time perspective supported in Hypothesis 1, was moderated by the extent of participants' disability progression ($\gamma = -.07$, $SE = .02$, $p < .05$). As shown in Figure 3, disability identity salience was negatively related to future time perspective when disability progression was high (simple slope = -.13, $SE = .04$, $p = .001$), versus low (simple slope = -.02, $SE = .03$, $p = .55$). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

Next, I examined whether perceived climate for inclusion moderated the effects of future time perspective on self-development and self-maintenance interactions. Results revealed that

perceived inclusive climate neither moderated the relationship between future time perspective and self-development interactions ($\gamma = .03$, $SE = .06$, $p = .58$), nor the relationship between future time perspective and self-maintenance interactions ($\gamma = .08$, $SE = .06$, $p = .21$). Hypothesis 6 was unsupported.

I tested moderated mediation, using the Model Constraint command in Mplus to calculate the conditional indirect effects of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and interaction behaviors (i.e., self-development and self-maintenance interactions), at high and low values (+/- 1 *SD*) of disability progression (first stage moderation) and perceived climate for inclusion (second stage moderation; Edwards & Lambert, 2007).

The conditional indirect effects of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and self-development interactions proposed in Hypothesis 7a was significant when both disability progression and climate for inclusion were high (indirect $effect_{[highhigh]} = -.006$, $SE = .003$, $p = .05$), and when disability progression was high and climate for inclusion was low (indirect $effect_{[highlow]} = -.005$, $SE = .003$, $p < .10$). However, the conditional indirect effects of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and self-development interactions proposed in Hypothesis 7a was non-significant when disability progression was low and climate for inclusion was high (indirect $effect_{[lowhigh]} = -.001$, $SE = .002$, $p = .56$), and when both disability progression and climate for inclusion were low (indirect $effect_{[lowlow]} = -.001$, $SE = .001$, $p = .57$). Hypothesis 7A was partially supported.

The conditional indirect effects of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and self-maintenance interactions proposed in Hypothesis 7b was non-significant when both disability progression and climate for inclusion were high (indirect $effect_{[highhigh]} = -.003$, $SE = .002$, $p = .11$), and when disability progression was high and climate

for inclusion was low (indirect effect$_{[highlow]}$ = -.002, *SE* = .002, *p* = .13). Likewise, the conditional indirect effects of disability identity salience on full utilization via future time perspective and self-maintenance interactions proposed in Hypothesis 7b was non-significant when disability progression was low and climate for inclusion was high (indirect effect$_{[lowhigh]}$ = .000, *SE* = .001, *p* = .58), and when both disability progression and climate for inclusion were low (indirect effect$_{[lowlow]}$ = .000, *SE* = .001, *p* = .60). Hypothesis 7b was not supported.

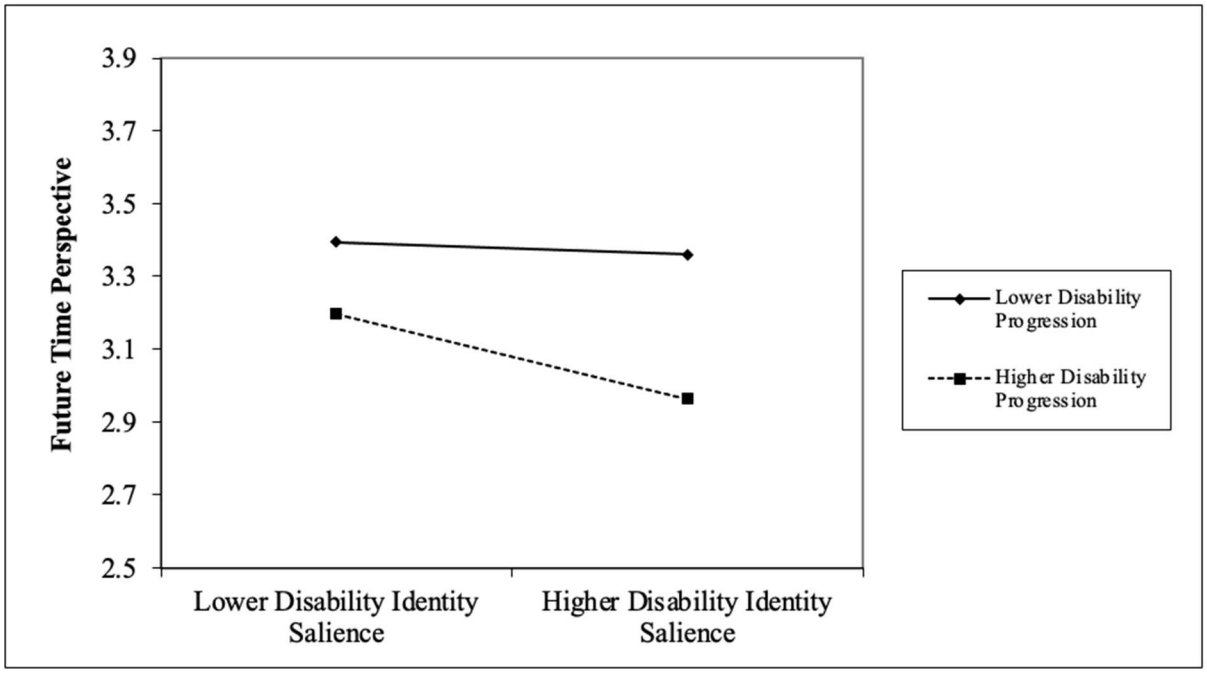

Figure 3: Disability Progression Interaction Plot

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables (n = 136)

Variable	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Level 1																		
1. Disability Identity Salience	3.24	.93	--	-.30**	.04	-.06	.33**	-.12	.29**		-.19*	-.11	.33**	-.13	-.22**	.47**	.05	.06
2. Future Time Perspective	3.23	.81	-.13**	--	.49**	.31**	-.40**	.57**	-.08		.25**	.30**	-.20*	.14	-.07	-.22**	-.10	-.26**
3. Developmental Support	3.28	.86	-.11**	.19**	--	.57**	-.45**	.76**	-.07		.17*	.53**	.11	.19*	.01	-.03	-.02	-.17
4. Maintenance Support	3.25	1.03	-.05	.16**	.40**	--	-.46**	.47**	-.04		.15	.30**	.08	.02	.11	-.13	.13	-.11
5. Avoidance	2.77	.93	.23**	-.20**	-.23**	-.17**	--	-.42**	.36**		-.25**	-.14	.26**	-.10	-.11	.13	.16	.22*
6. Full Utilization	3.36	.84	-.08*	.27**	.34**	.27**	-.23**	--	-.16		.10	.56**	-.04	.15	.00	-.14	-.04	-.10
7. Absences (W)	.22	.43	.09**	-.02	-.08*	-.07*	.11**	-.13**	--		-.25**	.10	.31**	-.07	-.10	.26**	.23**	-.01
8. Survey Week			-.14**	-.10**	-.00	-.01	.01	-.04	-.02	--								
Level 2																		
9. Progression	2.75	.77									--	.02	-.31**	.01	.10	-.25**	.03	-.09
10. Inclusive Climate	3.36	.80										--	-.01	.14	.03	-.03	.03	-.05
11. Absences (12months)	2.11	.92											--	-.08	-.10	.34**	.05	.04
12. Gender	.48	.50												--	.01	.17	-.07	-.13
13. Race	.75	.43													--	-.05	-.04	.09
14. Severity	3.01	1.02														--	-.06	-.03

Table 4 (Cont.)

Variable	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Level 2 (Cont.)																		
15. Group Composition	1.31	.53															--	.00
16. Organization Type	.14	.35																--

Note. Level 1 n = 941; Level 2 n = 136. Within-person (Level 1) correlations are reported below the diagonal, and between-person (Level 2) correlations are reported above the diagonal. Correlations for within-person (Level 1) variables were calculated using person-mean centered variables. Level 1 variables were aggregated to estimate between-person (Level 2) correlations. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 5: Direct and Moderated Effects (n = 136)

Variables	Future Time Perspective		Self-development Interactions		Self-maintenance Interactions		Social Interaction Avoidance		Full Utilization	
	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*
Intercept	3.23**	.06	2.46**	.18	2.59**	.20	3.81**	.23	2.07**	.29
Level 2 predictors										
Disability progression	-.19*	.09								
Climate for inclusion			.21	.17	.04	.21	.29	.23		
Absences (weekly)	-.00	.03	-.07	.04	-.06	.04	.11*	.05	-.06	.03
Week	-.02**	.01	-.00	.01	.00	.01	.01	.01	-.00	.01
Level 1 predictors										
Disability identity salience	-.07*	.02	-.06	.04	-.02	.03	.18**	.04	.01	.03
Future time perspective			.25**	.05	.20**	.06	-.32**	.07	.17**	.05
Self-development interactions									.18**	.04
Self-maintenance interactions			.12**	.03					.10**	.04
Social interaction avoidance			-.06*	.02	-.05	.02			-.07**	.03
Absences (12 months)	-.05	.08	.08	.07	.20	.10	.18*	.08	.05	.07
Gender	.21	.14	.19	.12	-.05	.18	.04	.15	.18	.11
Race/ethnicity	-.18	.16	.07	.13	.32	.19	-.27	.15	-.07	.13

Table 5 (Cont.)

Variables	Future Time Perspective		Self-development Interactions		Self-maintenance Interactions		Social Interaction Avoidance		Full Utilization	
	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*
Severity	-.15*	.07	-.01	.07	-.15	.10	.01	.09	-.07	.07
Group Composition	-.17	.13	-.01	.10	.24	.14	.24*	.12	-.02	.09
Organization Type	-.50**	.15	-.23	.13	-.22	.25	.42*	.19	.04	.16
Cross-level moderator effects										
Disability identity salience x disability progression	-.07 *	.03								
Future time perspective x Climate for inclusion			.03	.06	.08	.06	-.10	.07		
Pseudo R^2	.17		.33		.22		.28		.55	

Note: Estimates are unstandardized coefficients. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 6: Indirect and Conditional Indirect Effects (n = 136)

Indirect Effect	Progression	γ	*SE*	Climate	γ	*SE*	Progression * Climate	γ	*SE*
Disability Identity Salience →	--	-.018*	.008	--			--		
Self-development Interactions	Low	-.005	.008	Low	-.016*	.008	Low Low	-.004	.007
(via Future Time Perspective)	High	-.032*	.012	High	-.020*	.009	Low High	-.005	.008
							High Low	-.028*	.013
							High High	-.035*	.014
Disability Identity Salience →	--	-.014*	.007	--			--		
Self-maintenance Interactions	Low	-.004	.006	Low	-.013†	.008	Low Low	-.003	.006
(via Future Time Perspective)	High	-.025*	.011	High	-.016*	.008	Low High	-.004	.007
							High Low	-.022†	.012
							High High	-.028*	.013
Disability Identity Salience →	--	.023*	.009	--			--		
Social Interaction Avoidance	Low	.006	.009	Low	.025*	.010	Low Low	.006	.010
(via Future Time Perspective)	High	.040**	.015	High	.021*	.009	Low High	.005	.009
							High Low	.043*	.017
							High High	.037*	.015
Disability Identity Salience →	--	-.003†	.002	--			--		
Full Utilization (via Future	Low	-.001	.001	Low	-.003†	.002	Low Low	-.001	.001
Time Perspective and Self-	High	-.006*	.003	High	-.004†	.002	Low High	-.001	.002
development Interactions)							High Low	-.005†	.003
							High High	-.006*	.003
Disability Identity Salience →	--	-.001	.001	--			--		
Full Utilization (via Future	Low	-.000	.001	Low	-.001	.001	Low Low	.000	.001
Time Perspective and Self-	High	-.003†	.002	High	-.002	.001	Low High	.000	.001
maintenance Interactions)							High Low	-.002	.002
							High High	-.003	.002
Disability Identity Salience →	--	-.002†	.001	--			--		
Full Utilization (via Future	Low	-.000	.001	Low	-.002†	.001	Low Low	.000	.001
Time Perspective and Social	High	-.003†	.002	High	-.001†	.001	Low High	.000	.001
Interaction Avoidance)							High Low	-.003†	.002
							High High	-.003†	.002

Note: †$p < .10$ one-tailed. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$ two-tailed.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

Overview

Drawing from socioemotional selectivity and social network theories, I examine the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities and an important work-related outcome: full utilization. Results from an 8-wave, within-person, repeated measures ESM study reveal that disability identity salience and disability progression, as predicted, are negatively related to future time perspective. Specifically, disability identity salience leads to perceptions of future time as limited and this relationship is stronger when disability progression is high versus low. This research also provides evidence that future time perspective predicts the likelihood that individuals with disabilities will engage in social interactions or avoid social interactions. Engaging in either self-development or self-maintenance interactions is positively related to full utilization, whereas avoiding social interactions is negatively related. However, perceived climate for inclusion does not significantly moderate the relationships between social interaction behaviors and full utilization.

I found that the indirect relationships between disability identity salience and full utilization, on both the future time perspective – self-development interaction and future time perspective – social interaction avoidance paths are negative. And, that both of these negative indirect relationships are stronger when disability progression is high, but not low. The relationship between identity salience and full utilization, on the future time perspective – self-maintenance interaction path is non-significant. Results from the full model demonstrate that when disability progression and perceived climate for inclusion is high, the conditional indirect relationships between disability identity salience and full utilization, on both the future time

perspective – self-development interaction and future time perspective – social interaction avoidance paths, are significant and negative. Similarly, those relationships are significant and negative when disability progression is high and perceived climate for inclusion is low. Neither of those relationships are significant when disability progression is low. All of the conditional indirect relationships between disability identity salience and full utilization, on the future time perspective – self-maintenance interaction path, moderated by disability progression on the a-path and perceived climate for inclusion on the b-path, are non-significant.

This research responds to calls from within the disability literature for theoretically-based, within-person, longitudinal research (Dwertmann, 2016; Langford et al., 2013; Peterson et al., 2017), and contributes important theoretical and practical insights regarding the workplace experiences of individuals with disabilities. In what follows, I discuss implications, study limitations and future directions.

Implications

Most disability studies to date examine significant issues such as accommodations, discrimination, and employment concerns (e.g., Baldridge & Swift, 2016; Gewurtz et al., 2016; Schur et al., 2014) and only a few have explored the non-work-related social networks of individuals with disabilities. One contribution of this research is that it is the first to propose and test a theoretical framework to examine the at-work social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities and the influence of those social interactions on work-related outcomes.

Extant research has suggested that individuals with disabilities have small, dense social networks composed primarily of family members and close friends (Bainbridge & Fujimoto, 2018; Dimakos et al., 2016) and that individuals with disabilities have a strong tendency to rely on those relationships even for work-related matters. Thus, another contribution of this research

is that it demonstrates that individuals with disabilities *do* interact with their supervisors and coworkers, seeking both self-development and self-maintenance support. Contrary to expectations, both self-development and self-maintenance interactions appear to be useful for full utilization. Perhaps one type of interaction is more effective than the other; however, social interaction avoidance appears to be the most detrimental for full utilization.

A third contribution of this research is to the socioemotional selectivity theory literature. In addition to being among the first to apply this theory in a work-related context, (e.g., Grant & Wade-Benzioni, 2009), I found support for disability identity salience as a novel predictor of future time perspective. Identity salience as a new future time perspective cue may be useful in helping to understand the social interaction patterns of diverse individuals including those with disabilities. Interestingly, disability identity salience as a cue for future time perspective diverged from two-trajectory social interaction pattern posited by socioemotional selectivity theory. Instead of an open-ended future time perspective predicting social interaction along the knowledge acquisition trajectory and a limited future time perspective predicting social interaction along the emotion regulation trajectory, I found that a limited future time perspective was positively related to both knowledge acquisition and emotion regulation trajectories. In addition, I found that a limited future time perspective was negatively related to social interaction avoidance, a trajectory not yet included in socioemotional selectivity theory.

One potential explanation for my findings may be found in the socioemotional selectivity theory literature. Scholars, examining the relationship of age on future time perspective in retiring managers, found contradictory evidence: some managers nearing retirement engaged in social interactions along the expected emotion regulation trajectory, while others unexpectedly engaged in social interactions along the knowledge acquisition trajectory (e.g., Walter &

Scheibe, 2013; Zacher et al. 2011). In studying this contradiction, Van Solinge (2014) found that the desire to leave behind a legacy motivated retiring managers to pursue knowledge acquisition as means for satisfying emotion regulation. Leaving behind a meaningful legacy, for example, establishing an endowment, is likely to require interacting with new individuals and learning new information. In other words, managers concerned for what would be left behind after retirement, actively pursued interactions along the knowledge acquisition trajectory because that knowledge would ultimately lead to the meaningful emotions that the creation of a legacy would be likely to elicit. A parallel explanation may be found in the identity threat literature. Petriglieri (2011), hypothesized that when an individual's identity is under threat, as might be the case when disability identity is salient, one possible course of action is to engage with others to inform or advocate in favor of the threatened identity. In both of these instances, pursuit of new information and social interactions with new individuals along the knowledge acquisition trajectory may actually be in service of the meaningful emotions most associated with the emotion regulation trajectory. Further study may reveal whether individuals with disabilities are indeed engaging in social interactions for the purpose of improving work-related outcomes for future generations of individuals with disabilities.

On a more practical level, findings from this study suggests how organizations might better support individuals with disabilities. Many organizations adopt policies and practices to promote inclusive behavior by all employees toward all employees (e.g., Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Li et al., 2019; Nishii, 2013), with the desire to create a positive work environment by building trust and removing barriers that would inhibit social interaction with dissimilar others (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Dwertmann & Boehm, 2016; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Peterson et al., 2017; Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2011, 2014; Zhu et al., 2019). However, an inclusive climate may not

have the impact and outcomes that organizations anticipate. Specifically, an inclusive climate may help attract minority employees like individuals with disabilities, by signaling that the organization promotes a safe and accepting environment but, as this study demonstrates, an inclusive climate may not contribute to work-related outcomes such as full utilization through social interaction for individuals with disabilities. Leadership styles, perceived supervisor support, and perceived coworker support via interpersonal relations may have greater influence on social interactions than organizational climate. That is, climate for inclusion may set the stage (Ensari & Miller, 2006; Hansen, 1999; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016), but individuals open the communication door (Glade et al., 2020; Koch et al., 2021).

For organizations this might mean purposefully creating social networks with the specific intent of supporting individuals with disabilities. Supervisors and peers, trained and armed with resources, could mentor, support, and advocate for the career advancement and success of individuals with disabilities (Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014). Similarly, when individuals with disabilities withdraw from all social interaction at work suddenly and without explanation—a phenomenon known as *Ghosting* (LeFebvre, 2017)—supervisors and peers within their social network could help these individuals reintegrate following an absence or similar difficulties due illness or symptoms related to their disability. This might avoid situations of involuntary turnover described by Glade et al. (2020) in which individuals with disabilities lost their jobs by default because they became embarrassed or unable to communicate their situation with a supervisor or coworker.

The benefits of a climate for inclusion are inarguable (e.g., Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Li et al., 2019; Nishii, 2013) and organizations should continue their efforts to create inclusive climates for all employees. The non-significant results from this study do not provide irrefutable

evidence that perceived climate for inclusion is not a moderator as hypothesized. It is possible that one of the three dimensions of Nishii's (2013) measure of climate for inclusion may have greater influence on the social interaction—full utilization relationships than the full scale. It is also possible that another measure, perhaps belongingness (Chung et al., 2020), job embeddedness (Crossley et al., 2007), or ostracism (Ferris et al., 2008), might be more appropriate. Or, perhaps the negative results described here may be the result of a statistical power issue as my Level 2 sample size was small (n=136). It would be important to verify these results through additional data collection and analysis.

Limitations and Future Directions

One shortcoming of this research is that data collection took place approximately six months after SARS-CoV2 (Covid-19) was declared a global pandemic and the nature of work for most of the world dramatically changed. Over the course of a few days, entire companies switched to remote work. Many employees worked from make-shift home offices, while others worked reduced hours, were laid off, furloughed, and/or left their jobs for fear of contracting Covid-19. While the pandemic was global, its impact was observed in waves across the country. Likewise, the response to the pandemic varied from region to region and by state as legislators, health officials, and organizations grappled with responding to outbreaks. These sudden and drastic shifts in work patterns likely impacted this research in a number of ways. First, the individuals with disabilities remaining in the workforce that met my study sample conditions may have been very different from those that I might have recruited pre-pandemic. Second, remote work introduced virtual, over in-person, communication as the primary means of work-related interaction. Communication in this less context-rich medium may have been dominated by conversation related to concerns over staying healthy and retaining employment versus career

advancement and full utilization. Third, working in an environment physically isolated from most co-workers while simultaneously crossing the boundaries of work/family balance may not only have impacted social interaction patterns, but may have shifted perceptions of perceived organizational climate. And last, it is highly likely that living and working during a global pandemic, a time of great uncertainty, when no vaccine had been developed, increased thoughts about illness and death due to high rates of disease transmission and mortality, a factor related to disability identity salience, disability progression, and future time perspective. Results from this study are representative of the lived working experiences of individuals with disabilities at the time the data was collected, but may not generalize to pre- or current pandemic working experiences. An important future direction would be to repeat this study at a time when more stable work patterns have been adopted in order to support or refute the findings described here.

Most studies of individuals with disabilities focus on examining the experiences of individuals with a particular type of disability (e.g., mental illness, multiple sclerosis; Follmer et al., 2018; Rumrill et al., 2015). A second shortcoming of this study is that I did not screen-out candidates based on disability, beyond their self-declared inability to participate independently in the study. Nearly one-third of the 420 individuals screened for this study indicated that they did not "have a physical or mental health condition, impairment, or disability that has lasted or is expected to last at least 12 months," even though they had indicated in their Prolific Academic profiles that they *did* have physical and/or mental health conditions. Because of confidentiality, I do not know what physical or mental health condition, impairment, or disability these individuals may have had. However, it is likely that some individuals with any given physical or mental health condition identified as an individual with disabilities, while others with the same phsycial or mental health condition did not. As a result, disability identity may be more salient among my

participants who self-identified as an individual with disabilities than those individuals who self-excluded from my participant pool. Another potential concern is that within my sample population, 63 individuals reported anxiety and/or depression, three individuals reported neurodiversity (e.g., autism), and one individual report agoraphobia as primary disabilities. In hindsight, it may be that interaction patterns are specific to certain disabilities and the way in which individuals with these particular disabilities navigate their world. It is also possible that individuals with certain disabilities might be more prone to avoiding rather than engaging in social interactions.

Lastly, one dimension related to disability type that may be particularly important is the extent to which a disability is life-threatening. While both disabiltiy progression, as a moderator, and disability severity, as a control, were accounted for in my model, I did not specifically control for disability as a life-threatening condition. In order to consider this disability dimension, I re-ran the two models as specified above to included a single-item adapted from McLaughlin et al. (2004), as a control to to examine the influence of life-threatening disabilities on the hypothesized negative relationship between disability identity salience and future time perspective. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed that, "My health condition/impairment/disability is life threatening." Results revealed that the negative relationship between disability identity salience and future time perspective was unchanged suggesting that, at least for this sample, my results are robust. Future studies would benefit from a larger sample population that controlled for disability type by using (1) a mortality and burden of disease indicator such as Disability-adjusted Life Years (DALYs; Global Burden of Disease, 2022), to weight disabilities based on the number of years of life lost as a result of health conditions, impairments, and/or disabilities, (2) controlling for or omitting individuals with

disabilities that manifest limited, restricted, inhibited social interactions (e.g., neurodiverstiy, social anxiety), and (3) introducing disability type as a moderator on the c-path relationships between social interactions and full utilization.

A third shortcoming of this study is that it attempts to capture the dynamics of a complicated system of social interactions without accounting for multiplexity. That is, persons with disability were asked about interactions that they would characterize as either self-development or self-maintenance. Self-development and self-maintenance interactions are distinct constructs but not mutually exclusive. I acknowledge this in my theorizing; however, my study design does not account for individuals acting as both instrumental and expressive ties potentially providing both self-development and self-maintenance resources through those interactions. To unpack this, it would be important in the future to map the social network onto the interactions and allow participants a greater choice of tie and interaction descriptions.

Furthermore, social network research has found evidence to suggest that the social network characteristics (e.g., centrality, multiplexity, tie strength) of some historically underrepresented groups differ from the social network characteristics of majority groups. Specifically, Ibarra (1995) found that there was greater multiplexity between expressive and instrumental ties in the social networks of white managers than found in the social networks of minority managers. She also found differences in overlap between expressive and instrumental ties in the social networks of men and women (Ibarra, 1992). And, among patients with psychiatric disabilities, Goldberg et al. (2003) found that the social networks of Black patients exhibited greater multiplexity than the social networks of White patients. Thus, there maybe greater overlap between instrumental and expressive ties among the social networks of individuals with disabilities than among the social networks of individuals without disabilities

that may explain why future time perspective was positively related to self-maintenance interactions when I expected it to be negatively related. The degree of multiplexity may also vary according to disabilty type. Goldberg et al., (2003) found greater multiplexity in the social networks of individuals with psychotic disorders versus the social networks of individuals with mood disorders likely related to their greater need for support.

Conclusion

A great body of research has focused on the employment experiences of individuals with disabilities (e.g., accommodations, discrimination) and on what organizations can do to improve work-related outcomes for these individuals. To the best of my knowledge, this study is the first to develop a testable theoretical model to examine the at-work social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities in an attempt to understand how those interactions may lead to full utilization. Findings from this study advance our theoretical understanding of the social interaction patterns of individuals with disabilities and how they help or hinder their career advancement efforts. On a more practical level, findings suggest how organizations could better support individuals with disabilities through the development of organizational resources and policies better equipped to meet their needs.

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APPENDIX A

COMPLIANCE DOCUMENT

UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS

To:	Christine M Manno WCOB 440
From:	Douglas James Adams, Chair IRB Committee
Date:	03/17/2020
Action:	**Exemption Granted**
Action Date:	03/17/2020
Protocol #:	2002252055
Study Title:	Workplace social interaction patterns of people with disability

The above-referenced protocol has been determined to be exempt.

If you wish to make any modifications in the approved protocol that may affect the level of risk to your participants, you must seek approval prior to implementing those changes. All modifications must provide sufficient detail to assess the impact of the change.

If you have any questions or need any assistance from the IRB, please contact the IRB Coordinator at 109 MLKG Building, 5-2208, or irb@uark.edu.

cc: Lauren Simon, Investigator

APPENDIX B

STUDY MEASURES

Initial Survey Items

Disability Progression

Compared to ***one year ago***, how would you rate your health ***in general*** now?

> [Much better now than one year ago (1); Somewhat better now than one year ago (2); About the same as one year ago (3); Somewhat worse than one year ago (4); Much worse than one year ago (5)]

Perceived Climate for Inclusion

In general, …

- This organization has a fair promotion process.
- The performance review process is fair in this organization.
- This organization invests in the development of all of its employees.
- Employees in this organization receive "equal pay for equal work."
- This organization provides safe ways for employees to voice their grievances.
- This organization is characterized by a non-threatening environment in which people can reveal their "true" selves.
- This organization values work-life balance.
- This organization commits resources to ensuring that employees are able to resolve conflicts effectively.
- Employees of this organization are valued for who they are as people, not just for the jobs that they fill.
- In this organization, people often share and learn about one another as people.
- This organization has a culture in which employees appreciate the differences that people bring to the workplace.
- In this organization, employee input is actively sought.
- In this organization, everyone's ideas for how to do things better are given serious consideration.
- In this organization, employees' insights are used to rethink and redefine work practices.
- Top management exercises the belief that problem-solving is improved when input from different roles, ranks, and functions is considered.

Absences (12 months)

During the last 12 months, how many whole days have you been off work because of your health condition/impairment/disability?

> [None (1); Max 9 days (2); 10-24 days (3); 25-99 days (4); 100-354 days (5)]

Severity of Health Condition/Impairment/Disability

In general, …

- My health condition/impairment/disability is severe.
- My health condition/impairment/disability symptoms are intense.
- I would describe the severity of my condition/impairment/disability as high.

Work Group Composition

The disability/health status of my co-workers can best be described as:

> [Most of my co-workers do ***NOT*** have health conditions, impairments and/or disabilities (1); My work group is about equally balanced (2); Most of my co-workers have health conditions, impairments and/or disabilities (3)]

Organization Type

Is your organization's mission primarily to serve individuals with health conditions/ impairments/disabilities?

> [No (1); Yes (2); Don't know (3)]

Demographics

What is your gender?

> [Male (1); Female (2); Other (3)]

Choose one or more races that you consider yourself to be:

> [American Indian or Alaska Native (1); Asian; Black or African American (2); Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (3); Spanish or Hispanic or Latino (4); White or Caucasian (5); Other (6)]

Weekly Survey Items

Disability Identity Salience

During the ***past week***, …

- I have often thought about my health condition/impairment/disability.
- I have spent a lot of time thinking about my health condition/impairment/disability.
- My health condition/impairment/disability often crossed my mind for no reason.

Future Time Perspective

During the ***past week at work***, I have felt that …

- Many opportunities await me in the future.
- I will set many new goals in the future.
- My future is filled with possibilities.
- Most of my life still lies ahead of me.
- My future seems infinite to me.
- I could do anything I want in the future.
- There is plenty of time left in my life to make new plans.

Full Utilization

During this ***past week at work***, my job has provided me with the opportunity to …

- Apply my education and work experience.
- Use all of the skills, talents, and abilities I possess.
- Develop new knowledge and learn new skills.
- Improve on the skills and abilities I possess.
- Apply my skills, knowledge, and abilities that others regard as important and valuable.
- Apply my skills, knowledge, and abilities in the way I think is best.
- Use a variety of my skills, talents, and abilities each day.

Self-maintenance Interactions

During this ***past week at work***, I have interacted with people who …

- I can count on for emotional support.
- I view as an emotional support ally.
- Are dependable in times of emotional need.

Self-development Interactions

During this ***past week at work***, I have interacted with people who provided feedback critical for …

- Reaching my goals.
- Developing my skills at work.
- Improving my performance.
- Helping me advance in my company.
- Contributing to my success at work.

Social Interaction Avoidance

During this ***past week at work***, I …

- Have withdrawn from social interaction.
- Haven't really interacted with my coworkers.
- Have needed to keep more to myself.

Absences (week)

During the past week (Mon-Fri): how many whole days have you been off work from your ***primary job*** because of your health condition/disability/illness?

[0 days (0); 1 day (1); 2 days (2); 3 days (3); 4 days (4); 5 days (5); 6 days (6); 7 days (7)]

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Originally from Marquette, Michigan, Christine graduated with a Bachelor of Arts degree in French and Spanish from Northern Michigan University and earned a Masters of Business Administration degree from the University of Phoenix. After working nearly fifteen years as both an educator and entrepreneur, she resumed her studies at the graduate level, and in the spring of 2022, earned a doctoral degree in business administration with a concentration in organizational behavior from the University of Arkansas. Christine has accepted a position as Assistant Professor at the University of Wisconsin, La Crosse.