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Leadership and inclusiveness in public organizations

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Tanachia Ashikali

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Tanachia Ashikali

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Leadership and inclusiveness in public organizations

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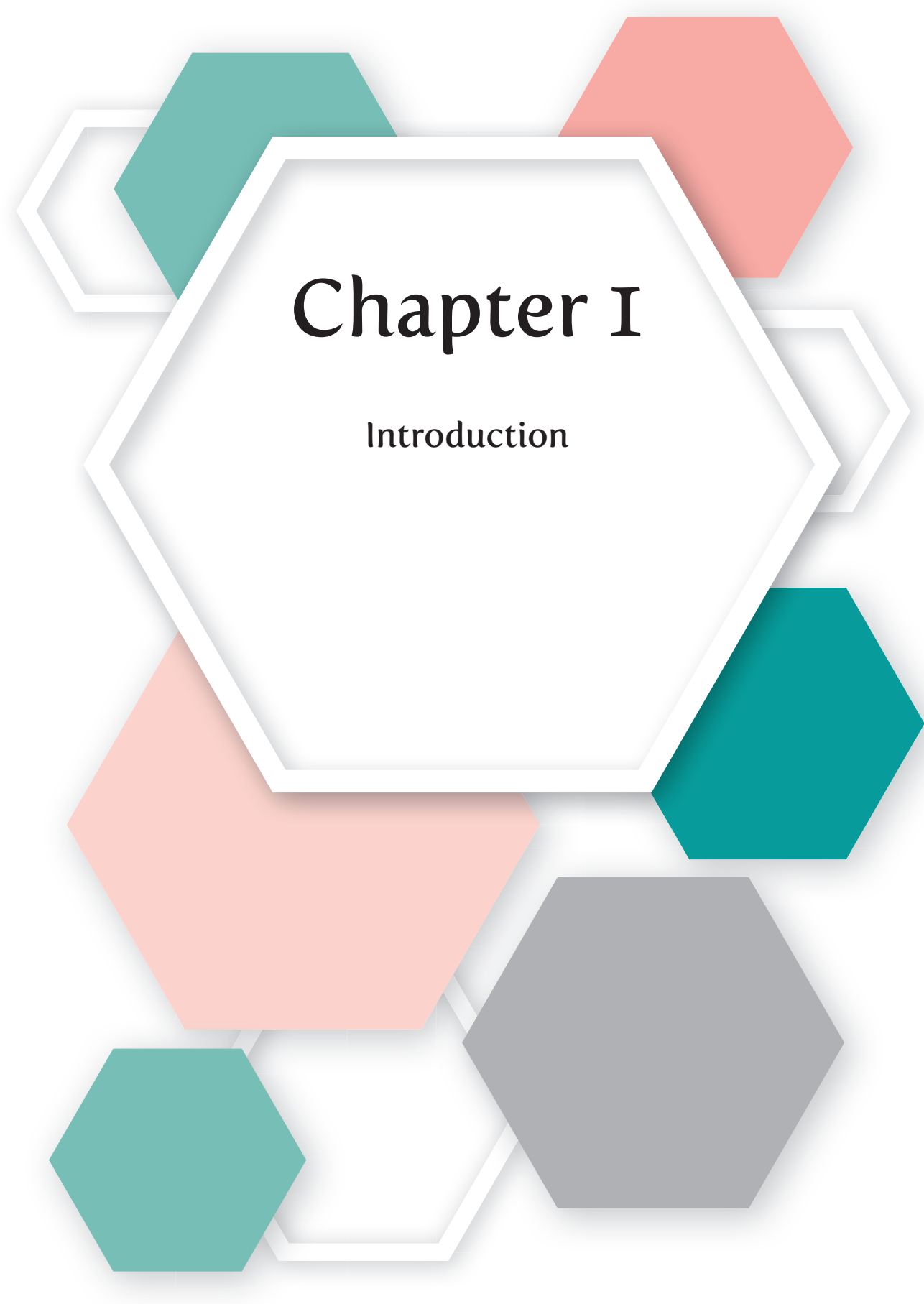
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Tanachia Ashikali

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Chapter I

Introduction

I.I A diverse and changing organizational context

This dissertation studies how diversity management and leadership relate to inclusiveness in public organizations and teams, and how this subsequently affects individual employee and team outcomes. Public organizations increasingly face new and complex challenges due to globalization, international migration and increasing participation of ethnic minority groups in the labour market. Demographic and societal changes require, for instance, public organizations to respond to the more diverse needs of different stakeholders. This stresses the need to be adaptive and responsive as an organization, and also to utilize the diverse competences of public employees in order to improve public organizations' effectiveness, thereby calling for effective diversity management (OECD, 2009, 2015a, 2015b).

Within the public management literature, diversity management is introduced as having a strong link with an organization's performance (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012; Pitts, 2005; Selden & Selden, 2001), thereby challenging public managers to manage a diverse workforce. In particular, to be more effective, public managers' leadership needs to adapt to a changing organizational context (Chen & Velsor, 1996; Van Wart, 2003, 2013).

In addition, diversity management nowadays seems increasingly linked to inclusiveness (Bleijenbergh, Peters, & Poutsma, 2010; Kirton & Greene, 2010; Syed & Ozbilgin, 2015). Inclusiveness refers to a work environment in which employees' differences are recognized, valued and utilized (Pless & Maak, 2004; Shore et al., 2011). It also suggests moving beyond management strategies based solely on improving organizational performance, and considering also the social aspects of the work environment in which different social identities can co-exist (Bleijenbergh et al., 2010; Kirton & Greene, 2010; Syed & Ozbilgin, 2015). This is particularly important in a public sector context since it contributes to an organization's fairness and equity. This will enhance an organization's responsiveness to public interests, in effect contributing to inclusiveness in society (Selden & Selden, 2001).

Diversity is a broad concept that involves both objective and subjective differences between individuals (Van Knippenberg, De Dreu, & Homan, 2004). Ethnic-cultural diversity is particularly of interest for public organizations seeking to cope with the challenges stemming from a diversifying society. In responding, diversity management in a public sector context often addresses specific underrepresented groups such as ethnic-cultural minorities (Pitts & Jarry, 2009; Selden & Selden, 2001).

Previous research suggests that ethnic-cultural characteristics are more easily used, than less apparent differences, to assign certain social classifications to individuals and groups (Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002; Mayo, Van Knippenberg, Guillén, & Firfiray, 2016). This results in teams that are ethnic-culturally diverse experiencing greater team conflict, and less commitment and cohesion, which reduces their

performance (Meeussen, Otten, & Phalet, 2014; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999). These processes suggest that managing ethnic-cultural diversity is a complex task for public managers.

The above discussion points towards managing diversity and inclusiveness in public organizations being a multilevel issue. It includes developing diversity management on the organizational level, concerns public managers' leadership that influences the effectiveness of diversity management and, finally, it is team processes that enable inclusiveness. Despite this, there are few studies that integrate these multilevel aspects, resulting in an inadequate understanding of how diversity management and in particular leadership affects inclusiveness in public organizations. This implies that inclusiveness in public organizations is linked to several explanatory factors and multiple outcomes. This leads to the following overall question:

“How do diversity management and leadership affect inclusiveness in public organizations and teams, and in turn affect outcomes on the individual and team level?”

The management of diversity is a multilevel construct that both relates to policies being implemented and leadership behaviour that to date is underexposed in the literature. In the dissertation a distinction is made between diversity management and leadership. The first refers to the policies and programmes organizations implement in order to effectively manage workforce diversity. Secondly, leadership involves the behaviours of leaders (the formal supervisors), that influence, motivate, and enable followers (i.e. employees) to contribute to the effectiveness and success of a work group or organization (Denis, Langley, & Rouleau, 2005; Yukl, 1989, 2012). This research uses transformational and inclusive leadership to examine different (perceptions of) leadership behaviours that are relevant in the context of managing workforce diversity. It is argued that besides the role of the supervisor in implementing diversity management, their leadership is important as well for the management of workforce diversity and to foster inclusiveness.

The next section presents a literature review of the state-of-the-art in terms of diversity management, leadership, inclusiveness and team processes and discusses the limitations and research gaps that are relevant for this study. After that, the research aim and questions (1.3), and the research context and design will be elaborated upon.

I.2 Literature review and limitations of previous research

Driven by the changing value of diversity, and to address the double-edged sword of diversity, within both generic management literature (Groeneveld, 2015; Guillaume et al., 2014; Thomas, 1990) and public management literature (Choi & Rainey, 2010;

Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Pitts & Wise, 2010), an emphasis is placed here on managing diversity and more specifically on the role of leadership in that process. This change of focus from policies to management fits the general changes in the Human Resource Management discourse in recent years. It posits that multiple phases explain organizational performance, and thus should be identified and studied. These include intended policies, actual implementation by managers and their leadership, and employees' interpretation of and reactions to the preceding phases. This again underlines the importance of a multilevel approach in understanding organizational performance (Paauwe & Boselie, 2005; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2012).

In particular, employees' perceptions are a crucial factor since their perceptions of organizational investments and their work environment affect their attitudes and behaviour, and thus their performance. A social exchange perspective posits that an actor's voluntary actions are based on the expected return from others. The interaction between actors establishes an exchange relationship in which the need to reciprocate and return benefits is considered to be the mechanism that starts social interaction (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Social exchange theory emphasizes social outcomes, such as trust and commitment, rather than monetary outcomes that result from an economic exchange. This perspective thus explains the relationship between an organization's investments in HR and employees' positive work attitudes and behaviour by the costs and benefits for both employer and employee that stimulate them to develop a long-term relationship (Gould-Williams, 2007; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005).

A social exchange perspective further promotes the idea that the relationship between an organization, or its representatives such as supervisors, and its employees is built on the exchange of effort and loyalty for benefits such as support and recognition (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Van Knippenberg, Van Dick, & Tavares, 2007). The quality of the exchange determines employees' organizational commitment, satisfaction and performance. Since diversity management aims to create a work environment that takes account of employees' differences, diversity management can be viewed as an investment by the organization in its employees. This should foster employee perceptions of organizational support, in turn eliciting positive work attitudes and behaviours that are beneficial for achieving organizational goals (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005). It emphasizes that, rather than an economic exchange based on business arguments, diversity management involves a social exchange and relates to creating a social environment that is inclusive of differences. It involves the development of a social context in which individuals feel they belong, while having the opportunity to maintain unique identities.

The extent to which employees actually experience openness towards, and the valuing of, differences can be understood using social identity and optimal distinctiveness theories. Social identity theory explains the relationship between social structures and individual identities through the meaning that individuals ascribe to their membership

of certain identity groups (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Brewer, 2010; Mor Barak et al., 2016; Turner, 1975; Williams & O'Reilly III, 1998). More specifically, it involves individuals categorizing themselves, and others, into social categories and then estimating the extent to which they and others fit in a certain group. The theory posits that individuals have an intrinsic desire to belong to groups that elicit a positive and distinct identity (Hogg, Abrams, & Brewer, 2017; Mor Barak et al., 2016). This may in turn result in excluding those who are perceived to be different, by individuals that belong to a group with such positive features (e.g. social status).

While social identity theory emphasizes processes towards forming a collective identity as a group, the optimal distinctiveness theory posits that individuals simultaneously seek individuation (Brewer, 1991; Hogg et al., 2017). According to this framework, individuals simultaneously seek similarities with others while feeling the need for uniqueness. It includes people feeling the need to remain true to their authentic selves while also feeling treated as a valued member of the group (Jansen, Otten, Van der Zee, & Jans, 2014; Mor Barak et al., 2016; Shore et al., 2011). The extent to which inclusion is achieved thus depends on finding a balance between a collective identity and differentiation from the group (Brewer, 1991; Mor Barak et al., 2016; Shore et al., 2011).

Social identities result from a wide variety of factors, of which ethnicity or cultural heritage is an important one. Ethnic-cultural diversity refers to individuals that are from socially distinct groups in society. Their identity is associated with visible physical, biological and stylistic features, or with less visible norms and values (Cox, 1993; Ely & Thomas, 2001). Given this situation, ethnic-cultural diversity could be more salient than less visible differences (Mayo et al., 2016). The challenge of forming a social identity, while also being distinctive, could therefore be more important for employees from different ethnic-cultural backgrounds than for those with less visible differences.

The processes explained above are more likely to manifest themselves on the team level. For instance, team research shows that, based on the interactions within a team, a team develops shared meanings and values related to their work environment, leadership, team processes and team outcomes (Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2002). In order to understand how processes of social identity and optimal distinctiveness affect team members' attitudes and behaviours, it is thus necessary to study how leadership affects these processes and inclusiveness at the team level. To date, however, public management studies predominantly focus on individual employees' perceptions of inclusion. Combining the theoretical perspectives discussed above thus leads to the question of how diversity management, leadership and team processes impact on inclusiveness in public organizations. In the subsections below, these key concepts for this study are discussed in more detail.

1.2.1 Diversity management

The concept of diversity management was first introduced in the United States by Roosevelt Thomas (1990) who advocated moving beyond affirmative action and equal employment opportunity initiatives to a more economic rationale for diversity, in which diversity is seen as a resource that is beneficial for an organization's performance. In contrast to affirmative action and equal employment opportunities, which focused on specific groups based on visible differences such as gender, race or ethnic-cultural background and age, diversity management would embrace both visible and non-visible differences.

Diversity management can be seen as an umbrella concept referring to policies and interventions developed and implemented for the *effective* management of a diverse workforce (Groeneveld, 2015). Accordingly, diversity management is often placed within the remit of Human Resource Management and primarily seen as the responsibility of HR professionals (Kulik, 2014). Diversity management is motivated from a business case perspective, implying that diversity can contribute to organizational outcomes if managed effectively (Wise & Tschirhart, 2000; Kochan et al., 2003; Herring, 2009; Kirton & Greene, 2010). As a result, diversity management is often defined as an instrumental approach to diversity. It is intended to make use of diverse employee resources that are needed to cope with an organization's complex environments and improve its performance (Pitts, Hicklin, Hawes, & Melton, 2010; Pitts & Wise, 2010).

Implementing diversity management in public organizations fits with the new public management (NPM) reform trend of the 1990s, in which public organizations adopted business management approaches. Among other developments, NPM led to Human Resource Management overhauling traditional paternalistic personnel systems, resulting in public organizations that viewed employees as a resource that could, when effectively managed, contribute to the organization's performance and strategic advantage (Boyne, Jenkins, & Poole, 1999; Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Steijn, Groeneveld, & Van der Parre, 2010).

Even though the business case for diversity is presumed to be the main driver for diversity management, multiple values have a role in public organizations (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Van der Wal, De Graaf & Lasthuizen, 2008; Van der Wal, Nabatchi & De Graaf, 2015). For example, advancing the social equity of minorities through fair and equal opportunities is a fundamental value within public organizations (Riccucci, 2002, 2009). This includes combatting discrimination against minorities and tackling inequalities in procedures and systems that hinder the advancement of minorities' representation and participation in public organizations and society at large (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Riccucci, 2009). As such, public organizations are inclined to act as model employers, striving to be fair and equal for all individuals (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012; Pitts et al., 2010). This underlines that both business-based and social

justice arguments are relevant to diversity management in a public context (McDougall, 1996).

The above motives can be further understood through a typology of three diversity perspectives developed by Ely and Thomas (2001). The first is referred to as a *discrimination and fairness* perspective, which involves moral-legal arguments for creating equal and fair opportunities for every minority in society and eliminating discrimination of these groups. The second, an *access and legitimacy* perspective, involves diversity as an instrument to reach diverse markets, clients and citizens. Finally, there is the *integration and learning* perspective in which learning from differences and using this to change and renew work processes is central (Ely & Thomas, 2001). These perspectives influence how organizations develop, design and implement their diversity management policies and programmes, and how managers manage their employees on the work floor. Both the access and legitimacy (A&L) and integration and learning (I&L) perspectives reflect the business case arguments for diversity, while the discrimination and fairness (D&F) perspective consists of social justice case arguments. These perspectives are not mutually exclusive and can co-exist in the rationale for diversity management, in particular for public organizations (Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010).

Diversity management thus aims to affect multiple outcomes, such as by ensuring equality and fairness, as well as valuing diversity on business case arguments (Choi & Rainey, 2010, 2014; Kellough & Naff, 2004; Pitts et al., 2010). Diversity management is also presumed to support inclusiveness in organizations, which supports the view that diversity management is not only based on an economic rationale of improving performance, and support the necessary social conditions for recognizing and valuing diversity (Avery & McKay, 2010; Bleijenbergh et al., 2010; Kirton & Greene, 2010). It involves changing work processes to value and make use of different perspectives, creating an inclusive culture that commits diverse workers to the organization's aims of contributing to both economic and social values (Selden and Selden, 2001).

1.2.2 Inclusiveness

Diversity management is expected to positively affect the inclusiveness in public organizations. Inclusiveness refers to recognizing, valuing and utilizing differences while, at the same time, treating each individual as an appreciated organizational member (Dwertmann, Nishii, & Van Knippenberg, 2016; Mor Barak et al., 2016; Pless & Maak, 2004; Shore et al., 2011). Inclusion is distinct from diversity. Diversity involves all the objective and subjective characteristics on which people may perceive an individual or a group to be different to themselves (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Roberson, 2006). Inclusion, is about fulfilling needs for uniqueness while, at the same time, fulfilling needs for belongingness through seeking interpersonal similarities (Brewer, 1991; Shore et al., 2011; Hogg et al., 2017).

Various management strategies can be contemplated that could achieve both diversity and inclusion (Brimhall et al., 2017; Jansen, Otten, & Van der Zee, 2015; Sabharwal, 2014). In regard of the latter, this involves creating a social climate in which the negative effects of social categorization are reduced with all employees being treated as full organizational members (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Ferdman, 2017; Mor Barak et al., 2016; Nishii, 2013; Pless & Maak, 2004; Syed & Ozbilgin, 2015). As Ferdman (2017) puts it:

“Inclusion is an active process in which individuals, groups, organizations, and societies – rather than seeking to foster homogeneity – view and approach diversity as a valued resource. In an inclusive [organization], we value ourselves and others because of and despite our differences (or similarities); everyone [...] should be empowered as a full participant and contributor who feels and is connected to the larger collective without having to give up individual uniqueness, cherished identities, or vital qualities.” (Ferdman, 2017)

Inclusiveness thus involves enabling employees to feel part of the group while, at the same time, supporting them in retaining their unique identities. Feelings of inclusion can result in improved self-esteem and, consequently, in positive individual outcomes (Leslie, Mayer & Kravitz, 2014). Inclusiveness in public organizations may thus boost individual employees’ commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. It can also have a positive effect on team outcomes since greater inclusiveness at the team level would mean that all the team members’ unique features are valued and considered in decision-making, in turn contributing to improved policy outcomes for society (Selden & Selden, 2001; Andrews & Ashworth, 2015). Further, it relates to public organizations’ social responsibility to be responsive to a diversifying society and to have a positive impact on the inclusiveness in society.

In order to achieve inclusiveness, the processes of belongingness and of distinctiveness both need to be managed. One can question to what extent diversity management developed on the organizational level is effective in terms of having an impact on processes that occur on the team level. In adopting a multilevel approach, the team leader is seen as more likely to influence employees’ attitudes and behaviour (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2012), and thus their experienced inclusiveness. Since supporting inclusiveness is a process that is particularly salient within teams (Shore et al., 2011), it is argued that the effectiveness of diversity management is contingent on the team’s leadership. The role of leadership is further discussed in the next section.

1.2.3 Leadership

Supervisors are in direct contact with employees and are increasingly responsible for implementing policies (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright

& Nishii, 2012), and it is therefore crucial to take their leadership into account in studies on diversity and inclusion in organizations. Although the role of leadership is emphasized in public management literature (Ingraham, Joyce & Donahue, 2003; Meier & O'Toole, 2002; O'Toole & Meier, 2015; Rainey, 2014), there are few studies that examine leadership in relation to diversity management and inclusiveness in either the public management or the generic management literature. As such, there is limited understanding of how leadership is related to inclusiveness in public organizations. More specifically, the mechanisms through which leadership might foster inclusiveness in public organizations need to be examined more rigorously.

Of several leadership styles, transformational leadership is seen as an effective leadership style to boost diversity processes since it aims to elevate individuals needs and goals to collective goals by developing a shared group identity (Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2014; Guillaume et al., 2014, 2017; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2016). Other studies have considered leader-member exchange relationships as a way to explain a leader's inclusive behaviours (Nishii & Mayer, 2009; Dwertmann & Boehm, 2016). This in effect refers to a social exchange mechanism as the starting point for social interaction. Others refer to leadership behaviours aimed at including different employee voices in team processes (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Mitchell et al., 2015).

While these studies provide meaningful insights into the impact of leadership on employees' commitment and extra-role behaviours, such as organizational citizenship behaviour, they have predominantly been carried out in private (for profit) organizations. To what extent these findings are applicable in a public context is open to question. There is a broad consensus of the differences between public and private sector organizations (for a review see Boyne, 2002; Rainey & Chun, 2007), and also related differences in leadership styles and their effects (Andersen, 2010; Hansen & Villadsen, 2010; Trottier, Van Wart, & Wang, 2008). For instance, when comparing public and private managers, Hansen and Villadsen (2010) show that participative leadership, rather than directive leadership, is more common in a public sector context. This entails public managers involving and engaging their employees in fulfilling their tasks. In similar reasoning, it could be argued that public managers are more inclined to support inclusiveness since this would enable diverse employees to participate. This in turn would contribute to achieving the previously mentioned public values such as equity and fairness. Since the meanings attached to diversity and inclusiveness are different in the public sector, the relationship between leadership and inclusiveness is also likely to differ.

Previous studies have argued that an inclusive leadership style is required to establish an inclusive work environment (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Mitchell et al., 2015). These studies have, however, focussed on leaders' attitudes towards giving team members a voice in the specific context of medical teams. Further, the existing literature does not specify which inclusive leadership behaviours are promising in balancing the

needs for belongingness and for uniqueness of individuals in relation to their team. This dissertation therefore delves deeper into the conceptualization of inclusive leadership.

To date, leadership studies in public management have predominantly focused on dyads, and on leader-member exchanges (Knies, Jacobsen & Tummers, 2016; Ospina, 2017; Tummers & Knies, 2013), and do not provide a sufficient understanding of how leadership affects team processes and team outcomes. Since inclusiveness is both about individuals and the extent to which they feel they belong in the team, leadership should explicitly also consider team processes that enable inclusiveness. The relevance of studying individuals and teams is discussed in the next section.

1.2.4 Team processes

As already explained, this dissertation examines inclusiveness both on the organizational level, through individual employees' perceptions, and on the team level through team members' collective experiences of inclusiveness. Understanding team processes, and how leadership may affect these processes, is relevant for any contemporary organization, but in particular for public organizations (Rainey, 2014). Inclusiveness in organizations could result from an accumulation of individual and team level factors, indicating the need to adopt a multilevel perspective (Coleman, 1990), to fully grasp the relationship between leadership and inclusiveness in public organizations.

Within the general management literature, considerable attention is given to understanding the antecedents of self-managing work teams, such as the team's composition, processes and climate (Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2002; Procter and Currie, 2004) and, more specifically, diversity and inclusion (De Cooman et al., 2016; Dwertmann et al., 2016; Mayo et al., 2016). In the public management literature, the study of teamwork is less prevalent (Gould-Williams & Gatenby, 2010; Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2014; Van der Hoek, Groeneveld, & Kuipers, 2016), in particular in association with team diversity, team leadership and inclusiveness in public organizations.

Text box 1 below provides the views of a team leader of the current study regarding the complexities in managing team diversity. In his everyday task of managing his team, he experiences difficulties in actively emphasizing team diversity. If he underlines the value of having ethnic-cultural diversity in his team members, he experiences greater conflict and less cooperation among team members. This illustrates the potential issue of imbalance between uniqueness and belongingness. It also indicates that it is not only individual perceptions of the abovementioned themes that are important, but also team composition, how team processes are experienced and the extent to which leadership might affect these factors. These team leader experiences show that there is need for leadership that fosters belongingness while also supporting uniqueness at the team level. This dissertation therefore examines team level as well.

“To be honest, I don’t want to actively address the diversity in my team since it would emphasize possible differences among team members. These differences may become salient and result in them categorizing each other, in less cooperation and maybe even in conflict among team members. At the same time, I do want to make sure everyone has the opportunity to contribute to the team process and outcomes. But how can I do this without discriminating between team members, and how can I treat every team member equally?” (Team leader, Dutch municipality, personal communication, 8 December 2016).

Text box 1: A public manager’s challenges in addressing team diversity

I.3 Research aim and questions

The brief review of the literature in the previous section identifies several underexplored objects in the study of inclusiveness that will be addressed in this dissertation. It contributes to the literature, by examining how diversity management results in inclusiveness, the role of leadership in that relation, and how this subsequently result in outcomes on the individual and team level. This dissertation, based on social exchange, social identity and optimal distinctiveness perspectives, aims to explain how diversity management and leadership affect inclusiveness within public organizations while considering both individual and team level outcomes. The overall research question of this dissertation is formulated as follows:

“How do diversity management and leadership affect inclusiveness in public organizations and teams, and in turn affect outcomes on the individual and team level?”

The empirical chapters (2 to 6) that follow will provide a comprehensive understanding of how inclusiveness is affected by diversity management and leadership. These insights are relevant additions to the public management literature, especially since the mechanisms that explain inclusiveness have so far been underexposed. Figure 1.1 presents the overall research model used in this dissertation and shows how a multilevel approach is applied in examining how inclusiveness can be achieved.

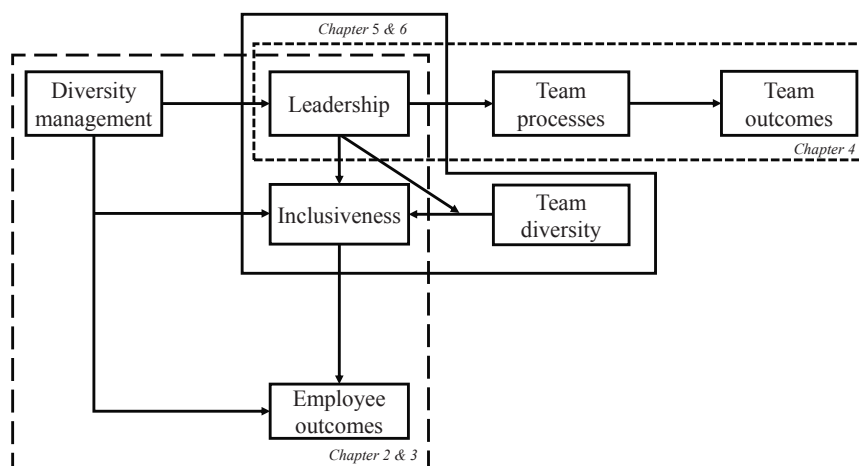


Figure 1.1: Research model

The sub-question addressed in Chapter 2 is: *“to what extent do diversity management outcomes differ across employees with different socio-demographic backgrounds?”*

Chapter 2 examines if, and how, the relationships among diversity management, inclusive culture, and employees’ attitudes and behaviours vary across employees with different socio-demographic characteristics. This study contributes to the overall aim of this dissertation by addressing the link between diversity management and inclusiveness through a social exchange perspective. The hypothesis being tested is that diversity management, if perceived as supportive of all employees, will positively impact on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture.

Diversity management is expected to impact on inclusiveness, in turn affecting employees’ affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). From a social exchange perspective, diversity management could be interpreted as an organization’s support of, or investment in, all its employees. By embracing the value of diversity, diversity management signals to employees that their uniqueness is an asset in achieving greater organizational performance (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Pitts, 2009; Thomas, 1990). As a result of perceiving this organizational support, it is argued that all employees, despite their different socio-demographic backgrounds, will experience inclusiveness. Subsequently, all employees will reciprocate by showing greater affective commitment towards the organization, as well as OCB.

However, diversity management can also be perceived as primarily supporting minority employees. This could be the result of the multiple conflicting values that can underpin diversity management in public sector organizations where diversity management is often associated with affirmative action plans and equal employment policies (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012; McDougall, 1996; Tatli, 2011). This could result in a backlash from those not benefiting, and feelings of being less competent by

those in the target groups. As a consequence of having different perceptions of diversity management, certain groups of employees may not experience a social exchange relation with their organization. As such, diversity management could have a negative impact on employees' affective commitment and OCB through its negative impact on inclusiveness.

After establishing the link between diversity management, inclusiveness and employees' commitment and involvement in chapter 2, chapter 3 addresses the question ***“how is diversity management linked to employees' affective commitment through the mediating effects of transformational leadership and inclusiveness?”*** Here, chapter 3 aims to examine the mediating role of transformational leadership and inclusiveness in the link between diversity management and employees' affective commitment. As in the previous chapter, hypotheses are derived from a social exchange perspective to explain the positive link between diversity management and its effect on inclusiveness and employees' commitment.

Previous research has suggested that transformational leadership fits fit well with managing diversity (Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2014; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2016). Chapter 3 therefore starts by examining whether transformational leadership can explain the link between diversity management and inclusiveness, and subsequently impact on public employees' affective commitment.

In the leadership literature, transformational leadership is defined as aiming for a relationship with followers that goes beyond mere transactions. It aims to develop social identification among followers, thereby boosting the involvement and commitment of employees, in order to achieve collective goals (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003). Since previous research has shown transformational leadership to be effective in changing organizational culture (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Sarros, Cooper, & Santora, 2008; Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008), we expect transformational leadership to have a positive impact on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture.

Furthermore, transformational leadership is claimed to maximize diversity outcomes through individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. At the same time, transformational leadership, by heightening collective team identification, reduces the likelihood of negative affective responses to diversity (Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2016). As a result, transformational leadership will support the positive effects of diversity management on inclusive culture and on employees' affective commitment.

The fourth chapter builds further on the previous chapter and unpacks the effect of transformational leadership on team processes and outcomes. It examines the question: ***“to what extent do team leaders' perceptions of team diversity moderate the effect***

of transformational leadership on team processes and outcomes?” There is currently little understanding of if, and how, a leader’s perceptions of team diversity moderate the link between transformational leadership and team processes. Transformational leadership, for instance, values team members’ uniqueness through seeking out different perspectives and offering individualized support (Bass et al., 2003). At the same time, one might expect transformational leadership to be successful in supporting team members’ feelings of belongingness through strengthening a collective team identity (Kearney & Gebert, 2009). By doing so, transformational leadership is expected to affect the team’s cognitive and affective team processes by stimulating information elaboration and supporting the team’s cohesion (Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). These processes are further identified as necessary for achieving engaged teams.

Based on studies reported in the management literature (Greer et al., 2012; Kunze, Boehm & Bruch, 2013), we expect leaders that apply a transformational leadership style to be successful in envisioning certain beliefs and transforming team members such that they adhere to a collective identity and shared goals. However, if these leaders have strong perceptions of team diversity (i.e. a strong categorization saliency), the might accentuate differences in the team, which might then negatively affect team members’ attitudes and behaviours.

Chapter 5 addresses the question: *“what does inclusive leadership entail and how can this be developed into a measurement instrument?”* Notwithstanding the expected positive effects of transformational leadership, there are some studies that indicate that transformational leadership is insufficient for balancing belongingness and uniqueness in order to achieving inclusiveness. The perceived risk is that transformational leaders emphasize achieving shared goals through developing a collective identity, and that this might result in individual needs for uniqueness being disregarded (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2016; Randel, Dean, Holcombe Ehrhart, Chung, & Shore, 2016; Randel et al., 2017). These findings call for the development of a measurement tool for inclusive leadership and its empirical validation.

To gain additional conceptual, as well as methodological, insights into inclusive leadership behaviours, chapter 5 conceptualizes and develops a measurement instrument for inclusive leadership. In defining inclusive leadership, a theoretically grounded approach is used that identifies both cognitive and affective dimensions of inclusive leadership. For this conceptualization, social identity and optimal distinctiveness theories are used to determine the form of leadership that is required to facilitate the satisfaction of needs for uniqueness and belongingness (Randel et al., 2017; Shore et al., 2011). Adopting information/decision-making and categorization perspectives (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010), leadership behaviours are identified that can stimulate the elaboration of different perspectives among team members, as well as supporting the participation of all team members.

Chapter 6 builds further on the construct of inclusive leadership developed in the previous chapter. This chapter aims to identify the mechanism through which team diversity affects inclusiveness and how inclusive leadership would moderate this relationship through addressing the question: ***“to what extent does inclusive leadership moderate the relationship between team diversity and inclusive climate?”*** Inclusive leadership is expected to moderate team diversity processes that affect team members’ experienced inclusiveness. Through managing those cognitive processes that enable the utilization of team members’ diverse strengths, and through facilitating affective processes to include all team members in the team’s decision-making processes, inclusive leadership is argued to moderate the link between a team’s ethnic-cultural diversity and its inclusive climate.

Since team diversity can result in both negative and positive outcomes, we expect both a positive and a negative relationship between team ethnic-cultural diversity and inclusive climate. First, an information decision-making perspective sees a team’s diversity as a resource of different perspectives, ideas and experiences (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). In making use of these resources, integrating and learning from differences is vital (Ely & Thomas, 2001), resulting in a positive relationship between team ethnic-cultural diversity and inclusive climate.

Second, it is hypothesized that greater team ethnic-diversity could result in a deterioration of the inclusive climate. A social identity perspective posits processes in which team members assess similarities and differences relative to themselves and team members (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Brewer, 2010; Mor Barak et al., 2016; Turner, 1975; Williams & O’Reilly III, 1998). This could result in the formation of sub-groups that exclude those who are perceived to be different (Hogg et al., 2017; Mor Barak et al., 2016). In highly diverse groups, such processes might dominate, leading to a less inclusive climate in such teams.

The above processes indicate that team diversity might result in either positive or negative outcomes. Inclusive leadership is argued to support the positive processes and mitigate possible negative processes. This is achieved through facilitating the participation of all team members, and stimulating the exchange and contribution of different perspectives that could contribute to meeting team members’ needs for uniqueness and belongingness.

I.4 Research context and design

In this section, the research context of the dissertation is introduced. Followed by an explanation of the research design used in the empirical chapters.

1.4.1 Context

The Netherlands has a long history of being a ‘multicultural society’ as a consequence of migration from former colonies including Indonesia and Surinam, as well as labour migration and family reunifications, most notably from South-European countries, Turkey and Morocco (SER, 2014). This has resulted in demographic changes in society, and an increased participation by these groups in the Dutch labour market. This has resulted in increased diversity within Dutch public organizations, and led to increased attention on how to manage this workforce diversity effectively. More recently, 2015 saw a significant increase in the number of immigrants with different ethnic-cultural backgrounds registered in Dutch municipalities. An additional 20,000 immigrants were registered compared to the previous year, bringing the total to 203,000. The influx of migrants is partly explained by the recent refugee crisis, but also a greater flow of labour migrants from Eastern European and Asian countries (CBS, 2016).

The above developments are significant for public organizations. The Dutch public sector covers various sectors on multiple levels and with different functions. The public administration system consists of the central government, provincial and municipal administrative tiers, plus the judiciary and water authorities. Further, there is an education and science sector including primary education, secondary education, vocational education, higher education, research institutes and academic medical centres. Finally, there is a safety sector made up of the defence and police forces. In total, these sectors employ nearly one million people (Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations, 2016; Van der Meer & Dijkstra, 2017).

Diversity management in Dutch public organizations predominantly focuses on visible diversity characteristics such as gender, ethnic-cultural origin and age. It is seen as important that public organizations are recognized by diverse groups in society. Particularly with regard to cultural diversity, it is also referred to as a resource that can be used to improve decision making and solutions (Rijksoverheid, 2016). Dutch public organizations have a long history of implementing strategies to integrate and improve ethnic-cultural minorities’ participation in the labour market and to increase their representation in organizations (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012) and continue to monitor their representation in government organizations (Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations, 2017).

The Dutch definition of an ethnic minority is based on Dutch immigration policies, in which ethnic minorities are defined by their social position in society (Verbeek & Groeneveld, 2012). In doing so, ethnic minorities are distinguished based on being first-generation migrants or with at least one parent was born abroad. The latter is further refined into ‘western’ and ‘non-western’ countries. A native Dutch person is someone whose parents were both born in the Netherlands. Ethnic minorities thus comprise non-native Dutch individuals with at least one parent born outside the Netherlands. In this group of non-native Dutch people there are those originating from

a country in Africa, South America or Asia (excl. Indonesia and Japan) or Turkey (non-western) and those originating from a country in Europe (excl. Turkey), North America or Oceania or from Indonesia or Japan (western).

Table 1.1 includes some descriptive statistics the shows the representation of ethnic minorities in the public sector relative to their participation in the wider labour market. From this, it can be deduced that unemployment rates are relatively high for ethnic minorities compared to natives. Furthermore, their representation in the various public sectors is even lower than in the overall labour market.

Table 1.1: Descriptive statistics on representation of ethnic minorities in 2016

	Total	Native Dutch	Non-native Dutch (western)	Non-native Dutch (non-western)
Dutch population ^a	16,829,289	78,6%	9,5%	11,9%
Dutch labour market ^a	8,874,000	79,7%	9,6%	10,5%
Public administration ^b	289,336	87%	8%	5%
Education and Science ^b	509,130	81%	12%	7%
Safety ^b	123,426	88%	7%	5%

^a Derived from data from the Dutch central bureau of statistics (CBS)

^b Derived from 'the Dutch Databank of public administration'

1.4.2 Research design

In order to answer the previously discussed research questions, hypotheses are developed based on several theoretical frameworks concerning the relationships among diversity management, leadership, team processes and inclusiveness in public organizations. The first two empirical chapters are based on a large-*n* design study at the individual employee level. This enabled us to reach a representative sample of public sector employees for testing hypotheses derived from a social exchange perspective.

In chapter 2, data from an online survey administered by the Dutch Ministry of Interior and Kingdom Relations in 2013 were used. The chapter focuses on a sample of 664 public sector employees working in central government to explore and test employees' perceptions of diversity management and its link to inclusiveness, and to employees' affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. This included investigating to what extent these associations differ across employees with various socio-demographic backgrounds. Structural equation modelling with multiple group analyses was used to test the proposed hypotheses.

To further explain the links among diversity management, inclusiveness and employees' commitment, chapter 3 drew on an even larger sample of 10,976 public employees derived from an online survey administered by the Dutch Ministry of Interior and Kingdom Relations in 2011. The survey data were used to examine employees'

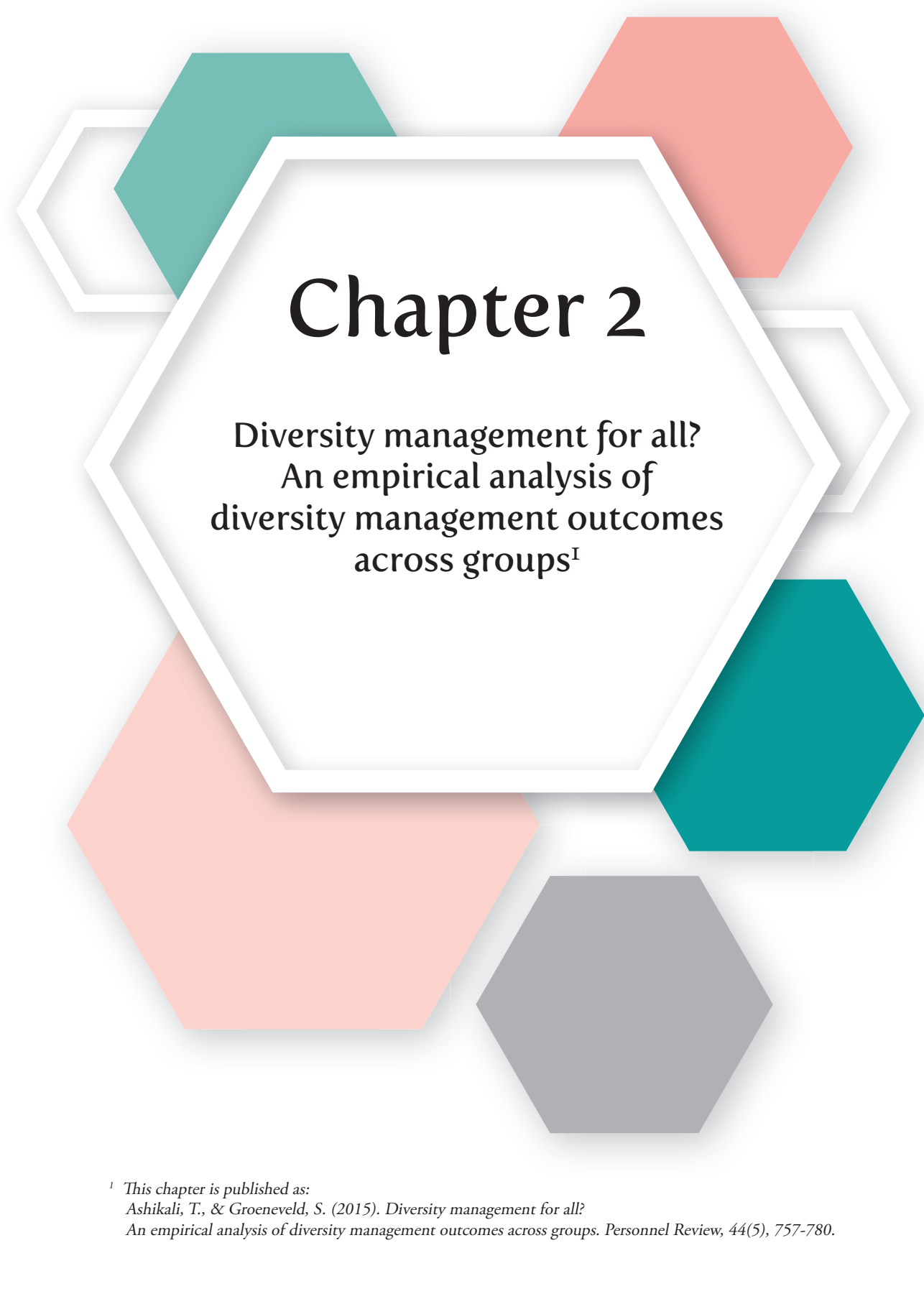
perceptions of diversity management and the mediating roles of transformational leadership, inclusive culture and affective commitment. Structural equation modelling was again used to test the proposed hypotheses on the mediating effect of transformational leadership.

In order to test assumptions derived from the social identity and optimal distinctiveness perspectives, the succeeding chapters involved team-level analyses. Switching to this level of analysis enabled an examination of the relationship among leadership, team processes, team outcomes and inclusiveness. In chapter 4, a team study was conducted as part of a larger research project on work teams in the Dutch public sector in 2013 and 2014 (Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2014). This had a sample of 128 teams working in a range of Dutch public sector organizations. An advantage of such a design is that it uses multisource data and the possibility to link team leaders to their team members. Accordingly, team members' perceptions and experiences were used to assess transformational leadership, team processes and team engagement. Team leader data were used to evaluate the leaders' perceptions of team diversity. The proposed hypotheses were tested using structural equation modelling with multiple group analyses.

A further team study was conducted in 2016 among four Dutch public sector organizations that surveyed both team leaders and their team members. Chapter 5 uses data on the individual level (a sample of 304 team members) to test the developed inclusive leadership scale. In chapter 6, the same data are aggregated to the team level, resulting in a sample of 45 teams, to examine the moderating role of inclusive leadership in the effect of team diversity on inclusive climate. The proposed hypotheses were tested using structural equation modelling. A team diversity index and team members' perceptions and experiences of inclusive leadership and inclusive climate were used in the analyses.

This dissertation draws on employees' and leaders' perceptions of diversity management, inclusiveness, leadership and team processes. Previous research has shown that perceptions of management and leadership are crucial for understanding their effect on employee outcomes (Becker, Huselid, Pickus & Spratt, 1997; Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015; Paauwe & Boselie, 2005; Wright & Nishii, 2012). Surveys are therefore a favoured method when studying perceptions of employees and leaders (George & Pandey, 2017). Given that perceptions are fundamental to behaviour (James & James, 1989; Maitlis, 2005; Wright & Nishii, 2012), the designs used in the empirical chapters were appropriate data collection methods for examining employees' experiences and perceptions of organizational inclusiveness (George & Pandey, 2017).

Appendix A1 provides an overview of the data used in the empirical chapters. The empirical studies are presented in chapters 2 to 6. Finally, in chapter 7, the main conclusions are drawn, followed by a discussion and suggestions for future research, a methodological reflection and a summary of the practical contributions made.



Chapter 2

Diversity management for all?
An empirical analysis of
diversity management outcomes
across groups¹

¹ This chapter is published as:

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An empirical analysis of diversity management outcomes across groups. *Personnel Review*, 44(5), 757-780.

2.1 Introduction

Public organizations have a long history of implementing diversity policies. At first, these diversity programmes focused on affirmative action and equal employment opportunities (AA/EEO) to enhance minority groups' representation in the public workforce. By conducting diversity policies, with the focus on representation and fairness, public organizations emphasized their exemplary role and improved their legitimacy (Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Selden & Selden, 2001). More recently, however, traditional AA/EEO policies which focus on recruitment and selection processes are increasingly replaced by policies with a focus on the business case of diversity, also in public organizations (Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Kirton & Greene, 2010; Wise & Tschirhart, 2000). Diversity management is used to attract, retain and effectively manage a diverse workforce in order to contribute to the organization's performance and, as such, can be considered an aspect of strategic human resource management (HRM) (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015b; Benschop, 2001; Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010). In this view, diversity management is about changing organizational practices and climates for that is the only way to realize the potential of a diverse workforce (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Thomas, 1990).

Diversity management in public organizations is increasingly aimed at creating an inclusive organizational climate to elicit the possible positive effects of diversity and to alleviate the negative effects of diversity (Pless & Maak, 2004; Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998; Nishii, 2013). Within an inclusive organizational climate differences as well as similarities are recognized, valued and engaged. It enables employees to maintain their "otherness", while they simultaneously identify with their organization or work group. In such an environment an individual's uniqueness is valued, while at the same time he or she is treated as an insider (Pless & Maak, 2004; Shore et al., 2011; Nishii, 2013). Through creating an inclusive work climate, diversity management would benefit all and would therefore boost positive attitudes and behaviour of all employees.

Previous research on HRM outcomes has been based on social exchange theory which argues that the organization's and management's investments in HR practices and the organizational environment will elicit positive work attitudes and behaviour (Gould-Williams, 2007; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005; McClean & Collins, 2011; Nishii & Mayer, 2009; Van De Voorde, Paauwe, & Van Veldhoven, 2012). The argument is based on the underlying premises of social exchange "that refers to those voluntary actions of actors that are motivated by the returns they are expected to elicit from others" (Blau, 1964, p. 91). The need to reciprocate in such a way to return those benefits is the starting mechanism for social interaction and group structure (Blau, 1964). Following this line of reasoning it is argued that employees who positively value HRM practices will reciprocate through showing attitudes and behaviours that are valued by the organization (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Gould-Williams, 2007; Van De Voorde et al., 2012). These employee reactions to HR practices are affected by

their perceptions of the practices implemented (Paauwe, Guest, & Wright, 2012; Wright & Nishii, 2012). It can thus be argued that when employees perceive HR practices to be beneficial for them, they will reciprocate in positive attitudes and behaviour that will contribute to achieving organizational goals. In a similar vein it can be argued that diversity management outcomes depend on the effect of employees' perceptions of diversity management on their attitudes and behaviour.

Whereas diversity management initiatives may be targeted at the inclusion of all groups within the organization, diversity management is frequently criticized for being primarily supportive for the position of minority groups (Avery, 2011; Bassett-Jones, 2005; Harrison, Kravitz, Mayer, Leslie, & Lev-Arey, 2006; Kravitz, 2008; Yang & Konrad, 2011). The effects of diversity management on the extent employees feel their organizational environment is inclusive and on their attitudes and behaviour, are therefore dependent on how diversity management is perceived by different groups in the organization. From a social exchange perspective, it could be argued that if majority groups feel that, compared to minority groups, for them there is less to gain with diversity management, or even, something to lose, they will respond with negative attitudes and behaviours towards the organization.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine if and how the relationships between diversity management, inclusive organizational culture and employees' attitudes and behaviours differ across socio-demographic groups in public organizations. The focus of this paper will lie on cultural diversity and hence on differences between non-native and native Dutch employee groups¹. Data are derived from a quantitative survey of a sample of Dutch central government employees. We use structural equation modelling (SEM) to test the above mentioned relationships. The following part of this paper describes the theoretical framework. Next, the data and methods are discussed, followed by the results section and the discussion and conclusion.

2.2 Theoretical framework

2.2.1 Diversity management, inclusion and employee outcomes

Diversity management concerns organizational and management practices that are assumed to enhance the value of diversity for the organization aimed at all employees (Pitts, 2009; Kirton & Greene, 2010). The concept of diversity management was introduced by Roosevelt Thomas (1990), who stated that diversity management embraces diversity, by changing organizational culture and practices, valuing differences among employees,

¹ The Dutch definition of an ethnic minority is based on Dutch immigration policies. Ethnic minorities are non-native Dutch persons of whom at least one parent is born abroad in another country than the Netherlands. In this group of non-native Dutch persons there are persons originating from a country in Africa, South America or Asia (excl. Indonesia and Japan) or Turkey (non-western) and persons originating from a country in Europe (excl. Turkey), North America or Oceania or Indonesia or Japan (western). A native Dutch person is someone of whom both parents are born in the Netherlands.

and creating a work environment in which diversity can contribute to organizational goals. This changing of work environment has been linked to the inclusiveness of the organizational culture (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015b; Celik et al., 2011; Pless & Maak, 2004; Shore et al., 2011). An inclusive culture is an environment where individual employees are treated as an insider, while at the same time they are encouraged to express their “uniqueness” (Shore et al., 2011). By developing an inclusive culture through diversity management the organization shows employees that it appreciates everyone’s input. This appreciation goes beyond short-term economic benefit alone; it is a recognition and appreciation of the unique value of each individual employee for the organization as a whole, contributing to a sustainable organization in the long term.

To explain the link of organizational investments in HR practices with how employees feel supported by the organization, the social exchange framework is often used (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Gould-Williams, 2007). Following social exchange theory, it may be expected that employees will respond to being valued and cared by reciprocating with attitudes and behaviours that are beneficial for the organization (Aryee et al., 2002; Eisenberger et al., 1990). We argue that through creating an inclusive organizational culture diversity management would enhance employees’ perceptions of being valued and their sense of belongingness, which will be returned by employees’ positive attitudes and behaviours towards the organization. If diversity management succeeds in creating an inclusive culture where all individuals both feel as an insider and have the opportunity to express their uniqueness, one could argue that through social exchange employees’ perceptions of diversity management and the consequences for inclusive culture would be equal across both native and non-native Dutch employee groups. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2.1a: Diversity management enhances the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. The effect of diversity management on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture is equal for both non-native Dutch and native Dutch employees.

Social exchange refers to the bond that is established between the employee and the organization (Aryee et al., 2002; Eisenberger et al., 1990). This emotional bond can be expected to become visible in the affective commitment of the employee to the organization and in organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). A climate for diversity has also been associated with affective commitment and OCB in previous studies (e.g. Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009; Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000; Mamman, Kamoche, & Bakuwa, 2012). Antecedents of affective commitment lie in employees’ perceptions of and experiences with the job and work environment characteristics (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). If employees perceive a high quality of social exchange relationship between the organization and themselves, they are more likely to

feel affectively committed to the organization (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). We restrict ourselves to affective commitment as an attitudinal outcome, because it refers to a sense of belonging to the organization more than normative commitment, which is based on a sense of obligation influenced by familial, cultural and organizational socialization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Furthermore, continuance commitment, rather than influenced by social exchange, is based on employees' perceptions of economic advantages in one's current job in respect to other employment opportunities (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Meyer et al., 2002).

Furthermore, previous research showed a positive relation between employees' perceptions of a supportive work environment and employees' organizational identification, which was consistent across gender and ethnic groups (Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013). Building on the previous statements an inclusive culture enhanced by diversity management would positively affect employees' affective commitment. Employees' perception of a social exchange would thus result in positive attitudes and behaviour that are beneficial for the organization. The experience of a social exchange would then result in an equal effect on enhancing both non-native and native Dutch employees' affective commitment towards the organization. Hence the following hypothesis states:

Hypothesis 2.2a: Diversity management has an indirect positive influence on employees' affective commitment through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. The indirect effect of diversity management on employees' affective commitment through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture is equal for both non-native Dutch and native Dutch employees.

Next to affective commitment as an attitudinal outcome we examine OCB as a behavioural outcome referring to discretionary individual behaviour within an exchange relationship that goes beyond the formal contract alone and that will contribute to the effectiveness of the organization (Morrison, 1996; Organ, 1997). It can be expected that when employees feel supported, valued and treated fairly because of diversity management employees will engage in more OCB (Shen, D'Netto, & Tang, 2010). Furthermore, related to an inclusive culture, previous studies showed that inclusion and fairness are antecedents of perceptions of organizational support. This in turn was positively related to OCB (Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002).

OCB comes in different forms, on the one hand behaviour towards individuals and on the other behaviour towards the organization, that diverge in several dimensions, namely, altruism and helping, civic virtue and sportsmanship (Paillé, 2013). First, OCB towards individuals involves helping others. It includes behaviour such as courtesy, cheerleading and peace making. Helping others encompasses cooperative and spontaneous behaviour as providing assistance to others or preventing the occurrence

of work-related problems and contributing to interpersonal harmony (Organ, 1997; Paillé, 2013). It also fosters cohesiveness among employees, good relationships with co-workers and a sense of belonging to the team, which may help the organization to retain employees (Paillé, 2013). Second, civic virtue and sportsmanship indicate a form of OCB towards the organization (Organ, 1997). Civic virtue involves an interest in the organization expressed in voluntary behaviour of the employee. It concerns active and voluntary participation of individuals in decision making by formulating new ideas, suggesting improvements or protecting the organization. Sportsmanship is a willingness to avoid complaints about unimportant matters and being an example for others (Paillé, 2013; Posdakoff & Mackenzie, 1994). The above reasoning leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2.3a: Diversity management has an indirect positive influence on employees' OCB. The indirect effect of diversity management on employees' OCB through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture is equal for both non-native Dutch and native Dutch employees.

2.2.2 Differences across groups

Although diversity management practices are aimed at managing diverse employees by valuing and bridging cultural differences among employees, diversity management is also criticized for being primarily supportive for minority groups (Avery, 2011; Bassett-Jones, 2005; Harrison et al., 2006; Kravitz, 2008; Yang & Konrad, 2011). If majority group employees perceive diversity management efforts of their organization as adjustments in favour of minority groups' interests and values, their personal alignment with the organization may be at risk. Or these efforts may even be conceived as unfair and the organization as unreliable. Previous research showed that non-native Dutch employees more than native Dutch employees valued diversity management efforts of the organization (Groeneveld, 2011). An improved social exchange would then not be evident for both non-native and native Dutch employees. Instead group differences may be expected.

In the literature several reasons can be found why diversity management would differently affect the attitudes and behaviour of majority and minority groups. A first reason could be because diversity management is historically based on AA and equal employment opportunity policies, in particular in public organizations (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012). Therefore, diversity management still could be associated with these traditional policies aimed at increasing fairness and participation of minority groups, and reducing discrimination (Lorbiecki & Jack, 2000). In addition, in practice diversity management may still consist of the implementation of the more traditional AA/EEO policies, and only framed differently as "managing diversity". Previous research found evidence for implementing policy instruments such as target figures within the frame

of diversity management in the Dutch public sector (De Ruijter & Groeneveld, 2011; Hofhuis & Van 't Hoog, 2010). As a result, diversity management can be perceived by employees as traditional AA/EEO policies, affecting their attitudes and behaviour. If native Dutch employees feel that these kinds of policies particularly favour the position of non-native Dutch, and thus experience an absence of social exchange, they may feel disadvantaged and respond negatively.

Second, traditional diversity policies have been changed to one of “managing” diversity, wherein critics find a critical argument of “who is being managed?”. According to them diversity management creates a division between those who manage (e.g. managers) and those who are being managed or need to be managed (e.g. diverse groups or minority groups), which could result in negative attitudes and behaviour against diversity management (Lorbiecki & Jack, 2000). It is argued that diversity management practices rather than diminishing inequality within organizations give rise to inequality due to its focus on differences between employees, resulting in responses of antagonism and resentment by both majority and minority groups (Bassett-Jones, 2005). In addition, critics of the more traditional AA and equal employment practices discuss a “backlash” effect, due to different approaches to majority and minority groups, which could affect the perceived social exchange of those groups. As a result, non-target groups of diversity practices could feel as the “outsiders” group, resulting in negative attitudes and behaviour against these diversity programmes (Kravitz, 2008).

Third, diversity management practices in their emphasis on the valuing of diversity may implicitly or explicitly aim to increase the diversity of the organization's workforce. In doing so, it puts pressure on an existing culture characterized by higher levels of similarity and homogeneity in which particularly majority groups feel valued and safe. Moreover, increasing the diversity of the workforce implies that the share of non-native Dutch employees will rise. Due to cultural beliefs in the wider society and stereotypes, minority group membership is associated with low status, while majority group membership is associated with high status. Generally, women and ethnic minority employees are considered low-status group members, whereas men and native employees are seen as high-status members. Increasing the ethnic-cultural diversity of the workforce may therefore imply that majority group members perceive the overall status of their organization decreasing and may respond with disengagement from the organization (Guillaume et al., 2014). We argue that status considerations may affect the relationships between diversity management and employees' attitudes and behaviour. Due to the lower status of the organization associated with increasing levels of diversity as perceived by majority group members, the organization has them less to offer which, in line with social exchange will affect their reciprocal attitudes and behaviour.

All in all, the competitive views developed above result in rival hypotheses on the existence of non-native and native Dutch employee group differences in the

relationships between diversity management, inclusion and employee outcomes. The following rival hypotheses can be formulated (Figure 2.1):

Hypothesis 2.1b: The positive effect of diversity management on inclusiveness of the organizational culture is stronger for non-native Dutch employees compared to native Dutch employees.

Hypothesis 2.2b: The indirect positive effect of diversity management on employees' affective commitment through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture is stronger for non-native Dutch employees compared to native Dutch employees.

Hypothesis 2.3b: The indirect positive effect of diversity management on employees' OCB through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture is stronger for non-native Dutch employees compared to native Dutch employees.

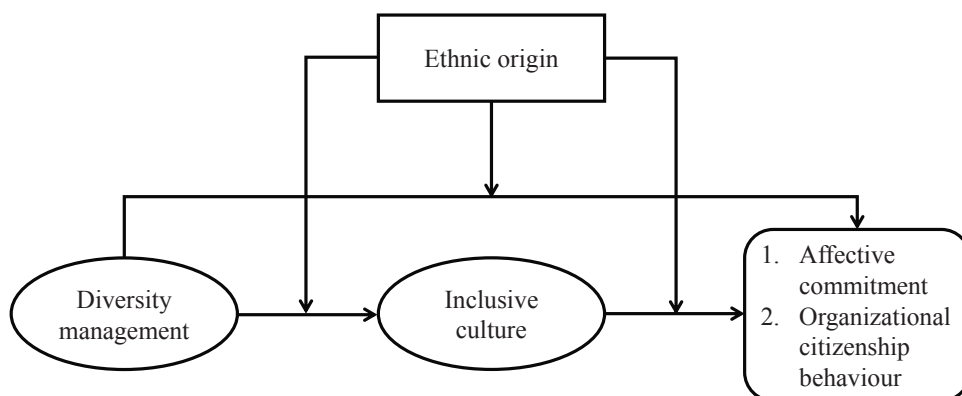


Figure 2.1: Conceptual model

2.3 Data and methods

2.3.1 Data

The data used in this research are from an online panel survey among a representative sample of Dutch public sector employees that had been commissioned by the Dutch Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations. This panel consisted of approximately 30,000 Dutch public sector employees who had been invited to join the panel. Members were recruited based on a probability sample from the administrative records of the Dutch public sector pension fund (ABP). The survey was conducted in spring

2013. At that time, 17,503 panel members were available to participate in this research, and an e-mail with an invitation to the online survey was sent to them. There were 4,351 respondents, a response rate of 24.9 per cent. After removing cases where there were missing values, the remaining sample contained 4,331 public sector employees, a response rate of 24.7 per cent.

However, since this sample contained a variety of public organizations on both central and local level, we chose to only select respondents in the central government to minimize variance for which could not be controlled in the analysis. By doing so, we secured that respondents have the same organizational background concerning the implementation of diversity management. The Dutch central government consists of the ministries, executive agencies, inspectorates and the high councils of state. The final sample contained 664 respondents, a response rate of 28.3 per cent.

Of these respondents, 33 per cent were female, whereas 43 per cent of central government employees in 2012 were female². Totally, 12 per cent of the respondents had non-native Dutch origins whereas, in 2012, 17 per cent of central government employees had non-native Dutch origins. The mean age of the respondents was 51.5 years compared to a mean public sector age of 43 years in 2012. Since female and non-native Dutch employees were underrepresented in the final sample and the mean age of the respondents was higher, age and gender were added as a control variable in the analyses. Furthermore, the analyses were run for ethnic groups separately. We have no reason to believe that the subsamples of non-native and native Dutch employees were biased.

Table 2.1 displays the representation of female and non-native Dutch employees in the Dutch workforce and the central government for the years 2012 and 2013. It shows that, although the representation of the two groups in central government organizations is slightly lower compared to the Dutch workforce, it remains constant between the two years.

Table 2.1: Representation by gender and ethnic origin

	2012			2013		
	Female (%)	Non-native Dutch (%)	Total	Female (%)	Non-Native Dutch (%)	Total
Dutch workforce	46.7	19	8,254,000	46.8	19	8,184,000
Dutch Central government	43	17	115,915	43.6	17	116,413

2 Derived from the Dutch public sector personnel data: "Arbeid en Overheid" (www.arbeidenoverheid.nl/tng/default.aspx?guid 1/48a9a1fa6-c728-4c64-b6dc-682bdfca029&andtype=pg).

2.3.2 Methods

SEM was used to analyse the data and test the conceptual model. The advantage of this statistical technique is the ability to simultaneously conduct both regression and confirmatory factor analyses. The AMOS 20 statistical package was used to test the model presented in the theoretical section. In addition, SPSS 20 was used to determine the descriptive statistics of the research variables.

2.3.3 Measurements

Diversity management. Diversity management was measured using a three-item scale derived from previous research studying the effectiveness of diversity management (Choi, 2009; Pitts, 2009). The items are listed in Table II (items DM1 – DM3). All items were measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) “Strongly disagree” to (5) “Strongly agree”. A high score indicates the perceived presence of diversity management.

Inclusive organizational culture. To measure the extent of inclusiveness we used the intercultural group climate scale of Luijters, Van der Zee and Otten (2008). We chose this measure of inclusiveness since it exclusively refers to the cultural dimension of diversity. Originally the inclusiveness scale consisted of six items (Luijters et al., 2008), but the sixth item seemed to have an overlap with the first item. Therefore, this item was removed. The inclusiveness of the organizational culture is measured by five items (see Table II: items IC1 – IC5). All the items were measured using the same Likert scale as before and, again, the higher the score, the more employees perceive the organizational culture to be inclusive.

Affective commitment. In order to measure the affective commitment of employees we used Kim’s (2005) validated three-item scale (Table II: AC1 – AC3). The same Likert scale was again used and a high score indicates that an employee feels affectively committed to the organization.

OCB. The measurement of OCB was derived from Paillé (2013) who used 13 items to measure four dimensions of OCB, namely, altruism, helping, civic virtue and sportsmanship. All items were measured using a five-point Likert scale. All items of the sportsmanship dimension were reversed.

In addition, several control variables were added: gender (1 = female), age (measured in years), and educational level. Educational level measures the highest educational level attained, distinguishing between nine levels: primary education; lower vocational education; secondary school: pre-vocational theory, up to three years secondary school; secondary school; secondary vocational education; higher professional education; university bachelor; master’s degree; and PhD (Dr).

Table 2.3 displays the descriptive statistics of the main and control variables, for the total sample and for non-native and native Dutch employees separately.

Table 2.4 shows the correlations between the main research variables and the Cronbach’s α ’s of the constructs.

Table 2.2: List of Items

Diversity management	
DM1	"Policies and programmes promote diversity in the workplace (for example, recruiting minorities and women, training in awareness of diversity issues, mentoring)"
DM2	"Supervisors/team leaders in my work unit are committed to a workforce that is representative of all segments of society"
DM3	"Managers/supervisors/team leaders work well with employees of different backgrounds"
Inclusive culture	
IC1	"In our organization we think positively about cultural differences of colleagues"
IC2	"In our organization we understand and accept different cultures"
IC3	"In our organization we recommend working with people with cultural different backgrounds"
IC4	"Differences in cultural backgrounds are discussed openly in our organization"
IC5	"In our organization we take differences in traditions and habits (like religion, celebrations) into account"
Affective commitment	
AC1	"I feel like part of the family in my organization"
AC2	"My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me"
AC3	"I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization"
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	
<i>Altruism</i>	
OCB_A1	"I give my time to help colleagues who have work-related problems"
OCB_A2	"I willing to take time out of my own busy schedule to help new colleagues"
<i>Helping</i>	
OCB_H1	"I take steps to try to prevent problems with other personnel in the company"
OCB_H2	"I act as a 'peacemaker' when others in the company have disagreements"
OCB_H3	"I am a stabilizing influence in the company when dissention occurs"
OCB_H4	"I 'touch base' with others before initiating actions that might affect them"
<i>Civic virtue</i>	
OCB_C1	"I attend functions that are not required but help the company image"
OCB_C2	"I attend information sessions that employee are encouraged but not required to attend"
OCB_C3	"I actively participates in company meetings"
<i>Sportsmanship (all scores reversed)</i>	
OCB_S1	"I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters"
OCB_S2	"I tend to make 'mountains out the molehills'"
OCB_S3	"I always focus on what is wrong with my situation rather than the positive side of it"
OCB_S4	"I always find fault with what the company is doing"

Table 2.3: Descriptive Statistics

	Total				Non-native	Native Dutch
	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Mean
1. Diversity management	1	5	3.13	.88	3.08	3.13
2. Inclusive culture	1	5	3.20	.75	3.30	3.19
3. Affective commitment	1	5	3.94	.98	3.92	3.94
4. Altruism	1	5	4.47	.59	4.51	4.47
5. Helping	1	5	3.88	.64	3.93	3.87
6. Civic virtue	1	5	3.85	.77	3.90	3.84
7. Sportsmanship	1	5	3.94	.75	3.90	3.95
4. Ethnic origin (0 = native Dutch, 1 = non-native Dutch)	.0	1	.12	.32		
5. Gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	.0	1	.33	.47	.34	.33
6. Age	24	66	51.54	8.71	51.58	51.54
7. Educational level	2	9	6.20	1.58	6.25	6.12
N			664		79	585

Table 2.4: Correlations and Cronbach's alpha

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
1. Diversity management											
2. Inclusive culture	.52**										
3. Affective commitment	.33**	($\alpha = .80$)									
4. Altruism	.13**	.29**	($\alpha = .90$)								
5. Helping	.19**	.15**	.26**	($\alpha = .80$)							
6. Civic virtue	.13**	.24**	.24**	.43**	($\alpha = .72$)						
7. Sportsmanship	.18**	.18**	.35**	.35**	.44**	($\alpha = .73$)					
8. Ethnic origin	.18**	.18**	.24**	.23**	.28**	.22**	($\alpha = .76$)				
(0 = native Dutch, 1 = non-native Dutch)	-.02	.05	-.01	.02	.03	.02	-.02				
9. Gender	-.04	-.07	-.03	-.01	-.11**	-.03	-.06	.01			
(0 = male, 1 = female)											
10. Age	.04	.08*	.02	.02	.07	-.040\	.10*	.0	-.24**		
11. Education	-.01	-.08*	.01	-.01	-.04	.07	-.01	.01	.07	-.18**	
N= 664											

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

2.4 Results

2.4.1 Affective commitment

The first SEM was built to test the relationships linking diversity management, inclusive culture and affective commitment. In the second model, the multi-group analysis is conducted. The first model, with diversity management, inclusive culture and affective commitment and the control variables age, gender and educational level had the following goodness-of-fit statistics: (CMIN) $\chi^2_{21/4289.38}$, $df=465$, $p < 0.001$, $\chi^2/df = 4.45$; The normed-fit-index (NFI) = 0.92, comparative-fit-index (CFI) = 0.93, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = 0.91 and root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.07 indicating a poor fit. The model's outputs suggest that the model would be improved by adding correlational links among the disturbance variances of items of the inclusiveness scale IC4 and IC5 and among the disturbance variances of items DM3 and IC2³. These correlations were added based on theoretical reasoning, since the correlated items cover the same issue (Byrne, 2010). The adjusted model, following these modifications, improved the fit with the data to a satisfactory level. The revised goodness-of-fit statistics were: (CMIN) $\chi^2=159.43$, $p<0.001$; $df = 63$; $\chi^2/df = 2.53$; NFI = .95, CFI = .97, TLI = .96 and RMSEA = .05. The large sample results in a large and statistically significant value for χ^2 (Hoelter, 1983), but the CFI ($> .95$) and RMSEA (< 0.06) values indicate that the model fits the data well (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Byrne, 2010). The complete adjusted model can be found in Appendix A2.1.

The results of the SEM analysis are displayed in Table 2.5. The first observation is that the estimates of the factor loadings of the measurement paths are all statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), except for the fixed parameters. Second, all the structural effects are statistically significant (see Table 2.5). The results show a notably strong positive effect of diversity management on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture ($\beta = 0.64$). The more employees experience diversity management in the organization, the more they feel employees are valued and recognized. In other words, a more inclusive culture can be achieved by implementing diversity management.

³ A CFA conducted on the diversity management and inclusive culture items showed that although some items are correlated they are distinct constructs.

Table 2.5: Results SEM Analysis Alternative Model Diversity Management, Inclusive Culture and Affective Commitment

			<i>Standardized Estimates</i>
<i>Measurement Paths</i>			
DM1	←	Diversity management	.75 ^{NA}
DM2	←	Diversity management	.87***
DM3	←	Diversity management	.56***
IC1	←	Inclusive culture	.59 ^{NA}
IC2	←	Inclusive culture	.57***
IC3	←	Inclusive culture	.78***
IC4	←	Inclusive culture	.60***
IC5	←	Inclusive culture	.67***
AC1	←	Affective commitment	.84 ^{NA}
AC2	←	Affective commitment	.86***
AC3	←	Affective commitment	.94***
<i>Structural paths</i>			
Inclusive culture	←	Diversity management	.64***
Affective commitment	←	Diversity management	.21***
Affective commitment	←	Inclusive culture	.20***
Affective commitment	←	Education level	.04
Affective commitment	←	Gender	-.01
Affective commitment	←	Age	.01
Inclusive culture	←	Education level	-.07
Inclusive culture	←	Gender	-.05
Inclusive culture	←	Age	.04
<i>Indirect effects</i>			
Affective commitment	←	Inclusive culture ← Diversity management	.13***
R ²		Inclusive culture	.43
		Affective commitment	.14

Note: $n = 664$. *** = $p < .001$; ** = $p < .01$; * = $p < .05$. NA = not applicable (fixed parameter).

$\chi^2 = 159.43$, $p < .001$; $df = 63$; $\chi^2/df = 2.53$, NFI = .95, CFI = .97, TLI = .96 and RMSEA = .05.

The results presented in Table 2.5 show that inclusiveness of the organizational culture has a positive effect on the affective commitment of employees ($\beta = 0.20$). The more employees perceive the organizational culture as inclusive, the more they feel committed to the organization. Furthermore, diversity management has a positive effect on affective commitment ($\beta = 0.21$). The more employees experience diversity management in their organization, the more they identify with the organization. In addition, a bootstrap

analysis of indirect effects showed that diversity management has a significant indirect effect on the affective commitment of employees through the perceived inclusiveness of the organizational culture ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.001$). Diversity management fosters an inclusive organizational culture, which enhances employees' affective commitment towards the organization (Figure 2.2).

A multiple groups analysis was conducted to test whether demographic characteristics of employees moderate the relationships between diversity management, inclusive culture and employees' affective commitment. The analyses compare the models for non-native Dutch employees and native Dutch employees.

The previous estimated unconstrained model was tested, whereby no assumptions about the equality of the measurement and structural paths across the groups are made. The goodness-of-fit statistics of this model are: $\chi^2 = 213.39$, $df = 126$, $p < 0.001$, $\chi^2/df = 1.69$; NFI = .94; CFI = .97, TLI = .96 and RMSEA = .03. The NFI, CFI and RMSEA goodness-of-fit statistics indicate that the model has a reasonable fit. Second, using AMOS 20 graphics several models were generated, each model placing more restrictions on the paths assuming equivalence across groups. Table 2.6 shows the goodness-of-fit statistics of these models. All models appear to fit the data reasonably well except for χ^2 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Byrne, 2010).

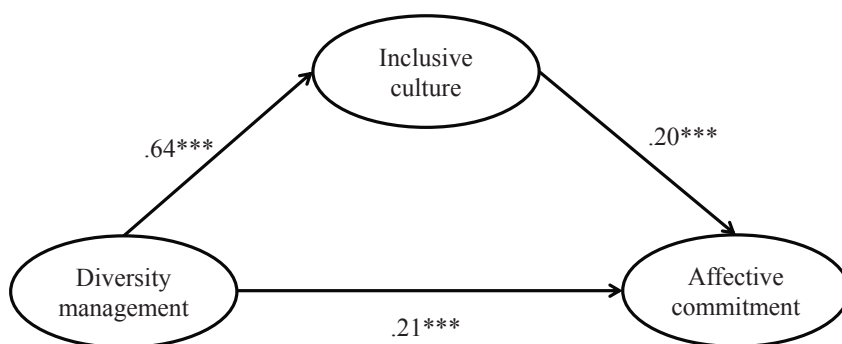


Figure 2.2: Regression Paths Diversity Management, Inclusive Culture and Affective Commitment; standardized estimates; * = $p < .001$.**

To determine the equivalence across the groups two methods can be used: the traditional method of $\Delta\chi^2$ significance and the Δ of CFI (Byrne, 2010). In Table 2.6 the model comparison of the χ^2 difference test is shown. Comparing the models results in a statistically significant difference of $\Delta\chi^2$ indicating a significant variance across the different groups. However, since the χ^2 and $\Delta\chi^2$ are sensitive to sample size, even small differences across groups can lead to a significant value of $\Delta\chi^2$ implying group

variance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Cheung & Lau, 2012). Therefore, the change of alternative fit indices NFI and CFI will be used to test for measurement invariance and the equivalence of the regression paths. In Table 2.6 these fit indices are shown for different models. The changes in the fit indices are smaller than 0.01, which may be considered an indication of equivalence across the groups (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Meade, Johnson, & Braddy, 2008).

The multi-group analyses suggest that the effect of diversity management on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture and affective commitment is equal across ethnic groups⁴. The results confirm H2.1a and H2.2a and reject H2.1b and H2.2b. They show that diversity management fosters an inclusive culture, which in turn enhances employees' affective commitment. By creating an inclusive culture all employees feel valued and appreciated, which employees reciprocate by their commitment towards the organization.

Table 2.6: Goodness of Fit Statistics and Model Comparison Native Dutch and Non-native Dutch Employees

Model	<i>CMIN</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>CMIN/DF</i>	<i>NFI</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>
Unconstrained	213.39	126	.000	1.694	.940	.974	.963	.032
Measurement weights	229.74	134	.000	1.714	.936	.972	.962	.033
Structural weights	233.09	143	.000	1.630	.935	.974	.966	.031
Structural covariances	244.84	153	.000	1.600	.932	.973	.968	.030
Structural residuals	245.14	155	.000	1.582	.932	.973	.969	.030
Measurement residuals	267.79	168	.000	1.594	.925	.971	.968	.030
Saturated model	.000	0			1.000	1.000		
Independence model	3582.46	182	.000	19.684	.000	.000	.000	.168
Model comparison								
Model	ΔDF	$\Delta CMIN$	<i>P</i>	<i>NFI</i> <i>Delta-1</i>	<i>TLI</i> <i>Rho2</i>			
Measurement weights	8	16.35	.038	.005	.001			
Structural weights	17	19.70	.290	.005	-.003			
Structural covariances	27	31.46	.253	.009	-.005			
Structural residuals	29	31.75	.331	.009	-.006			
Measurement residuals	42	54.41	.095	.015	-.005			

⁴ For checking the robustness of our results, we performed a regression analysis to estimate the mediation and moderation effects. The analysis showed no significant effects of the interaction terms of diversity management and ethnic background on inclusive culture and affective commitment, which confirms there are no differences between groups.

2.4.2 OCB

In the following SEM analysis a hypothesized model with diversity management, inclusive culture and four OCB dimensions are tested. The initial model with diversity management, inclusive culture and four OCB dimensions resulted in a poor fit with the following goodness-of-fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 481.12$, $df = 217$, $p < 0.001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.22$; NFI = 0.90, CFI = .94, TLI = .93 and RMSEA = .04. Reviewing the factor loadings showed that some items loaded poorly on their construct. Of the helping dimension the first item “I take steps to try to prevent problems with other personnel in the company” had a low-factor loading of 0.38 and was removed. The same was done for the third item of civic virtue “I actively participates in company meetings” (.44) and the fourth item of sportsmanship “I always find fault with what the company is doing” (.49). After deleting these items, the model fitted the data reasonably well, with the following goodness-of-fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 308.213$, $df = 154$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2$; NFI = .93, CFI = .96, TLI = .95 and RMSEA = .04. The complete adjusted model can be found in Appendix A2.2. The results of the SEM analysis are shown in Table 2.7.

Figure 2.3 shows the significant effect of diversity management on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture ($\beta = .64$, $p < .001$). The more employees experience diversity management is implemented in their organization, the more they feel the organizational culture to be inclusive. Diversity management does not have significant direct effects on the OCB dimensions altruism, helping, civic virtue and sportsmanship. However, diversity management has an indirect effect on altruism ($\beta = .13$, $p < .05$), helping ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$), civic virtue ($\beta = .14$, $p < .01$) through its effect on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. In other words, diversity management can enhance employees’ OCB by fostering an inclusive culture. Inclusive culture has a direct positive effect on altruism ($\beta = .20$, $p < .01$), helping ($\beta = .28$, $p < .001$) and civic virtue ($\beta = .22$, $p < .01$). When employees experience an organizational culture where differences are valued and appreciated it results in more voluntary behaviours that are beneficial for the organization.

To determine group differences, the same steps as in the previous multi-group analysis were followed. A first multi-group analysis was conducted with two groups, namely, non-native Dutch and native Dutch employees to estimate group equivalence or difference. Table 2.8 shows the goodness-of-fit statistics and the model comparison between the unconstrained and constrained models where it is assumed that the model is equivalent across groups. The model comparison shows that there is a significant variance across the different groups. Comparing the models results in a statistically significant difference of $\Delta\chi^2$. However, like before, the alternative fit indices will be used to estimate group variance (or invariance) and equivalence of the regression paths. The ΔCFI and ΔNFI are $< .01$. This result suggests that the measurement paths and structural paths are equivalent across groups⁵.

⁵ For checking the robustness of our results, we performed a regression analysis to estimate the mediation and moderation. The analysis showed no significant effects of the interaction terms of diversity management and ethnic background on inclusive culture and the OCB dimensions altruism, helping, civic virtue and sportsmanship, which confirms there are no differences between groups.

Table 2.7: Results SEM Analysis Model Diversity Management, Inclusive Culture and OCB Dimensions

			<i>Standardized Estimates</i>
<i>Measurement Paths</i>			
DM_1	←	Diversity_management	.75 ^{NA}
DM_2	←	Diversity_management	.87***
DM_3	←	Diversity_management	.54***
IC_1	←	Inclusive_culture	.59 ^{NA}
IC_2	←	Inclusive_culture	.57***
IC_3	←	Inclusive_culture	.78***
IC_4	←	Inclusive_culture	.60***
IC_5	←	Inclusive_culture	.67***
OCB_A1	←	Altruisms	.871 ^{NA}
OCB_A2	←	Altruisms	.77***
OCB_H2	←	Helpings	.72 ^{NA}
OCB_H3	←	Helpings	.80***
OCB_H4	←	Helpings	.65***
OCB_C1	←	Civic_virtue	.94 ^{NA}
OCB_C2	←	Civic_virtue	.74***
OCB_S1	←	Sportsmanships	.76 ^{NA}
OCB_S2	←	Sportsmanships	.76***
OCB_S3	←	Sportsmanships	.69***
<i>Structural paths</i>			
Inclusive_culture	←	Diversity_management	.64***
Inclusive_culture	←	Education	-.07
Inclusive_culture	←	Gender	-.05
Inclusive_culture	←	Age	.04
Altruism	←	Diversity_management	.01
Altruism	←	Inclusive_culture	.20**
Helping	←	Diversity_management	.03
Helping	←	Inclusive_culture	.28***
Civic_virtue	←	Diversity_management	-.02
Civic_virtue	←	Inclusive_culture	.22**
Sportsmanship	←	Diversity_management	.09
Sportsmanship	←	Inclusive_culture	.13

Table 2.7: Continued

			Standardized Estimates
<i>Measurement Paths</i>			
Altruism	←	Education	.004
Altruism	←	Age	-.01
Altruism	←	Gender	.01
Helping	←	Education	-.001
Helping	←	Age	.03
Helping	←	Gender	-.12**
Civic_virtue	←	Education	.10*
Civic_virtue	←	Age	-.08
Civic_virtue	←	Gender	-.06
Sportsmanship	←	Education	.07
Sportsmanship	←	Age	.07
Sportsmanship	←	Gender	-.05
<i>Indirect effects</i>			
Altruism	←	Inclusive culture ← Diversity management	.13*
Helping	←	Inclusive culture ← Diversity management	.18**
Civic virtue	←	Inclusive culture ← Diversity management	.14**
Sportsmanship	←	Inclusive culture ← Diversity management	.08
R ²		Inclusive culture	.44
		Altruism	.04
		Helping	.11
		Civic virtue	.05
		Sportsmanship	.05

Note: $n = 664$. *** = $p < .001$; ** = $p < .01$; * = $p < .05$. NA = not applicable (fixed parameter). $\chi^2 = 308.21$, $p < .001$; $df = 154$; $\chi^2/df = 2$, NFI = .93, CFI = .96, TLI = .95 and RMSEA = .04.

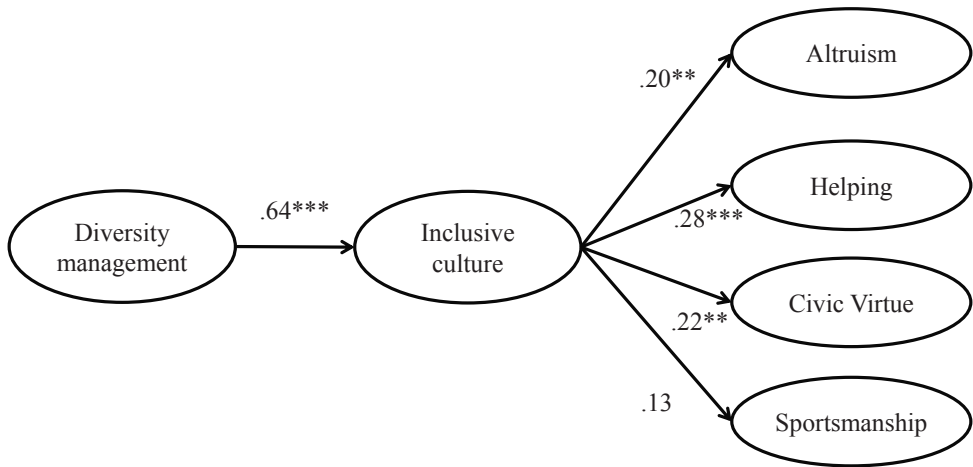


Figure 2.3: Direct Regression Paths Diversity Management, Inclusive Culture and OCB; Standardized direct estimates; * = $p < .001$; ** = $p < .01$.**

Table 2.8: Goodness of Fit Statistics and Model Comparison Non-native Dutch and Native Dutch Employees

Model	<i>CMIN</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>CMIN/DF</i>	<i>NFI</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>
Unconstrained	578.64	337	.000	1.72	.879	.945	.931	.033
Measurement weights	592.36	343	.000	1.73	.876	.943	.930	.033
Structural weights	610.61	363	.000	1.68	.872	.943	.934	.032
Structural covariances	612.45	365	.000	1.68	.872	.943	.935	.032
Structural residuals	629.78	375	.000	1.68	.868	.942	.935	.032
Measurement residuals	643.248	385	.000	1.67	.866	.941	.936	.032
Independence model	4788.80	420	.000	11.40	.000	.000	.000	.125

Model comparison					
Model	ΔDF	$\Delta CMIN$	<i>P</i>	<i>NFI</i> <i>Delta-1</i>	<i>TLI</i> <i>Rho2</i>
Measurement weights	6	13.72	.033	.003	.001
Structural weights	26	31.96	.194	.007	-.003
Structural covariances	28	33.80	.207	.007	-.004
Structural residuals	38	51.13	.076	.011	-.004
Measurement residuals	48	64.60	.055	.013	-.004

2.5 Discussion and conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to examine if and how diversity management outcomes differ across socio-demographic groups within public sector organizations. The effects of diversity management on the extent employees feel their organizational environment is inclusive and on their attitudes and behaviour, were expected to be dependent on how diversity management is perceived by majority and minority socio-demographic groups in the organization. Drawing on social exchange theory we expected that employees who positively value diversity management practices would reciprocate through showing attitudes and behaviours that are valued by the organization. Since social exchange refers to a social relationship between the employee and the organization that goes beyond the formal contract alone, we examined affective commitment and OCB as employee outcomes.

We analysed data from a quantitative survey of a sample of Dutch civil servants and used SEM to analyse the consequences of diversity management across ethnic majority and minority socio-demographic groups. Results showed that diversity management is associated with higher levels of inclusion, which in turn boosts affective commitment and OCB of both ethnic minority and native Dutch employees. Additional analyses by gender groups also resulted in equal effects of diversity management for both male and female employees. This underlines that creating an inclusive work environment is important for all employees and will result in positive attitudes and behaviour.

Since our analyses have not revealed any differences in diversity management outcomes across majority and minority groups, the conclusion seems to be justified that diversity management practices that are aimed at creating an inclusive organizational environment yields positive outcomes for all. For organizations it is therefore important to implement diversity management practices that do not focus on specific-target groups, but create an environment that is inclusive for all employees. This will positively affect employees' affective commitment and OCB, which are important employee outcomes that can contribute to achieving organizational goals.

However, limitations as to the study's research design and measurements demand that we interpret the findings prudently. While the focus of this study lies on how employees perceive organizational practices the sample consisted of employees across a large number of organizations within the Dutch central government and we were not able to link individual employees to their specific-organizational context. Since the employee perceptions of diversity management and inclusive organizational culture as measured in the survey refer to various organizational settings, it could not be assessed to what extent any between groups differences in perceptions of diversity management and inclusive culture were attributable to differences in actual organizational settings and to differences in how these settings are perceived by employees. To examine the effects of diversity management across groups, a multi-level design is needed within

which employees are examined embedded within their organization. By doing so, it can be examined whether diversity management and the inclusiveness of the culture in the organization is differently perceived by diverse groups and how this would impact attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

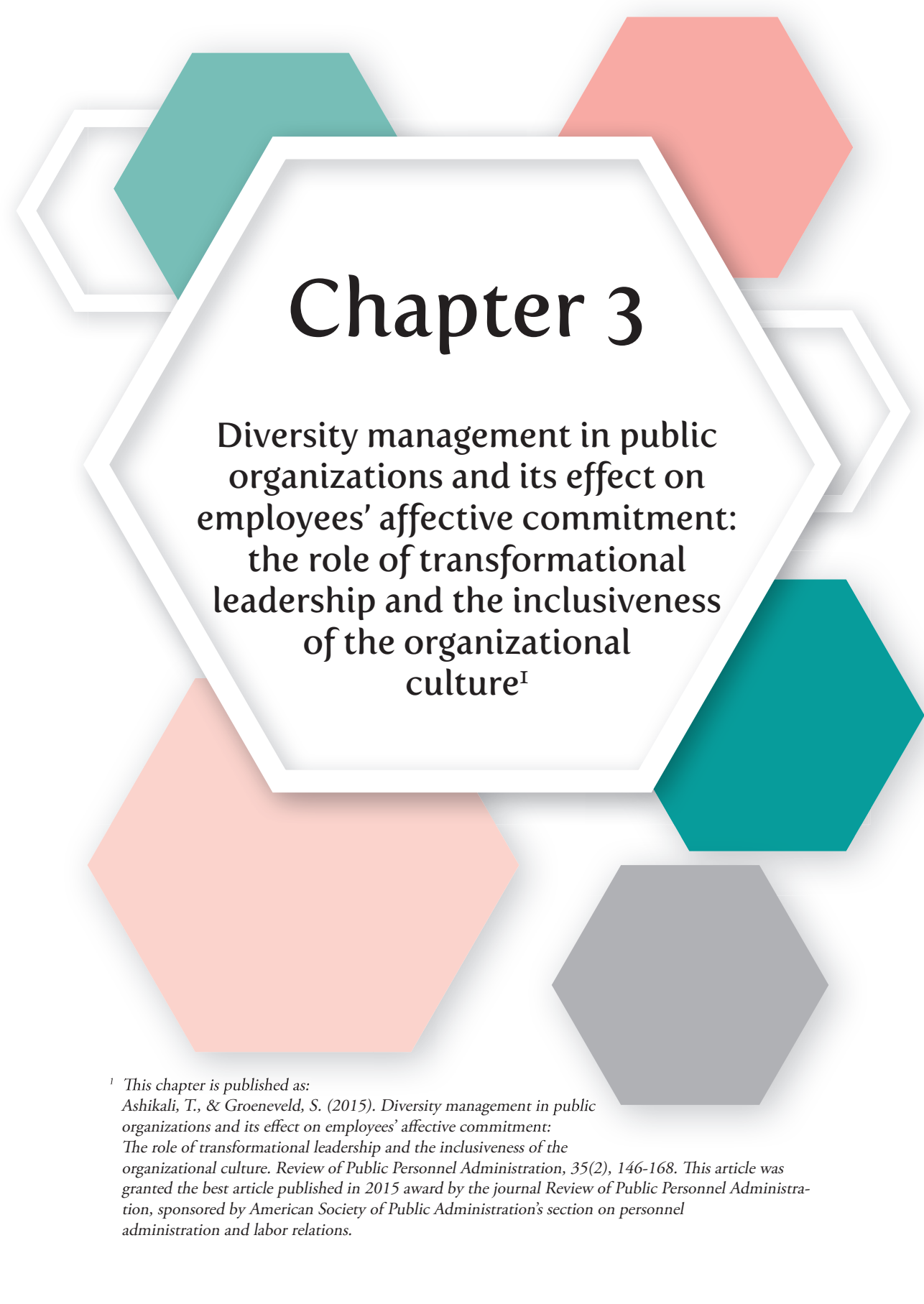
Related to this, with the available data it was not possible to measure the degree of ethnic-cultural diversity within the organizations, while it was theoretically argued that levels of similarity and diversity would affect diversity management outcomes across groups. For it is relevant to examine how diversity management as intended by the organization is actually implemented by the supervisor, ideally the research design also encompasses the level of the work unit. Such a three-level research design was unfortunately not feasible within the current research project, but certainly is an important direction for future research.

Another advantage of a multi-level design, with data collection on different levels and from different sources, is that it allows for separate measurement of independent and dependent variables. The analysis in this study runs the risk of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Meier & O'Toole, 2013) since diversity management and inclusiveness of the organizational culture were measured, together with the dependent variables affective commitment and OCB, in a single questionnaire based on employee perceptions. As such, the observed variances can partly be a result of having a common respondent and a common item context. This may particularly be problematic as to the measurement of diversity management, which combines both management practices and policies. Diversity management practices are conceptually closely related to aspects of inclusiveness. However, the confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) revealed that both could validly be considered separate constructs.

Another relevant finding from the CFA refers to the confirmation of measurement invariance across groups for all constructs in the research. Although not the central focus of this study, when studying diversity management outcomes across groups it is necessary to assure that measurements are invariant. It is not evident that items measuring sensitive concepts are similarly interpreted by employees belonging to different cultural groups. In general, we believe it should more often be examined to what extent measurements of HRM policies, practices and outcomes hold for different groups of employees, be it across countries, sectors and organizations or across cultural and socio-demographic groups within these settings.

Despite its limitations, with this study we believe we have contributed to the literature on diversity management outcomes by using social exchange theory as a theoretical lens through which we analysed how majority and minority groups would respond to diversity management. This study did not aim to test a social exchange theory of diversity management outcomes. Such a theory should specify rules and norms of exchange, resources exchanged and the relationships that emerge (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) which we have not, but certainly would propose as a promising avenue

for future studies on diversity management outcomes. Nevertheless, the social exchange perspective adopted in this study proved to be a fruitful framework for explaining diversity management outcomes within which insights from previous studies on HRM outcomes and diversity management could be integrated.



Chapter 3

Diversity management in public organizations and its effect on employees' affective commitment: the role of transformational leadership and the inclusiveness of the organizational culture^I

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3.I Introduction

Public organizations have a long history of implementing diversity policies aimed at increasing the representation of minority groups in their workforce. Through these policies, they emphasize their exemplary role and aim to improve their legitimacy (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Selden & Selden, 2001). More recently, public organizations have been implementing diversity management to attract, retain, and manage a diverse workforce to enhance their performance. This line of reasoning differs from traditional affirmative action or equal employment opportunity policies (AA/EEO), which focus solely on recruitment and selection processes. Diversity management covers the policies and interventions that organizations develop and implement to bring about the so-called “added value of diversity” in terms of increased legitimacy, creativity, and innovation, and positive employee attitudes and behaviours, which in turn will boost organizational performance (Celik et al., 2011; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Groeneveld, 2011; Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Pitts, 2009). Diversity management is about changing organizational practices and climates to manage a diverse workforce effectively (Thomas, 1990) and, as such, is an aspect of strategic human resource management (SHRM).

However, empirical research on the effectiveness of diversity management is limited and the findings are mixed. Insight into how management can improve diversity outcomes is needed (Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Pitts & Wise, 2010). One explanation offered for the earlier inconclusive findings is that research has primarily examined direct effects, whereas the effectiveness of diversity management is probably influenced by several mediating and moderating variables (Celik et al., 2011; Choi & Rainey, 2014).

We build on the recent literature on human resource management (HRM) and performance that suggests that several variables mediate between HRM and performance, and assume a similar reasoning can be applied to diversity management outcomes. In this article, we focus on affective commitment as an outcome because this is considered an important predictor of productive employee attitudes and behaviour and of performance (Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005; Kim, 2005; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; Meyer et al., 2002; Steijn & Leisink, 2006). Furthermore, affective commitment can be considered as an important aim in itself of diversity management given the increasing importance attached to the retention of diverse groups of employees.

In this article, a theoretical model is elaborated that builds on the assumptions that it is employees’ attitudes and behaviours that mediate the relationship between HRM and performance (Guest, 1997; Wright & Nishii, 2007) and that it is employees’ perceptions of how and why HRM is implemented in the organization that determine their attitudes and behaviours that influence HRM outcomes (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008; Wright & Nishii, 2007). Therefore, the role of the

supervisor, and more specifically the supervisor's leadership style, becomes important in successfully implementing HRM practices (e.g., Gilbert, De Winne, & Sels, 2011; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2013).

Furthermore, we assume there is a natural "fit" between diversity management and a transformational style of leadership. As will be explained further in the theoretical section, diversity management is essentially targeted at fostering the positive cognitive effects of diversity and mitigating its negative affective effects (Milliken & Martins, 1996; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; De Vries & Homan, 2008). It is hypothesized that these outcomes are supported by a transformational leadership style that balances attending to individual growth with inspiring the collective endeavours of the group. It is argued that both diversity management and a transformational leadership style will contribute to an inclusive organizational culture in which both similarities and differences are recognized and valued.

The purpose of this article is to explore how diversity management in public organizations is linked to employees' affective commitment by examining the mediating role of the manager's leadership style and the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. We build a theoretical model that is based on two literature streams that to date have largely been kept apart: HRM literature to distinguish different levels and phases in diversity management and its outcomes, and the diversity management literature to substantiate them. The generated hypotheses are tested by analysing data from a survey among Dutch public sector employees.

The outline of the article is as follows. In the next section, the theoretical framework of the research is built, explaining how diversity management could affect employees' affective commitment and how this is influenced by a transformational leadership style and the perceived inclusiveness of the organizational culture. The third section describes the data and methods used, and the results are then presented in the fourth section. The fifth section discusses the findings and draws conclusions.

3.2 Theoretical Framework

3.2.1 Diversity Management

Research on the outcomes of work-group diversity, predominantly conducted by social psychologists and business management scholars, has yielded contradictory findings (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2004; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004). Diversity has been found to have both positive and negative work-related or employee outcomes: positive, for example, by enhancing decision-making quality and the opportunity for creativity through providing a greater range of perspectives, and negative through a decreased group identification resulting in lower employee commitment, retention, and satisfaction. Milliken and Martins (1996) showed that work-group diversity affects individual,

group, and organizational outcomes through various mediating processes. In their meta-analysis, they found evidence for four types of short-term consequences (affective, symbolic, cognitive, and communicative) of work-group diversity. These mediating variables can have divergent effects on diversity outcomes (Milliken & Martins, 1996).

Van Knippenberg et al. (2004) draw on this well-known work of Milliken and Martins, but importantly, add a theoretical explanation for these divergent processes. Their Categorization-Elaboration-Model (CEM) integrates an “elaboration and decision-making” perspective and a “social categorization” perspective on diversity. Essentially, their model shows that the positive effects of information processing by diverse groups are disrupted by the negative effects of intergroup biases that may result from social categorization processes in such groups.

The model is more refined than we can show here, with both the above processes being contingent upon several mediating and moderating factors. For our argument, the important aspect is that the model provides theoretical and empirical bases for managing diversity. In practice, diversity management should aim to foster the positive cognitive effects of diversity and to mitigate the negative affective effects that arise from intergroup biases. If this is achieved, diversity will lead to positive work-related and/or employee outcomes. Diversity management should therefore include policies, programs and management activities that address the diversity in the organizational workforce to bring about its potentially positive effects. It should aim to change organizational practices and climates to manage a diverse workforce effectively (Thomas, 1990). As such, diversity management is different to equal employment (EO) or affirmative action (AA) policies and programs. These are targeted at increasing the representation of minority groups in the organization, often by setting quantitative targets for the influx of minorities at different levels of an organization, but do not address the management of cultural differences in the daily practices of multicultural groups.

However, in organizational practice, EO/AA policies are frequently complemented by policies that address the management of this diversity (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012). Pitts (2009) argues that this interrelatedness of various kinds of policies is a result of the different functions that management engages in when managing diversity. We follow Pitts’ line of argument in our conceptualization of diversity management and distinguish three components.

First, diversity management involves attracting and selecting talented employees from minority groups who would not have been found through the everyday recruitment and selection practices (Ng & Burke, 2005). Second, diversity management involves valuing the cultural differences of employees. Management should bridge cultural gaps (reduce intergroup biases) and expose the potential added value of having different backgrounds and viewpoints (foster elaboration; Benschop, 2001; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Pless & Maak, 2004). Third, policy and program instruments are needed for managing diversity in daily practice (Benschop, 2001; Pless & Maak, 2004).

3.2.2 Diversity Management and Outcomes

Based on our conceptualization of diversity management, the hypothesis can be derived that diversity management will positively affect employees' attitudes, behaviour, and performance. Following the general HRM and performance line of reasoning, one could expect investments in human resources to pay off and result in higher employee performance. Furthermore, Gould-Williams and Davies (2005) indicate that the mechanism of social exchange also contributes to a positive relationship between HR practices and performance. Employees who positively value HR management practices will reciprocate through showing attitudes and behaviours that are valued by the organization (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Nishii et al., 2008; Wright & Nishii, 2007).

Previous studies on diversity management have used a range of indicators for its effectiveness. Some studies focus on the representation of ethnic minorities in organizations, either in general or on certain levels. For example, in a large-scale quantitative study on diversity policies in Dutch organizations, Groeneveld and Verbeek (2012) found that policies designed to improve the management of diversity boosted the representation of ethnic minorities in organizations, whereas EO/AA policies did not.

Other studies, most of which are U.S.-based, focus on employee or work-related outcomes such as job satisfaction (e.g., Pitts, 2009), commitment and turnover intention (e.g., Celik et al., 2011) and perceived performance (Choi & Rainey, 2010; Pitts, 2009) reflecting research on the link between general HR policies and performance (Benschop, 2001). Here, research has found evidence that diversity management positively affects work-related outcomes and perceived performance in U.S. public sector organizations (Choi & Rainey, 2010; Pitts, 2009). Furthermore, evidence has been found for a positive relationship between diversity policies and several work-related outcomes in the Dutch public sector (De Ruijter & Groeneveld, 2011), for a positive relationship between diversity training programs and affective commitment (Celik et al., 2011) and for a negative relationship between diversity management and turnover intentions of public sector employees (Groeneveld, 2011).

The focus of this chapter is on employees' affective commitment. Affective commitment refers to an emotional bond that an employee feels with the organization. Employees who identify themselves with the organization are more involved and more willing to work toward organizational goals (Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005; Kim, 2004; Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer et al., 2004). Affective commitment is seen as an outcome of diversity management because diversity management focuses on successfully attracting, selecting, and retaining diverse employees, on effectively managing them and on recognizing and valuing their differences. This should enhance employees' sense of belonging in and identifying with the organization. An assumption is that commitment is not only a predictor of employee performance but also reduces employees' turnover intentions and hence ultimately boosts the representation of diverse groups. Meyer et al. (2002) also found correlations between affective commitment and both organization

outcomes (such as performance and organizational citizenship behaviour) and employee outcomes (such as stress).

In this chapter, we combine the HRM and performance line of reasoning with the literature on diversity outcomes (Benschop, 2001). Diversity management will be effective in improving employee and organizational outcomes provided it positively affects the mediating processes of diversity. Put another way, diversity management should reduce the negative effects of social categorization within diverse work groups and create an environment in which being different is possible or even fostered (Hofhuis, Van der Zee, & Otten, 2012). These mediating processes are group-level processes in which a culture is created that should enable group members to maintain their “otherness” while simultaneously identifying with their organization or work group (Pless & Maak, 2004; Shore et al., 2011). Such an inclusive organizational culture can be characterized by its openness toward, and appreciation of, diversity (Hofhuis et al., 2012).

If diversity management successfully improves the inclusiveness of the organizational culture, this should be visible in employees identifying with the organization. Review studies show that several organizational or work characteristics can influence employees’ commitment, for instance, the role of the supervisor, HRM practices or policies, procedural justice and perceived organizational support, and organizational culture (Meyer et al., 2002; Wright & Kehoe, 2009). Meyer et al. (2002) found that perceived organizational support was highly correlated with affective commitment indicating an important mechanism through which affective commitment could be influenced. By providing a supportive work environment in which employees are treated fairly, organizations demonstrate their commitment to their employees, and this indirectly enhances their affective commitment. Furthermore, HR practices or policies that enforce a supportive organizational culture with shared norms, values, and expectations also correlate positively with employees’ affective commitment (Wright & Kehoe, 2009). Based on the above findings and arguments, we formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3.1: Diversity management will positively affect employees’ affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3.2: Diversity management will positively affect the inclusiveness of the organizational culture.

Hypothesis 3.3: Diversity management will have an indirect positive effect on employees’ affective commitment through its influence on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture.

3.2.3 The Mediating Role of Transformational Leadership

In recent years, SHRM scholars have been analysing the mediating processes between HRM and performance on various levels. Wright and Nishii (2007), for example, make a distinction between intended, actual and perceived HRM policies, a distinction that is adopted by many scholars to explain how HRM, employee and work-related outcomes, and performance are linked. Applying this distinction to diversity management assumes that diversity policy practices, as actually implemented by managers, can be different from those intended when formulated at the organizational level. Perceived practices result from the individual employees' interpretations of the actual policy. It is these perceptions that may affect employees' attitudes and behaviour and, in turn, affect organizational performance (e.g., Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Gilbert et al., 2011; Guest, 1997; Nishii et al., 2008).

Managers fulfil a crucial role in implementing HRM and subsequently in how HRM is perceived by employees (Gilbert et al., 2011; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Their leadership style will influence the extent to which, and how, they use specific HRM instruments. In other words, their leadership style affects the causal chain between HRM, employee and work-related outcomes, and performance. Recent studies on diversity management also suggest the importance of leadership style in influencing the relationship linking diversity, diversity management, and positive outcomes (Celik et al., 2011; Choi & Rainey, 2010; Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Nishii & Mayer, 2009).

Today, transformational leadership is by far the most popular leadership style studied. Transformational leadership is distinguished from transactional leadership by a relationship between leader and follower(s) that is based on more than social exchange. Transformational leadership is a charismatic inspirational style targeted at aligning the goals of the team and of its members, and with an ability to change the organizational culture (Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Moynihan, Pandey, & Wright, 2012; Van Wart, 2013). It is transformational in the sense that it engages in changing the goals, values, and sense of belonging of followers in such a way that they are willing to perform beyond expectations (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass et al., 2003; Moynihan et al., 2012; Van Wart, 2013).

As conceptualized by Avolio et al. (1999) and by Bass et al. (2003), transformational leadership has four components, or dimensions, through which employee behaviour is shaped: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Idealized influence refers to a leader who is trusted and respected by employees. Such a leader functions as a role model and builds employees' confidence and pride in the organization (Moynihan et al., 2012). Second, inspirational motivation refers to the leader creating a sense of collective vision, mission, and purpose among employees by providing meaning and challenge to their work (Bass et al., 2003; Moynihan et al., 2012). Third, leaders intellectually stimulate employee's efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning known approaches to resolving

problems and perspectives on established work practices (Bass et al., 2003; Moynihan et al., 2012). Finally, individualized consideration refers to where individual needs for achievement and growth are recognized by the leader who then acts as a coach. The leader creates new learning opportunities and creates a supportive climate that fosters employee's growth (Bass et al., 2003).

Previous studies have found positive effects of transformational leadership on work-related outcomes and performance (Bass et al., 2003; Burke et al., 2006) although these effects are contingent on certain aspects such as the characteristics of followers, job characteristics, and work-group characteristics. Furthermore, previous studies also show transformational leadership as having an indirect effect on work-related outcomes and performance through its influence on organizational culture (Moynihan et al., 2012; Sarros et al., 2008).

We argue that the transformational style of leadership fits very well with managing diversity. Indeed, diversity scholars have theorized about the role of transformational leadership in managing diverse work groups. They expect a dual effect in that this style should foster the positive effects and reduce the negative effects of diversity on workgroup outcomes (De Vries & Homan, 2008; Kearney & Gebert, 2009). First, transformational leadership will foster the elaboration of task-relevant information by providing intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. Both these components positively affect task motivation, and this, according to the CEM model, enhances elaboration (De Vries & Homan, 2008; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004). Second, by fostering collective team identification, transformational leadership also overcomes the negative effects of categorization (Kearney & Gebert, 2009).

Since both diversity management and transformational leadership engage in changing the mediating processes between diversity and outcomes, we would expect diversity management to be supported and more successfully implemented by a transformational leader. Furthermore, transformational leaders are expected to foster an inclusive culture in which diverse employees feel respected and valued, so enhancing their affective commitment to the organization. We therefore formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3.4: Transformational leadership will partially mediate the relationship between diversity management and the inclusiveness of the organizational culture.

Hypothesis 3.5: An inclusive culture will partially mediate the effect of transformational leadership on employees' affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3.6: Transformational leadership and an inclusive culture will partially mediate the link between diversity management and affective commitment.

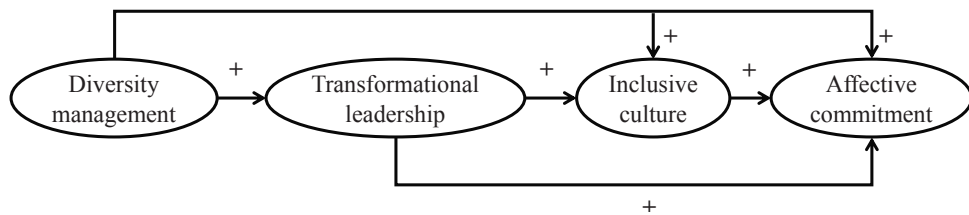


Figure 3.1: Conceptual model depicts the proposed relationships between diversity management, transformational leadership, inclusive organizational culture, and affective commitment.

3.3 Data and methods

3.3.1 Data Sample and Source

The data used in this research are from an online panel survey among a representative sample of Dutch public sector employees that had been commissioned by the Dutch Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations. This panel consisted of approximately 30,000 Dutch public sector employees who had been invited to join the panel. Members were recruited based on a probability sample from the administrative records of the Dutch public sector pension fund (ABP). The survey was conducted in spring 2011. At that time, 27,167 panel members were available to participate in this research, and an email with an invitation to the online survey was sent to them. There were 11,557 respondents, a response rate of 42.5%. After removing cases where there were missing values, the remaining sample contains 10,976 public sector employees, a response rate of 40.4%.

Of these respondents, 41.1% were female, whereas 52% of public sector workers in 2011 were female. The mean age of the respondents was 49.6 years compared with a mean public sector age of 44 years in 2011. Eight percent of the respondents had non-native Dutch origins whereas, in 2011, 15% of public sector employees had non-native Dutch origins. In terms of sector, 39% of the respondents worked for the governmental sectors (primarily central government, the provinces, local government, and water boards), 50% in the Education and Science sector and 11% in Police and Defence. The percentages of public sector employees working in these different sectors in 2011 were 33%, 54%, and 13%, respectively. Although the selection of panel members was representative for Dutch public sector employees, female and non-native Dutch employees were underrepresented in the final sample and the mean age of the respondents was higher. Therefore, we added gender, age and ethnic origin as control variables in the structural equation models.

3.3.2 Method

Structural equation modelling was used to analyse the data and test the conceptual model. The advantage of this statistical technique is the ability to simultaneously conduct both regression and confirmatory factor analyses. The AMOS 20 statistical package was used to test the model presented in the theoretical section. In addition, SPSS 20 was used to determine the descriptive statistics of the research variables.

3.3.3 Measurements

Diversity management. Diversity management was measured using a three-item scale developed by Pitts (2009). The items are listed in Table 3.1 (Items DM1-DM3). All items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree*. A high score indicates the presence of diversity management.

Transformational leadership. In measuring transformational leadership, we followed the conceptualization of Bass et al. (2003) of there being four dimensions to transformational leadership. The survey questionnaire contained 12 items (3 items per dimension) to measure transformational leadership: idealized influence (TL1-TL3); inspirational motivation (TL4-TL6); intellectual stimulation (TL7-TL9); and individualized consideration (TL10-TL12). All the items were again measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree*. The higher the score, the more employees perceive a transformational leadership style.

Inclusive organizational culture. The inclusiveness of the organizational culture is measured by six items (see Table 3.1: Items IC1-IC6). These items had previously been used by the Dutch Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations in a research on inclusiveness among Dutch civil servants. All the items were measured using the same Likert-type scale as before and, again, the higher the score, the more employees perceive the organizational culture to be inclusive.

Affective commitment. To measure the affective commitment of employees, we used Kim's (2005) validated three-item scale (Table 3.1: AC1-AC3). The same Likert-type scale was again used and a high score indicates that an employee feels committed to the organization.

Since the wording of the items under the different concepts is sometimes rather close and the "inclusiveness of culture" scale had not been previously validated, we first conducted a Harman's one-factor test. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on diversity management, inclusive culture, transformational leadership, and affective commitment items resulted in the expected four-factor solution but with a modestly dominant first factor. On this basis, we concluded that it is acceptable to proceed with the SEM analysis. Table 3.2 displays the descriptive statistics of the central concepts and the Cronbach's alphas of the measurement scales. Diversity management, transformational leadership, inclusiveness of the organizational culture, and affective commitment are all positively correlated.

Table 3.1: List of items

<i>Diversity management</i>	
DM1	“Supervisors/team leaders in my work unit are committed to a workforce that is representative of all segments of society”
DM2	“Managers/supervisors/team leaders work well with employees of different backgrounds”
DM3	“Policies and programmes promote diversity in the workplace (for example, recruiting minorities and women, training in awareness of diversity issues, mentoring)”
<i>Inclusive culture</i>	
IC1	“Where I work I am treated with respect”
IC2	“I can openly discuss my opinion without fear of negative consequences”
IC3	“My organization has a work environment where different ideas and perspectives are valued”
IC4	“My organization is free of discrimination”
IC5	“My organization is free of intimidation”
IC6	“The decisions made by managers about employees are fair”
<i>Transformational leadership</i>	
<i>Idealized influence</i>	
TL1	“My leader considers my needs over his or her own needs”
TL2	“I trust my leader”
TL3	“My leader is consistent in conduct with underlying ethics, principles and values”
<i>Inspirational motivation</i>	
TL4	“My leader emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission”
TL5	“My leader behaves in ways that arouses individual and team spirit”
TL6	“My leader behaves in ways that motivate, by providing meaning and challenge to employees’ work”
<i>Intellectual stimulation</i>	
TL7	“My leader stimulates to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems and approaching old situations in new ways”
TL8	“My leader seeks different points of view when solving problems”
TL9	“My leader suggests new ways of working and different perspectives”
<i>Individualised consideration</i>	
TL10	“My leader recognizes individual differences in terms of needs and desires”
TL11	“My leader helps employees to develop their strengths”
TL12	“My leader pays attention to each individual’s need for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor”
<i>Affective commitment</i>	
AC1	“I feel like part of the family in my organization”
AC2	“My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me”
AC3	“I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization”

It should be noted that all the concepts are measured on the employee level. Thus, the degree of diversity management, the extent of transformational leadership and the inclusiveness of the organizational culture all refer to the perceptions of employees. As we will discuss later, the analysis would have benefitted from multilevel and multisource data.

Table 3.2: Descriptive statistics and correlations

	Min.	Max.	Mean	S.D.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Diversity Management	1	5	3.04	.80	($\alpha = .663$)					
2. Inclusive culture	1	5	3.59	.91	.454**	($\alpha = .892$)				
3. Transformational leadership	1	5	3.42	.95	.486**	.626**	($\alpha = .954$)			
4. Affective commitment	1	5	3.99	.97	.333**	.484**	.471**	($\alpha = .902$)		
5. Age	20	70	49.7	9.5	.020*	-.026**	-.036**	.029**		
6. Gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	0	1	.41	.49	-.036**	.004	.001	.003	-.193**	
7. Ethnic origin (0 = Dutch, 1 = Ethnic minority)	0	1	.08	.27	.004	-.032**	-.017	-.020*	-.012	.025**

Note $n = 10,976$ * Correlations are significant at the .01 level (2-tailed) ** Correlations are significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Measurement reliability: Cronbach's alphas are shown on the diagonal.

3.4 Results

To test the mediating role of inclusive culture, as distinct from transformational leadership, we tested two models. The first structural equation model was built to test the relationships linking diversity management, inclusive culture and affective commitment. In the second model, transformational leadership was added. The first model, with diversity management, inclusive culture and affective commitment, had the following goodness of fit statistics: chi-square (CMIN) $\chi^2 = 7,845.82$, $df = 84$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 93.403$, comparative fit index (CFI) = .896, and root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) = .092. The model's outputs suggest that the model would be improved by adding correlational links among the disturbance variances of items IC4 and IC5 (inclusive culture) and items DM1 and DM3 (diversity management). This is because the correlations indicate that items IC4 and IC5, and DM1 and DM3 have a common unexplained variance. These correlations may be due to inadequately worded survey questions, or respondents' inability to answer questions, or provide the correct answer to questions (Byrne, 2010). The adjusted model, following this modification, improved the fit of the data to a satisfactory level. The revised goodness of fit statistics

were as follows: (CMIN) $\chi^2 = 3,281.01$, $p < .001$; $df = 82$; $\chi^2/df = 40.01$, CFI = .957, and RMSEA = .060. The large sample size results in a large and statistically significant value for χ^2 , but the CFI ($> .95$) and RMSEA ($< .06$) values indicate that the model fits the data well (Byrne, 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The results of the SEM analysis are displayed in Table 3.3. The first observation is that the estimates of the factor loadings of the measurement paths are all statistically significant ($p < .001$), except for the fixed parameters. Nevertheless, some estimates of the factor loadings are lower than expected, which indicates that the measurement model is not optimal, probably, as already mentioned, due to the closeness of some items belonging to different concepts.

Second, all the structural effects are statistically significant (see Table 3.3). Diversity management has a positive effect on the affective commitment of Dutch public sector employees ($\beta = .165$). The more that employees perceive diversity management being implemented in the organization, the more the employees will feel committed to their organization. Hypothesis 3.1 is therefore accepted. Diversity management, as perceived by employees, thus increases their identification with and sense of belonging to the public sector organization.

The results also show a notably strong positive effect of diversity management on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture ($\beta = .704$). The more employees experience diversity management in the organization, the more they feel valued and recognized. In other words, a more inclusive culture can be achieved by implementing diversity management. Hence, we can accept Hypothesis 3.2.

The inclusiveness of the organizational culture in turn positively affects the affective commitment of public sector employees ($\beta = .410$). That is, when employees experience an inclusive culture, they are more committed to their organization. Furthermore, the inclusiveness of the organizational culture partially mediates the effect of diversity management on employees' affective commitment ($\beta = .289$, $p < .001$). Here, diversity management fosters the inclusiveness of the organizational culture, which in turn enhances employees' affective commitment. Hypothesis 3 is therefore accepted. Combining the direct effects and the indirect effect in this model, diversity management has a total effect of $\beta = .453$ ($p < .001$) on affective commitment.

The second model, in which transformational leadership was added, had the following goodness of fit statistics: (CMIN) $\chi^2 = 14,173.38$, $df = 313$, $p < .000$, $\chi^2/df = 45.28$, CFI = .929, and RMSEA = .064. As with the first model, these findings suggest that an improvement in the model is possible. This time by adding correlations among the

Table 3.3: Results SEM analysis alternative model diversity management, inclusive culture and affective commitment

			<i>Standardized Estimates</i>
<i>Measurement Paths</i>			
DM_1	←	Diversity management	.468 ^{NA}
DM_2	←	Diversity management	.777*
DM_3	←	Diversity management	.394*
IC_1	←	Inclusive culture	.797 ^{NA}
IC_2	←	Inclusive culture	.841*
IC_3	←	Inclusive culture	.837*
IC_4	←	Inclusive culture	.530*
IC_5	←	Inclusive culture	.705*
IC_6	←	Inclusive culture	.7864*
AC_1	←	Affective commitment	.797 ^{NA}
AC_2	←	Affective commitment	.885*
AC_3	←	Affective commitment	.935*
<i>Structural paths</i>			
Inclusive culture	←	Diversity management	.704*
Affective commitment	←	Inclusive culture	.410*
Affective commitment	←	Diversity management	.165*
Affective commitment	←	Gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	.011
Affective commitment	←	Ethnic origin (0 = Dutch, 1 = ethnic minority)	-.005
Affective commitment	←	Age	.053*
<i>Indirect effects</i>			
Affective commitment	←	Inclusive culture ← Diversity management	.289*
R ²		Inclusive culture	.496
		Affective commitment	.292

Note: $n = 10,976$. * $p < 0.001$. NA = not applicable (fixed parameter).

$\chi^2 = 3281.01$, $p < .001$; $df = 82$; $\chi^2/df = 40.01$; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .06.

disturbance variances of items of the transformational leadership scale: namely, TL2 and TL3 of the *idealized influence* dimension, TL7 and TL8 of the *intellectual stimulation* dimension, and TL11 and TL12 of the *individualized consideration* dimension. These correlations indicate that TL2 and TL3, TL7 and TL8, and TL11 and TL12 have unexplained variance in common. These correlations were added based on theoretical reasoning, since the correlated items belong to the same transformational leadership dimension. Having made the adjustments, the revised model fitted the data satisfactorily with the goodness of fit statistics now: (CMIN) $\chi^2 = 9,511.06$, $p < .001$; $df = 310$; $\chi^2/df = 30.68$, CFI = .953, and RMSEA = .052.

The results of the second SEM analysis are displayed in Table 4. As with the previous model, the estimates of the factor loadings of the measurement paths are all

statistically significant ($p < .001$) except for the fixed parameters. Figure 3.2 provides an overview of the standardized direct estimates of the structural path analysis of diversity management, transformational leadership, inclusive culture and affective commitment. The complete SEM model is presented in the Appendix A3 with the added correlations among the disturbance variances.

The results presented in Table 3.4 show that transformational leadership has a positive effect on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture ($\beta = .395$). That is, the more a supervisor displays a transformational style of leadership, the more employees will experience an inclusive organizational culture. Moreover, diversity management has a strong positive effect on the perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor ($\beta = .698$). In other words, the more the employees perceive their organization to be implementing diversity management, the more they perceive their supervisor to be applying a transformational style of leadership. In addition, diversity management has an indirect effect on the perceived inclusiveness of the organizational culture through transformational leadership ($\beta = .129, p < .001$). These findings support Hypothesis 3.4.

Transformational leadership also has a positive direct effect on employees' affective commitment ($\beta = .183$). The more that supervisors display a transformational leadership style, the more employees feel a sense of belonging to and identification with the organization. Hypothesis 3.5 suggests that the inclusiveness of the organizational culture partially mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' affective commitment. The results indeed show that transformational leadership has an indirect effect, through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture, on employees' affective commitment ($\beta = .129, p < .001$) and, therefore, Hypothesis 3.5 is accepted: A transformational leadership style enhances employees' affective commitment by fostering an inclusive organizational culture.

Hypothesis 3.6 suggests that the link between diversity management and affective commitment is partially mediated by a transformational leadership style and by the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. The indirect effect of diversity management, through transformational leadership and organizational culture, on affective commitment ($\beta = .361, p < .001$) indicates that the relationship between diversity management and commitment is indeed partially mediated by transformational leadership and the inclusiveness of the organizational culture, and thus Hypothesis 3.6 is supported.

Overall, the results show that the effect on employees' affective commitment of perceived diversity management can be explained by its impact on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. Furthermore, we have shown that this impact comes about through the transformational leadership of supervisors who can be considered to be the implementers of diversity management and the agents for creating inclusiveness.

Table 3.4: Results SEM analysis alternative model diversity management, transformational leadership, inclusive culture and affective commitment

			<i>Standardized Estimates</i>
<i>Measurement Paths</i>			
DM_1	←	Diversity management	.484 ^{NA}
DM_2	←	Diversity management	.757*
DM_3	←	Diversity management	.395*
TL_1	←	Transformational leadership	.662 ^{NA}
TL_2	←	Transformational leadership	.859*
TL_3	←	Transformational leadership	.818*
TL_4	←	Transformational leadership	.703*
TL_5	←	Transformational leadership	.870*
TL_6	←	Transformational leadership	.820*
TL_7	←	Transformational leadership	.791*
TL_8	←	Transformational leadership	.815*
TL_9	←	Transformational leadership	.714*
TL_10	←	Transformational leadership	.824*
TL_11	←	Transformational leadership	.806*
TL_12	←	Transformational leadership	.822*
IC_1	←	Inclusive culture	.800 ^{NA}
IC_2	←	Inclusive culture	.838*
IC_3	←	Inclusive culture	.832*
IC_4	←	Inclusive culture	.525*
IC_5	←	Inclusive culture	.703*
IC_6	←	Inclusive culture	.794*
AC_1	←	Affective commitment	.799 ^{NA}
AC_2	←	Affective commitment	.885*
AC_3	←	Affective commitment	.932*
<i>Structural paths</i>			
Transformational leadership	←	Diversity management	.698*
Inclusive culture	←	Transformational leadership	.395*
Inclusive culture	←	Diversity management	.440*
Affective commitment	←	Transformational leadership	.183*
Affective commitment	←	Inclusive culture	.326*
Affective commitment	←	Diversity management	.101*
Affective commitment	←	Gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	.011
Affective commitment	←	Ethnic origin (0 = Dutch, 1 = ethnic minority)	-.005
Affective commitment	←	Age	.057*
<i>Indirect effects</i>			
Inclusive culture	←	Transformational leadership ← Diversity management	.276*
Affective commitment	←	Inclusive culture ← Transformational leadership	.129*
Affective commitment	←	Inclusive culture ← Transformational leadership ← Diversity Management	.367*
R ²		Inclusive culture	.592
		Affective commitment	.309
		Transformational leadership	.487

Note: $n = 10,976$. * $p < 0.001$. NA = not applicable (fixed parameter).

$\chi^2 = 9511.06$, $p < .001$; $df = 310$; $\chi^2/df = 30.68$; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .05.

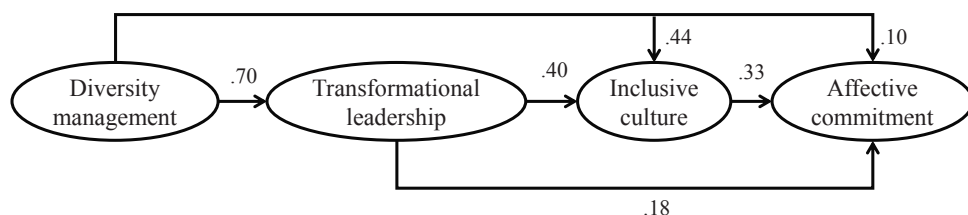


Figure 3.2: Path model (standardized direct estimates)

3.5 Discussion and conclusion

Our research has addressed the link between diversity management in Dutch public sector organizations and their employees' affective commitment by examining the mediating role of the managers' leadership style and the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. First, we hypothesized that diversity management would positively and partially influence the affective commitment of employees through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. The results indeed indicated a positive effect of diversity management on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture and on employees' affective commitment. Moreover, organizational culture partially mediates the effect of diversity management on affective commitment. This finding supports the idea that diversity management initiatives that are successful in affecting the openness and appreciation of diversity in the organization will improve employees' affective commitment.

It was further hypothesized that managers demonstrating a transformational leadership style would support diversity management initiatives and would improve their anticipated outcomes. The results showed that transformational leadership is indeed an important mediator between diversity management and its outcomes. Transformational leadership contributes to the inclusiveness of the organizational culture, and this in turn enhances employees' affective commitment. Managing diversity in the public sector could thus benefit from supervisors adopting a transformational style of leadership. This is in line with previous SHRM research that emphasizes the role of the supervisor in the HRM-performance link (Gilbert et al., 2011; Paauwe et al., 2012; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2012) and the influence of transformational leadership on organizational culture (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Moynihan et al., 2012; Sarros et al., 2008).

The results of this study show that the effectiveness of diversity management is partially explained by the transformational leadership of supervisors and by the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. It is therefore important that public sector managers recognize their leadership style and how this shapes the organizational culture. Such an awareness can help public organizations effectively manage a diverse workforce.

Our study has several limitations, both conceptually and methodologically, which have implications for future research. Our conceptualization of diversity management, following Pitts (2009), combines both management practices and policies. A close look at the concepts linked to diversity management and to transformational leadership reveals that the conceptualization of diversity management used is close to some of the dimensions attached to transformational leadership. Since diversity management and transformational leadership are both assumed to affect the mediating processes between diversity and employee outcomes, and probably both through affecting the inclusiveness of the organizational culture, transformational leadership could be seen as a way to manage diversity. In practice, it is employees' perceptions of how diversity management is implemented by their managers that affects their attitudes and behaviour. These perceptions are influenced by the leadership style of their line manager or supervisor, and how they implement diversity management. Therefore, employees' perceptions will be influenced by their supervisor's leadership style (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Nishii & Mayer, 2009; Wright & Nishii, 2012).

An initial implication of the interrelatedness of managing diversity and transformational leadership for future research is the need to develop clear conceptualizations and measurements of diversity management in which intended policies and interventions are clearly distinguished from their actual implementation by managers and from managers' leadership behaviours. Diversity policies may be useful instruments in the hands of transformational leaders when managing a diverse workforce, whereas diversity policies may not be adequately implemented by managers with a more transactional or laissez-faire leadership style. Here, previous research has found inconsistent results depending on the types of policy and employee outcomes considered (Celik et al., 2011). Furthermore, to deepen understanding of the interrelatedness of diversity management and transformational leadership, and their joint effects, more attention needs to be devoted to the impact of the various dimensions of transformational leadership on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture and employee outcomes.

This line of research could be further developed by examining the distinctions among intended, actual and perceived diversity policies (Wright & Nishii, 2012). Diversity policies as actually implemented by managers can be different from those formulated at the organizational level. Perceived practices result from the interpretation by individual employees of the actual policies. Here, the diversity perspectives and attitudes present in the organization and the motivations for pursuing diversity policies could be taken into account. The diversity perspectives present in an organization and the motivations that underlie diversity policies will affect how diversity policies are perceived by employees. These perceptions may affect employee outcomes that, in turn, will affect organizational performance (Benschop, 2001; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012; Nishii et al., 2008).

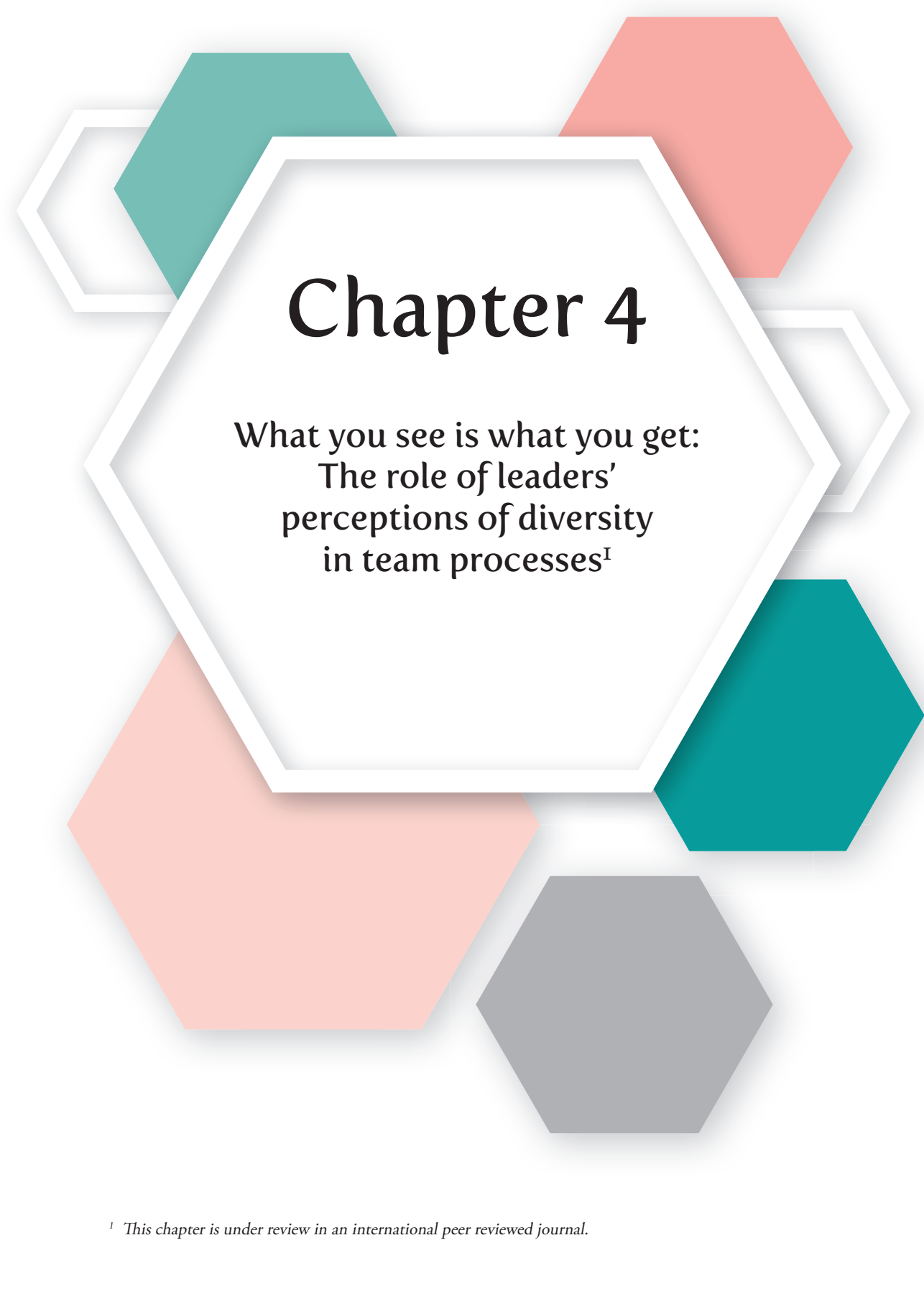
Diversity management is aimed at changing values and behaviours of work groups or organizations, and is claimed to affect equally the individual outcomes of minority and majority groups. However, how diversity management and related policies are perceived is probably influenced by whether one is a member of a majority or a minority group. Although we have not examined differences in diversity management effects between minority and majority groups, previous research has found evidence for stronger associations between diversity management and outcomes for minority groups than for majority groups (Pitts, 2009). A relevant line of research would be to analyse further these differences from a social exchange theory perspective.

Finally, we assumed that if diversity management affected employee outcomes positively, it would also contribute to organizational performance. In future research, one could investigate how and under what conditions diversity and diversity management do lead to improved public sector performance.

These lines for future research should adopt a multilevel design in which the leadership style of the manager can be linked to the diversity of work groups and its outcomes. Testing multilevel theories on diversity, diversity management, leadership, and outcomes requires multilevel designs and analyses, which were not possible with our data. For multilevel analysis, it is necessary that data on individual employees are linked to data on their team and/or organization. With the data we used, however, the individual employees were not surveyed within their team or organization. Therefore, identifying the different levels within organizations was not possible. Another advantage of a multilevel design, with data collection on different levels and among managers and employees separately, is the assurance offered by separate measurement of independent and dependent variables. The analysis in this study runs the risk of common method bias (Meier & O'Toole, 2013; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) since diversity management, transformational leadership and organizational culture were measured, together with the dependent variable affective commitment, in a single questionnaire based on employee perceptions. Moreover, the wording of some of the indicators of diversity management, transformational leadership, and inclusiveness of the organizational culture was rather close. As such, the observed variances will partly be a result of having a common respondent and a common item context. To avoid this, future research should use multiple sources to reduce common method bias and so boost the construct validity of the diversity management, leadership, and organizational culture constructs. Another limitation of our cross-sectional data being all collected at one time is that this makes it impossible to test for causal relationships between the concepts. Reversed causality cannot be ruled out, placing a question mark over the internal validity of the research. A longitudinal multisource research design could be used to confirm causality.

Despite its limitations, we believe that this study does contribute to the diversity management literature by combining theoretical insights from HRM literature with

studies on diversity outcomes. Our model *explained* diversity management outcomes by showing that transformational leadership and the inclusiveness of the organizational culture mediate the relationship between diversity management and employees' affective commitment. In so doing, it also provides managers with possible intervention points for effectively managing a diverse workforce.



Chapter 4

What you see is what you get:
The role of leaders'
perceptions of diversity
in team processes^I

^I This chapter is under review in an international peer reviewed journal.

4.1 Introduction

Team leaders are increasingly placed for a challenge of managing team diversity. Their transformational leadership in particular is crucial for managing team processes that mitigate negative and enhance positive effects of team diversity (Guillaume et al., 2017; Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Milliken & Martins, 1996; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). Transformational leadership involves facilitating teams to progress toward team goals by setting collective expectations, supporting development of team members and aligning individual goals to shared group goals (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2002; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). In so doing, transformational leadership contributes to necessary team processes to support high quality interactions among team members (Cha, Kim, Lee, & Bachrach, 2015; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2002; Zaccaro et al., 2001). Team engagement is an important indicator of successful team interaction, since it amounts to a collective psychological state that results from the interactions and shared experiences of team members (Torrente, Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2012). An engaged team is considered to be greater than the sum of its parts, collaboration among team members is thus seen as a crucial ingredient of team success (Bakker, 2011; Breevaart et al., 2014; Larson & LaFasto, 1989).

Although transformational leadership is an important factor that could affect team processes and engagement, research into the impact of leaders' diversity perceptions in that regard is limited (Andersen & Moynihan, 2016; Greer et al., 2012; Guillaume et al., 2017; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). The extent to which transformational leadership is effective might be dependent on leaders' perceptions of team diversity. Perceptions are fundamental to behaviour (James & James, 1989; Maitlis, 2005; Wright & Nishii, 2012) and the link between diversity and its outcomes are often explained by perceptions of diversity (Shemla, Meyer, Greer, & Jehn, 2016). Previous studies, for instance, show that the effectiveness of leadership may be affected by leaders' categorization saliency that could be the result of perceptions of diversity (Greer et al., 2012; Kunze et al., 2013).

Leaders exhibiting transformational leadership transform individual employees in such a manner, that they develop a shared social identity needed to accomplish organizational goals (Bass et al., 2003). These leaders have important sense-making and sense-giving roles, in which leadership behaviour could have a spillover effect of their perceptions and beliefs on followers' behaviour and on team cooperation (Greer et al., 2012; Kunze et al., 2013; Maitlis, 2005; Meeussen et al., 2014; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). Based on these factors it is likely that transformational leadership effects might be affected by a leader's perception of diversity.

The aim of this paper is to empirically examine whether team leaders' perceptions of the team's diversity moderates the extent to which transformational leadership affects

team processes and outcomes. This study hereby contributes to the literature on team leadership effectiveness and work group diversity, by exploring the moderating effect of leaders' perceptions of team diversity on the impact of transformational leadership on team processes and engagement.

Data were derived from a quantitative survey of 1,089 employees and their supervisors from 128 teams within Dutch public sector organizations. Structural equation modelling is then used to test a theoretical model. In the next section, the theoretical framework is discussed. Next, the data and methods used to test the hypotheses are described. Following this, the results of the analysis will be elaborated upon, followed by a discussion of the findings with conclusions drawn.

4.2 Theoretical framework

In building a theoretical framework, this section first discusses the literature on transformational leadership and team processes, followed by an important outcome of these processes, namely team engagement. Following this, the moderating role of leaders' perceptions of team diversity on transformational leadership effectiveness is discussed.

4.2.1 Transformational leadership

The leadership literature discusses a wide range of different leadership styles, and transformational leadership in particular has been shown to have positive associations with employees' behaviour and performance (Burke et al., 2006; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Van Wart, 2003; Wright et al., 2012). Transformational leadership focuses on inducing a meaningful and creative exchange among their followers (i.e. employees). Transformational leadership has thus been defined as a person-focused leadership style in contrast to task-focused transactional leadership (Bass et al., 2003; Burke et al., 2006).

Within leadership studies, different conceptualizations of transformational leadership can be found that address transformational leadership as a multidimensional concept (Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015; Jensen et al., 2016; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Among these conceptualizations, the following characteristics have been used: developing a shared vision, setting high performance expectations, challenging work assumptions, providing a role model, fostering acceptance of group goals and providing individualized support (Mhatre & Riggio, 2014; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Recently, the concept of transformational leadership has also been criticized for the distinctiveness of the dimensions, as well as defining components by its outcomes (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013), which complicates studying the concept of transformational leadership and its effects.

As a result, studies define transformational leadership increasingly by its intent to activate employees' higher needs, through developing a clear and shared

organizational vision (Jensen et al., 2016), which can also be linked to visionary leadership (cf. Greer et al., 2012). However, this narrows transformational leadership to visionary behaviour, while other behaviours like setting an appropriate role model and providing individualized support is omitted. Additionally, transformational leadership aims to transform employees, through the internalization of organizational goals, which in turn elevates their followers' intrinsic motivation. These behaviours, in particular, are relevant for studying leadership behaviours and leaders' perceptions of diversity in relation to team processes that will be discussed in the next paragraph.

Transformational leadership's interrelated dimensions focus on motivating and engaging employees to act beyond their self-interests through articulating a vision, fostering group goals, intellectual stimulation, instilling high performance expectations and individualized support (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass et al., 2003; Burke et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990). These leadership attributes can be seen as aiming to manage both cognitive (i.e. information/decision) and affective (i.e. emotional/relational) team processes among their followers (Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Zaccaro et al., 2001).

Transformational leadership, for instance, involves encouraging cognitive informational processes (i.e. Zaccaro et al., 2001) by questioning assumptions, approaching new ways of working and reframing problems. At the same time, transformational leadership includes stimulating the acceptance of groups goals by promoting high quality interaction among team members, in which transformational leadership results in individualized support as well (Bass et al., 2003; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). Through this development of personal and social identification among employees and supporting team processes that encourage group members to work together and strengthen their collective goals (Bass et al., 2003), transformational leadership is expected to facilitate affective team processes.

Team processes have been identified as an important mechanism that reflects the team's actions and behaviours that explain team outcomes (Kuipers & Stoker, 2009; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2002; Zaccaro et al., 2001). Examining how team processes are managed is therefore crucial to understand how team outcomes come about. In this study, cognitive information processes are captured by team members engaging in information elaboration, and affective team processes by the team's cohesion. These processes have been widely discussed in the context of work group diversity that explain the effectiveness of teams and are thus crucial to manage (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007) and are elaborated upon below.

4.2.2 Team diversity and team processes

Diversity can be fruitful in terms of a team's functioning by bringing different perspectives to problem-solving, but at the same time might be detrimental to team performance due to team conflicts resulting from social categorization processes often linked to the more visible dimensions of demographic diversity, such as gender, age, and ethnic origin since these differences would be more salient (Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007; Joshi & Roh, 2009; Mayo et al., 2016; Milliken & Martins, 1996). These seemingly contradictory findings can be explained by the Categorization-Elaboration Model (CEM) (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004). This model combines an elaboration and decision-making perspective with a social categorization perspective to explain diversity's potentially contrasting outcomes.

The information/decision-making perspective argues that diverse groups can outperform homogeneous groups by tapping into the broader range of perspectives, knowledge, skills, and abilities needed for difficult tasks (Homan et al., 2007; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg et al., 2010). Through information elaboration these different resources enable diverse groups to be more creative and effective in problem-solving and decision-making, thereby reflecting the cognitive benefits of diversity (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg et al., 2013).

By drawing on social categorization theory (Brewer, 1991; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998), it has been argued that interpersonal similarities and differences may lead to individuals categorizing themselves and team members in separate (sub-)groups, differentiating between "us" (the in-group) and "them" (out-group(s)) (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg, Van Ginkel, & Homan, 2013). In line with similarity/attraction theory (Williams & O'Reilly III, 1998), it can be argued that people tend to trust in-group members more than, and favour them over, out-group members (Homan, Van Knippenberg, Van Kleef, & De Dreu, 2007; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg et al., 2013). Consequently, the more homogeneous a team, the greater the team commitment and cohesion, and thus the fewer conflict situations, whereas more diverse groups would face disrupted communication, less cooperation, less cohesion, and more conflicts. This amounts to an explanation of why more diverse groups might perform less well than homogeneous groups, and amounts to possible negative affective results of diversity (Greer et al., 2012; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010).

Team cohesion is an important factor in this respect. It captures the extent 'to which members of the group [team] are attracted to each other' (Webber & Donahue, 2001, p. 7). Team cohesion is an indicator of team members' desire to remain in the group. Furthermore, high cohesive teams are considered to have more strongly motivated team members willing to contribute to team objectives and thus is an important determinant of team performance (Dailey, 1977). Team cohesion, in this regard, can be considered to be the opposite of social categorization. Team members' perceptions of similarity would result in greater attraction between team members, and thus greater

cohesion (Webber & Donahue, 2001), as well as their interpersonal liking by which team cohesion indicates the team's affective process (Zaccaro et al., 2001).

4.2.3 Transformational leadership, team diversity, and team processes

As previously discussed, the Categorization-Elaboration Model incorporates two distinct cognitive and affective team processes that can explain diversity outcomes. Since transformational leadership is expected to involve behaviour that is targeted at boosting such processes, it is proposed that transformational leadership, through its attributes of intellectual stimulation, setting high expectations, and painting a vision, will put a greater emphasis on team members exchanging task-related knowledge with each other. By so doing, transformational leadership will stimulate cognitive team processes through information elaboration, leading to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4.1: Transformational leadership has a positive direct effect on information elaboration within a team.

Further, by focusing on collective goals and intergroup relationships, transformational leadership realizes affective processes that enhance team's cohesion. By highlighting cooperation in performing collective tasks, transformational leadership realigns personal individualistic values toward a shared vision/goal, inherently developing greater teamwork, internalization values, and congruence among team members. As a result, transformational leadership will have a positive impact on the team's cohesiveness (Bass et al., 2003; Jung & Sosik, 2002; Wang & Huang, 2009). This leads us to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4.2: Transformational leadership has a positive direct effect on team cohesion.

Greater cohesiveness among team members will, in turn, be an important determinant of the level of information elaboration. If a team experiences a greater sense of a joint vision and collectiveness, they will engage more in the information elaboration needed to achieve their shared goals. This would be the case when a team is able and highly motivated to exchange knowledge and information among team members (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). The above elaboration leads us to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4.3: Transformational leadership has a positive indirect effect on information elaboration through its positive effect on team cohesion.

4.2.4 Team engagement

Engagement requires a cognitive and affective psychological state in which employees are fully connected to their work roles and direct their energy toward achieving organizational goals (Bakker, 2011). Since engagement captures both cognitive and affective traits (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), it can be seen as a crucial indicator of the effectiveness of transformational leadership in managing cognitive and affective processes within the team. Moreover, even though engagement is often studied on the individual level (Bakker, 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), it can be argued that engagement also exists as a collective team outcome as a result of high quality team processes, and inherently, amounts to an important determinant of team performance (Torrente et al., 2012).

Team engagement results from interaction and shared experiences among team members instilling a positive work-related shared psychological state characterized by a team's dedication, vigour, and absorption (Torrente et al., 2012). Vigour involves 'high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence in the face of difficulties'. Dedication includes 'a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge'. Absorption refers to a state of 'being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 295).

According to Larson and LaFasto (1989), an engaged team is considered a unique entity that is 'greater than the sum of its parts'. The need to effectively manage team processes is therefore particularly important for realizing engaged teams. Given that the work context is an important antecedent of team engagement, team processes such as information elaboration and team cohesiveness could be important explanatory mechanisms through which transformational leadership enhances team engagement. In this regard, it is argued that transformational leadership augments team engagement by elevating cognitive and affective team processes. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4.4: Transformational leadership has a positive indirect effect on team engagement through its positive effect on information elaboration and team cohesion.

4.2.5 Transformational leadership and leader perceptions of diversity

In the previous paragraphs hypotheses are developed linking transformational leadership to team processes. These, however, could be dependent on leader's perceptions of diversity. To hypothesize on this moderating effect of diversity perceptions, the Categorization-Elaboration Model (CEM) is applied to the behaviour of leaders themselves. Although CEM identifies the consequences of individual employees categorizing themselves and others, leaders in particular may engage in categorization behaviour in order to cope

with demanding tasks related to being in a leadership position and responsible for managing employees (Greer et al., 2012).

Categorization in itself is not harmful, but it could lead to intergroup bias that then affects team processes. For example, research has shown that visionary leaders who have a tendency toward social categorization might negatively affect team processes such as communication. When these leaders engage in conveying a vision to their followers, their categorization tendencies could result in conveying a vision that emphasizes differences within the team and affects team members' behaviour (Greer et al., 2012).

It is argued that leaders through transformational leadership are able to convince followers to adhere to the leader's or the organization's mission. In this sense, leaders may shape their followers' behaviour and attitudes through a spillover effect of their leadership behaviour (Greer et al., 2012; Kunze et al., 2013). Transformational leaders are also presumed to be important role models who articulate a vision and goals for team members to follow. However, if leaders' have a tendency toward categorization, this may impact the effectiveness of transformational leadership behaviour in a diverse team compared to in a homogeneous team, subsequently affecting team processes and team engagement.

Demographic diversity attributes, such as gender, age, and ethnic/cultural origin, are more strongly linked to emotional effect, and thus affect the team's cohesiveness more, than less apparent functional attributes (Milliken & Martins, 1996; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999; Webber & Donahue, 2001). As interpersonal attraction forms an important basis for cohesiveness, the similarity-attraction hypothesis, stemming from the social categorization perspective, can be used to explain the moderating effect of leaders' perceptions of their team's demographic diversity on team cohesiveness. It can be argued that a leader with transformational leadership accompanied by high perceptions of demographic diversity could result in categorization behaviour displayed to team members that could negatively affect team cohesion.

As such, it is argued that the positive effect of transformational leadership on team cohesion might be lower when leaders perceive their team to be demographically diverse rather than homogeneous. High perceptions of team demographic diversity, would suggest that transformational leadership, through for instance attending individual needs (i.e. individual support), would accentuate differences in the team. This could result in transformational leadership having a less positive impact on the team's cohesion and, in turn, on team engagement. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4.5: The positive effect of transformational leadership on team cohesion is weaker when leaders perceive their team to be demographically diverse rather than homogeneous.

Hypothesis 4.6: The positive indirect effect of transformational leadership, through team cohesion, on team engagement is weaker when leaders perceive the team to be demographically diverse rather than homogeneous.

Leaders might also view their team as diverse based on less visible, functional characteristics. Given that transformational leadership focuses on engaging team members through intellectual stimulation (i.e. asking questions and rethinking issues) and setting them high expectations, it can be argued that leaders who perceive their team as functional diverse, as opposed to homogeneous, are more likely to exhibit leadership behaviour that would enhance the team's cohesion and information elaboration in order that they complete their tasks and goals effectively. Since job-related functional diversity can easily be linked to greater cognitive resources, transformational leadership would have a stronger impact on information elaboration through team cohesion when leaders perceive their team to be highly functionally diverse, rather than homogeneous. This in turn will enhance team engagement. This leads us to the final hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4.7: The positive effect of transformational leadership on information elaboration is stronger when leaders perceive their team to be functionally diverse rather than homogeneous.

Hypothesis 4.8: The positive indirect effect of transformational leadership, through information elaboration, on team engagement is stronger when leaders perceive their team to be functionally diverse rather than homogeneous.

The conceptual model shown in Figure 4.1 below reflects the hypothesized relationships developed above linking transformational leadership, team diversity processes, team engagement, and leaders' perception of their team's diversity.

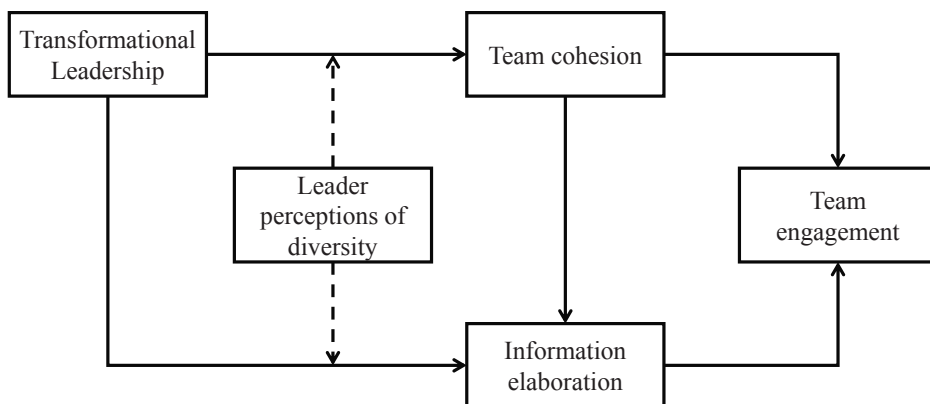


Figure 4.1: Conceptual model

4.3 Data and methods

4.3.1 Data and sample

To examine team leadership, team processes and team engagement a team study was performed. Teams in this study were defined as a unit or cluster of at least three employees who on a daily basis collaborate to achieve a collective goal or complete a shared task (Campion, Papper, & Medsker, 1996). Data were derived from a quantitative survey of 1,089 employees and their team leaders of 128 teams within Dutch public sector organizations. The sample used included teams across a range of Dutch public sector organizations such as ministries, municipalities, and education and water boards. The data collection process was part of a larger research project on working teams in the Dutch public sector.

In 2013 and 2014, e-mails with a link to an online survey were sent to 2,063 team members and 158 leaders. In total, 1,223 team members and 150 leaders completed the questionnaire, response rates of 59.3% and 94.9% respectively. After removing data on teams with fewer than three responding members and teams of which the team leader had not responded to the questionnaire, the final sample included 128 team leaders and 1,089 members of their teams. Approximately 54% of the team members were female. Age was measured with an index from one to ten that increased incrementally with four years starting with 1 = ages between 15 and 19, and 10 = 60 or older. The mean age of teams was 6 representing an age between 40 and 44.

4.3.2 Measurements

4.3.2.1 Employee data

Transformational leadership. To measure transformational leadership, six items were derived from Podsakoff et al. (1990) that reflect six dimensions of transformational leadership: providing support, intellectual stimulation, fostering the acceptance of group goals, articulating a vision, proving an appropriate model, and having high performance expectations. All the items were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree*. These address both cognitive and affective leadership attributes, for example: ‘*Our team leader shows respect for the personal feelings of team members*’ (TL1) and ‘*Our team leader asks questions that prompt team members to think*’ (TL2). All the items for this and the next three measurements are provided in Table 4.1.

Information elaboration. Seven items using the same five-point Likert-type scale as above were used to assess team members’ information elaboration (Homan et al., 2007). Items measured the extent to which team members engage in exchanging, discussing, and thinking of different ideas and viewpoints; for example: ‘*Team members exchange a lot of work-related information*’ (IE1) and ‘*We regularly discuss work-related content in the team*’ (IE3).

Team cohesion. Six items measured team cohesion (Carless & De Paola, 2000), again using the same five-point Likert-type scale. Example items are: ‘*Our team is united in trying to reach its performance goals*’ (TC1) and ‘*Team members are loyal to each other*’ (TC6).

Team engagement. Team engagement was measured using six items on a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always) that assessed team members’ team engagement (Stiphout et al., 2015), for instance: ‘*All team members are bursting with energy as they do the work*’ (TE1) and ‘*My team is enthusiastic about the tasks they must accomplish*’ (TE4).

Table 4.1: List of items

Transformational leadership	
TL1	“Our team leader shows respect for the feelings of team members”
TL2	“Our team leader asks questions that prompts team members to think”
TL3	“Our team leader develops a team attitude and team spirit among team members”
TL4	“Our team leader inspires team members with his or her plans for the future”
TL5	“Our team leader leads by example”
TL6	“Our team leader shows that he or she expects a lot from us”
Information elaboration	
IE1	“Team members exchange a lot of work related information”
IE2	“Team members often say work related things that make me think”
IE3	“We regularly discuss work related content in the team”
IE4	“We regularly discuss our work related ideas in the team”
IE5	“Team members often say things that cause me to learn new thing about the work”
IE6	“Team members often say things that cause me to have new ideas”
IE7	“I often think deeply about what other team members say about the work”
Team cohesion	
TC1	“Our team is united in trying to reach its goals for performance”
TC2	“We all take our responsibility for setbacks of poor team performance”
TC3	“Our team members talk openly about their responsibility to achieve team goals”
TC4	“Team members help each other to complete team tasks”
TC5	“Our team members work well together”
TC6	“Team members are loyal to each other”
Team engagement	
TE1	“All team members are bursting with energy as they do the work”
TE2	“If we as a team are at work, we feel fit and strong”
TE3	“When we get up in the morning, we feel like going to work with the team”
TE4	“My team is enthusiastic about the tasks they must accomplish”
TE5	“We as a team are proud of the work we do”
TE6	“The work we do with our team inspires us”

4.3.2.2 Team leader data

Leader's perceptions of team diversity. Team leaders were asked to assess their team's diversity, from 1 (very similar) to 5 (very dissimilar), on an index of eight items. Of this index, four questions assessed the leader's perceptions of their team's *demographic* diversity in terms of their team members' general similarity or dissimilarity, and more specifically in terms of gender, age, and ethnic origin. The other four questions assessed the leader's perceptions of their team members' *functional* diversity: more specifically their educational background, personal values, attitudes toward the job, and learning goals (Harrison, Price & Bell, 1998).

Mean scores, for demographic and for functional perceived diversity, were then calculated for each team by averaging leaders' scores on team diversity. The average mean score of all the leaders was then used as a cut-off point to create two groups (1 = high perceived diversity and 0 = low perceived diversity). Teams with leader perceptions of diversity with a mean score above this cut-off value were categorized as diverse perceived teams, whereas teams whose mean score was below the cut-off value as homogeneous perceived teams. Descriptive statistics of the indexes are shown in Table 4.2, and descriptive statistics and correlations for all the variables are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.2: Descriptives for leaders' perceptions of diversity index

	Perceptions of demographic diversity		Perceptions of functional diversity	
Mean	2.97		2.93	
Std. Deviation	.64		.65	
Minimum	1.50		1.75	
Maximum	4.75		4.50	
N	High = 73	Low = 55	High = 71	Low = 57

4.3.3 Aggregation of employee data

To check whether it was appropriate to aggregate employee-level data to the team level, the intraclass correlations (ICCs) were calculated to provide an indication of group-level variance, which is presented in Table 4.4. The first correlation, ICC(1), captures the proportion of variance of a variable that can be attributed to team membership (Van Mierlo, Vermunt, & Rutte, 2009). ICC(2) is based on group size and indicates the reliability of group membership and between group differences. In order to aggregate the data, ICC(1) should be statistically significant and ICC(2) $\geq .70$ (Klein & Kozłowski, 2000; Van Mierlo et al., 2009). Based on these criteria, it is appropriate to aggregate employee data for the transformational leadership, team cohesion, and team engagement constructs to the team. Although ICC(1) is statistically significant for information elaboration, ICC(2) is slightly below the threshold. However, since this value is dependent on the team size (which varies between 3 and 45 members), aggregation to the team level was nevertheless considered justified (Bliese, 1998).

Table 4.3: Descriptives, correlations and Cronbach's α (in parentheses)

	Min.	Max.	M	SD.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1. Transformational leadership	1.96	4.39	3.59	.454	(.92)				
2. Information elaboration	2.33	4.24	3.52	.340	.457**	(.91)			
3. Team cohesion	2.23	4.36	3.56	.424	.556**	.606**	(.93)		
4. Team engagement	2.42	6.50	4.15	.891	.369**	.479**	.405**	(.98)	
5. Perceptions of demographic diversity	0	1	.57	.5	-.131	-.032	-.128	-.109	
6. Perceptions of functional diversity	0	1	.55	.5	-.290**	-.296**	-.300**	-.250**	.334**

Note. * $p < .05$ level (2-tailed). ** $p < .01$. N= 128

Table 4.4: Intraclass correlations

	ICC1 ^a	ICC2 ^b	F
Transformational leadership	.28	.77	4.365***
Information elaboration	.14	.59	2.434***
Team cohesion	.27	.76	4.211***
Team engagement	.51	.90	9.934***

Note. MSB = Between Groups Mean Square; MSW = Within Groups Mean Square; N = group size

a ICC1 = (MSB – MSW)/(MSB + (N-1)MSW)

b ICC2 = (MSB – MSW)/MSB

*** = $p < .001$

4.4 Results

To test moderation and mediation effects simultaneously, structural equation modelling (SEM) is applied using AMOS 23. First, to test Hypotheses 4.1 to 4.4, a model is examined without any constraints imposed between groups. Following this, multiple group analysis is used to test Hypotheses 4.5 to 4.8. Since the total sample (N = 128) is divided into two groups for the multiple group analysis, there are a more limited number of observations available for each group. Consequently, the scales for the variables were constructed in advance in SPSS 23 because sample size per group, relative to the number of factors, might affect the accuracy of the parameter estimates and model fit statistics (Wolf, Harrington, Clark, & Miller, 2013).⁶

4.4.1 Structural path analysis

The first model⁷, used to test Hypotheses 4.1 to 4.4, which did not impose any constraints between the groups, has the following fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 2.535$, $df = 1$, $p = .111$, $\chi^2/df = 2.535$, NFI = .98, TLI = .94, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .11, overall indicating a good fit. This model serves as a baseline for the multiple group analysis presented in the next section. The results of the baseline model are provided in Table 4.5 and visually presented in Figure 4.2.

These results show that, consistent with Hypothesis 4.1, transformational leadership has a positive effect on the team's information elaboration ($\beta = .174$, $p < .05$). Secondly, transformational leadership also positively affects the team's cohesiveness ($\beta = .556$, $p < .000$). When a team experiences a high level of transformational leadership behaviour, its members work more closely with each other in terms of fulfilling tasks and are socially more attached to each other. This is consistent with Hypothesis 4.2. Further,

⁶ Before the scales were constructed, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted for each variable. The results of these analyses can be found in Appendix A4.

⁷ The models shown here do not show the control variables for team members' gender and age or for team size since no significant relationships were found with dependent and independent variables, and inclusion of these variables in the models did not change the conclusions regarding our hypotheses.

the greater the team's cohesiveness, the more they engage in information elaboration ($\beta = .509, p < .000$). In addition, a bootstrap analysis of indirect effects was used to test the proposed indirect effect of transformational leadership, through cohesion, on information elaboration. Consistent with Hypothesis 4.3, this analysis showed that transformational leadership does indeed induce more information elaboration by reinforcing the team's cohesiveness ($\beta = .283, p < .000$).

Hypothesis 4.4 argues that transformational leadership will be successful in encouraging team engagement by managing cognitive and affective team processes; in other words, through affecting information elaboration and team cohesion. Here, the test for indirect effects shows that, consistent with this hypothesis, transformational leadership, by stimulating elaboration and enhancing cohesion, does succeed in improving the team's engagement ($\beta = .270, p < .01$).

Table 4.5: Standardized regression estimates baseline model

<i>Standardized Regression Weights</i>			Estimate	S.E.
Team cohesion	←	Transformational leadership	.556***	.069
Information elaboration	←	Transformational leadership	.174*	.063
Information elaboration	←	Team cohesion	.509***	.067
Team engagement	←	Team cohesion	.181 [†]	.203
Team engagement	←	Information elaboration	.370***	.253
<i>Standardized total effects</i>				
Team cohesion	←	Transformational leadership	.556***	
Information elaboration	←	Transformational leadership	.457***	
Team engagement	←	Transformational leadership	.270**	
Information elaboration	←	Team cohesion	.509***	
Team engagement	←	Team cohesion	.396**	
Team engagement	←	Information elaboration	.370***	
<i>Standardized Indirect Effects</i>				
Information elaboration	←	Transformational leadership	.283***	
Team engagement	←	Transformational leadership	.270**	
Team engagement	←	Team cohesion	.188***	
		Team cohesion	.309	
		Information elaboration	.388	
R ²		Team engagement	.250	

0BN = 128. [†] < .10; * < .05; ** < .01; *** < .001. ns = not significant.

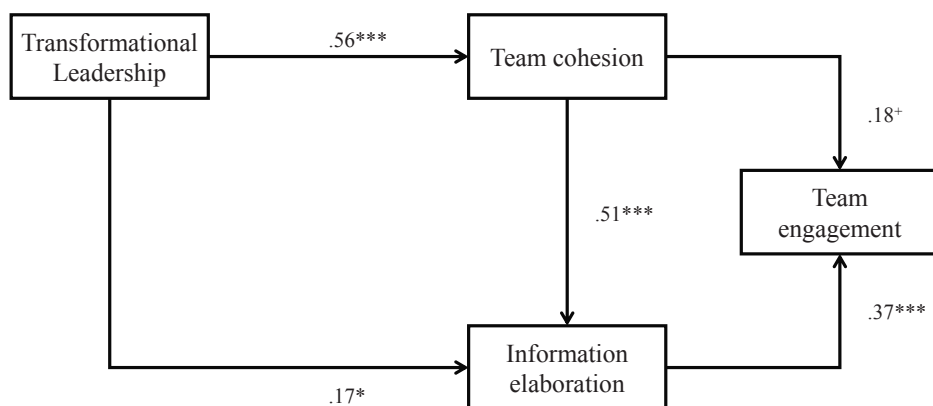


Figure 4.2: Path model transformational leadership, team cohesion, information elaboration and team engagement (standardized estimates)

4.4.2 Multiple group analysis

4.4.2.1 Leaders' perceptions of team members' demographic diversity

To test the hypothesized moderating effect of leaders' perceptions of team diversity, two separate multiple group analyses were conducted. The first compared teams that were perceived by their leader as demographically diverse teams with those that were more homogeneous in this sense, and the second functionally diverse teams with those that were more homogeneous in this respect. Four different models were established using AMOS 23 automatic multiple group analysis. In the first, unconstrained, model none of the parameters are forced to be equal across groups. Each successive model forces each associated parameter to be equal across the groups: from structural weights, structural covariances, to structural residuals. The fit statistics for each of these models are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Model fit statistics demographic diversity

Model	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF	NFI Delta1	TLI rho2	CFI	RMSEA
Unconstrained	2.317	2	.314	1.158	.985	.987	.998	.035
Structural weights	11.098	7	.134	1.585	.928	.951	.971	.068
Structural covariances	11.212	8	.190	1.402	.927	.966	.977	.056
Structural residuals	12.015	11	.363	1.092	.922	.992	.993	.027
Saturated model	.000	0			1.000		1.000	
Independence model	154.296	12	.000	12.858	.000	.000	.000	.307

To determine the equivalence across the groups the ΔCFI test⁸ is used. In this approach, a $\Delta\text{CFI} \geq 0.01$ indicates differences between the two groups (Byrne, 2010; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Meade, Johnson, & Braddy, 2008). When comparing the ΔCFI values across the set of models, we see that the ΔCFI threshold is exceeded comparing the unconstrained model to a model in which structural weights are constrained. This indicates that there are equality constraints on the structural weights (regression weights) that do not hold across groups, suggesting differences between demographically diverse teams and more homogeneous as perceived by team leaders. Furthermore, the overall fit indices in Table 4.7 decrease as the successive models become more constrained. This again suggests variance and thus differences across groups.

Table 4.7: Model comparison demographic diversity

<i>Assuming model Unconstrained to be correct:</i>	DF	CMIN	P	NFI Delta-1	IFI Delta-2	RFI rho-1	TLI rho2
Structural weights	5	8.781	.118	.057	.058	.033	.036
Structural covariances	6	8.895	.180	.058	.058	.019	.021
Structural residuals	9	9.698	.375	.063	.064	-.005	-.006
<i>Assuming model structural weights to be correct:</i>							
Structural covariances	1	.114	.735	.001	.001	-.014	-.016
Structural residuals	4	.917	.922	.006	.006	-.038	-.042
<i>Assuming model Structural covariances to be correct:</i>							
Structural residuals	3	.803	.849	.005	.005	-.024	-.026

The next step is to identify any structural paths that differ between the groups by analysing the critical ratios for the differences between parameters. This analysis showed the regression path from transformational leadership to information elaboration, with a critical ratio of 2.315, is significantly different between the two demographically distinct groups at a 5 percent significance level (critical ratio > 1.96) (Byrne, 2010).

To test whether the indirect effect of transformational leadership on information elaboration differs between the groups, we constrained the direct effects of transformational leadership on team cohesion and of team cohesion on information elaboration so that they were equal for both groups. The results show $\Delta\text{CFI} \leq .01$, indicating that only the direct effect of transformational leadership on information elaboration is significantly different between the teams that team leaders perceived to be demographically diverse versus team that were more homogeneous in that respect. The

⁸ Two methods can be used to determine the equivalence across the groups: the traditional $\Delta\chi^2$ significance test and the newer ΔCFI test. In the first, a significant $\Delta\chi^2$ between the unconstrained and constrained models is an indication that certain equality constraints do not hold across groups, thereby indicating group differences. However, Cheung and Rensvold (2002) recommended the use of ΔCFI test to assess invariance between groups because CFI is not affected by model complexity and sample size, and does not correlate with overall fit measures (Byrne, 2010; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Meade et al., 2008).

regression estimates of diverse teams and homogeneous teams as perceived by leaders are presented in Tables 4.8 and 4.9 respectively.

These results are not consistent with Hypotheses 4.5 and 4.6. We had anticipated the effects of transformational leadership on team cohesion and on team engagement to be weaker when leaders perceived their team's demographic diversity as high, but this was not supported by the group analysis. However, transformational leadership does improve information elaboration, through its positive effect on team cohesion more in teams where the leader perceives demographic diversity to be high. It appears that leaders' responses to demographic diversity do affect group processes in the sense that information elaboration is encouraged when a transformational leadership style succeeds in enhancing the team's cohesiveness. As such, it is important to support team cohesion, as an affective group process, when demographic diversity is high.

Table 4.8: Standardized regression estimates demographic diverse teams (unconstrained)

<i>Standardized Regression Weights</i>			Estimate	S.E.
Team cohesion	←	Transformational leadership	.608***	.087
Information elaboration	←	Transformational leadership	.014 ^{ns}	.086
Information elaboration	←	Team cohesion	.572***	.092
Team engagement	←	Team cohesion	.244*	.251
Team engagement	←	Information elaboration	.355**	.330
<i>Standardized total effects</i>				
Team cohesion	←	Transformational leadership	.608***	
Information elaboration	←	Transformational leadership	.362***	
Team engagement	←	Transformational leadership	.276***	
Information elaboration	←	Team cohesion	.572**	
Team engagement	←	Team cohesion	.447***	
Team engagement	←	Information elaboration	.355**	
<i>Standardized Indirect Effects</i>				
Information elaboration	←	Transformational leadership	.348***	
Team engagement	←	Transformational leadership	.276***	
Team engagement	←	Team cohesion	.203**	
R ²		Team cohesion	.369	
		Information elaboration	.337	
		Team engagement	.286	

N = 128. † < .10; * < .05; ** < .01; *** < .001. ns = not significant.

Table 4.9: Standardized regression estimates demographic homogeneous teams (unconstrained)

<i>Standardized regression weights</i>			Estimate	S.E.
Team cohesion	←	Transformational leadership	.463***	.113
Information elaboration	←	Transformational leadership	.358***	.088
Information elaboration	←	Team cohesion	.478***	.094
Team engagement	←	Team cohesion	.052 ^{ns}	.345
Team engagement	←	Information elaboration	.426**	.394
<i>Standardized total effects</i>				
Team cohesion	←	Transformational leadership	.464**	
Information elaboration	←	Transformational leadership	.579***	
Team engagement	←	Transformational leadership	.270***	
Information elaboration	←	Team cohesion	.478***	
Team engagement	←	Team cohesion	.255 [†]	
Team engagement	←	Information elaboration	.426**	
<i>Standardized Indirect Effects</i>				
Information elaboration	←	Transformational leadership	.221***	
Team engagement	←	Transformational leadership	.270***	
Team engagement	←	Team cohesion	.204**	
		Team cohesion	.214	
R ²		Information elaboration	.515	
		Team engagement	.212	

N = 128. † < .10; * < .05; ** < .01; *** < .001. ns = not significant.

4.4.2.2 Leader's perceptions of the team's functional diversity

A second multiple group analysis was conducted to test the effect of leaders having different perceptions of their team's functional diversity. The fits statistics comparing different models can be found in Tables 10 and 11. The ΔCFI values are $\leq .01$, which supports equivalence between groups. A more constrained model thus more adequately fits the data. The pairwise parameter comparison of critical ratios found all the ratios to be statistically insignificant underlining the equivalence between groups. Our Hypotheses 4.7 and 4.8 on transformational leadership having different effects on team outcomes depending on whether the leader perceived the team to be functionally diverse or homogeneous are therefore rejected. That is leaders' perception of their team's functional diversity does not influence the positive effect of transformational leadership on cognitive and affective processes in teams, which in turn affects team engagement.

Table 4.10: Model fit statistics functional diversity

Model	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF	NFI Delta1	TLI rho2	CFI	RMSEA
Unconstrained	4.548	2	.103	2.274	.965	.869	.978	.101
Structural weights	9.317	7	.231	1.331	.927	.966	.980	.051
Structural covariances	10.258	8	.247	1.282	.920	.971	.981	.047
Structural residuals	11.391	11	.411	1.036	.911	.996	.997	.017
Saturated model	.000	0			1.000		1.000	
Independence model	128.427	12	.000	10.702	.000	.000	.000	.277

Table 4.11: Model comparison functional diversity

<i>Assuming model Unconstrained to be correct:</i>	DF	CMIN	P	NFI Delta-1	IFI Delta-2	RFI rho-1	TLI rho2
Structural weights	5	4.769	.445	.037	.038	-.088	-.097
Structural covariances	6	5.710	.456	.044	.045	-.093	-.102
Structural residuals	9	6.843	.653	.053	.054	-.116	-.128
<i>Assuming model Structural weights to be correct:</i>							
Structural covariances	1	.941	.332	.007	.008	-.005	-.005
Structural residuals	4	2.074	.722	.016	.017	-.028	-.030
<i>Assuming model Structural covariances to be correct:</i>							
Structural residuals	3	1.132	.769	.009	.009	-.023	-.025

4.5 Discussion and conclusion

This study contributes to the literature on team leadership effectiveness and work group diversity by using the Categorization-Elaboration Model (CEM) to examine whether leaders' perception of team diversity moderate transformational leadership's effectiveness in supporting and encouraging necessary team processes to elevate the team's engagement. Although the CEM focuses on employee responses to diversity and its effects, we argue that linking leader's perceptions of diversity to leadership behaviour is particularly relevant since a leader's behaviour could be influenced by a categorization tendency, which would then impact on team members' attitudes and behaviours (Greer et al., 2012; Kunze et al., 2013). Therefore, in this study, several multiple group analyses were performed to examine whether leaders' perception of their team's diversity does affect transformational leadership's impact on team processes and team engagement.

The results show that transformational leadership is indeed positively related to both information elaboration and team cohesion. Transformational leadership involves cognitive attributes that encourage followers to rethink perspectives and assumptions, while at the same time challenge employees to perform beyond expectations. In so

doing, transformational leaders stimulate the exchange, discussion and utilization of information boosting cognitive team processes. In addition, transformational leadership aims to transform individual goals and identities to a collective and shared identity, while at the same time supporting individual's needs, which elevates affective team processes (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2002). By managing these cognitive and affective team processes, transformational leadership is successful in facilitating high quality interaction and the sharing of experiences among team members, which instigates a positive shared work-related psychological state of team engagement (Torrente et al., 2012).

Contrary to expectations based on previous studies, we found that leaders' perception of their team's demographic diversity did not negatively moderate transformational leadership's impact on above mentioned team processes and team engagement. In other words, even if leaders perceive their team to be demographically diverse, transformational leadership still enhances information elaboration through supporting the team's cohesiveness. As such, transformational leadership, by supporting affective processes, is able to improve cognitive team processes. Affective team processes are in this regard a necessary condition to stimulate cognitive team processes, which fits with the underlying rationale of the Categorization-Elaboration Model (Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010).

On a note of caution, we were only able to examine the extent to which leaders perceive their team as diverse, and one would expect the effects of a leader's categorization tendencies to be dependent on how they *value* diversity. For instance, the findings discussed could be related to the diversity beliefs of leaders: if leaders believe diversity adds value, and they perceive their own team as diverse, they would view this as a resource rather than as a threat. As a consequence, their leadership behaviour would then be aimed at supporting both cognitive and affective processes within the team so as to benefit from this diversity. In contrast, if leaders do not view diversity as adding value, their leadership behaviour will not be aimed at supporting diversity processes in diverse teams per se, which could result in less elaboration and cohesiveness. Although some emerging studies address leaders' diversity beliefs and their impact on the team (Meeussen et al., 2014; Schölmerich, Schermuly, & Deller, 2016), future studies could more specifically examine how leaders' diversity perceptions and beliefs influence their leadership behaviour when it comes to managing diverse employees.

Further, our study suggested that transformational leaders' perceptions of functional diversity did not influence how they managed cognitive and affective processes. This might be because transformational leaders believe it is more important to put effort into managing affective processes within demographically diverse teams to develop a sense of collectiveness, since a lack of this could have a greater detrimental impact on team performance, than when functional diversity is high. A limitation here is that our measurement of functional diversity did not include the extent to which

team members indeed have and utilize different skills and experiences, but measured the extent to which leaders perceive their team members as similar or different based on educational background, personal values, attitudes toward the job and learning goals.

The study's design has some limitations. First, our study included teams working in a range of organizational contexts. However, in the analysis it was not possible to examine the role of organizational context, or to control for its effect. Nevertheless, organizational context could play a role in how leadership is associated with team processes and outcomes. For instance, organizational structure, culture, and/or climate could determine what is expected of leaders and how they behave in managing their teams. Future studies could investigate the role of the organization's context, and how this is related to leadership behaviours that affect team processes and performance. There, our framework could be used to further study the role of leadership and their diversity beliefs in relation to diversity programs and to organizational culture and its influence on employee or team outcomes as an indicator for performance. That said, although one could expect the quality of team processes to be dependent on team size (cf. Cha et al., 2015), the results were not affected when team size was added as a control variable.

Second, using a survey could induce common methods biases. However, to avoid the danger of common method bias (Favero & Bullock, 2014; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), the scales used in this study were carefully selected from ones validated in previous studies. Further, two surveys were administered, one among team members and one among their supervisors. In this way, the moderating variables were measured independently of the independent and dependent variables. To independently measure the independent and dependent variables would require a longitudinal design with measurements at different moments in time (Favero & Bullock, 2014). This approach was not possible in this study but could be used in future research.

That said, previous studies have shown the importance of measuring employees' perceptions of leadership in relation to employee attitudes and behaviour (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumba, & Chan, 2009; Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996). The argument is that, since team members continuously interact, they are in a better position to evaluate leadership and team processes, and how these would affect their team's engagement. Related to this, in our study, individual team members' responses were aggregated to the team level, which should minimize possible individual response bias (Favero & Bullock, 2014) and thus provide a more balanced image of team processes and outcomes. This approach is also valuable if used to collect team members' perceptions of leadership, rather than relying on a leader's assessment of their own leadership, which could easily be biased (Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015).

Even though there are no statistical techniques that reliably overcome common method bias (Favero & Bullock, 2014), a robustness check was performed to assess the likelihood of common method bias in spite of the precautions as discussed above. In

this analysis, a 'non-ideal' marker variable was added to the model tested, which did not change the main covariances between independent and dependent variables, suggesting that our results are not a consequence of this form of bias.

The findings of this study enable us to provide some valuable insights into applying the Categorization-Elaboration Model to understand leaders' perceptions of diversity and their impact of transformational leadership's effectiveness in improving and facilitating necessary team processes and engagement. In terms of this, this study shows the importance of leadership behaviour that through managing affective processes develops a group identity, cohesiveness, and shared goals that enable team members to work well together. This in turn supports cognitive processes in terms of exchanging, discussing, and utilizing the different perspectives, ideas, and knowledge that is needed to make use of the valuable resources a diverse team provides.



Chapter 5

Developing a measurement
instrument for
inclusive leadership

5.1 Introduction

Due to societal developments, public organizations increasingly become more ethnic-culturally diverse. As a result, public managers are more and more placed with the responsibility of managing workforce diversity and to foster inclusiveness in the organization (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015b; Ritz & Alfes, 2017). This task is not that simple to accomplish though. Some of the difficulties leaders may face in managing team diversity includes the aspects of preventing intergroup bias and the exclusion of (perceived) dissimilar group members, which result from categorization processes when differences among team members are amplified (Guillaume et al., 2014, 2017; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Williams & O'Reilly III, 1998). It also involves how to ensure that everyone, taking into account his or her differences, has the opportunity to contribute to the team. Although these processes may be relevant for any diversity attribute, ethnic-culturally heterogeneous teams specifically seem to experience more conflict and less cooperation and cohesion (Meeussen et al., 2014), suggesting that effective leadership in such teams is required.

Inclusive leadership has therefore gained the interest of scholars (Hirak, Peng, Carmeli, & Schaubroeck, 2012; Randel et al., 2017). However, to date, a comprehensive conceptualization and operationalization of inclusive leadership is lacking within academic literature (Randel et al., 2017). The concept of leader inclusiveness has been addressed by Nembhard and Edmondson (2006) who defined it as a leader's behaviour that invites and appreciates contributions that would otherwise not be heard. Others have addressed leader inclusiveness in terms of the quality of leader-member exchanges (Nishii & Mayer, 2009) or have used transformational leadership as a possible indicator of inclusive behaviour aimed at managing team diversity processes (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015b; Kearney & Gebert, 2009). Although transformational leadership is effective in developing a collective social identity for preventing intergroup bias, this in particular could result in group members' downplaying their unique identities causing an imbalance of belongingness and uniqueness (Randel et al., 2017).

Although these studies underline the importance of leadership, little is offered as to how leaders can actually manage those processes that enable individuals to feel they belong to the group while, at the same time, that their unique contributions are valued and appreciated (Randel et al., 2017; Shore et al., 2011). Extensive conceptualizations and measurements to assess specific leadership behaviours that identify the individual in relation to the team are, perhaps surprisingly, limited available (Randel et al., 2017). In response to this gap, a theoretical framework is constructed that distinguishes leadership behaviour that supports an individual's need for uniqueness and belongingness (Brewer, 1991; Shore et al., 2011). This is done through stimulating cognitive information/decision-making processes while, at the same time, minimizing the possible negative affective categorization processes (Van Knippenberg, De Dreu & Homan, 2004;

Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010) that might hinder an individual's feelings of belongingness (Brewer, 1991; Shore et al., 2011).

This study contributes to the field of leadership, inclusion, and work group diversity by conceptualizing inclusive leadership involving two key cognitive and affective dimensions and developing an appropriate measurement scale. Several steps are involved in developing this measure, which is then tested and validated using data on employees working in Dutch public sector organizations (N= 304) (DeVellis, 2003; Hinkin, 1998). The measurement instrument can be used to examine how leadership can contribute to inclusiveness in teams, and in so doing affect team outcomes. Furthermore, the scale provides input for leadership development programmes that can be used to cultivate the leadership skills that are needed for managing team diversity and fostering inclusiveness in organizations. This in particular is relevant since inclusiveness enables organizations' to serve diverse needs of their employees, as well as making use of their diverse strengths in response to complex issues that arise from contemporary society (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015a; Dwertmann et al., 2016; Mor Barak et al., 2016; Nishii, 2013; Pless & Maak, 2004; Syed & Ozbilgin, 2015).

The next part of this article reviews the literature and outlines the conceptualization of inclusive leadership. Following this, the data and methods are discussed, followed by a results section and then a discussion and conclusions.

5.2 Theoretical framework

5.2.1 Inclusive leadership

Leaders are crucial actors in managing the organizational processes required to create a climate of inclusion. They are seen as agents of the organization, communicating its norms and values, who shape the organizational culture (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2012). As such, their leadership is an essential factor when studying inclusiveness, which enables employees to have the opportunity to have unique social identities, while, at the same time, ensuring employees have the feeling that they belong and thus are treated as insiders (Mor Barak et al., 2016; Nishii, 2013; Shore et al., 2011).

Inclusive leadership has been identified in the literature as being able to foster inclusiveness. Nembhard and Edmonson (2006), for instance, discuss leader inclusiveness in terms of inviting and appreciating those voices that otherwise would not be heard. They discussed status differences and a safety climate as aspects that could hinder or enable different voices to be heard. Although this conceptualization captures leadership that encourages employees to voice and value different ideas, it is not clear whether and how these ideas are utilized in their team. Furthermore, it does not address the concrete behaviour that is necessary to create the level playing field that will enable

individuals to voice diverse perspectives, ideas, skills, and expertise (Randel et al., 2017). It rather focuses on how a leader himself or herself would value and utilize employee differences in the context of teams that consist of team members that consist of different (medical) professionals.

A more elaborate discussion of inclusive leadership is therefore required using two theoretical frameworks to distinguish between the cognitive and affective processes involved. Shore et al. (2011) discuss Optimal Distinctiveness Theory as a way to explain individuals' feelings of inclusion. This framework refers to two needs that individuals seek to balance: the need for uniqueness and individuality, as well as the need for validation and similarity with others to feel a sense of belongingness in the organization. Both aspects are important for inclusiveness in an organizational context.

The above-mentioned aspects tie into the cognitive and affective processes that have been elaborated upon in the Categorization-Elaboration Model (CEM) (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). The CEM integrates an information elaboration and decision-making perspective with a social categorization perspective on diversity. On the one hand, elaborating task-related information, knowledge, and perspectives could enhance a group's creativity, innovation, and decision quality. As such, exchanging, discussing, and utilizing differences in a diverse group reflects cognitive processes. Affective processes, on the other hand, refer to categorization processes that result from similarities and differences, and lead to distinguishing between in-group and out-group members (or intergroup bias: "us and them"). These aspects need to be appropriately managed if one is to enhance the positive and minimize the negative processes of diversity (Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010).

Since, affective processes could disrupt cognitive processes (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004), and uniqueness and belongingness need to be balanced, inclusive leadership should be directed at simultaneously managing these processes. Inclusive leadership can thus be defined as leadership that stimulates the exchange, discussion and utilization of employees' diverse features, as well as supporting the full participation of all employees in order to satisfy needs' of individuation and belongingness. These objectives are further discussed in the next paragraph.

5.2.2 Objectives of inclusive leadership

5.2.2.1 Cognitive diversity processes

The information/decision-making perspective can be applied to make use of an individual's uniqueness. According to this perspective, diversity is positively related to the elaboration of task-relevant information and perspectives, and thus to the exchange of knowledge, and the discussion and integration of ideas, insights, viewpoints, etc. (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004). The underlying assumption is that elaborating information will result in in-group team performance in forms such as creativity, innovation, and

improved decision quality. Similarly, the integration and learning perspective argues that team members should be supported in learning from differences since these could be the source of creative and innovative solutions to complex tasks, and thus should be integrated into work tasks and processes (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

Key to the above processes is exchanging the knowledge, perspectives, ideas, and experience that diverse individuals may bring, and learning from this diversity. However, it is not a given that individuals and team members are able or willing to engage in this exchange and learning behaviour. According to the Categorization-Elaboration Model, information will only be shared if one has the motivation and ability to do so (Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). This indicates that one has first to be motivated and then facilitated to make use of this diversity.

Leaders, in this regard, perform an important role in motivating and facilitating their followers to engage in exchanging, as well as in learning behaviour. This involves leaders creating an environment in which opportunities are developed for individuals to establish diverse viewpoints, such as when it comes to problem solving. Leaders, in turn, need to encourage the exchange of these diverse viewpoints among employees, and to stimulate followers to discuss these differences. The next step would be for leaders to adopt behaviour that then stimulates the utilization of these differences to enhance creativity, innovation, and problem solving. In doing so, leaders manage the cognitive processes that are needed to create value from diversity and ensure that individuals have the opportunity to express their uniqueness (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Shore et al., 2011; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010).

5.2.2.2 Affective diversity processes

As explained earlier, besides having the opportunity to express differences, individuals also need to feel there is a safe environment. In such an environment, individuals will feel safe to voice differences, and group members will be stimulated to learn from these differences (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2014; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). To ensure a safe climate, leaders need to create an environment in which individuals feel they belong; in other words, that they are treated as insiders. In order to achieve this, leaders need to manage possible negative diversity processes that could reduce feelings of safety, and possibly threaten cognitive processes.

Social identities involve an individual's self-concept as derived from their membership of social groups. Salient differences among group members' social identities may lead to friction and conflict due to social categorization processes that result in intergroup biases distinguishing in-group from out-group members ("us and them") (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004) and the perception of differences in status or social dominance (Jansen et al., 2015; Leslie et al., 2014). At the same time, optimal distinctiveness theory posits that individuals have the need for validation and similarity with others, and that this creates a sense of belongingness through identifying with, and

seeking acceptance within, the group or organization (Brewer, 1991; Shore et al., 2011). Belongingness is, in this regard, defined as the need to form and maintain strong and stable interpersonal relationships that make an individual feel like an insider (Jansen et al., 2014; Shore et al., 2011). Overall, it would appear that individuals have a need for differentiation, but that being perceived as different could have negative consequences in terms of social categorization.

In order to prevent followers feeling they are outsiders, leaders need an awareness of these processes so that they can prevent the negative stereotyping of others that may induce categorization processes (Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). Research has shown that visible differences are most commonly associated with stereotyping and hence these could lead to social categorization (Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007; Joshi & Roh, 2009; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). Therefore, inclusive leadership should aim to prevent such negative stereotyping, and ensure that everyone can be themselves without this resulting in the negative effects of social categorization, and ensuring everyone is treated as an insider.

On a related issue, inclusive leaders will prevent employees forming subgroups that could exclude others they perceive as different from themselves (Brewer, 1991; Jansen et al., 2014; Shore et al., 2011; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). If employees categorize each other into subgroups that exclude them from participating, or prevent them having a voice, this could have a negative effect on employees need for differentiation and sense of being treated as an insider. Being perceived as different would then be seen as a negative, which could also impact upon cognitive processes such as the exchanging of different ideas. Related to social categorization, and the impact this could have on cognitive processes, are the views one might have of diversity: does one believe that diversity has value for the work or organization, or not? (Homan, Greer, Jehn & Koning, 2010; Homan et al., 2007; Jansen et al., 2015; Podsiaclowski, Gröschke, Kogler, Springer & Van der Zee, 2013). These beliefs regarding diversity are presumed to be manageable, and therefore a possible outcome of inclusive leadership. To foster positive diversity beliefs, it is necessary to communicate the value of diversity and its benefits to team members.

Creating a supportive work environment will foster a positive attitude towards diversity and may reduce negative social categorization. This would result in an environment where one can be oneself, and therefore it is important that leaders enhance the strength and positive valence of the bond between individuals and the group (Jansen et al., 2014). In addition, a positive attitude towards diversity will increase one's openness to exchanging perspectives, knowledge, and views that will affect the cognitive processes of diversity. Inclusive leadership thus involves an affective dimension that entails concrete behaviour to support employees' belongingness.

5.2.3 Conceptual distinctiveness

Previous studies have identified transformational leadership as an effective means to manage diversity (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015b; Kearney & Gebert, 2009). Transformational leadership is a leadership style directed at motivating, inspiring, and giving direction to followers in times of change, and is therefore often considered in relation to managing diversity (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015b; Kearney & Gebert, 2009). It involves behaviours such as intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration (Bass et al., 2003) that have been positively linked to cognitive and affective diversity processes (Kearney & Gebert, 2009).

Dimensions used to measure transformational leadership could involve managing of cognitive and affective processes. On the one hand, intellectual stimulation involves managing cognitive processes by stimulating individuals to rethink and reframe problems and to think of new ways to solve problems (Bass et al., 2003). On the other hand, transformational leadership aims to create a collective team spirit or identity, and this can be linked to managing affective processes. Transformational leaders are seen as able to portray a vision that establishes a collective identity, but a downside of this is that individual needs for uniqueness or belongingness may be overlooked (Randel et al., 2017).

Moreover, transformational leadership is essentially directed at instigating change processes in organizations, rather than at managing a diverse workforce. The question can thus be raised as to whether transformational leaders indeed recognize the need to manage both cognitive and affective processes in a way that allows the double-edged sword of diversity to be wielded. Given this uncertainty, the relationship between inclusive leadership and transformational leadership will be investigated in this study to gain a greater understanding of the similarities and distinctiveness of the two constructs.

5.3 Scale development and results

5.3.1 Initial item generation

The development and validation of the inclusive leadership scale involved various steps (DeVellis, 2003; Hinkin, 1998). The first step was to generate an initial set of items. The cognitive and affective diversity processes as discussed in the theoretical framework were translated to concrete leadership behaviour that is required to support those processes in a team. Cognitive processes, for instance, require leadership that encourages and stimulates the exchange, discussion and learning of team members' diverse perspectives. Whereas affective processes call for leadership that facilitates and stimulates the full participation of all team members. Several items, and in

multiple forms, were as a result generated to measure both dimensions of inclusive leadership⁹.

Previous leadership studies tend to operationalize leadership behaviour by its intended effects, rather than actual behaviour that links to the concept developed (e.g. Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). To refine the initial constructed items, these were first discussed with three HRM and leadership scholars with expertise in survey research. Previous research also found empirical, as well as conceptual differences between employees' ratings and leader's self-ratings of leader behaviour (because leaders might have a self-rating bias). As such, these studies argue for capturing employees' perceptions of leadership rather than intended leadership (Avolio et al., 2009; Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015). Items were therefore formulated to capture employees' perceptions of their leaders' inclusive behaviours. This resulted in the initial list of items presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Items prior to cognitive interviews

Cognitive dimension	
<i>"My supervisor [...]"</i>	
1.	stimulates me to express diverse viewpoints even if these are not standard
2.	stimulates me to exchange different ideas with colleagues
3.	ensures I can exchange different perspectives with colleagues
4.	stimulates me to use colleagues' diverse backgrounds, perspectives, experiences, and skills for solving problems
5.	supports me in using team members' diverse backgrounds, perspectives, experiences, and skills as a source of creativity and innovation
6.	stimulates me to integrate the diverse viewpoints, knowledge, and perspectives of colleagues in my work
7.	supports me in discussing diverse viewpoints and perspectives on problem-solving
Affective dimension	
<i>"My supervisor [...]"</i>	
1.	stimulates me to develop strong and stable interpersonal relationships with colleagues
2.	stimulates me to actively participate in the team
3.	ensures I am treated as an equal member of the team
4.	prevents me from thinking negative stereotypes of other colleagues
5.	prevents me forming subgroups that could exclude other colleagues
6.	enables me to be myself in the team
7.	communicates the benefits of diversity for the team
8.	ensures I have the opportunity to have a voice

⁹ Given the limited space, only those items included in the survey are detailed in the paper; the initial longer list is available from the author.

5.3.2 Cognitive interviews: item refinement

The items in Table 5.1 were then pre-tested in cognitive interviews. The interview design enabled an in-depth insight into the processes through which respondents try to understand, interpret, and answer survey questions, which gives an indication as to whether the intentions of the researcher have been met (Beatty & Willis, 2007; Presser et al., 2004). Using verbal probing and thinking-aloud sessions, respondents were asked to reflect on the list of items. Probes included phrases such as: ‘What are you thinking?’ and ‘How did you arrive at that answer?’. By doing so, it was possible to clearly map the different components and to test the appropriateness of the conceptualizations (Beatty & Willis, 2007).

In total, eleven respondents participated in these interviews. The respondents worked for a range of Dutch public organizations, including two ministries, a municipality, and a university. Four of the respondents had supervisory responsibilities and therefore were able to comment on the items based on their experiences in managing their team. From an employee perspective, respondents reflected how they perceived the role of leadership in terms of managing the team’s cognitive and affective processes. Of the respondents, four had a non-native background, of whom one was a native English speaker, their ages ranged from 30 and 60, and five were men.

The cognitive interviews had an average duration of one hour. If respondent felt an item had to be changed, they made suggestions upon how items could be improved. During the interview respondents’ propositions for change and their interpretations were noted and reflected upon after the interview was finished. The results of the cognitive interviews are presented in the next section, which also explains to what extent items were modified based on the interviews.

5.3.2.1 Results of cognitive interviews: cognitive processes

For the cognitive dimension, several items had been developed concerning stimulating and supporting the expression of differences, utilizing these differences in problem-solving, creativity, and innovation, and integrating these differences in work tasks. Some of the statements referred to stimulating and some to supporting activities. Most of the respondents grasped a difference between leaders stimulating and supporting activities. One first has to be motivated or triggered into sharing, using and learning from team members’ differences. And secondly, one could be facilitated to actually acting upon those attitudes and behaviours. This links back to the conditions that enable information elaboration as indicated in the Categorization-Elaboration Model (i.e. motivation and ability) (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004). However, some had to re-read the statements to capture the intended differences between the two. To prevent later difficulties in understanding the distinction, the supporting term was replaced by “the supervisor encourages me (or ensures that) [...]”, while motivating was referred to as “the supervisor stimulates me to [...]”.

A central focus within the cognitive dimension is encouraging employees to share and utilize a range of perspectives in their work. When reacting to items that refer to these leadership behaviours, respondents asked whether it was indeed a supervisor's role to encourage these activities. Since all of the respondents saw it as part of their job to seek different perspectives and ideas, they questioned whether this was a supervisor's responsibility or that of all employees. However, when asked whether this would apply in every situation, respondents emphasized that supervisors should ensure that everyone has the opportunity to be heard, especially in circumstances where their voice might go unnoticed. The statements that refer to the encouragement of the discussion and exchange of diverse viewpoints and perspectives were therefore retained in the measurement.

Working in a Dutch public organization can involve implementing policies and programs, established by a coalition cabinet of various political parties, that do not necessarily represent one's own political preferences. In such situations, sharing your own political ideology may not be seen as desirable. As such, in practice, sharing and using different perspectives is subject to, often informal, rules and regulations that apply in a given organization. Given this, where items were referring to differences, respondents felt it should be clear what sort of differences were meant. Differences, they argued, could refer to a number of aspects both visible, such as demographic characteristics, as well as less visible, such as one's beliefs, norms, and values. To prevent respondents interpreting a question in different ways, the statements were adapted to ensure that respondents knew what differences were being addressed such as perspectives and ideas that result from different ethnic-cultural backgrounds.

5.3.2.2 Results of cognitive interviews: affective processes

Several items (see Table 5.1) were developed for measuring the affective dimension of leadership including items on creating strong and stable interpersonal relationships, on being treated as a member of the group, on having a voice, and on participating in the team. Initially, the respondents felt it was the individual's, and not the leader's, responsibility that they participated and voiced their ideas. The respondents did not expect their supervisor to support them in participating actively and in developing interpersonal relationships with colleagues.

However, when probed whether this would always be the case, the respondents replied that in some circumstances the supervisor could step in. For example, if someone was shy or not being included, the supervisor could ask that person directly if they have something to contribute. A supervisor could also talk to team members if they were thought to be excluding a colleague due to intergroup bias. These considerations indicate that such processes might prevail in the team, which needs leadership to act upon. Therefore, items that refer to the supervisor stimulating the participation and ensuring the opportunity to have a voice were retained in the measurement scale, while the item on developing interpersonal relationships with colleagues was removed.

The item on preventing employees thinking in stereotypes was rephrased to better capture the supervisor trying to prevent employees so doing, rather than an actual outcome of employees being prevented from so thinking. This change was made because our respondents observed that a situation could arise despite a supervisor having the possibility to prevent it.

Furthermore, the concept of ‘team’ raised some questions. Most of the respondents worked in various collaborations depending on the topic involved; for example, a certain policy domain might only involve their department, or it might cut across departments throughout the organization. It was therefore felt necessary to provide a brief description in which a team refers to a group or cluster of colleagues with whom the respondent works on a daily basis and who have a shared task or goal that they, as a team, have to complete. This explanation was given in the introduction text of the survey. The various suggestions led to revising the statements on affective behaviour aimed at managing affective processes resulting in the revised set provided in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Inclusive leadership

Cognitive dimension	
<i>"My supervisor [...]"</i>	
1.	encourages me to discuss diverse viewpoints and perspectives on problem-solving with colleagues
2.	ensures I have the opportunity to express diverse viewpoints
3.	stimulates me to exchange different ideas with colleagues
4.	encourages me to use colleagues' diverse ethnic-cultural backgrounds in problem-solving
5.	ensures that I use colleagues' diverse ethnic-cultural backgrounds as a source for creativity and innovation
6.	stimulates me to learn from colleagues' ethnic-cultural backgrounds
Affective dimension	
<i>"My supervisor [...]"</i>	
1.	stimulates me to actively participate in the team
2.	ensures I am treated as an equal member of the team
3.	tries to prevent me from thinking about colleagues in negative stereotypes
4.	tries to prevent employees forming groups that could exclude other colleagues
5.	ensures I have the opportunity to be myself in the team
6.	communicates to employees the benefits of ethnic-cultural diversity in the team
7.	ensures I have the opportunity to have a voice in the team

5.4 Scale validation and results

5.4.1 Data

Dutch public sector organizations have a long history of implementing diversity policies to improve the representation of minorities (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012; Rijksoverheid, 2016), and therefore provided a desirable context to survey employees on diversity and inclusive leadership. The Dutch public sector is divided into different administrative

tiers of the central government, the provinces, the municipalities, the judiciary, and the water authorities, as well as an educational and science sector and a safety sector (defence and police force) (Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations, 2016). To test the developed measurement scale, data were collected among employees of two ministries (central government) and two municipalities (local government). Of these sub-sectors central government and the municipalities have the highest representation of ethnic-cultural minorities, 18 and 16 percent respectively (in 2014) and provided therefore the necessary context for examining inclusive leadership.

Invitations to the online survey were sent to approximately 556 employees that were selected through the team supervisors and HR departments of each organization. In total, 304 employees completed the questionnaire, a response rate of 54.7%. Of these respondents, 32.8% had non-native Dutch backgrounds¹⁰, 40% were female, and the mean age was 43. On average, the respondents had worked for 15 years in their respective organization, although there was considerable variation ($SD = 10.44$). Of the respondents, 58% worked in one of the two ministries.

Respondents were asked to what extent they agreed with the statements presented in Table 5.2, with possible answers ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). To test the factor structure and potentially reduce the number of items, the total sample of 304 team members was split into two roughly equal random samples. An independent samples T-test was carried out to check that the two samples were similar, and this failed to identify any significant differences between the descriptive variables of each sample as shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Descriptive statistics for total and random samples

Variable	Total sample	EFA sample	CFA sample
Ethnic Origin (0 = Native Dutch, 1 = non-native Dutch)	.328 (.470)	.359 (.482)	.297 (.457)
Gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	.40	.41	.38
Age	43.8 (10.812)	43.38 (10.655)	44.20 (10.989)
Educational level	4.68 (1.299)	4.64 (1.324)	4.71 (1.275)
Organizational Tenure (in years)	15.15 (10.439)	14.97 (10.393)	15.34 (10.525)
N	304	153	151

Note. Means with standard deviation in parentheses. Educational level was subdivided into six categories (1 = primary education; 2 = secondary vocational education; 3 = preparatory academic education; 4 = vocational education; 5 = higher vocational education; 6 = academic education).

The first subsample was used in an explorative factor analysis (EFA) (carried out in SPSS 20) in which the 13 items in Table 5.2 were examined and their dimensions/factors were explored. The second subsample was used in a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to validate (using STATA 13) the factor structure that resulted from the EFA analysis.

¹⁰ The term non-native Dutch background refers to people who were born in a country other than the Netherlands and/or having one or both parents born abroad.

5.4.2 Exploratory factor analysis

Initially, a principal component analysis (PCA), with oblique rotation, was conducted on the 13 items. This is a favoured method when factors are expected to be correlated (Field, 2009). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy with a KMO = .93, and all individual items having values >.90, well above the acceptable limit of .50. Furthermore, a Bartlett's test of Sphericity indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large ($\chi^2_{(78)} = 1688.71, p < .001$). This analysis resulted in a two-factor solution of which the first factor explained 65% of the variance and the second 8.3%, a total explained variance of 73.3%. All the inter-item correlations were >.40 and < .90, which shows that each item assesses the same content. Table 5.4 shows the factor loadings after rotation, with the pattern matrix showing the factor loadings of each respective item. The structure matrix shows the product of the pattern matrix and the correlation coefficients between factors.

Table 5.4: Results EFA

Rotated factor loadings		Pattern Matrix		Structure Matrix	
	<i>"My supervisor [...]"</i>	<i>Cognitive</i>	<i>Affective</i>	1	2
1.	encourages me to discuss diverse viewpoints and perspectives on problem-solving with colleagues	-.795		-.858	.660
2.	ensures I have the opportunity to express diverse viewpoints	-.508		-.786	.751
3.	stimulates me to exchange different ideas with colleagues	-.686		-.848	.718
4.	encourages me to use colleagues' diverse ethnic-cultural backgrounds in problem-solving	-.994		-.911	.598
5.	ensures that I use colleagues' diverse ethnic-cultural backgrounds as a source for creativity and innovation	-.834		-.895	.684
6.	stimulates me to learn from colleagues' ethnic-cultural backgrounds	-.942		-.909	.630
7.	stimulates me to actively participate in the team		.829	-.667	.880
8.	ensures I am treated as an equal member of the team		.955	-.567	.869
9.	tries to prevent me from thinking about colleagues in negative stereotypes		.677	-.546	.720
10.	tries to prevent employees to forming groups that could exclude other colleagues		.582	-.702	.786
11.	ensures I have the opportunity to be myself in the team		.944	-.604	.891
12.	communicates to employees the benefits of ethnic-cultural diversity in the team		.703	-.636	.797
13.	ensures I have the opportunity to have a voice in the team		.833	-.630	.856
Cronbach's alpha (α)		.94	.93		

In the next step, a reliability analysis was performed for the two factors. First, items 1 to 6, measuring inclusive leadership aimed at managing cognitive processes, returned a Cronbach's alpha (α) = .94, indicating high reliability. Items 7 to 13 measuring inclusive leadership aimed at managing affective processes returned a Cronbach's of α = .93, similarly indicating high reliability of the factors.

5.4.3 Confirmatory factor analysis

To examine the stability of the factor structure obtained from the exploratory factor analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed to evaluate the fit of the measurement model. To estimate the fit, the following indices were used: the conventional chi-square test (CMIN), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). A model is assumed to be reasonably well fitting when CFI and TLI are $> .95$ and RMSEA is $< .06$ and SRMR $< .05$ (Byrne, 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999). To check that a two-factor model is an acceptable fit, and a better fit than a one-factor model, goodness of fit statistics were compared. As Table 5.5 shows, while the two-factor model (M1) showed an improved fit over the one-factor model (M0), the fit was still unsatisfactory, as the CFA statistics did not meet the thresholds of acceptability outlined above.

Therefore, steps were taken to improve the model and its fit with the data. Each step in improving the baseline model (M1) is explained below, and the revised fit statistics are again shown in Table 5.5. First, we observed that the disturbance variances of items 3 and 4 (see Table 5.4) were correlated. This correlation indicates that items 3 and 4 have common unexplained variance that might be caused by inadequately formulated survey questions, or due to respondents' inability to answer to the asked questions (Byrne, 2010). However, theoretically, both items relate to social categorization processes leading to the exclusion of others or the formation of groups based on implicit biases (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004). We therefore added a correlation between the two disturbance variances. Nevertheless, the resulting model (M2) still lacked a satisfactory fit. Next, in model M3, a correlation between disturbance variances of items 12 and 13 was added. Both items refer to utilizing the cultural backgrounds of colleagues as a resource and therefore theoretically seemed justified. This improved the model slightly, but not yet to a satisfactory level. Then, in model M4, a correlation was added among the disturbance variances of items 11 and 13. These items seemed to have unexplained variance in common that might be due to the fact both items relate to the opportunity to be oneself. This added correlation, however, still failed to deliver a satisfactory fit. Finally, in model M5, a correlation between disturbance variances of items 2 and 5 was added, that have unexplained variance in common since both involve the elaboration and utilization of differences. This final adjustment resulted in a model that satisfied the criteria for a satisfactory fit.

Table 5.5: Model fit comparison

Model	CMIN	df	<i>p</i>	CMIN/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
M0	308.510	65	.000	4.746	.797	.830	.164	.066
M1	205.935	64	.000	3.218	.880	.901	.126	.052
M2	169.530	63	.000	2.691	.908	.926	.110	.047
M3	140.763	62	.000	2.270	.931	.945	.095	.047
M4	119.540	61	.000	1.960	.948	.959	.083	.046
M5	101.930	60	.000	1.699	.962	.971	.071	.041

The main results from the final model can be found in Table 5.6, and illustrated in Appendix A5.1, including the factor loadings, the correlation between the two factors, as well as the added correlations among the disturbance variances.

Table 5.6: Results CFA

Standardized Regression Weights			Estimate
Cognitive dimension			
1.	encourages me to discuss diverse viewpoints and perspectives on problem-solving with colleagues		.855
2.	ensures I have the opportunity to express diverse viewpoints		.817
3.	stimulates me to exchange different ideas with colleagues		.877
4.	encourages me to use colleagues' diverse ethnic-cultural backgrounds in problem-solving		.799
5.	ensures that I use colleagues' diverse ethnic-cultural backgrounds as a source for creativity and innovation		.790
6.	stimulates me to learn from colleagues' ethnic-cultural backgrounds		.771
Affective dimension			
1.	stimulates me to actively participate in the team		.818
2.	ensures I am treated as an equal member of the team		.820
3.	tries to prevent me from thinking about colleagues in negative stereotypes		.629
4.	tries to prevent employees forming groups that could exclude other colleagues		.703
5.	ensures I have the opportunity to be myself in the team		.818
6.	communicates to employees the benefits of ethnic-cultural diversity in the team		.715
7.	ensures I have the opportunity to have a voice in the team		.828
Correlations			
Cognitive dimension	<-->	Affective dimension	.885
e11	<-->	e13	.316
e2	<-->	e5	.340
e3	<-->	e4	.423
e12	<-->	e13	.402

5.4.4 Construct validity tests

5.4.4.1 Discriminant validity

As a validity test for the two-factor model, a three-factor CFA was then calculated for the total sample for the two dimensions of inclusive leadership plus transformational leadership using an adjusted 12 items scale (see Appendix 5.2) that had been used in a previous study. This model had the following goodness of fit statistics: $\chi^2_{(272)} = 904.504$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .097, CFI = .887, TLI = .875 and SRMR = .045 indicating an unacceptable fit. This model suggested strong correlations between the cognitive dimension of leadership and transformational leadership (.85), and between affective behaviour and transformational leadership (.87). However, a one-factor model had an even worse fit: $\chi^2_{(275)} = 1291.269$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .122, CFI = .818, TLI = .802 and SRMR = .056. Despite the high correlation between transformational leadership and the two inclusive leadership dimensions, the three-factor model better fitted the data than a one-factor model. Moreover, the modification indices indicate that the model fit could only be improved by adding correlations among disturbance variances of items the corresponding factor. The three-factor model is illustrated in Appendix A5.3.

In a next step we tested for discriminant validity of the two-factor inclusive leadership model, with the cognitive and affective dimensions, against a factor for leader inclusiveness. The model statistics are presented graphically in Appendix A5.4. Like the previous test, the two measures were strongly correlated. However, a three-factor model indicated a better fit in support of the two dimensions of inclusive leadership. Rather than capturing intended effects of leadership, the measurement scale developed, identify concrete leadership behaviour that enables the full participation of all team members and stimulates them to learn from and utilize each other's strengths. The items measuring both a cognitive and affective dimension of inclusive leadership thus shows the specific behaviours leaders can employ to stimulate and facilitate cognitive and affective processes in the team.

5.4.4.2 Criterion validity

To examine the effect of inclusive leadership on a climate of inclusion, a model was tested in which inclusive leadership was represented by the two cognitive and affective dimensions, and inclusive climate measured through employees' perceptions of 1) equal employment practices, 2) integration of differences in work practices, and 3) integration of differences in decision making (Nishii, 2013). This model had the following fit: $\chi^2_{(98)} = 260.48$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .082, CFI = .951, TLI = .940, SRMR = .039, CD = .985. Further, both leadership dimensions were significantly associated with employees' perceptions of inclusiveness. In other words, the more that employees perceive their leader as implementing inclusive leadership, the more they perceive the climate as being inclusive of diversity. These results can be found in Appendix A5.5

5.5 Discussion and conclusion

This article has contributed to existing studies on leadership, inclusion, and diversity by developing a comprehensive conceptualization of inclusive leadership and translating this into a quantitative measurement instrument. A clear conceptualization of inclusive leadership was to date missing in the literature (Randel et al., 2017). Previous studies have emphasized the importance of leadership in managing diversity processes (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015b; Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Mitchell et al., 2015), but have not specified leadership behaviour that is particularly aimed at addressing both cognitive and affective processes and, in so doing, considers the individual employee in relation to their team.

This study defined inclusive leadership as a set of behaviours that on the one hand, seek to stimulate team members to adopt learning behaviours in regard to team diversity and to utilize team diversity, and on the other hand facilitate the participation of all team members. Through managing both cognitive and affective team processes, inclusive leadership supports an individual's need for uniqueness (Brewer, 1991; Randel et al., 2017; Shore et al., 2011) while, at the same time, facilitate individuals' needs for belongingness in the team (Brewer, 1991; Shore et al., 2011). In so doing, this study responded to a recent call in the literature to develop a robust measurement scale of inclusive leadership that can be used in empirical studies (Randel et al., 2017).

The affective dimension involves leadership that prevents and reduces the consequences of categorization processes that could result in intergroup bias and the exclusion of dissimilar others. This is done by actively encouraging all team members to participate. Further, by communicating the importance of diversity for the team, affective leadership creates an environment in which individuals feel safe to voice differing opinions, ideas, and perspectives. Through the cognitive dimension, inclusive leadership stimulates and encourages team members to exchange and utilize different views, ideas, and expertise with members of their team. This also involves learning from the different cultural backgrounds of team members and integrating this knowledge in one's work.

Of the two leadership dimensions considered, affective leadership was more strongly related to an inclusive climate than the cognitive dimension. This suggests that, rather than focusing only on the exchange, discussion, and utilization of differences, it is particularly important to prevent negative outcomes stemming from social categorization. It indicates that managing team diversity does not only involve a business case strategy aimed at the utilization of diversity, but involves creating an inclusive work environment in a socially responsible manner as well (Syed & Ozbilgin, 2015). By distinguishing between cognitive and affective behaviours we have gained a more nuanced understanding of inclusive leadership that considers both individual

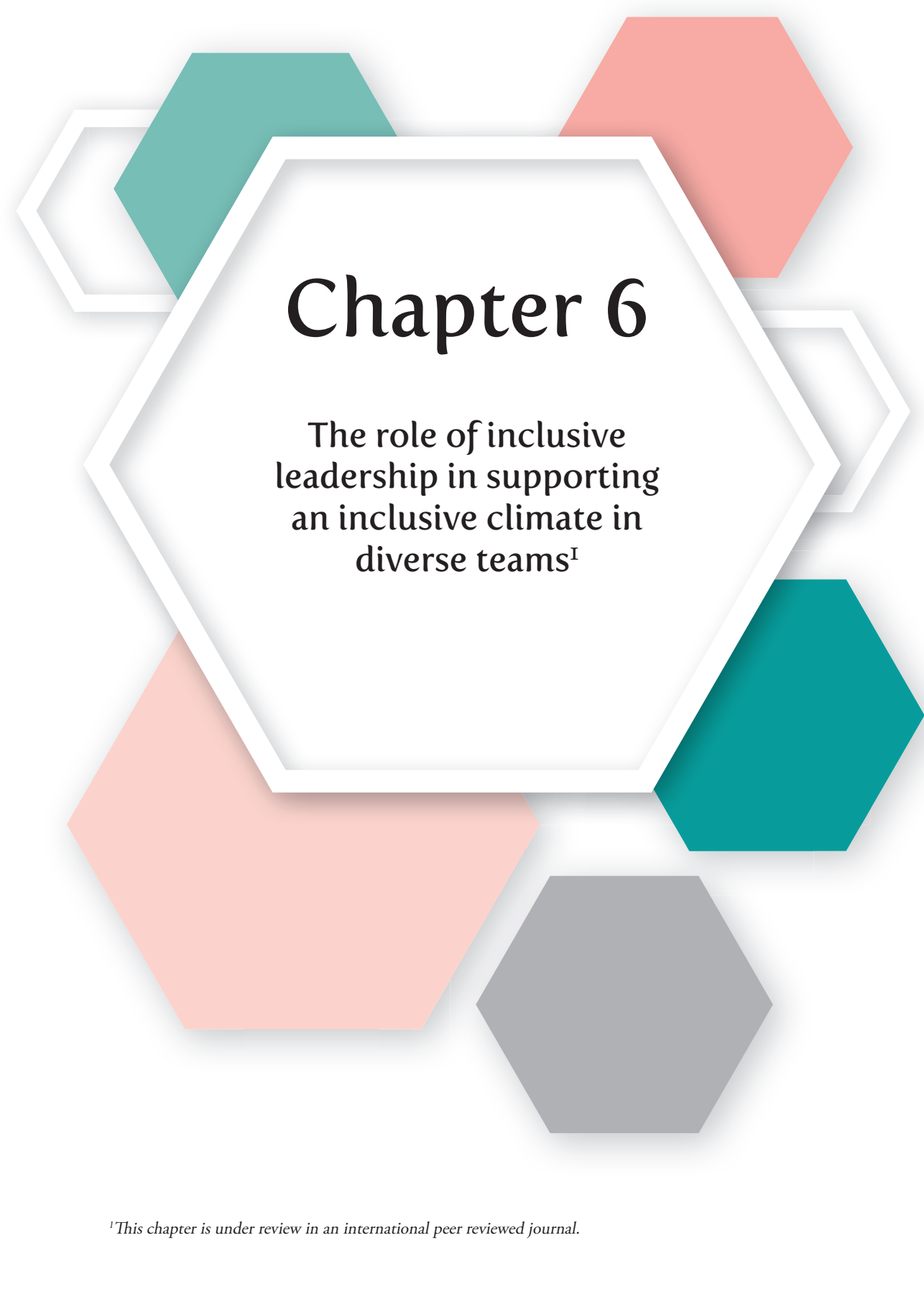
needs for uniqueness and belongingness, as well as team processes that might hinder or support valuing team diversity.

Notwithstanding the findings of this study, there are some notes of caution. First, due to time constraints and limited access to respondents, it was only possible to administer a single survey. This survey therefore had to contain both the items needed for scale development as well as measures for the constructs needed to determine discriminant and criterion validity. The results of this study could be affected by common method bias explaining the high correlations found in the confirmatory factor analyses (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Nevertheless, the tested models were in support of inclusive leadership being a distinct construct consisting of two dimensions. To further validate the inclusive measurement scale, future studies could use a longitudinal design in which outcome variables are measured at different times (Favero & Bullock, 2015). In this way, independent and dependent variables can be measured separately, preventing respondents applying some rationale in answering questions in a single survey.

That said, another point for reflection is the role of a formal leader (i.e. supervisor). In this study leadership was attributed to team leaders being responsible for managing team diversity processes. However, one may question whether a formal leader is always responsible for team diversity processes on the work floor, particularly in the context of self-managed teams. In such teams, team members are responsible for planning and coordinating their own tasks and goals, and there is no manager responsible for managing team work (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Hogg, Van Knippenberg, & Rast III, 2012; Solansky, 2008). In the cognitive interviews, some respondents also thought that working with colleagues of different backgrounds and with different skills, experience, etc. was part of one's professionalism, and thus an employee's own responsibility. The fact that this view was repeatedly raised may be due to characteristics of our interviewees: they had worked for several years in their organization and their jobs required them to seek collaborations with others, including through interest groups with others outside the organization. To further examine the applicability of the developed inclusive leadership scale future research could therefore study a wider range of teams to examine its relation to team diversity and team outcomes.

To conclude, this research has made a useful contribution to the study of leadership and inclusion. It provides a comprehensive conceptualization of inclusive leadership, and developed this into a validated measurement scale that to date was lacking in the literature. Different from previous measures that identified inclusive leadership, this study puts forward a two-dimensional inclusive leadership construct. A cognitive behaviour dimension illustrates leadership behaviour that stimulates exchanging, utilizing and learning behaviour of team members in regard to the team's ethnic-cultural diversity. An affective dimension involves leadership behaviour that facilitates the full participation of all team members, by preventing possible negative

categorizations and inviting all team members to contribute. Through managing these cognitive and affective processes in the team, inclusive leadership enables individuals' needs for distinctiveness and belongingness. The measurement scale developed can be used in future research to further examine the relation between inclusive leadership and inclusiveness in teams. Public managers may use the scale as a tool to inform leadership development programmes to address leadership behaviour that actually considers team processes and what is required to foster inclusiveness.



Chapter 6

The role of inclusive
leadership in supporting
an inclusive climate in
diverse teams^I

^I*This chapter is under review in an international peer reviewed journal.*

6.I Introduction

A diverse work force is for many public organizations a central theme based on the expected outcomes diversity could bring. It could for instance enhance the organization's legitimacy and responsiveness to complex societal issues (Andrews et al., 2005; Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Pitts et al., 2010). More recently, the emphasis has shifted towards the need to have inclusive work environments in order to be appreciative of differences and to support the integration of minority employees (Andrews & Ashworth, 2015; Sabharwal et al., 2016). An inclusive climate in that regard, is required to make use of a wide range of perspectives and ideas that would enrich decision-making processes and boost the performance of diverse teams (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Mor Barak et al., 2016; Nishii, 2013).

However, whether and when increased diversity actually results in greater inclusiveness is not known, except for that this is not self-evidently the case. Emerging studies within public management suggest for supportive leadership in order to enable inclusiveness in public sector teams (Bae, Sabharwal, Smith, & Berman, 2017; Ritz & Alfes, 2017). Inclusive leadership in particular is identified to enable an environment in which differences are valued. Inclusive leadership is considered to play a pivotal role in affecting employees' experiences with equity and participation needed for their perceptions of inclusiveness (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2016, 2014; Randel et al., 2017).

The need for inclusive leadership is supported by empirical studies in the workgroup diversity literature that show that increased team diversity does not guarantee the full utilization of diversity and might even result in negative outcomes. As the workgroup diversity literature puts forward, team processes could impede the appreciation and utilization of differences. In order to enable fruitful cooperation in diverse teams, managing team diversity is essential (Guillaume et al., 2017; Joshi & Roh, 2009; Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010; Van Knippenberg et al., 2013).

While many public organizations are more and more organized based on work teams (Gould-Williams & Gatenby, 2010; Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2014; Van der Hoek et al., 2016), studies that identify the processes through which leadership enables an inclusive climate in diverse teams remains underexposed. The central research question therefore is: *To what extent does inclusive leadership moderate the relationship between team diversity and inclusive climate?* In this paper, a theoretical framework is developed to distinguish the mechanisms through which inclusive leadership may affect the relation between team diversity and inclusive climate and the extent to which public managers' inclusive leadership could support inclusiveness in those teams.

A quantitative team study design was used to reach a sample of 293 team members, clustered in 45 teams of four Dutch public organizations. To test our theoretical model, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used. This model included both objective

(team diversity) and subjective variables (inclusive climate and inclusive leadership). Using this data this study is able to analyse the link between team diversity and inclusive climate and the extent to which inclusive leadership moderates this relation.

The next section outlines the theoretical framework. After this, the data and methods are discussed. Thereafter, results are presented followed by a discussion and conclusion.

6.2 Theoretical framework

This section discusses first the concept of inclusion and an inclusive climate. Thereafter, we elaborate on team diversity and its relation to inclusiveness, followed by the moderating role of inclusive leadership on that relation.

6.2.1 Inclusion and Inclusive climate

The concept of inclusion can be defined based on optimal distinctiveness theory, that states that feelings of inclusion are dependent on two needs individuals seek to satisfy, namely belongingness and uniqueness (Shore et al., 2011). Belongingness involves individuals seeking for similarities and validation to others. Uniqueness refers to individuals seeking for individuation in comparison of others. An equal balancing of these needs would result in optimal distinctiveness (Brewer, 1991). To experience inclusion, individuals thus need to feel they belong to the group, meaning that each team member is treated as an insider, while simultaneously individuals have the opportunity to sustain and express their unique identities. This entails that differences among team members are valued, meaning each individual is encouraged to remain to their authentic self, rather than stimulated adhering to the culture or norms of dominant groups within a team (Dwertmann & Boehm, 2016; Jansen et al., 2014; Nishii, 2013; Roberson, 2006; Shore et al., 2011).

To encourage feelings of inclusion a climate is needed where diverse individuals have the opportunity to be themselves and are treated as an insider, as well as learning and utilizing from differences of team members (Dwertmann & Boehm, 2016; Dwertmann et al., 2016; Ellemers, Sleebos, Stam, & de Gilder, 2013; Nishii, 2013; Shore et al., 2011). Although there are limited studies to be found that address the concept of an inclusive climate, the scarce studies available build further on Nishii's work (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Nishii, 2013; Randel et al., 2017). This study uses these previous works, in which two dimensions are of particular interest^{13F11}. These dimensions do not distinctively capture the concepts of belongingness and uniqueness though, but involve the organizational climate in general.

¹¹ In her conceptualization of an inclusive climate, Nishii (2013) includes a component of '*fairly implemented employment practices and diversity practices*' (p. 1756). Whereas the component of employee perceptions of policies and procedures is part of an organizational climate in general (Schneider, Erhart, & Macey, 2013), in this study we are interested team members' perceptions of inclusiveness at the team level and therefore excluded this component in the current study.

The first involves *the integration of differences* dimension (Nishii, 2013). In this, the norms and expectations for being open to difference and valuing these are emphasized. By doing so, team members are able to enact their social identities, even if these would be different than mainstream or majority groups (Dwertmann & Boehm, 2016; Dwertmann et al., 2016; Nishii, 2013). The opportunity to be oneself could, as a result, meet individuals' needs for uniqueness. An environment in which differences are valued and respected therefore would support individuals' needs for uniqueness.

The second dimension, *the inclusion of differences in decision-making*, entails actively seeking different ideas and perspectives unique team members have, which are considered in decision-making processes (Nishii, 2013). Since this signals that team members' unique contributions are important and used to enhance work practices, it in turn could support their feelings of belongingness. Both the integration and inclusion of differences might sustain an environment in which diverse individuals have the opportunity to be oneself, and simultaneously are considered an insider to the group.

6.2.2 Team diversity and inclusive climate

Literature on climate formation suggests that climate formation is affected by the group composition, in which team members' homogeneity versus heterogeneity affect the strength of their shared climate perceptions (Ashforth, 1985; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013). The extent to which team diversity actually results in an inclusive climate might be contingent on team processes. From an information/decision-making perspective and a social identity/categorization perspective the relation between team diversity and inclusive climate can be explained. These perspectives identify cognitive and affective team processes that affect team diversity outcomes (Mor Barak et al., 2016; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010).

The positive effects of team diversity are explained by an information/decision making perspective that involves exchanging and discussing different ideas and perspectives to problem-solving (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). Conversely, social identity theory posits that individuals tend to seek for similarities to others, and based on the perceived similarities or difference (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Brewer, 1991; Mor Barak et al., 2016; Turner, 1975; Williams & O'Reilly III, 1998). This in turn would engender in-group versus out-group members due to similarities and differences obstructing fruitful discussions and utilization of differences with those who are considered being an out-group member.

Above processes may be of concern for any diversity attribute, visible and less visible, which is dependent on whether those differences are salient (Mayo et al., 2016; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004). Previous studies suggest that the categorization saliency and the extent to which this affects intergroup relations would be more apparent for visible demographic diversity, like ethnic-cultural diversity. Members of ethnic-cultural groups, for instance, share certain beliefs, traditions, norms or values that more easily

could elicit salient categorization due to differences between groups with different ethnic-cultural backgrounds. At the same time, however, it could also be argued that different ethnic-cultural groups have a greater pool of different perspectives and resources that can be used within a team (Mayo et al., 2016; Nederveen Pieterse, van Knippenberg, & van Dierendonck, 2013). Using the previous mentioned perspectives, two rival hypotheses on the relation between team ethnic-cultural diversity and inclusive climate can be formulated.

First, greater team ethnic-cultural diversity could result in an enhanced experience of an inclusive climate. Following the information/decision-making perspective, unique characteristics of team members are highly valued since this would enrich the different perspectives that could be used for problem-solving, contributing to team members need for belongingness and uniqueness. Previous research, for instance, has found a positive link between the representation of ethnic-cultural groups in public organizations and their feelings of inclusion (Andrews & Ashworth, 2015). Kanter's theory on the representation of groups in organizations, further, indicates that a highly imbalanced representation would engender more exclusion of those who are different than majority groups (Kanter, 1977). However, as the representation of different groups gets more balanced, intergroup relations of minority versus majority groups are less prevalent, creating a culture where every group has an opportunity to contribute (Andrews & Ashworth, 2015). Greater team ethnic-cultural diversity would therefore enhance the inclusiveness of the climate.

Hypothesis 6.1a: High team ethnic-cultural diversity is positively related to an inclusive climate.

Secondly, following social identity theory, greater team ethnic-cultural variety could engender intergroup biases and therefore deteriorate the extent to which heterogeneous teams experience an inclusive climate. Social identity and intergroup relations theories demonstrate that employee experiences of their (work) environment are explained by their group membership and the meaning they attach to that membership (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg et al., 2017). Belongingness to a specific identity group affects the interaction with members of that same group. As a result, communication and cooperation with those who are considered to be similar is expected to be more fruitful than with those who are considered to be an out-group member (Mor Barak et al., 1998; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004). The perceived similarities or differences of group members could therefore result in excluding those who are perceived to be different (Brewer, 1991; Cho & Mor Barak, 2008; Mor Barak et al., 1998; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). This would result in differential treatments in favour of in-group members, which could hinder the inclusion of diverse groups of team members. These intergroup biases may undermine social integration of all team members in diverse

teams (Nishii, 2013; Shore et al., 2011). It could therefore be argued that the greater team ethnic-cultural diversity, the less the team would experience a strong belongingness to the group as a whole, resulting in a decrease of an inclusive climate.

Hypothesis 6.1b: High team ethnic-cultural diversity is negatively related to an inclusive climate.

6.2.3 The moderating role of inclusive leadership

In order to facilitate and support belongingness and uniqueness for creating an inclusive climate, inclusive leadership is argued to be needed (Randel et al., 2016; Randel et al., 2017). Inclusive leadership considers team members' differences and support their belongingness in order to facilitate contributions of each team member, rather than emphasize the need to assimilate to collective needs or goals as is central to transformational leadership (Randel et al., 2017). Inclusive leadership in this regard is aimed at managing both cognitive information/decision-making processes and affective categorization processes in a team. By doing so, inclusive leaders provide the necessary conditions for teams to balance individual needs for uniqueness and belongingness, and as such could strengthen a positive relation between team diversity and inclusiveness. Since inclusive leadership aims to invite all team members to contribute, while at the same time support fruitful cooperation among diverse team members it can be distinguished from other leadership styles (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2014; Randel et al., 2017).

Inclusive leaders are especially focused to facilitate a safe environment in diverse settings in which all team members have the opportunity to be oneself (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Randel et al., 2017). Inclusive leaders will sustain a climate in which the norm is to be open to differences and to value these. Explicitly addressing the value of differences may enhance the openness to diversity, and as such attenuate negative effects of intergroup bias (Randel et al., 2017). Diverse team members are hence considered to be an insider to the group instead of outsiders, ensuring their feelings of belongingness.

Furthermore, by emphasizing the importance of differences, an environment is created where it is expected of team members to share and exchange distinct qualities, and to utilize these for informing work practices and decision-making. According to the Categorization-Elaboration Model, information will only be shared, if one has the motivation and ability to do so (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). This indicates that first one has to be motivated and second be facilitated to make use of diversity. Inclusive leaders perform an important role to motivate and facilitate their followers to engage in exchanging as well as learning behaviour. This involves leaders creating an environment in which they develop opportunities for individuals to express diverse viewpoints, for example, for problem-solving (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2014; Randel et al., 2016). Leaders, in turn, encourage the exchange of

these diverse viewpoints among employees, in addition to stimulating team members to discuss these differences.

Since inclusive leaders are expected to effectively balance the needs for belongingness and uniqueness through managing social categorization and information decision-making processes, it can be argued they will be successful in attenuating the negative relation between team ethnic-cultural diversity and inclusive climate. Furthermore, since in an inclusive climate all team members are valued for who they are, and as a result different perspectives of all members are actively sought and considered, this would enable those processes needed to utilize to potential benefits of diverse teams. As a consequence, it can be argued that inclusive leadership would moderate the relation between team ethnic-cultural diversity and inclusive climate, to the extent that a negative relation is weakened and a positive relation is strengthened. This leads us to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6.2: Inclusive leadership moderates the relation between team ethnic-cultural diversity and inclusive climate, such that positive effects are enhanced and negative effects are reduced.

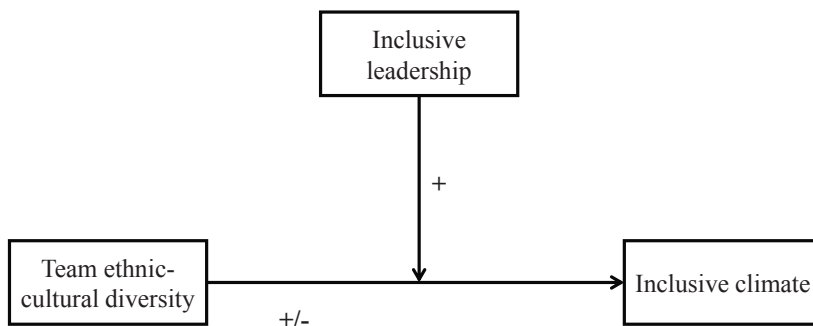


Figure 6.1: Conceptual model: the moderating effect of inclusive leadership on the link between team ethnic-cultural diversity and inclusive climate.

6.3 Data and methods

6.3.1 Data

Dutch public sector organizations have a long history of implementing diversity policies to improve the representation of minorities (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012; Rijksoverheid, 2016). The Dutch public sector, therefore, provided the necessary context for testing theories on inclusive leadership, inclusive climate and team ethnic-cultural diversity. The Dutch public administration is divided into different tiers: central government, the provinces, the municipalities (local government) and the water authorities (Ministry of

the Interior and Kingdom Relations, 2016). Of these sub-sectors, central government and the municipalities have the highest representation of ethnic-cultural minorities in 2014: 18 and 16 percent respectively. To ensure variety in the variables of interest (such as team ethnic-cultural diversity), data were collected among work teams of two ministries (central government) and two municipalities (local government), using a quantitative survey design.

This design allowed to reach at least 30 teams needed for the team analysis (Hox, 2010). Teams were identified as a unit or cluster of at least three employees who on a daily basis collaborate to achieve a collective goal or complete a shared task (Campion et al., 1996). In addition, these teams had one formal supervisor in order to examine the role of leadership.

During the course of 2016, online surveys were administered to 59 teams (556 team members) within the Dutch ministries and municipalities. The teams that participated varied in team size. The largest team consists of 32 team members while the smallest only of three team members. In total, 304 team members filled in the survey, a response rate of 54.7%. 14 teams that had a response of less than three members were removed from the analysis. The total sample used for this study resulted in 293 team members clustered in 45 teams. The response per team varied between 3 and 17 team members.

6.3.2 Measurements

Team ethnic-cultural diversity. Ethnic-cultural variety was estimated using Blau's index for estimating the heterogeneity in groups based on the spread of group members to distinct categories (Harrison & Klein, 2007). Group variety that is controlled for group size was estimated using the following formula (Biemann & Kearney, 2010):

$$1 - \sum n_k(n_k - 1) / N(N - 1)$$

In this formula n_k is the frequency of unit members in the k th category and N is the unit size. Values of Blau's index vary between 0 and 1, where a value of 1 represents a greater team ethnic-cultural diversity. Two categories are used to measure ethnic-cultural diversity, namely native Dutch and non-native Dutch team members. In the Netherlands, non-native Dutch refers to a person who and/or of whom at least one parent was born abroad. This approach was used in the survey by asking respondents to indicate whether they and/or one of their parents were born abroad. The index thus calculates the probability of teams' ethnic-cultural diversity based on data of the sample that is used in the study.

Inclusive climate. Inclusive climate was measured using 8 items that measure the two dimensions of integration of differences and inclusion in decision-making (Nishii, 2013). All items were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1) "Not at all applicable" to 5) "Very applicable". Example items include: "My team has a safe environment in which

team members can be their true selves” and *“In my team, team members’ input is actively sought”*. A list of items can be found in Table 6.1.

Inclusive leadership. Inclusive leadership was measured using 13 items that measured two dimensions of cognitive and affective leadership behaviour ([name(s) deleted to maintain the integrity of the review process], n.d.). All items were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1) *“Strongly Disagree”* to 5) *“Strongly Agree”*. Aggregated measures for leadership to estimate team member’s perceptions of leadership behaviour were used rather than intended leadership behaviour. Previous research found discrepancies in leader versus employee ratings of leadership and proposed to use aggregated employee ratings instead (Avolio et al., 2009; Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015). The aggregation of individual responses to the team level, would minimize possible individual response bias (Favero & Bullock, 2014) and would more accurately represent leadership behaviour since leader-ratings could be biased (Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015). A list of items can be found in Table 6.1.

Controls. To test the hypotheses several control variables were added to the analysis. First, the analysis was controlled for sector, with 0 = local government organization and 1 = central government. Second, team tasks were distinguished in 0 = policy and advise and 1 = implementation and support. This was relevant since according to workgroup diversity literature (Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007) team diversity could have different outcomes depending on the need for information exchange and utilizing differences to learn from and enhance complex problem-solving. This specifically could be more essential for teams involved with policy development. Lastly, team size was included, since outcomes of team characteristics could be dependent on team size (Cha et al., 2015).

6.3.3 Analytical strategy

STATA 13 was used for analysing the relation between the variables of interest. Exploratory factor (EFA) and confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted to examine construct validity of the concepts on the individual level (N = 293). An EFA (with oblique rotation) on the items of inclusive climate and inclusive leadership resulted in a three-factor solution. This factor analysis showed that the items of inclusive climate and inclusive leadership loaded each on a separate factor. Next, a CFA with clustered robust standard errors was conducted for each construct separately. This allowed for testing the factor structures while considering the nested structure of our data (Kline, 2011). The results of these analyses can be found in Appendix A6.1 and A6.2. However, due to the limited sample size after aggregation, all the variables of concern were constructed prior to testing the structural equation models. The reason for this was to prevent that the sample size, relative to the number of parameters, would affect the accuracy of the parameter estimates and model fit statistics (Wolf et al., 2013).

Table 6.1: List of items

Inclusive leadership
<i>"My leader"</i>
1. encourages me to discuss diverse viewpoints and perspectives to problem solving with colleagues
2. makes sure I have the opportunity to express diverse viewpoints
3. stimulates me to exchange different ideas with colleagues
4. encourages me to use colleagues' diverse ethnic-cultural backgrounds for problem-solving
5. makes sure that I use colleagues' diverse ethnic-cultural backgrounds as a source for creativity and innovation
6. stimulates me to learn from colleagues' ethnic-cultural backgrounds
7. stimulates me to actively participate in the team
8. makes sure I am treated as an equal member of the team
9. tries to prevent me to think in negative stereotypes about other colleagues
10. tries to prevent employees to form groups that could exclude other colleagues
11. makes sure I have the opportunity to be myself in the team
12. communicates the benefits of ethnic-cultural diversity for the team to employees
13. makes sure I have the opportunity to have a voice in the team
Inclusive climate
Integration of differences
1. My team has a safe work environment in which team members can be their true selves.
2. My team values the work-life balance of team members.
3. Team members are valued for who they are as people, not just for the jobs they fill.
4. In my team, team members share and learn about one another as people.
5. In my team, team members recognize and value differences of team members.
Inclusion in decision making
6. In my team, team members' input is actively sought.
7. In my team, ideas of all team members to improve work practices are given serious consideration.
8. In my team, all team members' perspectives are utilized for improving work practices.

Since team level variables were derived from individual team members, we calculated the intraclass correlations to examine the variance at the team level. Table 6.2 shows the ICC1 that involve the variances accounted for by team membership, while ICC2 indicates the reliability of group means. This is estimated using the between and within mean square from a one-way analysis of variance using an estimator for differences in team size (Hox, 2010; Van Mierlo et al., 2009). As shown in Table 6.2, all ICC1 values are statistically significant, indicating the variance accounted by group membership. The ICC2 values did not reach a desired level of reliability with a value above .65. However, ICCs are affected by the variance in group differences caused by ANOVA calculations (Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2014). Within team variance was further tested, using an estimate of within group agreement $r^*_{WG(j)}$:

$$r^*_{WG(j)} = 1 - \frac{\bar{S}^2_{xj}}{\sigma^2_{eu}}$$

In this formula $\bar{S}_{xy}^2$ stands for the mean of the observed variances for J items and σ_{eu}^2 is the expected variance if all team members respond randomly and can be calculated by the following formula:

$$\sigma_{eu}^2 = (A^2 - 1) / 12$$

A stands for the number of discrete Likert response options. For a 5 point Likert scale this would be 2 (O'Neill, 2017). For inclusive climate and inclusive leadership the $r_{wg(j)}^*$ is .63 and .56 respectively indicating moderate interrater agreement (Lebreton & Senter, 2008; O'Neill, 2017). In all, these results justify aggregation of individual responses to the team level. Descriptive statistics of and correlations between the variables are presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.2: Intraclass correlations

	ICC1 ^a	ICC2 ^b	F	$r_{wg(j)}^*$
Inclusive climate	.22	.63	2.691***	.63
Inclusive leadership	.14	.51	2.039***	.56

Note. MSB = Between Groups Mean Square; MSW = Within Groups Mean Square; N = group size

a ICC1 = (MSB – MSW)/(MSB + (N-1)MSW)

b ICC2 = (MSB – MSW)/MSB

*** p < .001

Table 6.3: Descriptive statistics, correlations and Cronbach's alpha in parentheses (N = 45 teams)

	Mean	Std. Dev.					
1. Team diversity	.60	.28					
2. Inclusive climate	3.77	.48	-.386**	(.90)			
3. Inclusive leadership	3.73	.40	-.123	.665**	(.95)		
4. Sector (1 = central government)	.60	.50	-.228	.266	.115		
5. Team task (1 = implementation and support)	.44	.50	-.174	-.177	-.084	.091	
6. Team size	10.67	7.78	-.051	.031	.055	-.112	-.153

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

6.4 Results

In this section, results of multiple Structural Equation Modelling analyses are presented. Table 6.4 shows the results of these analyses. Model fit statistics for each model can be found in Table 6.5. In model 1 the control variables were included. The results indicate that teams that work for a central government organization tend to experience greater inclusiveness compared to teams in local government organizations ($B = .28, p < .05$). Model 2 shows a negative association between team ethnic-cultural diversity and inclusive climate ($B = -.19, p < .01$). It appears that higher team ethnic-cultural diversity results in lower team inclusiveness. This result supports Hypothesis 6.1b, while hypothesis 6.1a is rejected. An increase in team diversity results in a decrease of the inclusiveness of the climate. This supports a social categorization perspective, which argues that an increase in team diversity would result in stronger intergroup bias that in turn hampers the full participation of all team members.

In a final model, we tested for an interaction effect of inclusive leadership on the association between team diversity and inclusive climate. This analysis shows a statistical significant interaction effect of inclusive leadership and team diversity on inclusive climate ($B = .11, p < .10$). This indicates that inclusive leadership attenuates the negative association between team ethnic-cultural diversity and an inclusive climate, which is in support of Hypothesis 6.2. In figure 6.2 a margins plot is shown to illustrate and interpret the interaction effect. In this figure, low inclusive leadership (one standard deviation below the mean) in combination with high team diversity results in lower inclusive climate experiences. In contrast, high inclusive leadership (one standard deviation above the mean) in combination with high team diversity results in higher experiences of an inclusive climate compared to when inclusive leadership would be low. Figure 6.3 shows the final path model.

Table 6.4: Results Structural Equation Modelling (N = 45 teams; unstandardized estimates)

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	Coef.	[95% Conf. Interval]		Coef.	[95% Conf. Interval]		Coef.	[95% Conf. Interval]		Coef.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Constant	3.67*** (.12)	3.45 3.92		3.77*** (.11)	3.47 4.07		3.80*** (.11)	3.57 4.02		3.80*** (.08)	3.64 3.96	
Sector	.28* (.14)	.01 .55		.20 (.13)	-.06 .45		.14 (.10)	-.05 .33		.09 (.10)	-.10 .28	
Team task	-.19 (.14)	-.46 .08		-.25* (.13)	-.50 .00		-.19* (.10)	-.38 .01		-.16† (.09)	-.34 .02	
Team size	.02 (.07)	-.12 .15		-.00 (.06)	-.13 .12		-.02 (.05)	-.11 .08		-.01 (.05)	-.09 .08	
Team ethnic-cultural diversity (TD)				-.19** (.07)	-.31 -.06		-.15** (.05)	-.25 -.06		-.17*** (.05)	-.27 -.08	
Inclusive leadership (IL)							.29*** (.11)	.19 .38		.25*** (.05)	.16 .35	
TD * IL										.11† (.06)	-.00 .22	
e.IC	.20 (.04)	.13 .30		.17 (.04)	.11 .26		.09 (.02)	.06 .14		.09 (.02)	.06 .13	

Note. All independent continues variables were standardized before entered in the analysis; N = 45 teams; Unstandardized estimates shown; *** = p < .001; ** = p < .01; * = p < .05; † = p < .10.

Table 6.5: Model fit statistics

Model statistics	χ^2	df	p	RMSEA	AIC	BIC	CFI	TLI	SRMR	CD
Model 1	5.39	3	.145	.000	336.65	361.94	1	1	.000	.11
Model 2	12.92	4	.012	.000	463.77	499.90	1	1	.000	.25
Model 3	40.11	5	.000	.000	575.65	624.34	1	1	.000	.59
Model 4	43.74	6	.000	.000	692.96	756.20	1	1	.000	.62

Note. RMSEA = Root mean squared error of approximation; AIC = Akaike's information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; CFI = Comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; SRMR = Standardized root mean squared residual; CD = Coefficient of determination.

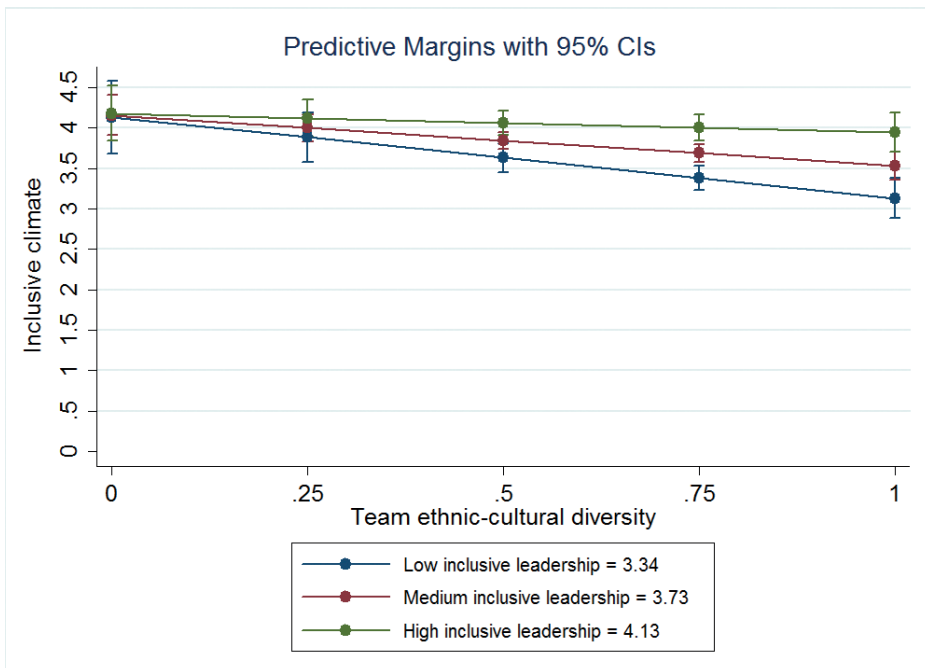


Figure 6.2: Margins plot Inclusive leadership and team ethnic-cultural diversity against inclusive climate

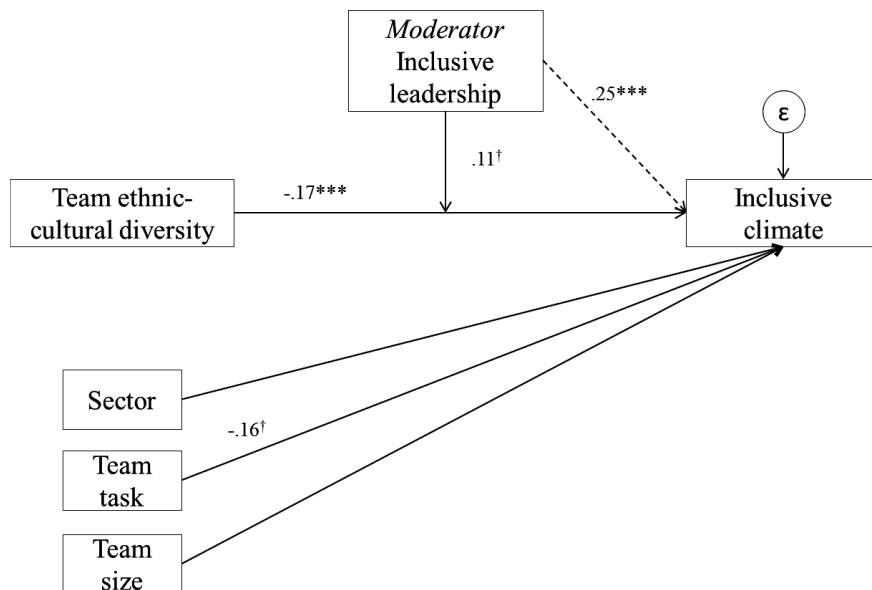


Figure 6.3: Final path model (unstandardized estimates shown; covariances not included in figure)

6.5 Discussion and conclusion

We conducted a team study to examine to what extent inclusive leadership moderates the association between team ethnic-cultural diversity and inclusive climate. The results showed that enhanced team ethnic-cultural diversity reduces the inclusiveness of the climate. While previous research found a positive relation between ethnic-cultural representation and inclusion (Andrews & Ashworth, 2015), the results of this study indicate that team ethnic-cultural diversity does not evidently result in an inclusive climate.

Social identity theory explains the negative relation between team diversity and inclusive climate. It indicates that greater group heterogeneity would result in categorization of team members when differences are salient (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Brewer, 2010). If these categorization processes result in intergroup bias and exclusion of those who are different, it would disrupt the full integration of diverse team members hampering the utilization of diverse strengths (Mayo et al., 2016; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). This explains why more heterogeneous teams would experience a less inclusive climate.

In this study, we examined the extent to which inclusive leadership successfully supports the inclusiveness of the climate in ethnic-cultural diverse teams. As hypothesized we found a positive moderation effect of inclusive leadership on the relation between team diversity and inclusive climate. This entails that highly diverse teams experience a more inclusive climate when inclusive leadership is high compared to highly diverse teams and low ratings for inclusive leadership. These results underline the importance of leadership as a condition supporting positive and attenuating negative team diversity outcomes (Guillaume et al., 2017; Mayo et al., 2016). Inclusive leadership is needed for managing affective responses that result from social categorization processes.

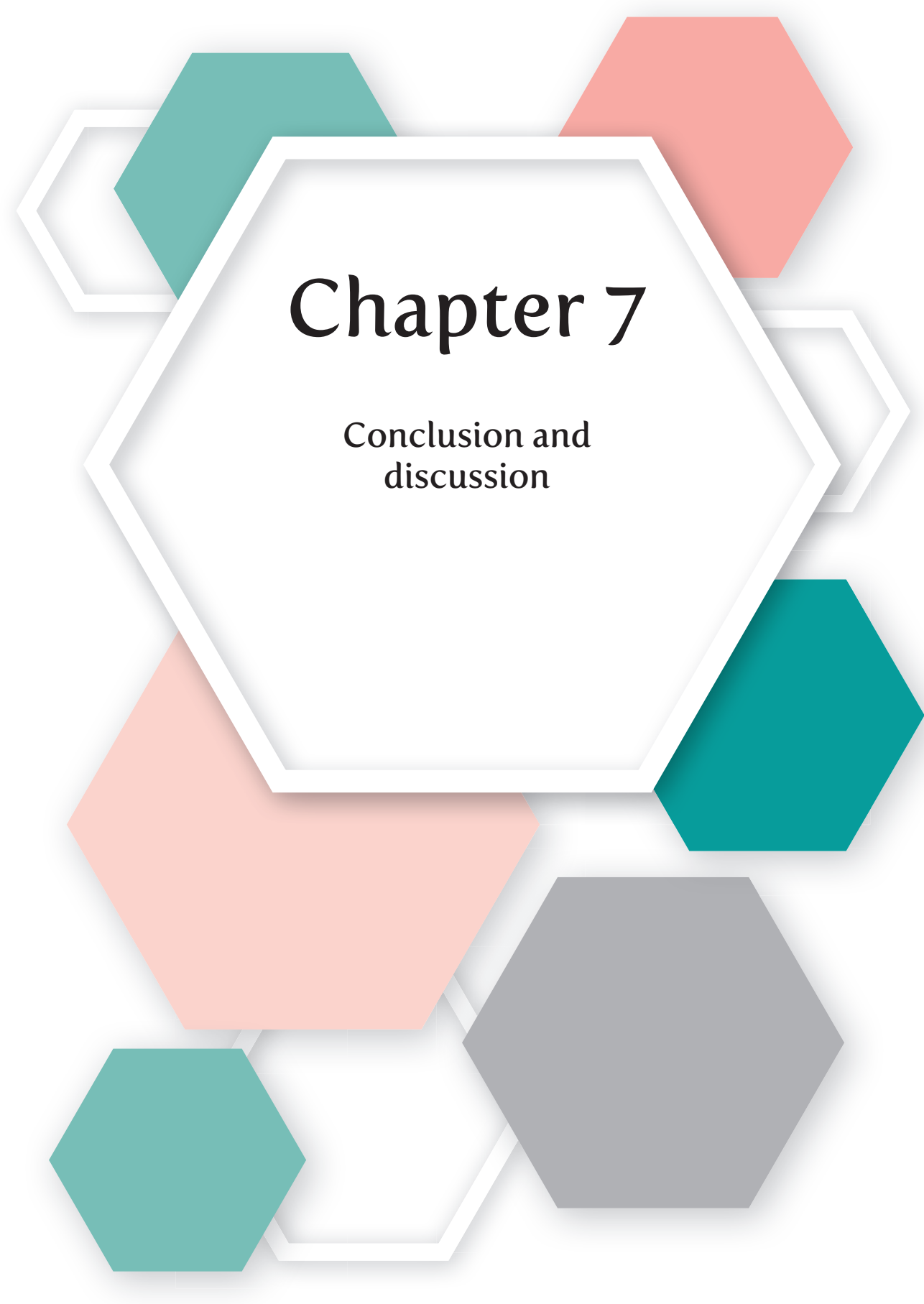
There are some considerations in interpreting the results of this study. Attaining a sample of sufficient size is a challenge in team research due to practical considerations of data collection at multiple levels (i.e. individual and team level). As a result, testing more complex models was not possible on the current sample (Hox, 2010; Van Mierlo et al., 2009). Confirmatory factor analyses, for instance, showed that the concepts inclusive climate and leadership are multidimensional. Due to the small sample size available for this study, it was not possible to test latent concepts or the influence of distinct dimensions. To further our understanding of how leadership may contribute to the inclusiveness of the climate, it is meaningful to further examine how different dimensions of inclusive leadership relate to the dimensions of inclusiveness in future research.

Although common method bias may be a concern in survey research (Favero & Bullock, 2015; George & Pandey, 2017; Podsakoff et al., 2012), this is less of a concern in our study. We used an objective calculation for team ethnic-cultural diversity against subjective experiences of inclusive climate and inclusive leadership. Further, in order to examine team members' experiences and thus perceptions of inclusiveness a survey was needed as the main data collection method (George & Pandey, 2017). Furthermore, it can also be argued that the aggregation of individual responses to team level possible individual response bias were minimized (Favero & Bullock, 2014). This approach is also a favoured method for measuring leadership, as measuring leadership among employees, rather than relying on a leader's assessment of their own leadership, prevents self-rating bias (Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015).

In this study, we found a positive effect of inclusive leadership on the relation between team diversity and inclusive climate, however, since this study is based on cross-sectional data we should be prudent in drawing causal conclusions. Notwithstanding our findings, other questions on the effects of inclusive leadership remain to be answered in future research. Gained insights of this study can be used to expand our understanding, among which how boundary conditions, such bureaucratic structures and changes therein (Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2014), could impact the extent to which inclusive leadership may contribute to the inclusiveness of public organizations. Using

a longitudinal and/or a survey experimental designs in future research could be used to fully grasp the causal relations between leadership and its outcomes (Knies et al., 2016).

This study shows that increased team diversity does not result in an enhanced inclusive climate. To do so, inclusive leadership is needed in diverse teams to support an inclusive climate in which differences are valued for inclusion in work practices. As such, inclusive leadership plays a pivotal role in influencing the climate of diverse teams. By examining the role of leadership in supporting an inclusive climate in diverse teams this study contributes to literature of work group diversity in general, and leadership specifically. Insights of this study are relevant for public managers that have to manage diverse teams. Adopting inclusive leadership as a leadership style will attenuate social categorization processes ensuring feelings of belongingness, while at the same time will support the utilization of uniqueness to inform work practices. In so doing, inclusive leaders are able to sustain an inclusive climate, in which all team members are valued for who they are and different voices are heard in decision-making processes.



Chapter 7

Conclusion and
discussion

7.1 Introduction

The extent to which diversity management and leadership affect inclusiveness in public organizations is dependent on multiple factors that operate on various levels. This dissertation built on the mainstream literature on diversity management in public organizations and subsequently delved deeper into the mechanisms required to support inclusiveness and positive employee outcomes in public organizations. It further examined the role of leadership, as a necessary condition, in the realization of inclusiveness and positive employee outcomes. Moreover, by taking a team perspective, this dissertation also addressed team processes that are fundamental to achieving inclusiveness in organizations.

In studying the above aspects in detail, this dissertation has integrated several insights on multiple levels to answer the question: ***“How do diversity management and leadership affect inclusiveness in public organizations and teams, and in turn affect outcomes on the individual and team level?”***

This concluding chapter first, in section 7.2, presents the conclusions from the various empirical studies. Then, in section 7.3 the overall conclusion is drawn and the main research question answered. Section 7.4 discusses the theoretical and empirical contributions to the literature, provides methodological reflections and recommendations for future research. The chapter and the thesis then close with the practical implications of the research in section 7.5.

7.2 Summary of the empirical studies

In this section, the sub-questions established at the start of the research will be answered that lead to answering the main research question in section 7.3.

Chapter 2 focused on the question ***“to what extent do diversity management outcomes differ across employees with different socio-demographic backgrounds?”*** The study, based on a sample of 4,331 central government employees, revealed that diversity management has a positive impact on employees’ experiences of inclusiveness and subsequently results in higher affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour of employees. Contrary to what was hypothesized based on a social exchange perspective, this positive effect holds for all employees whatever their socio-demographic backgrounds, and not only for minority employees. This means that diversity management can help in valuing the uniqueness of employees as an asset for achieving greater organizational performance (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Pitts, 2009; Thomas, 1990). At the same time, by supporting the necessary social conditions for recognizing and valuing diversity (Avery & McKay, 2010; Bleijenbergh

et al., 2010), the value of diversity management goes beyond the economic rationale of improving performance by also fostering inclusiveness.

Chapter 3 answered the question: ***“how is diversity management linked to employees’ affective commitment through the mediating effects of transformational leadership and inclusiveness?”*** Having established in chapter 2 that diversity management delivers a sense of inclusiveness for all employees, in turn triggering their commitment and involvement, chapter 3 extends this to a broader range of public organizations to further explain the above outcomes by incorporating the role of leadership. This study, based on a sample of 10,976 Dutch public sector employees, supported the previously identified positive impact of diversity management on inclusiveness and subsequently on employees’ commitment.

Moreover, we found that transformational leadership has an explanatory role in that relationship. In other words, through its ability to transform individuals into a collective identity, transformational leadership supports the positive effects of diversity management (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2016; Kearney & Gebert, 2009). The extent to which diversity management achieves its intended outcomes is thus dependent on several explanatory variables. This fits the discourse in contemporary HR literature which underlines the role of leadership and employees’ perceptions (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2012). It underlines the key role that supervisors play as representatives of the organization and thus in determining employees’ perceptions of organizational support. This is essential for employees to experience inclusiveness and their reactions thereupon.

Chapter 4 focused on the question: ***“to what extent do team leaders’ perceptions of team diversity moderate the effect of transformational leadership on team processes and outcomes?”*** It builds on the previous chapter’s finding that transformational leadership boosts the positive effects of diversity management. To further explain the role of leadership, this chapter shows that leaders’ perceptions of team diversity influence the impact of transformational leadership on team processes and team engagement. The study undertaken, based on 128 teams, revealed that a leader’s perception indeed affects the positive impact of transformational leadership on their team’s cognitive and affective processes that result in team engagement. The findings show that transformational leadership only affects information elaboration (a cognitive process) through supporting team cohesion (an affective process) when the leader perceives their team to be demographically diverse. This indicates that leaders who perceive their team as demographically diverse use transformational leadership to emphasize the team’s cohesion in order to stimulate cognitive processes. This finding fits with the proposed mechanisms identified in the Categorization-Elaboration Model (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010).

However, contrary to our expectations, a leader's perceptions of their team's functional diversity did not affect the impact of transformational leadership. This implies that the impact of a leader's perceptions is related only to *visible* diversity dimensions. Based on these findings, the conclusion was drawn that affective team processes are particularly important when leaders perceive their team to be demographically diverse. In such situations, stimulating the group's cohesiveness through their transformational leadership is seen as a necessary condition for effective within-team collaboration.

Chapter 5 examined the question: *“what does inclusive leadership entail and how can this be developed into a measurement instrument?”* From chapters 3 and 4 it was concluded that transformational leadership is effective in supporting cohesiveness through its emphasis on collective goals and identity. However, fostering inclusiveness not only concerns cohesion that could support belongingness, but also involves supporting individual needs for uniqueness. This means that leaders need to find a balance using processes that could enable both uniqueness and belongingness. Based on this, chapter 5 conceptualized inclusive leadership and developed a measurement scale that also responds to a recent call in the literature (Randel et al., 2017).

Analyses using a sample of 304 employees confirm that inclusive leadership includes both cognitive and affective dimensions. The cognitive and affective inclusive leadership behaviours identified improve our understanding of the leadership that is needed to support inclusiveness. This can be distinguished from other forms of contemporary leadership in that it includes leadership aimed at managing not only individuals but also team processes.

Inclusive leadership stimulates team members to share, integrate and learn from their ethnic-cultural differences, as well as facilitating the participation of each team member. This definition is based on a theoretical framework that identified cognitive and affective processes that need to be managed (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). By managing these processes, inclusive leadership contributes to a work environment in which the needs for both uniqueness and belongingness can be satisfied (Randel et al., 2017; Shore et al., 2011).

To further explicate the role of inclusive leadership, chapter 6 focused on the question: *“to what extent does inclusive leadership moderate the relation between team diversity and inclusive climate?”* This study concentrated on a dataset of 45 teams that resulted from aggregating the individual responses used in the previous chapter. The results showed that the inclusivity of the climate is in general negatively related to team ethnic-cultural diversity. This was in line with our hypothesis, derived using social identity perspective, that the extent to which a team experiences inclusiveness is dependent on its composition. In diverse teams, intergroup biases seem to be more

prevalent (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg et al., 2017; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Williams & O'Reilly III, 1998), causing members to experience a less-inclusive climate.

The study further showed that this relationship is contingent on inclusive leadership. As hypothesized, in diverse teams, inclusive leadership positively moderates the relationship between team diversity and inclusive climate. The study indicates that inclusive leadership can mitigate the negative effect of team ethnic-cultural diversity on a team's inclusive climate. This is achieved through stimulating integration of team members' ethnic-cultural differences in the team and facilitating the participation of all team members.

7.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings from the individual empirical studies, the central research question: *“How do diversity management and leadership affect inclusiveness in public organizations and teams, and in turn affect outcomes on the individual and team level?”*, can be answered. First, this dissertation has shown the value of inclusiveness for public organizations. The research shows that inclusiveness is related to various positive outcomes, for both employees and organizations, such as employees' commitment and involvement. This finding is particularly significant since inclusiveness in a public sector context enables organizations to respond more effectively to complex problems that may result from a diversified society.

Second, diversity management is associated with greater inclusiveness when employees perceive it to be supportive of all employees, and not only for specific minorities. This means that diversity management should embrace all employees' uniqueness as well as foster their belongingness in the organization. In experiencing this, employees reciprocate with commitment to and involvement in the organization.

Third, inclusiveness develops in teams. This involves cognitive processes linked to an information decision-making perspective in which diverse resources such as perspectives, ideas and skills are exchanged, discussed and utilized. Affective processes are also important in making team members feel safe and that they belong. Since these are processes that occur in daily organizational life, the team is the key organizational unit, and their formal leaders in the prime position to support those processes that enable inclusiveness.

This research has shown that diversity management is even more effective if direct supervisors adopt appropriate leadership behaviours. This involves leadership that stimulates employees to exchange, discuss and learn from the different perspectives and ideas that result from different ethnic-cultural backgrounds. In order to achieve this, supervisors need to develop a safe environment in which all employees are able to participate and contribute their diverse ideas and perspectives. Further, the perspective

that formal leaders have on diversity is also important as leaders who perceive their team to be demographically diverse act in ways that have different impact on team behaviour.

7.4 Discussion and future research

In this section, we reflect on the theoretical approach adopted in this dissertation, some methodological considerations, as well as offer recommendations for future research.

7.4.1 Moving towards inclusiveness management

Within public management, the attention given to diversity management grew as a result of an increase in the diversity of both the workforce of public organizations and the population being served. Influenced by developments in the generic management field and the growing emphasis on performance generated by neo-liberal changes in the field of public management, the focal point of diversity management was linked to the outcomes that diversity could have for public organizations (Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; Pitts & Wise, 2010; Selden & Selden, 2001). In the broader management literature, diversity management is increasingly linked to inclusiveness (Avery & McKay, 2010; Bleijenbergh et al., 2010; Kirton & Greene, 2010; Mor Barak et al., 2016), whereas the public management literature has only addressed inclusiveness to a limited extent (Andrews & Ashworth, 2015; Bae et al., 2017; Sabharwal, 2014). As such, this dissertation could be considered as a first step towards a theoretical and empirical understanding of the relevance of inclusiveness for public sector performance.

Public management studies that focus on diversity predominantly use diversity management as an umbrella concept and refer to policies, programmes and implementation (Choi, 2009; Pitts, 2009), thereby blurring the concept and more specifically its theoretical basis. For instance, diversity management may be based on a discrimination and fairness perspective and/or on an access and legitimacy perspective, meaning that team processes and culture are not necessarily changed to develop inclusiveness. However, diversity management driven by these motives may implicitly induce the acculturation of minority identities into the mainstream dominant identities (Ely & Thomas, 2001). Different motives could, as a result, underpin diversity management within public organizations, possibly resulting in different outcomes. The changing focus of diversity management, towards inclusiveness, therefore needs additional theoretical and empirical groundwork in order to distinguish those diversity perspectives that lead to inclusiveness.

This dissertation therefore investigated earlier research and theories that are available in the management literature to study how inclusiveness can be influenced in public organizations. The theoretical approach of this dissertation can best be interpreted through an integration and learning perspective. From this perspective, diversity is

a resource to learn from and to incorporate into work practices, and as a source for innovation and creativity (Ely & Thomas, 2001). This leads to incorporating both uniqueness and belongingness (Shore et al., 2011).

Inclusiveness goes beyond the previously reported instrumental approach and focuses on social exchange as a basis for establishing sustainable employee – organization relationships. To elicit the necessary social exchange mechanisms, it is vital that diversity management efforts are grounded in an integration and learning perspective that enables *all* employees to feel included. Our study further shows that, to foster inclusiveness in public organizations, the emphasis should move beyond formal policies and programmes that are only aimed at increasing workforce diversity. Rather than a focus on diversity as an outcome, organizations should consider management strategies that achieve inclusiveness (Roberson, 2006; Shore et al., 2011; Shore, Cleveland, & Sanchez, 2017).

More specifically, this dissertation contributes by combining social exchange and social identity perspectives to understand inclusiveness in public organizations. These perspectives are often used separately to understand the relationship between the organization (and supervisors as representatives) and employees. A notable exception is the study by Van Knippenberg, Van Dick and Tavares (2007) that showed that social exchange mechanisms and social identity processes interact. Social exchange relationships are less important if employees identify with the organization or with their team since this positively impacts on their commitment and involvement. Accordingly, facilitating such social identity processes in the organization is proposed, rather than only emphasizing an exchange relationship. Through fostering social identification, employees become committed to contributing to their public organization's goals. Future research could usefully look into these processes and mechanisms in more detail.

7.4.2 Inclusive leadership is team leadership

In recent years, within the HRM and management literature, transformational leadership has been identified as effective in changing employees' perceptions and reactions towards organizational policies and the work environment (Guillaume et al., 2017; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2002). A focus on leadership is also growing in the public management literature (Andersen & Moynihan, 2016; Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015; Wright, Moynihan, & Pandey, 2012). However, theories that clarify how inclusiveness can be achieved in organizations through leadership are relatively underdeveloped in the management literature (Randel et al., 2017).

The extent to which inclusiveness is achieved in public organizations is shown to be partially dependent on leadership. This dissertation highlights the important role of leadership in supporting inclusiveness and influencing employees' attitudes and behaviours. As such, it contributes to the diversity management literature by identifying

the role of leadership in developing inclusiveness. By examining leadership from both social exchange and social identity perspectives, we have addressed both the individual and the team levels. Whereas much contemporary research focuses on leader-member relations from an exchange perspective (Knies et al., 2016; Ospina, 2017; Tummers & Knies, 2013), this dissertation goes further by providing the necessary understanding of how leadership affects team processes and team outcomes. Since inclusiveness is about both individuals' distinctiveness and the extent to which they feel they belong in their team, leadership research should examine these team processes in more detail.

Two leadership styles have been identified that instigate social exchange and social identity processes through which employees perceive greater inclusiveness, thereby increasing their affective responses to the organization. Transformational leadership is shown to be effective through elevating individual goals to a shared collective goal or mission. By so doing, transformational leadership achieves a group identity that supports team cohesion and the collaboration that is desirable for diverse teams to succeed (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2016). However, since transformational leadership emphasizes the unified collective, team members could infer that their unique identities were being disregarded, and this stresses the need for inclusive leadership (Randel et al., 2017).

This dissertation showed that inclusive leadership that focuses on both cognitive and affective team processes can support an inclusive climate. These processes, identified in the workgroup diversity literature (Guillaume et al., 2017; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004), need to be effectively managed if they are to harness the positive and mitigate the negative outcomes of diversity. Since these processes interact, it is crucial they are addressed simultaneously when managing a diverse team. How this fits with the dimensions of uniqueness and belongingness is an important avenue for future research. More specifically, how the two processes contribute to balancing both aspects should be examined further. This research furthermore underlines that managing these processes is complex, and requires leadership that goes beyond the dyad of leader-member relationships. In particular, this might be particularly crucial in larger groups where a leader has many diverse team members.

Another point for reflection is including leaders' perceptions in diversity management research. Most studies currently examine employees' perceptions and reactions towards diversity and inclusion. As previously shown, perceptions are fundamental in forming one's attitudes and behaviours, including leaders' perceptions in diversity management research seems inherently logical. This research showed that a leader's perceptions of the team composition influence the extent to which their leadership affects team processes. The research showed that to understand how leadership relates to those processes that enable inclusiveness in public organizations, the perceptions of diversity of not only employees but also of leaders need to be considered. In addition to their perceptions, leaders' diversity beliefs can also impact how they perceive and

value their team diversity. Examining how both aspects interact and, in turn, impact on inclusiveness is relevant for future research.

7.4.3 From representation to inclusiveness

Public management has a long history of addressing diversity from a social justice and representative bureaucracy perspective (Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2010; McDougall, 1996; Riccucci, 2009), but has only recently devoted more attention to inclusiveness (Andrews & Ashworth, 2015; Bae et al., 2017; Ritz & Alfes, 2017). To date, the diversity management and representative bureaucracy research streams have developed rather separately, and we would argue for their extensive integration.

For instance, the discrimination and fairness and the access and legitimacy perspectives on diversity discussed in the introductory chapter relate to similar motives of social justice and representativeness (Ely & Thomas, 2001). According to the access and legitimacy perspective, it is crucial to reflect the demographics of the clients the organization serves to achieve organizational legitimacy. The assertion is that incorporating diversity will improve the interaction with the diverse stakeholders and thereby enhance organizational effectiveness. Within the representative bureaucracy literature this is seen as possibly involving passive and active representation of civil servants (Andrews et al., 2005).

The extent to which active representation occurs, and how, depends on integration and learning processes that could result in inclusiveness within the organization. It is through these processes that relevant perspectives, ideas and expertise that result from different ethnic-cultural backgrounds could inform work practices. We found that greater diversity does not automatically result in enhanced inclusiveness: focusing solely on increasing workforce diversity to represent society's socio-demographic characteristics is thus not sufficient. The ability to retain unique identities is crucial for active representation. This requires leadership that balances the needs for belongingness and for uniqueness through facilitating the participation of all employees and stimulating the exchange, discussion and utilization of differences. Incorporating these explanatory mechanisms in representative bureaucracy research is thus essential to understand how representation works in organizations.

Within the diversity management literature, diversity is valued as a resource for improving the performance of internal processes, as well as a resource for improving an organization's interaction with a diverse society (Ely & Thomas, 2001). However, diversity management studies, including this thesis research, predominantly focus on the effects of diversity management within the organization, such as in terms of employee outcomes and organizational culture or climate (Pitts & Wise, 2010). An underlying assumption is that developing inclusiveness within public organizations will have a positive impact on its inclusiveness towards external stakeholders (i.e. citizens). Unravelling this relationship in future research would be relevant to the fields

of both diversity management and representative bureaucracy, and establish whether inclusiveness does indeed positively impact on public service delivery. To substantiate this with empirical evidence, future research needs to examine the relationship between the inclusive behaviours of public employees and their interaction with diverse citizens. Examining how, and to what extent, inclusiveness relates to public organizations' legitimacy and the inclusiveness of society would add to the literature on inclusiveness in the field of public management, as well as to the study of representative bureaucracy.

7.4.4 Methodological reflection

The methodological limitations of each study were discussed in detail in the respective chapters and, in this section, only some overarching methodological issues are addressed.

This dissertation is based on a cross-sectional design, meaning that data on both independent and dependent variables were collected using self-report measures at one point in time. As a result, causal inferences are difficult to establish with probable endogeneity problems. Furthermore, since this research is mostly based on cross-sectional data, any changes in perceptions of and reactions to leadership and inclusiveness cannot be assessed. Previous research provides relevant insights that can be used to develop research on leadership and inclusiveness further. Oberfield (2014), for instance, shows that applying a longitudinal design is necessary to establish a causal link between public managers' actions, and employees' later perceptions and reactions. This is a specifically relevant aspect when studying inclusiveness in public organizations. Developing inclusiveness involves a process of changing the shared norms and values regarding diversity, and this will take time. In other words, the results of public managers' actions to develop inclusiveness will not be immediately apparent. A longitudinal design is therefore recommended to study the process of how managers affect inclusiveness in public organizations over time. Indeed, such a design was initially intended in this study, but it was unfortunately not possible to find organizations willing to cooperate over a sufficient time span. Conducting longitudinal research requires a significant investment by organizations, and potential respondents, over a lengthy period. The subject of diversity, and diversity management, was receiving little attention in the Netherlands when this study started. As a result, diversity was often not addressed explicitly and, in fact, many diversity projects were being ended in public organizations, further complicating finding organizations willing to collaborate.

Related to this, we would also suggest adopting a qualitative design to examine the abovementioned processes in more detail. Although this dissertation offers valuable insights into leadership behaviours that affect inclusiveness in public organizations, the quantitative studies do not provide in-depth knowledge on how an inclusive culture emerges. For instance, the interplay between cognitive and affective processes, and how these relate to the two dimensions of inclusion, could usefully be studied in more detail. Furthermore, understanding how public managers in their daily work balance

these different needs of their team members requires a more in-depth examination. A qualitative design would generate a deeper understanding of the attitudes and behaviours of leaders and employees that bring about the development of inclusiveness in public organizations.

A final remark concerns the different conceptualizations and measurement scales used in the empirical chapters. Various measurement scales have been used to measure transformational leadership. In chapter 3, a twelve-item scale was used to measure the different dimensions proposed by Bass et al. (2003). In chapter 5, a modified version of this scale was used with improved measurement items. Unfortunately, due to practical considerations, a shortened scale had to be used in chapter 4. This potentially limits the possibility of cross-chapter comparisons. Furthermore, we have addressed the inclusiveness within organizations through various concepts such as inclusive organizational culture and climate. This was necessary as we required an organizational level concept in chapters 2 and 3, but one we could apply on the team level in chapters 5 and 6. We also recognized the need to improve the measurement of inclusive culture and climate given that the concept of inclusiveness, and how to measure this, was still evolving. Part of this dissertation research therefore sought to improve the measurements that were available. We would encourage other researchers using survey designs to continue this process of refining scales for future research.

7.5 Practical implications

While inclusiveness and inclusive leadership is a widespread theme in many public organizations in response to the increasing diversity within society (OECD, 2015a, 2015b), how inclusiveness can be achieved constitutes a practical dilemma for many public managers. Studies into the factors that foster inclusiveness in public organizations provide little guidance for public managers. Here, this dissertation provides evidence-based strategies that public managers could employ to manage a diverse workforce effectively and to successfully foster inclusiveness.

First, inclusiveness is about feeling part of the team while also have the possibility to feel distinct. Therefore, besides focusing on individual employees' experiences of inclusiveness, managing team processes that enable inclusiveness is crucial. This requires a greater emphasis on the role of supervisors in enacting formal diversity management policies. It is not enough to have diversity management as part of the formal HR policy; its success requires inclusive leadership. For HR departments, this means ensuring that diversity management is complemented with inclusive leadership. This requires internal alignment between intended policies and leaders' attitudes and behaviours in the management of employees.

Furthermore, for diversity management to be effective in fostering inclusiveness, it has to be supportive of all employees, and not only specific groups. There is extensive

research showing that diversity management that targets specific minority groups creates a backlash from those not benefitting, and also feelings of incompetence within the targeted groups. Rather than implementing such policies, this dissertation argues for cultivating inclusive leadership.

This study maps out the necessary leadership behaviours that could be incorporated in leadership development programmes to provide an understanding of how leaders can balance the necessary team processes. Supervisors need to actively communicate the value of diversity and stimulate exchanging, integrating and learning behaviours by their team members in regard to team ethnic-cultural diversity. At the same time, supervisors need to invite all team members to participate and contribute in order to avoid the forming of sub-groups that could possibly exclude some team members.

Finally, this dissertation shows that leaders' perceptions of their teams' composition influences their leadership, and that it is therefore important to incorporate their perceptions when trying to understand leadership effects. While many public organizations concentrate on understanding their employees' perceptions and experiences of their work environment and leadership (e.g. employee satisfaction surveys), leaders' perceptions are more often than not overlooked. This dissertation has shown that leaders' perceptions of their team's diversity influences how teams experience their supervisor's leadership in addressing their cohesiveness. In particular, where socio-demographic team diversity is perceived, transformational leaders tend to emphasize cohesiveness in seeking to achieve greater cooperation. This means that leaders' perceptions play a role in the impact that leadership can have on employees' attitudes and behaviour, and addressing the likely outcomes could be part of leadership development. This should be a long-term process in which supervisors first assess whether they actually *see* the team's diversity. The next step would be to determine if this affects how they value the team's diversity and subsequently the team. Gaining a better understanding of their own attitudes and behaviour would enable supervisors to better align their leadership style with one to which employees will positively react to.



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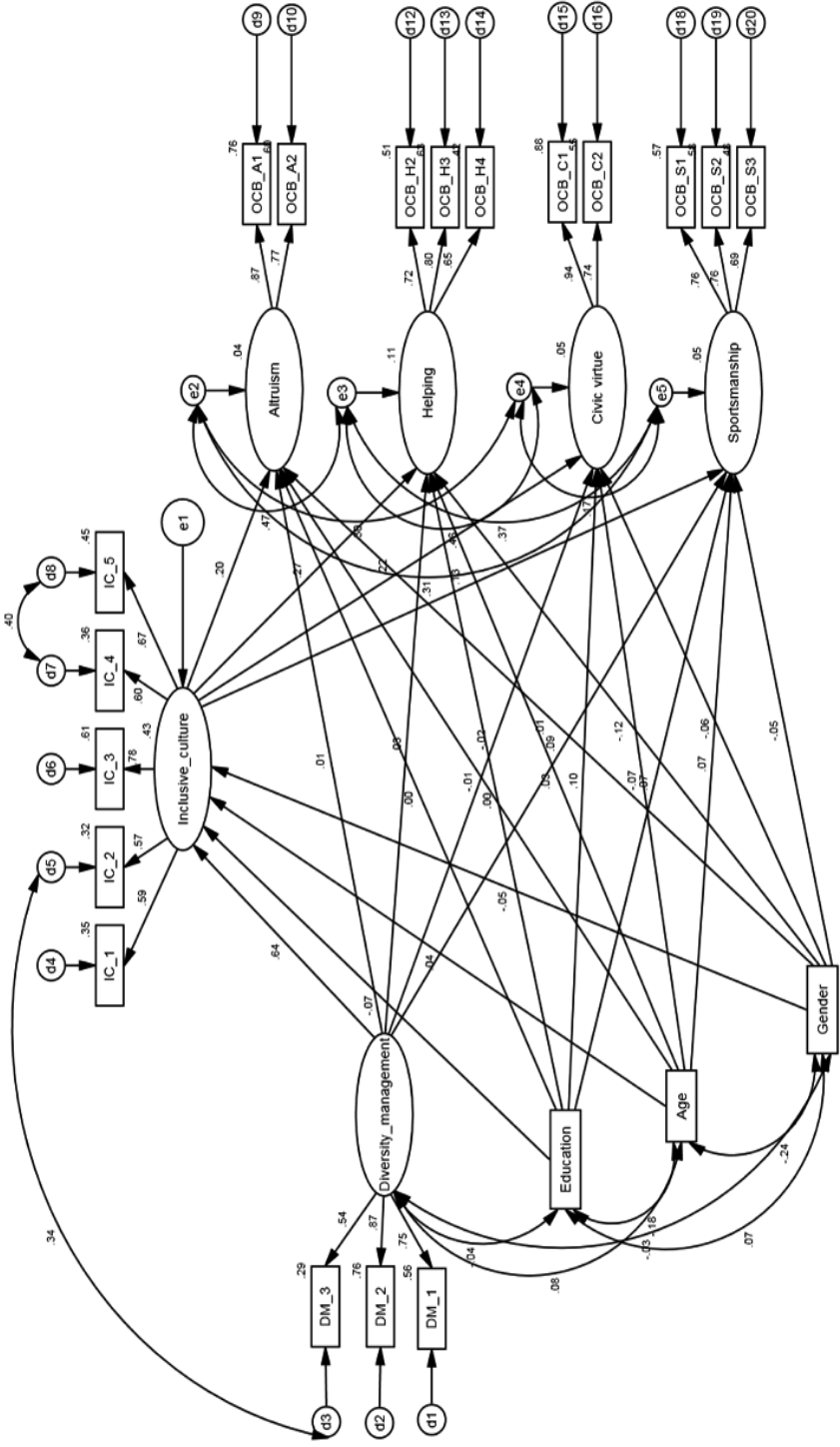


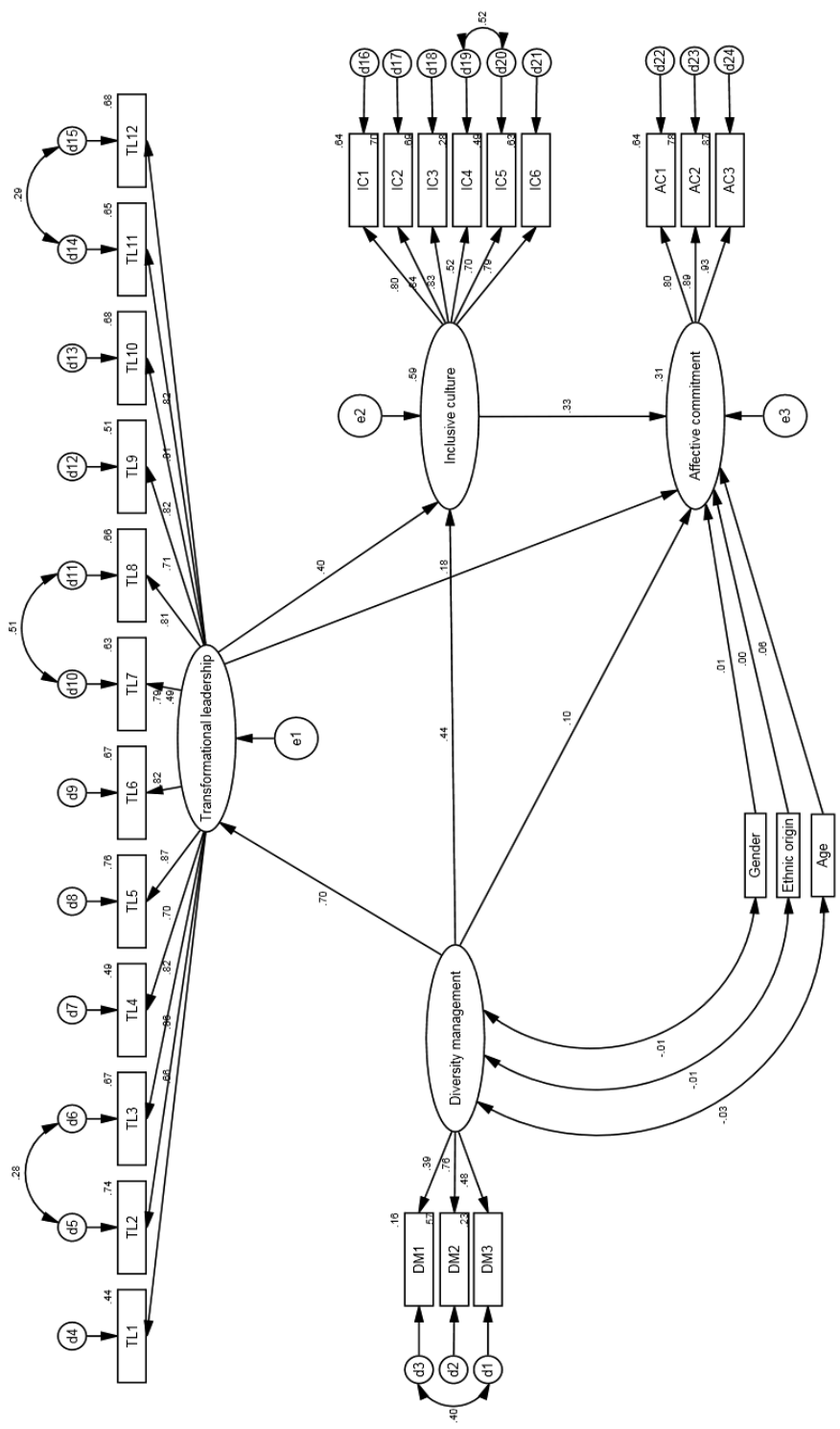
Appendices

Appendix AI: Overview of the data collection

Table AI: Overview of data collection and level of analysis

Study	Data collection by/commissioned by	Method and data analysis	Year	Perspective	Coverage
Study 1	Author in collaboration with Ministry of Interior and Kingdom Relation (BZK)	Online employee survey Structural equation modelling and multiple group analyses (AMOS)	2013	Employee (N = 664)	Dutch central government organizations
Study 2	Ministry of Interior and Kingdom Relation (BZK)	Online employee survey Structural equation modelling (AMOS)	2011	Employee (N = 10,976)	Dutch public sector organizations covering all subsectors
Study 3	Research project work teams in public sector (Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2014)	Online team and team leader survey Structural equation modelling and multiple group analyses (STATA)	2016	Team leaders and teams (N = 128)	Various Dutch government organizations
Study 4 & 5	Author	Online team and team leader survey Structural equation modelling (STATA)	2016	Team members (N = 304) Teams (N = 45)	Two Dutch ministries and two municipalities





Appendix A4: CFA's chapter four

Transformational leadership. A first CFA was conducted for transformational leadership. This resulted in the following fit: $\chi^2=29.243$, $df. 9$, $p .001$, $\chi^2/df. 3.249$, $NFI=.95$, $TLI=.94$, $CFI=.96$, $RMSEA=.133$. Following the modification indices the model was adjusted stepwise beginning with the highest MI. The correlations indicate that those items have a common unexplained variance. These correlations may be due to inadequately worded survey questions, or respondents' inability to answer questions, or provide the correct answer to questions (Byrne, 2010). However, since it only concerns correlations between items measuring the same construct it seems justified these would be correlated.¹² The adjusted model has a reasonable fit: $\chi^2=17.134$, $df. 8$, $p .029$, $\chi^2/df. 2.142$, $NFI=.97$, $TLI=.97$, $CFI=.98$, $RMSEA=.095$.

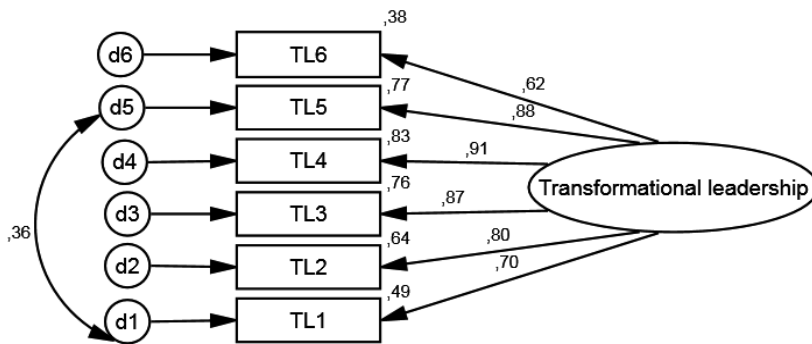


Figure 4.3: CFA Transformational leadership

¹² An EFA showed that each separate construct resulted in one factor solution and each with a Cronbach's $\alpha > .90$ suggesting a good measurement construct despite correlations between unexplained variances of items of the same construct.

Team cohesion. A second CFA was conducted for team cohesion which resulted in the following fit: $\chi^2 = 53.183$, df 9, p .000, χ^2/df 5.909, NFI= .92, TLI = .88, CFI = .93, RMSEA =.197 indicating a poor fit. As before, a correlation was added between the unexplained variances of items TC5 and TC6 to enhance the model's fit; this resulted in a good fit. CMIN = 7.699, df 8, p .463, CMIN/ df .962, NFI= .99, TLI = 1, CFI = 1, RMSEA =.000.

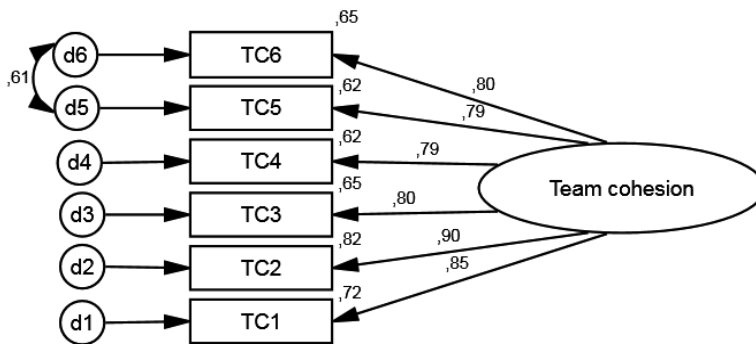


Figure 4.4: CFA Team cohesion

Information elaboration. The CFA for information elaboration resulted in a $\chi^2 = 111.608$, df 14, p .000, χ^2/df 7.972, NFI= .83, TLI = .76, CFI = .85, RMSEA =.234 indicating a poor fit. Again following the modification indices the model was adjusted stepwise beginning with the highest MI and adding correlations between unexplained variance of the factor items. A first correlation was added to the unexplained variance of items IE1 and IE3, both of these items cover sharing information between team members. With $\chi^2 = 67.976$, df 13, p .000, χ^2/df 5.229, NFI= .90, TLI = .86, CFI = .92, RMSEA =.182 the model improved somewhat but not satisfactory. An additional correlation was added between the unexplained variances of items IE3 and IE4 resulting in $\chi^2 = 43.079$, df 12, p .000, χ^2/df 3.590, NFI= .94, TLI = .92, CFI = .95, RMSEA =.143. Still not a very good fit, but satisfactory based on NFI, TLI and CFI reaching a cut-off point of at least .90 (Byrne, 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

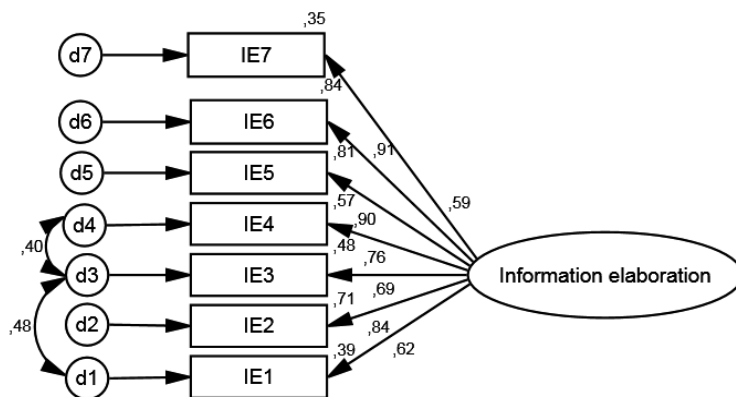


Figure 4.5: CFA Information elaboration

Team engagement. A final CFA on team engagement resulted in a $\chi^2 = 90.544$, df 9, p .000, χ^2/df 10.060, NFI= .93, TLI = .90, CFI = .94, RMSEA =.267 which should be improved. A correlation was added between the unexplained variances of items TE5 and TE6 leading to $\chi^2 = 54.943$, df 8, p .000, χ^2/df 6.868, NFI= .96, TLI = .93, CFI = .96, RMSEA =.215. A second correlation was added between the unexplained variances of items TE4 and TE6 resulting in a $\chi^2 = 33.459$, df 7, p .000, χ^2/df 4.780, NFI= .98, TLI = .96, CFI = .98, RMSEA =.173. Based on the NFI, TLI and CFI the model had a reasonable fit.

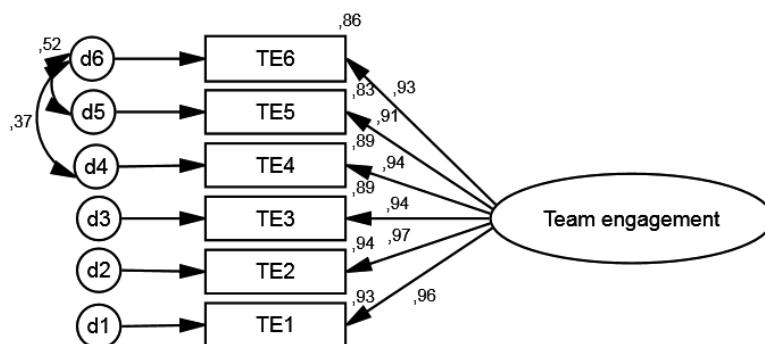


Figure 4.6: CFA Team engagement

Appendix A5.I: Two factor model inclusive leadership

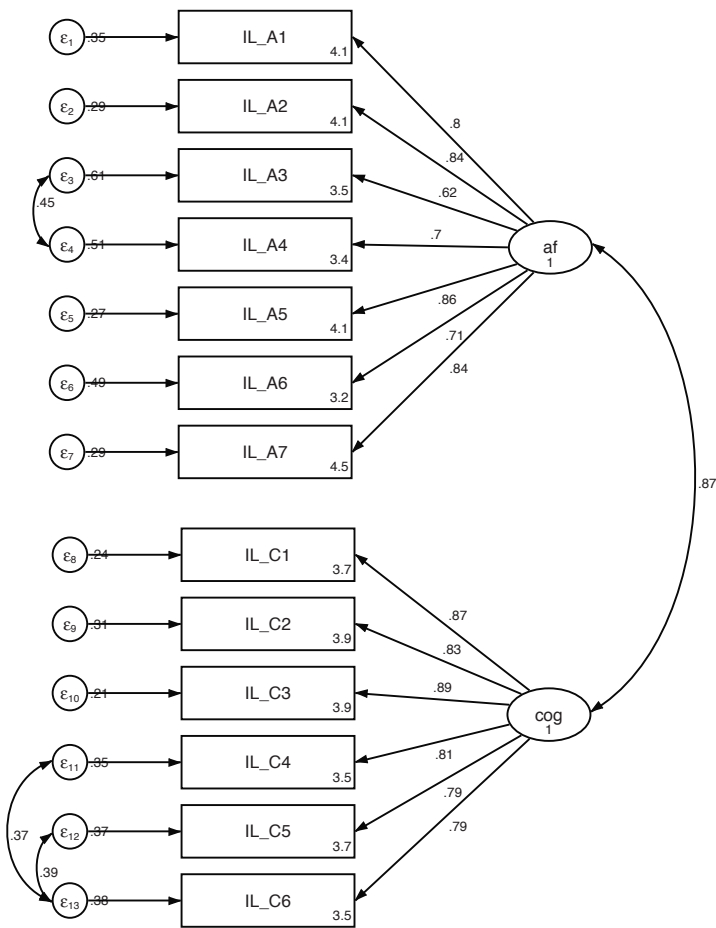


Figure 5.1: Two-factor model for inclusive leadership involving affective and cognitive leadership behaviours. Model fit: $\chi^2(61) = 197.659$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .095, CFI = .949, TLI = .935, SRMR = .042, CD = .984.

Appendix A5.2: List of items

Inclusive leadership
<i>"My supervisor"</i>
1. encourages me to discuss diverse viewpoints and perspectives to problem solving with colleagues
2. makes sure I have the opportunity to express diverse viewpoints
3. stimulates me to exchange different ideas with colleagues
4. encourages me to use colleagues' diverse ethnic-cultural backgrounds for problem-solving
5. makes sure that I use colleagues' diverse ethnic-cultural backgrounds as a source for creativity and innovation
6. stimulates me to learn from colleagues' ethnic-cultural backgrounds
7. stimulates me to actively participate in the team
8. makes sure I am treated as an equal member of the team
9. tries to prevent me to think in negative stereotypes about other colleagues
10. tries to prevent employees to form groups that could exclude other colleagues
11. makes sure I have the opportunity to be myself in the team
12. communicates the benefits of ethnic-cultural diversity for the team to employees
13. makes sure I have the opportunity to have a voice in the team
Transformational leadership
1. My supervisor considers my needs over her or his own needs.
2. I trust my supervisor.
3. My supervisor is consistent in displaying norms and values.
4. My supervisor emphasizes collective goals.
5. My supervisor ensures the development of collegiality in the team.
6. My supervisor motivates through providing meaning to our work.
7. My supervisor stimulates us to be innovative and creative.
8. My supervisor emphasizes using different viewpoints when solving problems.
9. My supervisor suggests new perspectives and ways of working.
10. My supervisor recognizes individual differences in needs and desires.
11. My supervisor helps employees to develop their competencies.
12. My supervisor pays attention to individuals' growth by acting as a mentor.
Leader inclusiveness
1. My supervisor encourages all employees to take initiative.
2. My supervisor asks for input of all employees.
3. My supervisor equally values the opinion of all employees.

List of items (*continued*)

Inclusive climate

Equal employment practices (EEP)

1. The performance review process is fair in my team.
2. My team invests in the development of all its team members.
3. Team members in my team receive equal pay for equal work.
4. In my team there is a safe environment for team members to voice grievances.

Integration of differences (Integr)

5. My team has a safe environment in which team members can be their true selves
6. My team appreciates the work-life balance team members.
7. In my team, team members are valued for who they are as people, not just for the job they fill.
8. In my team, team members share and learn about one another as people.
9. My team has a culture in which differences of team members are appreciated.

Inclusion in decision-making (InclD)

10. In my team, team members' input is actively sought.
 11. In my team, all team members' ideas for how to do things better are given serious consideration.
 12. In my team, team members' insights are used to rethink work practices.
 13. Top management exercises the belief that problem-solving is improved when input from different roles, ranks, and functions are considered.
-

Appendix A5.3: Three factor model including inclusive leadership and transformational leadership

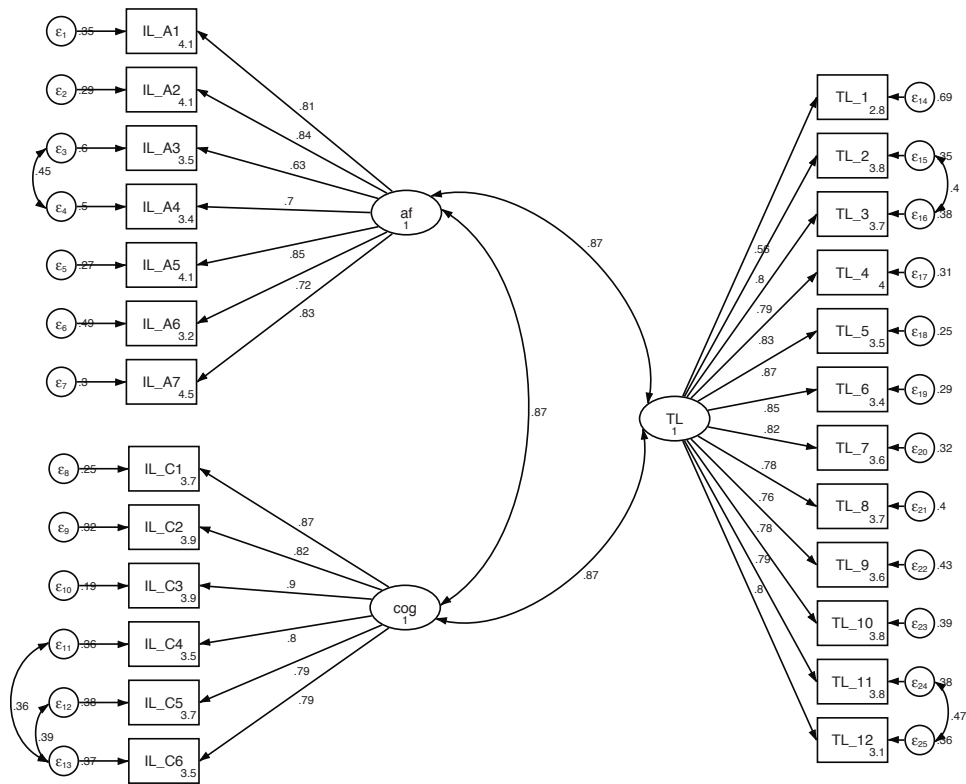


Figure 5.2: Three-factor model with two dimensions of inclusive leadership plus transformational leadership. Model fit: $\chi^2(267) = 681.716$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .079, CFI = .926, TLI = .917, SRMR = .041, CD = .997.

Appendix A5.4: Three factor model inclusive leadership and leader inclusiveness

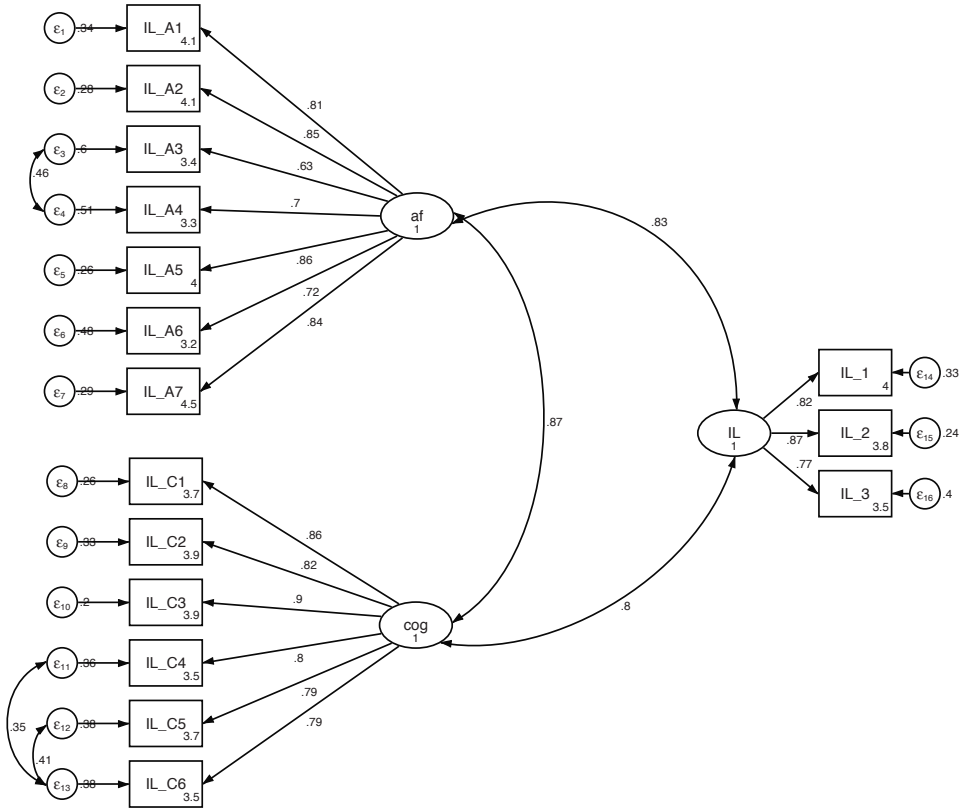


Figure 5.3: Three-factor model including the two developed leadership dimensions plus leader inclusiveness (IL) measured according to Nembhard and Edmondson (2006). Model fit: $\chi^2_{(98)} = 288.062$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .091, CFI = .939, TLI = .925, SRMR = .045, CD = .995.

Appendix A5.5: Two factor inclusive leadership related to inclusive climate

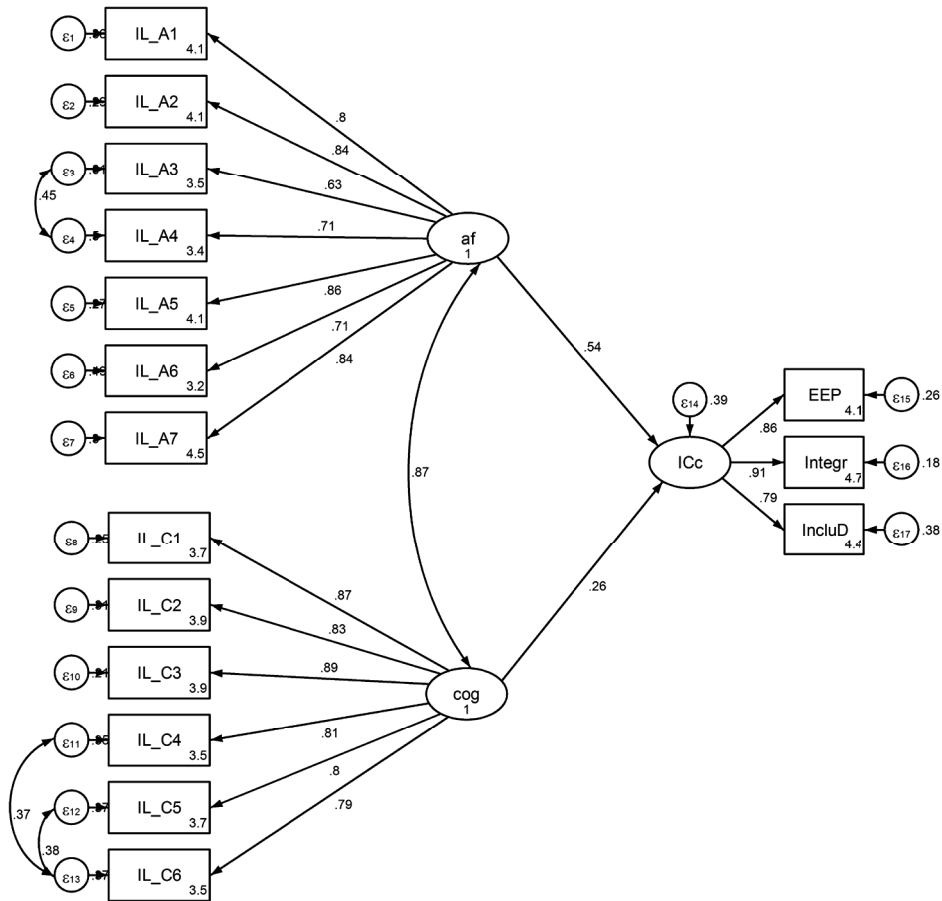


Figure 5.4: Note. Two-factor model including inclusive leadership and inclusive climate (ICc). (EEP = Equal Employment Practices; Integr = Integration of differences; Includ = Inclusion in decision-making; Nishii, 2013). Model fit: $\chi^2_{(98)} = 260.48$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .082, CFI = .951, TLI = .940, SRMR = .039, CD = .985.

Appendix A6.I: CFA inclusive climate

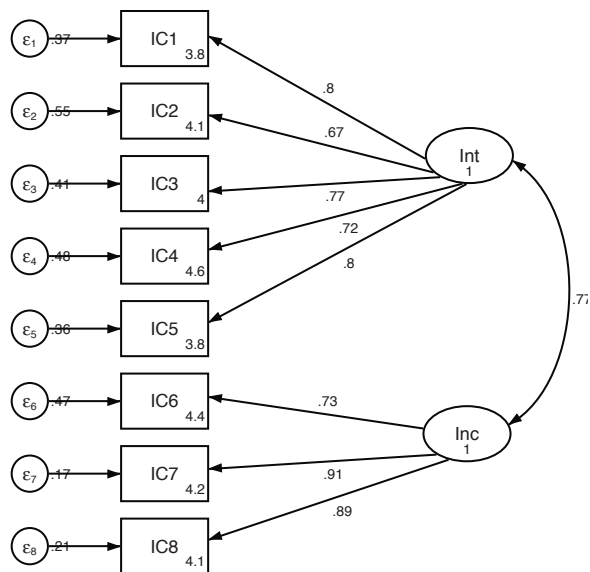


Figure 6.4: CFA for Inclusive climate: Integration of differences (Int) and Inclusion in decision-making (Inc), with clustered robust standard errors.

Table 6.6: Model statistics CFA inclusive climate

Model Statistics	1 factor model	2 factor model
Standardized root mean squared residual	.064	.044
Coefficient of determination	.912	.978
Akaike's information criterion	4652.863	4523.527
Bayesian information criterion	4738.776	4613.02

Appendix A6.2: CFA Inclusive leadership

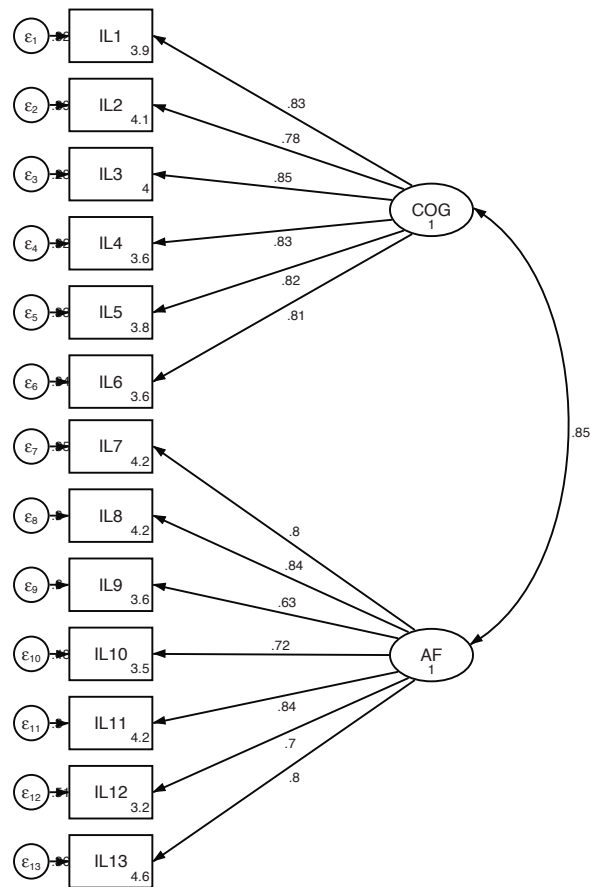


Figure 6.5: CFA for Inclusive leadership: COG refers to managing cognitive processes and AF refers to managing affective processes, with clustered robust standard errors. Standardized estimates.

Table 6.7: Model statistics CFA inclusive leadership

Model Statistics	1 factor model	2 factor model
Standardized root mean squared residual	.059	.048
Coefficient of determination	.949	.984
Akaike's information criterion	7860.783	7704.09
Bayesian information criterion	8002.817	7849.766



Dutch summary

Leiderschap en inclusiviteit in publieke organisaties

Samenvatting

Inleiding

Dit proefschrift rapporteert over onderzoek naar de effecten van diversiteitsmanagement en leiderschap op inclusiviteit in publieke organisaties en de invloed daarvan op de houding en het gedrag van medewerkers- en teamuitkomsten. Publieke organisaties hebben steeds vaker te maken met nieuwe en complexe uitdagingen als gevolg van globalisering, migratie en toenemende participatie van personen met een migratie-achtergrond op de arbeidsmarkt. Demografische en maatschappelijke ontwikkelingen maken het noodzakelijk dat publieke organisaties responsief zijn voor steeds diverser wordende behoeften van verschillende stakeholders. Om hierop in te spelen, streven publieke organisaties er steeds meer naar gebruik te maken van de verschillende competenties van haar personeel, wat vraagt om effectief diversiteitsmanagement. Daarnaast wordt diversiteitsmanagement steeds vaker ingezet om daarmee de inclusiviteit in organisaties te bevorderen. In een inclusieve werkomgeving worden verschillen herkend, gewaardeerd en benut en voelen diverse medewerkers zich thuis in de organisatie en het team. Dit kan vervolgens bijdragen aan de responsiviteit van publieke organisaties.

In de literatuur wordt diversiteitsmanagement geïntroduceerd als een effectieve managementbenadering die positief bijdraagt aan organisatieprestaties. Diversiteitsmanagement is daarmee een instrumentele (economische) benadering waarin diversiteit als resource wordt gezien om de organisatieprestaties te verbeteren. Zo zou diversiteit bijdragen aan het verkrijgen van toegang tot steeds diverser wordende stakeholders (bijvoorbeeld burgers of cliënten), maar ook aan het genereren van meer perspectieven, wat zorgt voor een effectievere probleemoplossing. Daarnaast wordt hierbij steeds meer de rol van de publieke manager benadrukt, wiens leiderschap cruciaal is voor het managen van diversiteit en het behalen van beoogde uitkomsten. Met de focus op inclusiviteit is ook op de agenda gezet op dat diversiteitsmanagement niet alleen gericht zou moeten zijn op het verbeteren van de organisatieprestaties, maar dat eveneens van belang is dat verschillende sociale identiteiten in de werkcontext naast elkaar kunnen bestaan.

Met name op het gebied van etnisch-culturele diversiteit is de vertegenwoordiging in publieke organisaties nog gering. De literatuur laat zien dat juist zichtbare kenmerken als etnisch-culturele diversiteit gebruikt kunnen worden om bepaalde sociale categorieën toe te wijzen aan individuen. Als gevolg hiervan ervaren etnisch-cultureel diverse teams vaker team conflict en minder commitment en cohesie, met als resultaat verminderde prestaties. Deze bevindingen onderstrepen dat met name het managen van etnisch-culturele diversiteit complex is en leiderschap benodigd is voor het managen van diversiteit en het bevorderen van inclusiviteit.

Dit proefschrift integreert verschillende theoretische perspectieven op diversiteit en inclusiviteit. Een sociale-ruilperspectief gaat uit van een ruilrelatie tussen de organisatie (of vertegenwoordigers zoals leidinggevendenden) en de medewerker. Deze ruilrelatie is niet economisch van aard, maar is gebaseerd op inspanning en loyaliteit van medewerkers in ruil voor baten vanuit de organisatie zoals ondersteuning en erkenning. Diversiteitsmanagement beoogt een omgeving te creëren waarin rekening gehouden wordt met de verschillen van medewerkers, waardoor dit gezien kan worden als vorm van erkenning en als een investering van de organisatie in haar medewerkers. De ondersteuning en erkenning die medewerkers ervaren, draagt vervolgens bij aan de beleving van inclusiviteit en brengt een sociale ruilrelatie tot stand. Medewerkers reageren daarop door een hogere betrokkenheid en inzet te tonen.

Daarnaast zijn perspectieven die uitgaan van sociale identiteit en *optimal distinctiveness* relevant. Het eerste perspectief betoogt dat individuen op basis van overeenkomsten en verschillen met groepsleden een collectieve identiteit vormen. Het tweede perspectief beklemtoont dat individuen tegelijkertijd ook behoefte hebben om zich te onderscheiden van de groep of het team. Een omgeving waarin beide optimaal gebalanceerd worden, kent een hoge mate van inclusiviteit. Deze processen van identificatie en differentiatie zullen voornamelijk plaatsvinden op teamniveau.

Verder kan de mate waarin er een balans is tussen eigenheid en identificatie afhankelijk zijn van twee diversiteitsprocessen. Het betreft een cognitief proces wat veronderstelt dat diversiteit een bron is voor verschillende benaderingen, ideeën en vaardigheden die moeten worden gedeeld, besproken en benut. Daarnaast gaat het om een affectief proces wat kan resulteren in sociale cohesie of mogelijke uitsluiting op basis van sociale categorieën die toegekend worden aan leden van het team. Uitsluiting kan verhinderen dat teamleden zich veilig voelen in de groep en het gevoel hebben een gewaardeerd groepslid te zijn. Doordat deze processen zich voordoen in het dagelijkse werk zijn de direct leidinggevendenden van belang om deze processen te managen.

Bovenstaande uiteenzetting geeft aan dat de ontwikkeling van inclusiviteit complex is en afhankelijk is van verschillende factoren. Het gaat om diversiteitsmanagement dat ontwikkeld wordt op organisatieniveau en de perceptie van medewerkers van dit beleid, de rol van de leidinggevende en specifiekere leiderschap als intermediaire factor, en de processen in het team die van belang zijn voor inclusiviteit. Dit onderzoek heeft dan ook als doel te verklaren hoe inclusiviteit bevorderd kan worden in publieke organisaties en hoe dit resulteert in uitkomsten op het niveau van individuen en teams. De centrale vraag luidt als volgt:

“Hoe beïnvloeden diversiteitsmanagement en leiderschap de inclusiviteit in publieke organisaties en teams, en daarmee uitkomsten op individueel niveau en teamniveau?”

In de volgende paragraaf worden de onderzoeksopzet en gehanteerde methoden toegelicht. Hierna volgen de belangrijkste empirische bevindingen uit de deelonderzoeken. Deze samenvatting wordt afgesloten met een conclusie en discussie.

Onderzoeksopzet en methoden

Dit onderzoek is gericht op de Nederlandse publieke sector en is gebaseerd op een kwantitatief onderzoeksdesign. De vijf empirische hoofdstukken onderzoeken elk een deelvraag. De eerste twee hoofdstukken zijn gebaseerd op een survey onder medewerkers van verschillende publieke organisaties. Hierdoor was het mogelijk om een representatieve steekproef te realiseren die geschikt was om de hypothesen op basis van een sociale-ruilperspectief te toetsen. Hoofdstuk 2 presenteert analyses van een steekproef onder medewerkers werkzaam bij de Rijksoverheid die het effect van diversiteitsmanagement op inclusiviteit en werknemersuitkomsten toetsen. Ook werd getoetst of dit effect verschilt voor medewerkers met verschillende migratie-achtergronden. Hoofdstuk 3 rapporteert over data van medewerkers uit meerdere publieke sectoren om de link tussen diversiteitsmanagement, inclusiviteit en medewerkerscommitment verder te expliciteren. Hierbij ligt de focus op de intermediaire rol van transformationeel leiderschap.

Om hypothesen op basis van de sociale identiteits- en *optimal distinctiveness* perspectieven te toetsen, zijn de analyses in hoofdstukken 4, 5 en 6 uitgevoerd op teamniveau. In hoofdstuk 4 worden data geanalyseerd die verzameld zijn in een studie naar teams in de publieke sector (Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2014). Voor hoofdstuk 5 en 6 is er een onderzoek verricht onder teams werkzaam in vier verschillende publieke organisaties. In hoofdstuk 5 worden data op het individuele niveau geanalyseerd om een meetschaal voor inclusief leiderschap te ontwikkelen. Voor hoofdstuk 6 zijn deze data geaggregeerd naar het teamniveau om de modererende rol van inclusief leiderschap in de relatie tussen teamdiversiteit en inclusief klimaat te onderzoeken.

Resultaten deelonderzoeken

In hoofdstuk 2 staat de volgende vraag centraal: ***“in hoeverre verschillen diversiteitsuitkomsten onder medewerkers met verschillende socio-demografische achtergronden?”***. De studie toont aan dat diversiteitsmanagement positief bijdraagt aan de door medewerkers ervaren inclusiviteit. Dit bevordert vervolgens hun affectieve betrokkenheid en *organizational citizenship behaviour*. In tegenstelling tot wat verwacht werd op basis van een sociale-ruilperspectief, ervaren alle medewerkers een dergelijk positief effect en niet enkel medewerkers uit minderheidsgroepen. Dit betekent dat diversiteitsmanagement kan bijdragen aan de waardering van verschillen tussen alle medewerkers en dat eenieder zich thuis kan voelen in de organisatie. Wanneer diversiteitsmanagement, naast een economische benadering, ook de sociale context ondersteunt waarin verschillen herkend en gewaardeerd worden, zal dit de inclusiviteit in de organisatie bevorderen.

In hoofdstuk 3 ligt de focus op de vraag: ***“hoe is diversiteitsmanagement gerelateerd aan de affectieve betrokkenheid van medewerkers via de mediërende effecten van transformationeel leiderschap en inclusiviteit?”***. Nadat in hoofdstuk 2 is vastgesteld dat diversiteitsmanagement de beleving van inclusiviteit en betrokkenheid van alle medewerkers bevordert, voegt dit hoofdstuk de rol van leiderschap als een verklarende factor toe in de relatie tussen diversiteitsmanagement en beoogde uitkomsten. Ook hier blijkt een positief verband tussen diversiteitsmanagement, inclusiviteit en medewerkersbetrokkenheid. Transformationeel leiderschap blijkt hierin bovendien een belangrijke rol te spelen. Doordat dit type leiderschap erin slaagt individuen te verbinden met een gedeelde collectieve identiteit, ondersteunt transformationeel leiderschap de positieve effecten van diversiteitsmanagement. Dit onderzoek onderstreept het belang van leiderschap naast diversiteitsmanagement om de inclusiviteit en daarmee positieve medewerkersuitkomsten in publieke organisaties te bevorderen.

In hoofdstuk 4 wordt antwoord gegeven op de vraag: ***“in hoeverre modereren de percepties die leidinggevendenden hebben van de diversiteit in hun team het effect van transformationeel leiderschap op teamprocessen en -uitkomsten?”***. In dit hoofdstuk wordt voortgebouwd op de bevindingen uit het vorige hoofdstuk en wordt aangetoond dat de percepties van leidinggevendenden het effect van transformationeel leiderschap op teamprocessen en teambevoegenheid beïnvloeden. De resultaten laten zien dat transformationeel leiderschap succesvol is in het bevorderen van de teamcohesie (affectief) en informatie-elaboratie (cognitief) en daarmee de teambevoegenheid. Daarnaast blijkt dat wanneer leidinggevendenden hun team als demografisch divers percipiëren, transformationeel leiderschap de elaboratie alleen bevordert via teamcohesie. De perceptie van functionele diversiteit lijkt geen invloed te hebben op het effect van transformationeel leiderschap. Het blijkt dat alleen in geval van gepercipieerde demografische verschillen leidinggevendenden via hun leiderschap inzetten op het verhogen van de teamcohesie. Concluderend kan gesteld worden dat meer dan cognitieve processen, affectieve processen in het team belangrijk worden in geval van gepercipieerde sociaal-demografische verschillen.

Hoofdstuk 5 draait om de vraag: ***“wat is inclusief leiderschap en op welke wijze is dit te meten?”***. Op basis van hoofdstuk 3 en 4 is geconcludeerd dat transformationeel leiderschap effectief is in het bevorderen van de sociale cohesie door een focus op het ontwikkelen van een groepsidentiteit. Hoewel dit positief bijdraagt aan de identificatie van individuen met de groep (en organisatie) is daarbij minder aandacht voor de individualiteit van medewerkers. Voor een inclusieve werkomgeving is een balans tussen beide aspecten noodzakelijk. Inclusief leiderschap is geconceptualiseerd op basis van de eerdergenoemde cognitieve en affectieve processen: zowel als leiderschapsgedrag dat teamleden stimuleert om verschillen te delen, integreren en ervan te leren, alsook als leiderschapsgedrag dat de participatie van alle teamleden faciliteert. Dit hoofdstuk toont

aan dat inclusief leiderschap zowel een cognitieve als affectieve dimensie omvat, die beide nodig zijn om inclusiviteit te realiseren.

Om verder in te gaan op de rol van inclusief leiderschap is de centrale vraag in hoofdstuk 6: ***“in hoeverre modereert inclusief leiderschap het effect van teamdiversiteit op een inclusief klimaat?”***. De resultaten van de teamstudie laten zien dat etnisch-culturele diversiteit negatief gerelateerd is aan de inclusiviteit van het team. Deze bevinding is in lijn met een sociale identiteitsperspectief dat veronderstelt dat teamdiversiteit negatief samenhangt met inclusiviteit vanwege een grotere kans op vooroordelen tussen groepen. Dit negatieve effect wordt echter beïnvloed door inclusief leiderschap, zo komt uit deze studie naar voren. Inclusief leiderschap weet het negatieve effect van team diversiteit op een inclusief klimaat te verminderen. Via de eerdergenoemde cognitieve en affectieve processen kan dit type leiderschap dus een modererend effect hebben op de mate van inclusiviteit in teams.

Conclusie

Concluderend stelt dit onderzoek dat het management van diversiteit en de bevordering van inclusiviteit een managementopgave is die zich op verschillende niveaus afspeelt. Zowel diversiteitsmanagement op organisatieniveau als leiderschap op teamniveau bevorderen de inclusiviteit in publieke organisaties en dragen daarmee bij aan de identificatie met en betrokkenheid bij de organisatie van alle medewerkers. Hierbij is het van belang dat diversiteitsmanagement gericht is op de waardering van alle medewerkers en niet enkel op medewerkers uit ondervertegenwoordigde groepen in de organisatie. Diversiteitsmanagement gaat daarbij verder dan enkel een instrumentele benadering van diversiteit, waarin diversiteit benaderd wordt als een hulpbron om de organisatieprestaties te verbeteren, maar richt zich tevens op de sociale werkomgeving waarin er ruimte is voor een verscheidenheid aan identiteiten en gevoel van verbondenheid.

Daarnaast onderstreept dit proefschrift de rol van de direct leidinggevende in de dagelijkse aansturing van teams. Enkel formeel beleid en interventies gericht op het bevorderen van diversiteit in het kader van diversiteitsmanagement is niet voldoende toereikend voor de ontwikkeling van inclusiviteit in teams. Zo toont dit onderzoek dat toenemende teamdiversiteit niet evident gelijk staat aan een hogere mate van inclusiviteit, maar dat inclusief leiderschap nodig is. Dit leiderschap bestaat uit zowel een cognitieve dimensie gericht op het stimuleren van lerend gedrag van teamleden ten aanzien van diversiteit, als een affectieve dimensie die de participatie van elk teamlid faciliteert. Daar waar huidig onderzoek (en praktijk) zich vooral richt op een één-op-één relatie tussen leidinggevende en medewerker, geeft dit onderzoek aan dat aandacht voor het team en teamprocessen ook noodzakelijk is voor het ondersteunen van inclusiviteit.

Tot slot is de perceptie van leidinggevend en op de teamdiversiteit nog een onderbelicht thema. De invloed van leiderschap op teamprocessen en uitkomsten is in zekere mate afhankelijk van de percepties van teamdiversiteit die een leidinggevende

heeft. Het is daarom van belang om de percepties van leidinggevendenden mee te nemen om de effecten van leiderschap op inclusiviteit en medewerkersuitkomsten beter te begrijpen.

Al met al onderstreept dit onderzoek dat voor inclusiviteit in publieke organisaties en teams een combinatie van diversiteitsmanagement op organisatieniveau en gepast leiderschap op teamniveau van belang is.



About the author

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Tanachia Ashikali (9 November 1988, The Hague) is an assistant professor of Public Administration at the Institute of Public Administration at Leiden University. Her research expertise includes diversity management, leadership and inclusion in public organizations, with a focus on quantitative research methods and techniques. She teaches courses on human resource management and public management, and supervises master theses on these and related topics. She acts as a speaker at practitioners' seminars and, as a research fellow of the Leiden Leadership Centre, engages in research collaborations on inclusive leadership with practitioners in various Dutch public organizations.

In 2010 Tanachia Ashikali obtained a Bachelor's degree in Public Administration at Erasmus University Rotterdam, where she obtained her Master's degree in Public Administration with a focus on Work, Organization & Management in 2011. Her master thesis on diversity management was awarded with the Brasz 2011 thesis prize and the Albeda 2011 thesis prize, respectively granted by the Dutch Association for Public Administration and by the Albeda chair of 'Labour relations in the public sector', Leiden University and CAOP.

After graduation, Tanachia started working as a junior researcher and teacher at the department of Public Administration, Erasmus University Rotterdam. From 2014 to 2017 she was employed as an academic teacher and researcher at the Institute of Public Administration at Leiden University. Tanachia participated and presented her work in a number of academic research conferences, such as the Public Management Research Conference, the annual European Group for Public for Public Administration conference, the EGPA/IIAS Trans-Atlantic Dialogue, the annual conference of the Netherlands Institute of Government, and the International Conference of the Dutch HRM Network. For her article, on diversity management, transformational leadership, inclusiveness and employees' affective commitment co-authored with prof. Sandra Groeneveld, she was granted the best article published in 2015 award by the journal *Review of Public Personnel Administration*.



This dissertation shows how diversity management and leadership relate to inclusiveness in public organizations and individual employee and team outcomes. Inclusiveness is about team members feeling they belong to the group, while they can have their own unique identities. Inclusive leadership stimulates this by encouraging diverse team members to value, exchange, discuss and learn from their different backgrounds, perspectives and ideas. Inclusiveness in turn contributes to employees' organizational commitment and involvement. This is particularly required in a changing society demanding of public organizations to be adaptive and responsive.