An Exploratory Factor Analysis of Diversity and Inclusion

Climates In Australian Male-Dominated Industries

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This report is submitted in partial fulfillment of the degree of Master of Psychology (Organisational and Human Factors)

School of Psychology

The University of Adelaide

November 2019

Report word count: 7996

Literature Review word count: 5482

DIVERSITY AND INCLUSION CLIMATES IN AUSTRALIA

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Declaration

This report contains no material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

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November 2019

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Acknowledgements

The writing of this document has been both a personal and professional achievement accomplished with the support of my supervisors. Thanks to Lucinda Hewitson for providing the data and conceptual foundation; to Justin Fidock for supporting me through long discussions about research design and applied research methods; and Jaime Auton for emotional and instrumental support and reminding me to keep theory in focus.

Thank you also to my husband and friends who never failed to let me talk things out, and who helped with proof reading.

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The measurement of diversity and inclusion in organisations – ${\bf A}$ Literature Review

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The measurement of diversity and inclusion in organisations – A Literature Review

Over the last three decades, diversity scholarship has shifted from a focus on diversifying workplace demographics to a focus on employee experiences of inclusion. In practice, diversity and inclusion are terms often used interchangeably, and there is some debate about whether this represents a change in practices or simply a shift towards language more palatable to majority-group employees (Roberson, 2006). Unfortunately, efforts to increase diversity within organisations do not automatically produce experiences of inclusion in the workgroup. In fact, workforce diversity has been named a double edged sword because it can facilitate desirable outcomes for employees and organisations, but if not managed effectively can exacerbate conflict and hinder productivity (Joshi & Roh, 2009; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Ryan & Kossek, 2008).

Psychological climates for diversity and inclusion refer to employee attitudes towards diversity and the organisation's diversity management activities, as well as their perceptions of the inclusiveness of the organisation and workgroup (Dobusch, 2014; Dwertmann, Nishii, & van Knippenberg, 2016; Kossek & Zonia, 1993). Unfortunately research that examines diversity and inclusion is not well integrated. There are three approaches to the measurement of diversity and inclusion climates in organisations. Diversity management practices are identity-conscious and focus on the needs of specific groups. This can produce positive outcomes for minority-group employees, however, can also result in backlash from majority-group employees who feel unfairly treated. A second approach aims to include and engage all employees equally and adopts identity-blind human resource practices. When all employees feel that they have been treated fairly and are valued, conflict between groups can be reduced, however more research is required to fully understand how this impacts minority-group employees. A final approach focuses not on the organisational-level human resource practices in an organisation, but on how the interactions between co-workers contribute to feelings of

inclusion and employee engagement. All three approaches provide strong evidence that diversity and inclusion can produce positive outcomes for employees and organisations, however approaches have been intertwined. Failure to extricate and examine the identity-conscious from identity-blind approaches and attitudes towards organisational-level practices from work-group level experiences can conceal important consequences and contribute to flawed perceptions of interventions' effectiveness. This can have considerable costs for individuals and organisations. Researchers and practitioners need to carefully consider how these three issues interact and clearly distinguish between approaches, levels and groups in the design of interventions and the development of measures to assess their effectiveness. Unless these issues are resolved, the benefits of diversity may remain allusive.

The Social Identity Approach

The Social Identity Approach is extensively supported with both laboratory and field studies and has been highly influential in the field of organisational psychology over the past 50 years (Hornsey, 2008). According to these theories, individuals develop psychologically meaningful categories that allow them to make sense of their social environment (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Identification refers to the categorisation of the self as a group member and "the cognitive perception of oneness or belongingness to a group involving direct or vicarious experience of its success and failures" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p.20). In organisations, people may identify with their professional group, department, hierarchical level, or team (Alderfer & Smith, 1982; Luijters, van der Zee, & Otten, 2008; Mckay et al., 2007; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). This facilitates receptivity to socialisation processes from other in-group members; more positive perceptions of the group and its members; greater loyalty and commitment; more effective team work; and more organisational citizenship behaviour (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Physical characteristics, particularly age, gender and race are easily primed and

accessible. When combined, they can divide a group into subgroups and activate biases (Lau & Murnighan, 2005). Thatcher and Patel's (2011) meta-analysis found that demographically diverse teams experience more conflict, and derive less satisfaction from their jobs than teams that share greater demographic similarity.

Competition for material and symbolic resources (including status, opportunity and influence) enhance these effects. When individuals perceive a threat to their group's status, and by extension their own self-concept, they may derogate features of the out-group, physically or psychologically withdraw, or take action to change the social hierarchy. Members of lower status groups may compete to displace higher status groups while members of higher status groups may act to preserve the status quo. In organisations this can manifest as high turnover, employee disengagement, discrimination and conflict (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Diversity management is intended to avoid these negative consequences, while achieving equitable outcomes for members of different groups.

Group Differences in Attitudes Towards Diversity

Group memberships guide interactions and shape perceptions. Kossek and Zonia's (1993) seminal examination of psychological diversity climate perceptions uncovered pronounced differences in perceptions within an organisation. They surveyed university employees about their attitudes towards the organisation's efforts to become more diverse, and towards people who may have benefited from these practices. The study compared the responses of majority-group employees (Caucasian men) and minority-group employees (men and women belonging to racioethnic minority groups, and Caucasian women). All groups expressed positive attitudes towards the organisation's diversity initiatives, but Caucasian men valued them less than minority-group employees.

In-group biases and prejudice between groups was also evident. Employees were asked

¹ The term 'racioethinic' is used to include biological and/or cultural differences between groups (Cox, 1991).

to rate the qualifications and productivity of women co-workers relative to men, and racioethnic minority co-workers relative to Caucasians. Each group rated themselves as better qualified and more productive than the referent group (i.e., women rated themselves as more qualified than men, and men rated women as less qualified than men). Biases were also evident in the extent to which employees considered resources to be fairly allocated in their faculty. Women from racioethnic minority-groups perceived themselves at the greatest disadvantage with significantly less access to resources than their co-workers. This contrasted starkly with the perceptions of majority-group employees. Caucasian men perceived themselves as disadvantaged and rated minority group co-workers as more likely than themselves to be allocated a student assistant, be granted release time from teaching, and to receive an above-average salary.

Mor Barak, Cherin and Berkman (1998) found similar results in a sample of employees working for a large technology company in the United States. Caucasian men perceived the organisation as fairer and more inclusive of women and people from racioethnic minority-groups, than other groups did. Women who were also in the racioethnic minority reported significantly less favourable perceptions of the organisation's diversity and inclusion practices. These groups were also polarised in their personal attitudes towards diversity. Racioethnic minority women valued diversity and felt more comfortable with diversity than any other group, while Caucasian men expressed the least comfort with diversity and valued it less than other groups.

Interviews helped to explain these results. Caucasian men used the organisation's formal diversity practices as evidence that the company was fair and inclusive of minority group members. They expressed the view that the company was investing in diversity and 'on the right track' (Mor Barak et al., 1998, p. 95). All other groups felt that the company was not doing enough to be inclusive. They perceived the organisation to maintain an 'old boys

network' (Mor Barak et al., 1998, p.95) and provided examples of being disadvantaged and excluded from informal interactions, which they felt were crucial to career progression.

Kaiser and colleagues (2013) examined these effects by experimentally manipulating the visibility of organisational diversity efforts and assessing how this impacted the attitudes of Caucasian men and women. They conducted a series of six studies, each with random assignment of participants to a control group or diversity condition, in which the organisation's diversity management efforts were made visible. The results repeatedly demonstrated that organisational-level diversity management practices provide a legitimising cue to members of high-status groups that the organisation is fair and inclusive of minority group members, regardless of whether these strategies are effective or not. This can conceal evidence of bias, silence potential claimants, cause people to disregard discrimination claims that are raised, and even express prejudice towards minority group people who speak out against mistreatment. The researchers do not suggest that such organisational-level practices be abandoned but warn that the existence of diversity management activities is not evidence of inclusiveness or unbiased practices. They urge practitioners to evaluate diversity management activities using objective data.

Taken together, these studies provide strong evidence that discrimination towards minority group members can become invisible to members of privileged groups and that highly visible organisational efforts to promote diversity and inclusion, may contribute to this. One of the most common diversity management strategies is to provide visible support for minority group members (Kossek & Zonia, 1993). The intention is to make the organisation more attractive to a diverse pool of candidates, build the organisation's reputation, and communicate to employees that diversity is valued (Chrobot-Mason, 2003). However, doing so may alienate majority-group members, contribute to perceptions of competition and unfairness between groups, greater stereotyping of out-groups, lukewarm

support or resistance to diversity management, and discrimination or conflict between groups (Alderfer & Smith, 1982; Kaiser et al., 2013; Kossek & Zonia, 1993).

There are two important implications for the assessment of employee attitudes to diversity management and inclusion. Firstly, it is important to contrast the views of majority-group members and minority group members. Secondly, it is important to differentiate between the organisational-level and workgroup-level in the design and evaluation of interventions.

The Identity-Conscious Approach

The identity-conscious approach aims to increase the representation of people from historically marginalised groups in the organisation. It is primarily focused on the visible social categories of race, gender and age (Pelled, Ledford, & Mohrman, 1999). Practices take these characteristics into account in recruitment and promotion decisions (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995). The identity-conscious approach is epitomised by affirmative action hiring policies. It aims to achieve fairness through numeric parity and considers inclusion as synonymous with representation throughout the organisational structure. This approach assumes that prejudiced attitudes will decline as a result of increased contact between majority and minority group employees (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006).

Measures of attitudes towards identity-conscious organisational-level practices.

Measures of diversity climate perceptions adopt an identity-conscious perspective. The term 'diversity climate' refers to the meaning and value that employees attribute to diversity as a result of diversity management activities within the organisation. It includes employee perceptions of how they should think and feel about diversity and their perceptions of what behaviours are expected within the organisational context (Dwertmann et al., 2016). Research has examined how diversity climates impact majority and minority-group employees.

Chrobot-Mason (2003) identified that the organisational-level diversity management

policies constitute unique aspects of the psychological contract for employees from racioethnic minority groups. The psychological contract describes employee's perceptions of the implicit obligations and responsibilities that they and their employer each contribute to their relationship, and how employees regulate their contributions to maintain perceptions of fairness (Adams, 1963; Rousseau, 1990). Fulfillment of general promises and diversity promises were equally important to minority group employees and both were strongly related to employees' job satisfaction, while breaches were strongly related to employee cynicism (Chrobot-Mason, 2003). Buttner, Lowe and Billings-Harris (2010, 2012) built on this by exploring how attitudes can differ across organisational levels. Organisational-level and department-level diversity management activities uniquely and interactively predicted employee work attitudes. Employees were most committed and least likely to leave when they felt that the organisation had fulfilled its diversity promises and that diversity management was fairly and genuinely implemented at the departmental level (Buttner et al., 2010, 2012).

Diversity management activities can impact majority and minority-group employees differently. McKay et al. (2008) examined differences in the job performance of department store salespeople and how this related to their racioethinicity, and diversity climate perceptions. In stores that were less supportive of diversity management Caucasian men sold significantly more than Caucasian women, Hispanic men and women, and African American men and women. In contrast, all groups performed better when the diversity climate was strongly positive, although the increase in sales per hour was small for Caucasian employees. When the diversity climate was strongly positive, discrepancies in sales between Caucasian and Hispanic employees were ameliorated, such that there was no difference in the mean sales per hour between these groups. Additionally, the sales of African American employees surpassed their Caucasian co-workers – a reversal of the relationship exhibited in less

supportive stores.

Gonzalez and DiNisi (2009) explored workforce heterogeneity in a restaurant chain. Racioethnically diverse groups had better return on income and were more productive when the group held positive attitudes towards diversity management. The results also identified that men were less committed to the organisation when they worked in teams with more women, but that the commitment of women was not affected by the portion of men and women in the team. Nevertheless, both men and women were less likely to quit when there was a positive diversity climate.

The same measure was used by Soldan (2009) who examined the perceptions of Australian government employees. They were unable to compare the perceptions of employees from racioethnic minority groups with majority-group workers because they lacked statistical power (the majority-group [Caucasians] made up 77.5% of their sample). In contrast to research that examines employees in the United States, their results found no significant differences in the perceptions of men and women. However, they reported that employees who had worked for the organisation for longer held more cynical attitudes towards diversity management and were more likely to consider the implementation of diversity policies by managers to be disingenuous. This study highlights the need to consider the cultural context an organisation is embedded within when examining attitudes to diversity management.

Significant but weak racioethinic differences have been detected in diversity climate perceptions of people working in the Netherlands. As in previous research, majority group employees (Dutch) considered the organisation to value diversity more than minority-group employees did (non-Dutch) (Luijters et al., 2008). In a sample of Dutch government workers, the positive relationship between employee perceptions of diversity management and organisational commitment was affirmed, although the effect was weaker than reported in

American samples. Employees who held positive attitudes towards diversity management, were more likely to perceive that their organisation valued cultural differences, and subsequently exhibited more organisational citizenship behaviours. This relationship was constant for both Dutch and non-Dutch employees, and no significant differences were found between men and women (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015).

Overall, these results demonstrate that fostering a positive diversity climate has tangible and positive effects on employee affect, behaviour, and job performance, and on organisational financial performance. Identity-conscious diversity management activities attenuate differences in employee performance and facilitate improvements in the performance and engagement of minority-group employees without negatively impacting the performance of employees from the majority-group. Together these studies support the notion derived from the Social Identity Approach that group memberships impact perceptions of diversity management which moderate the relationships between group membership and employee outcomes. These effects have manifested consistently in studies that examined employees in the United States. Studies that sampled employees working in the Netherlands have been broadly supportive. However, group differences have been unable to be tested or were not detected in the one Australian. Further research within an Australian context is required to interpret this result meaningfully.

The Identity-Blind Approach

Inclusive human resource activities are identity-blind. They do not focus on specific groups but are intended to enhance the engagement and performance of all employees. Practices involve implementing merit based recognition systems, facilitating participatory work systems, and encouraging 360 degree communication (Roberson, 2006). Identity-blind approaches to diversity management assume that discrimination is averted, and fairness achieved by removing distinctions between members of different social categories. The goal

is to create an environment that facilitates the optimal performance of all employees by treating everyone equally (Roberson, 2006). The underlying assumption is that perceived unfairness hinders employee performance and contributes to inter-group conflict (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995; Kossek & Zonia, 1993). To paraphrase Shore et al. (2011), a climate of inclusion is one in which both minority and majority members feel respected and that they belong, and in which organisational practices treat all members fairly and are implemented such that resistance and conflict are minimized.

The identity-blind approach emphasises the similarities between employees. It emphasises that the fundamental psychological needs of competence, autonomy and belonging that are shared by all people regardless of their group memberships, and that these needs impact employee engagement (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Thus, all employees, including those from the majority-group, have the potential to feel included or excluded to the extent that their needs for belonging is satisfied in the work environment (Shore et al., 2011).

Measures of attitudes towards identity-blind organisational-level practices and workgroup-level inclusion.

Measures of employee perceptions of the inclusiveness of their organisation's practices have also included items that are focused on employees' experience of inclusion within their workgroup. Mor Barak and Cherin's (1998) Perceptions of Inclusion-Exclusion scale is the most widely used measure of employee inclusion experiences. They define inclusion-exclusion as 'a continuum of the degree to which individuals feel a part of critical organizational processes such as access to information and resources, involvement in work groups, and ability to influence the decision making process' (Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998, p.95). The measure was later revised to capture five system levels (the organisation, higher management, supervisor, workgroup, and social/informal) across three dimensions (decision-making process, information networks, level of participation/involvement) (Mor Barak,

2014). This supports the notion that to understand inclusion experiences in organisations, several levels of analysis should be considered.

Studies using this measure have consistently detected strong positive relationships between inclusion experiences and desirable work outcomes. Employees who feel more included experience more job satisfaction than those who feel excluded (Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998). This effect is stronger if the worker has positive attitudes towards diversity management in their organisation, and feels supported by their supervisor (Acquavita, Pittman, Gibbons, & Castellanos-Brown, 2009). Findler, Wind and Mor Barak (2007) explored the inclusion experiences of employees working for a high-tech company in Israel. Employees who felt included in information networks experienced more psychological wellbeing and were more satisfied with their jobs. Those who felt included in decision making were more committed to their organisation, perceived more fairness in the organisation's practices, and experienced less role ambiguity. However, they were also more likely to experience stress related to workload (Findler et al., 2007).

The potential for threshold effects related to strong inclusion experiences was also reported by Ely and Thomas (2001). In a legal services firm, minority-group employees were highly valued and felt a strong sense of inclusion, but were more likely to experience job burnout due to additional responsibilities in their workload. Taken together, this effect may be attributed to the extent to which employees are included in core functions and decision making. Employees with rare and valued perspectives or skills, may be more likely to be included in these activities, which contribute to their workload.

An alternative explanation is that employees who are included in decision making do not want to risk exclusion by voicing alternative or unpopular opinions. Employees are more likely to suppress their personal views and pretend to adopt organisational values in nonparticipative work environments, where decision making is not shared among all

employees. This creates a significant psychological burden (Hewlin, 2009). If employees do not feel that they can safely speak up, they may not raise workload issues, which contributes to feeling stressed.

As previously described, men and women differ in their perceptions of diversity management. There is also strong evidence that they experience inclusion differently. Two studies report that men feel more included than women in the workplace. This effect was reported by Findler, Wind and Mor Barak (2007) in their study of employees working for an Israeli high-tech company and by Cho and Mor Barak (2008) in a sample of employees of a large national company in Korea. In an American sample, Hitlan, Clifton and DeSoto (2006) explored the impact of workplace ostracism, a form of exclusion, on employed psychology students. Consistent with previous research, men and women experienced exclusion differently and at different intensities. For women, exclusion experiences in the workplace were unrelated to their psychological wellbeing and self-esteem. Men's exclusion experiences, their relationship with their supervisor, and their relationship with their coworkers were strongly and negatively related to their psychological wellbeing. Men felt excluded more frequently than women, and exclusion was significantly negatively related to self-esteem. The Social Identity Approach helps to interpret these results. Relative to women, men may be more likely to identify strongly with their profession (Kodatska, 2017). As such, exclusion experiences in the workplace constitute a stronger threat to men's self-concept, which has a powerful impact on their mental health.

Nevertheless, both theory and meta-analytic research suggest that these effects are likely to be moderated by contextual variables. Firstly, Joshi and Roh (2009) used meta-analyses to examine the how diversity impacts team performance. In service industries and gender-balanced occupations, teams with more gender diversity performed better than homogeneous teams. However, in high-tech industries, manufacturing industries, and male-

dominated occupations, this effect was reversed - homogeneous teams performed significantly better than those with more gender diversity. A second meta-analysis also highlights the relevance of industry context. Mor Barak and colleagues (2016) examined diversity in human services. Within this majority-female industry, men were significantly less likely than women to experience beneficial work-related outcomes. Men experienced less job satisfaction, exhibited less organisational commitment, and were more likely to leave their jobs than women. These results are consistent with Gonzalez and DiNisi's (2009) findings in which men felt less organisational commitment when they worked with more women.

Embedded Intergroup Relations Theory (Alderfer, 1983; Alderfer & Smith, 1982) predicts that the experience of men in majority-female organisations and the experience of women in male-dominated organisations will be qualitatively different. This is because the former is an incongruent system, while the latter is a more stable congruent system in which group status differences can appear legitimized. The theory argues that inter-group relations, and the perspectives of group members, are influenced by inter-group dynamics in subsequent system layers. Inter-group relations replicate in lower-order contexts, such that workgroups replicate organisational-level inter-group dynamics, which replicate those of the societal level (Alderfer, 1983).

Alderfer and Smith (1982) examined racioethnic and professional status differences in organisations. Their iterative mixed methods investigation of two organisations found that members of privileged groups are motivated to minimise or deny their privileges and emphasise their disadvantages to prevent losing the benefits of their position in the social hierarchy. This effect is stronger for incongruently embedded groups because the social hierarchy is less likely to be perceived as legitimized and therefore more likely to be perceived as competitive or threatening. Male-identities have high status value in the societal system. Majority-female industries are incongruently embedded systems. Therefore, the

relative loss in status between system layers can become salient to men and contribute to negative affect.

Elaborating on this, Ridgeway's (1991) Status Characteristics Theory incorporates tenets of the Social Identity Approach and the Social Exchange theories. Ridgeway asserts that social categories only take on psychological meaning to the extent that they are associated with access to resources and status. Thus, gender is salient in both male-dominated and female-majority occupations because access to resources and influence is not evenly distributed across genders. However, if arbitrary status hierarchies are dismantled by identity-blind organisational-level human resource practices, the negative effects of categorisation can be averted in informal workgroup-level interactions.

Consistent with the Status Characteristics Theory, Nishii (2013) argues that fair organisational-level practices are a critical foundation for employee engagement, but inclusion is not achieved unless there is a change in interactional patterns. When individuals are expected to assimilate to group norms and conceal divergent aspects of their identities, they experience more stress, and less engagement with their work (Clair, Beatty, & Maclean, 2005). The need to suppress aspects of their identities are likely to make these aspects salient and contribute to social-categorisation. However, when differences are valued and status differences are reduced members can express their identities without fear of stigmatization (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). This allows employees to get to know each another in more complex and individualised ways that reduce stereotyping and prejudice, and build interpersonal trust (Ensari, Christian, Kuriyama, & Miller, 2012). When employees trust one another they are more likely to share resources, show respect and concern for each other, assume colleagues have positive intentions and be open to different perspectives (Ensari & Miller, 2006; Nishii, 2013; Ramarajan, 2009).

In support of this reasoning, Nishii (2013) demonstrated that a climate for inclusion

significantly moderates the relationships between gender-diversity and group conflict, aggregated job satisfaction perceptions, and turnover six months later. When climate for inclusion was high, workgroups engaged in less conflict overall, and conflict was experienced as less destructive. Employees were able to engage in constructive disagreements that did not negatively impact their job satisfaction. The study also demonstrated that as predicted by Social Exchange theories, and consistent with conceptually similar constructs, a climate for inclusion is positively related to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived organisational support, and organisational citizenship behaviours.

Nishii (2013) reasoned that fair and consistently implemented human resource practices broke down correlations between identity groupings and membership of high-status organisational groups. However, this was not empirically examined, so the mechanisms by which a climate for inclusion are established in the interactional norms of the workgroup remain theoretical. Ely and Thomas' (2001) qualitative research describes how organisations that treat all employees the same may increase the representation of people from historically marginalised backgrounds but perpetuate assimilation norms and delegitimize social identities as a source of unique job-relevant value.

The impact of identity-blind practices requires further examination. The assumption that these strategies are beneficial for all employees may be flawed. It is possible that treating everyone the same blocks the organisation from benefiting from the diversity in its workforce, and perpetuates assimilation norms (Ely & Thomas, 2001). Also, it is unclear how the practices that define the identity-blind approach to diversity management differ from human resource practices that promote engagement (Roberson, 2006). It is possible that these practices could improve employee engagement overall without addressing relative differences in outcomes between groups.

Further examination of the relationship between organisational-level human resource

practices and employees' workgroup-level inclusion experiences is required. When measures aggregate items focused on different levels, outcomes cannot be conclusively attributed to either. This hinders the practical guidance that can be extracted from these tools. To better understand how practices affect employees, measures need to clearly distinguish between these two levels.

Workgroup-level Inclusion

Recently research has begun to extricate the measurement of employee experiences of inclusion in their workgroup interactions from organisational-level human resource activities. There has been one study that has examined the relationship between organisational-level identity-conscious diversity management practices and workgroup-level inclusion experiences. Sessler Bernstein and Bilimoria (2013) operationalised Ely and Thomas' (2001) diversity perspectives to examine the inclusion experiences of ethnic minority group board members. Inclusion was positively but weakly related to diversity management in the organisation and to whether the board engaged in identity-conscious practices. However, inclusion experiences were strongly and positively affected by interactions with colleagues. Moreover, the results found that organisational-level diversity strategies implemented at the board level had no bearing on the inclusive behaviour of board members. These results strongly emphasize the need to consider inclusion in informal workgroup interactions as distinct from organisational-level policies and practices.

Two measures of inclusion in the workgroup have been developed that are based on the conceptual work of Shore and colleagues (Shore et al., 2011, 2018). Their conceptual framework is influenced by Brewer's (1991) Optimal Distinctiveness Theory. The theory posits that all people have an innate desire for positive affiliation with others, that is at odds with a desire to maintain a distinct self-concept. Owing to social categorisation, similarity in characteristics, behaviours and perceptions facilitate group formation, identification,

validation of one's membership status from other in-group members and satisfies an innate human need for belonging. This need is met at the expense of a unique self-concept.

Members who diverge too strongly from the group prototype risk exclusion, so individuals regulate their identity expression to balance both needs. Thus, inclusion is 'the degree to which an employee perceives that he or she is an esteemed member of the work group through experiencing treatment that satisfies his or her needs for belongingness and uniqueness' (Shore et al., 2011).

To test this framework, Chung et al. (2019) developed the Workgroup Inclusion Scale. Inclusion was conceptually similar and strongly positively related to employee identification with their workgroup, speaking up (exercising voice), perceived organisational support, and the workgroup subscale of the Inclusion-Exclusion scale (Chung et al., 2019; Mor Barak, 2014). Consistent with previous research, employees experienced more inclusion in their workgroup when leaders demonstrated inclusive behaviours and organisational-level practices established a positive diversity climate. Moreover, employees who felt included demonstrated more organisational citizenship behaviours, creativity and performed better in their jobs, as rated by their supervisor. They also experienced more positive psychological health, less negative psychological health and were less likely to leave the organisation (Chung et al., 2019).

Jansen, Otten, van der Zee and Jans' (2014) Perceived Group Inclusion Scale is also influenced by the conceptual work of Shore et al (2011), however these researchers draw on Self Determination Theory (SDT) to argue that psychological needs are not in tension, but can be met simultaneously (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In this model, employees are not valued for their uniqueness, but experience a sense of value from the group related to their authentic self-expression. Authenticity is equally relevant to both majority and minority-group members. SDT is a widely accepted meta-theory of human motivation which posits that

people experience more intrinsic motivation and positive psychological outcomes to the extent that their innate needs for competence, belongingness and autonomy are satisfied (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Jansen and colleagues (2014) argue that authentic identity expression is a demonstration of autonomy and that the satisfaction of autonomy needs are obstructed by assimilation norms. Therefore, they define inclusion as the experience of belonging to a group that allows and encourages members to express themselves authentically (Jansen et al., 2014).

Research conducted in The Netherlands using this measure has contributed to the emerging nomological map and construct validity for workgroup-level inclusion. Jansen, Otten, van der Zee and Jans' (2014) demonstrated that a strong sense of inclusion is accompanied by higher self-esteem, more positive attitudes towards the group, and stronger feelings of connection. Additionally, that people feel more included in groups that that value diversity; in groups that provide a sense of psychological safety and in groups which collaboratively reflect on processes, and strive for continuous improvement (Edmondson, 1999; Jansen et al., 2014). Consistent with research by Nishii (2013), inclusion was positively related to trust and work satisfaction, and negatively related to conflict. In the research by Jansen et al (2014) and that conducted by Chung et al (2019), inclusion was positively related to creativity, psychological wellbeing, and attachment to the group.

These measures provide a promising avenue for understanding how workgroup-level interactions between co-workers are influenced by organisational-level practices. Both Sessler Bernsein and Bilimoria (2013) and Chung and colleagues (2019) demonstrated that workgroup-level inclusion experiences are influenced by organisational-level diversity management practices and the behaviour of leaders. However, in the study by Chung et al (2019) the perceptions of organisational-level diversity management activities were measured with the short version of McKay et al's (2008, 2007) Diversity Climate Perceptions scale.

This measure is comprised of two organisational-level identity-conscious items, and two organisational-level identity-blind items. Consequently conclusions cannot be drawn about how the identity-conscious and identity-blind approaches each impact inclusion.

Conclusion

Research examining employee inclusion experiences is nascent. Most measures of employee attitudes to diversity and inclusion contain items that pertain to organisational-level practices and items relating to employee experiences of inclusion resulting from informal interactions between co-workers in their workgroup. This limits the development of targeted interventions (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Mor Barak et al., 1998). Identity-conscious practices are known to produce positive effects at the organisational-level, such as positive attitudes towards diversity climates and greater numbers of minority group employees represented in the organisation. However, these practices may not produce employee experiences of inclusion in their workgroup. If majority-group employees feel disadvantaged by prodiversity policies, they may resist diversity which contributes to conflict. Adoption of identity-blind practices are assumed to circumvent these negative outcomes by treating all employees the same and creating an inclusive workplace. However, further research is needed to examine the effects of this approach on majority-group employees and minority-group employees at the workgroup level.

The diversity and inclusion literature is complex. There is great practical value in research that examines the interaction of group memberships (majority and minority-group members), levels (organisational-level and workgroup level), and organisational practices (identity-conscious and identity-blind). Measures that consider the interaction of these factors can guide practitioners to effectively navigate the double-edged sword of workforce diversity.

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An Exploratory Factor Analysis of Diversity and Inclusion Climates In Australian Male-Dominated Industries

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper was to explore the factor structure of the Inclusion Baselining Survey, an applied resource that measures aspects of inclusive culture in Australian workplaces.

Design/methodology/approach – The Inclusion Baselining Survey was examined using exploratory factor analysis of archival data gathered from two organisations in maledominated industries. Organisation 1 (N = 797) sampled employees working for a transport manufacturing and construction company. Data used in Organisation 2 (N = 810) was gathered from employees the mining industry.

Findings – Results provide strong evidence for a six-factor structure to the Inclusion Baselining Survey comprised of: stress, work-life balance, job satisfaction, supportive supervision, opportunity to make valued contributions and showing visible commitment.

Originality/value – The factor structure of the Inclusion Baselining Survey has not previously been examined. This study represents an initial step towards validation of an Australian instrument for use in applied settings.

Keywords Diversity, Inclusion, Australia, exploratory factor analysis

Paper type Research paper

An Exploratory Factor Analysis of Diversity and Inclusion Climates in Australian Male-Dominated Industries

A diverse workforce can provide valuable business benefit, but the implementation of diversity management practices is complicated and can backfire (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Nishii, 2013). Effective evaluation of diversity management considers how it effects the attitudes, inclusion experiences and wellbeing of all employees. The Inclusion Baselining Survey can be used to evaluate interventions, but its psychometric properties have not previously been examined.

Workforce diversity is a 'double-edged sword' (Carter & Phillips, 2017). It can stimulate innovation, contribute to better strategic decision making, increase market share and sales (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Hoobler, Masterson, Nkomo, & Michel, 2018; Post & Byron, 2015). If not managed effectively diversity can also contribute to competition and conflict, discrimination, perceived unfairness, employee disengagement and turnover (Joshi & Roh, 2009; Thatcher & Patel, 2011).

Inclusive diversity management practices can avoid these problems by being sensitive to the concerns of both majority and minority-group employees (Roberson, 2006). The goal is to create an environment where all employees can bring their full range of resources to bear on their work by removing barriers, and encouraging active contribution (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995). According to Self-Determination Theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), employees are most engaged when their basic psychological needs for belonging, autonomy and competence are met. When these needs are frustrated, employees disengage. Diversity management practices that elevate the needs of one group of employees over another contribute to competition and conflict, which is at odds with employees' needs for belonging (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Therefore, an inclusive work environment is one where human resource policies remove distinctions between groups, all employees are treated equally, and

all feel valued. For example, allowing all employees to access work-life balance supports including flexible working arrangements.

This is an essential first step, but does not guarantee that employees will feel a sense of belonging and commitment within their workgroup (Sessler Bernstein & Bilimoria, 2013). Within the workgroup, inclusion refers to employee perceptions that they are valued, in response to treatment that provides them with a sense of belonging and encourages them to satisfy their autonomy needs though authentic self-expression (Jansen, Otten, van Der Zee, & Jans, 2014; Shore et al., 2011). In inclusive workgroups all group members influence group processes and learn from each other, and members are able to voice ideas or concerns that challenge the status quo without fear that the group will embarrass, reject or punish them (Edmondson, 1999; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Jansen et al., 2014; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). When employees feel included they are more satisfied with their jobs, express more organisational citizenship behaviour, and are less likely to leave (Acquavita, Pittman, Gibbons, & Castellanos-Brown, 2009; Findler, Wind, & Barak, 2007; Mckay et al., 2007; Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998; Mor Barak et al., 2016; Nishii, 2013).

A common diversity management practice is to provide employees with support to maintain work-life balance through flexible working arrangements. If implemented effectively this can support employees to achieve their desired levels of involvement in other life domains and increase employee's organisational commitment (Keeney, Boyd, Sinha, Westring, & Ryan, 2013). Flexible work arrangements refer to working schedules other than 9am-5pm Monday to Friday. Examples include part-time work, compressed working hours, use of flexitime, or working from home (Borgkvist, Moore, Eliott, & Crabb, 2018). They support employees to meet family obligations, maintain physical and psychological health, or engage in leisure activities that are important to them. Flexible working arrangements can also assist organisations to attract and retain employees including, parents, and younger

workers (Australian Human Rights Commission, AHRC, 2014; Cooklin et al., 2016; Workplace Gender Equality Agency, WGEA, 2017). Flexible working is strongly related to work-life- balance, job satisfaction, employee turnover intentions and organisational commitment (Chen & Fulmer, 2018; Cooklin et al., 2016; Talukder, 2019).

When work and other life domains are in conflict, they threaten employees' sense of autonomy. Work-life balance and flexible working removes this challenge. Moreover, providing employees with support to participate in non-work activities while balancing work commitments signals to them that the organisation values and cares for their wellbeing (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As a consequence employees feel good about themselves and about the organisation, which facilitates greater identification with and commitment (Lawler, 2001). A norm of reciprocity creates an obligation for employees to respond and to help the organisation achieve its goals (Gouldner, 1960). This manifests as greater job involvement and performance and less disengagement (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Thus, provision of organisational support can contribute to employee engagement and to establishing an inclusive work environment.

Leaders play a critical role in establishing an inclusive work environment in two ways. They influence the successful implementation of human resource policies and they directly influence the interactional norms within the workgroup. Fair Human resource policies are necessary, but not sufficient to achieve positive outcomes because their effectiveness is not contingent on their existence, but on how they are implemented across the organisation (Ryan & Kossek, 2008; Sutton & Noe, 2004). Inclusive policies are more effective when leaders clearly communicate their support, fairly negotiate policy use with employees, and make support available to all group members (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Leaders can also directly influence employee's uptake by role modelling balance between work and other priorities in life, providing emotional support, and by providing instrumental support to their use of

flexible working arrangements (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009). The provision of instrumental support is crucial. It reduces employee stress related to workload, considers the fair distribution of workload in the team and considers how flexible working impacts other team members. Without this, employees who use flexible working arrangements, may be excluded by co-workers who feel unfairly burdened (Rothausen, Gonzalez, Clarke, & O'Dell, 1998).

Leaders also influence the interactional norms within a workgroup. They can facilitate inclusion by creating a psychologically safe environment where all members can make a meaningful and valued contribution (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Randel, Dean, Ehrhart, Chung, & Shore, 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). A key barrier to inclusion is the pervasive and harmful 'ideal worker' stereotype (Australian Human Rights Commission, AHRC, 2014, p. 11). The ideal worker is one that is male, unattached, and able to give priority to work with no outside distractions (Acker, 1990). In Australian workplaces, this contributes to employee disengagement, discrimination and underutilization of flexible working arrangements (AHRC, 2014). The presence of a put-work-first norm has harmful consequences for employees' uptake of work-life balance policies and contributes to poorer work performance, reduced job performance and satisfaction. These norms obstruct psychological safety, and buttress exclusionary, nonparticipative and competitive behaviours that promote assimilation (Cox, 1991; Glick, Berdahl, & Alonso, 2018; Hewlin, Kim, & Song, 2016). Consequently, employees are likely to adopt 'facades of conformity' (Hewlin, 2003, p. 633). This describes the suppression of the authentic self, and creation of a false representation used to espouse organisational rhetoric (Hewlin, 2003). Creating facades assists employees to cope with insecurity and avoid exclusion, however because they threaten employees' ability to express themselves authentically and interrupt genuine satisfaction of belonging needs, they can take a considerable toll on employees' psychological wellbeing

(Hewlin, 2009). Although they may appear to be beneficial put-work-first norms can be damaging to morale, contribute to high turnover, negatively impact the quality of employees' output and obstruct the benefits of diversity by silencing diverse opinions (Hewlin et al., 2016).

Establishing an inclusive work environment enables businesses to fully utilize human resources within their workforce. By providing fair and supportive policies organisations can build up and retain a diverse workforce of engaged and committed employees. However, diversity management can go awry, so it is important to monitor employee attitudes and evaluate the effectiveness of policy implementation. Although there is strong evidence that inclusive policies are associated with desirable outcomes, effectively implementing them is a complex task. Research has demonstrated that majority and minority-group employees differ in their attitudes towards diversity and feelings of inclusion and that policies may affect them in different ways (Alderfer & Smith, 1982; Cho & Mor Barak, 2008; Findler et al., 2007; Hitlan, Cliffton, & Desoto, 2006; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Mckay, Avery, & Morris, 2008; Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998). Therefore there is considerable practical value in a tool that aids in the assessment of employee attitudes and inclusion experiences, can guide the development of targeted interventions, and evaluate the effectiveness of interventions.

This study seeks to explore the psychometric properties of a tool used to support practitioners to establish an inclusive work environment – the Inclusion Baselining Survey. There are two aims. Firstly, to explore the underlying factor structure of the survey. Secondly, this study aims to explore whether similar factor structures emerge in different organisations and contribute to what is known about inclusion in Australian workplaces.

Method

This project analysed data collected by Diversity Inclusion. Diversity Inclusion is a privately owned company that provides consultancy services to businesses across Australia to

help them diversify their workforce and create an inclusive environment where the benefits of diversity can be realised. Data was de-identified and used with permission and in accordance with the business' data use policy. Ethics approval was provided by the University of Adelaide [19/72].

The Inclusion Baselining Survey was designed to facilitate evaluation of diversity and inclusion practices in applied settings, not for factor analysis. It has been administered to seven client organisations in male-dominated industries in Australia over the past five years. This project analysed data from two of these organisations with the goal of understanding the psychometric properties of the survey. Organisation 1 and Organisation 2 were selected because they used a larger number of items from the Inclusion Baselining Survey, had a large number of employees participate, and because the data was collected in the last two years.

Participant Characteristics

Organisation 1 is a transport equipment manufacturing company engaged in design, manufacture and construction projects. It employs approximately 2,200 people across three sites (11.8% female) (WGEA, 2018). The Inclusion Baselining Survey was completed in 2017 by 914 participants, representing a 41.5% participation rate².

Organisation 2 employs 2,254 people (13.0% female) (WGEA, 2018). It operates mining operations across seven sites in Australia. The survey was administered in 2018 and completed by 1,487 participants (65.97% participation rate)³.

A number of participants were removed from each sample due to concerns about their age or because they provided a high number of blank responses (more information is supplied in the following sections). The sample used for factor analysis is described in Table 1.
Majority groups were evident within each sample with respect to gender, sexuality, and

 $^{^2}$ The final sample size used in the factor analysis was N=797. The reasons for exclusion of participants is described in the Removal of Participants section.

³ The final sample size used in the factor analysis was N=810. As described below, a substantial portion of participants' data was excluded from the final analyses.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics for participants in Organisation 1 and Organisation 2.

	_	sation 1 : 797)	_	sation 2 810)
Characteristic	n	%	\overline{n}	%
Gender				
Male	646	81.1	666	82.2
Female	125	15.7	132	16.3
Other	1	0.1	0	0
Prefer not to say			12	1.5
No response	19	2.4	0	0.0
Age				
25 - 34	215	27.0	225	27.8
35 - 44	199	25.0	272	33.6
45 - 54	204	25.6	199	24.6
55 - 64	171	21.5	104	12.8
65+	8	1.0	10	1.2
Country of origin				
Australia	601	75.4	631	77.9
Overseas	186	23.3	173	21.4
No response	10	1.3	6	0.7
Disability status				
No disability	733	92.0	771	95.2
Disability	43	5.4	17	2.1
Prefer not to say	18	2.3	20	2.5
No response	3	0.4	2	0.2
Sexual orientation				
Heterosexual	743	93.2	751	92.7
LBGTIQ	14	1.8	11	1.4
Prefer not to say	34	4.3	38	4.7
No response	6	8	11	1.4
Caring responsibilities				
None	290	36.4	368	45.4
Parent or Carer	507	63.6	436	53.8
No response	0	0.0	6	0.7
	Employmen	t characteristics		
Work Role				
Team member / Tradesperson	560	70.3	469	57.9
Supervisor	110	13.8	138	17.0
Manager / Co-ordinator	94	11.8	147	18.1
Senior manager / Leadership	24	3.0	55	6.8
No response	9	1.1	1	0.1

Note. Continued next page

Table 1 Continued

Descriptive statistics for participants in Organisation 1 and Organisation 2.

	•	sation 1 - 797)	_	sation 2 810)
Characteristic	n	%	n	%
Contract type				
Full-time employee	725	91.0	496	61.2
Part-time employee	37	4.6	7	0.9
Fixed term employee	22	2.8	8	1.0
Contractor	12	1.5	299	36.9
No response	1	0.1	0	0
Working hours				
Business hours	730	91.6	389	48.0
Roster or shift work	62	7.8	419	51.7
No response	5	0.6	2	0.2
Residential status				
Non-residential			431	53.2
Residential or FIFO			366	45.2
No response			13	1.6

disability status. A proportion difference test indicated that there was no significant difference in the portion of women in each sample (Z=-0.34, p=.378). However, relative to Organisation 2 (N=810), Organisation 1 (N=797) had larger portions of team members/tradespeople (Z=-5.16, p=.001), full-time employees (Z=-13.95, p=.001) and people who work business hours (Z=18.98, p=.001). A key difference between the samples is that Organisation 1 does not have residential or fly-in-fly-out (FIFO) workers.

Measures

The Inclusion Baselining Survey was developed by Diversity Inclusion for use in applied settings within Australia. As part of a larger service offering and used in conjunction with other products and services, it facilitates tracking of progress towards diversity and inclusion goals, and identification of areas for intervention. Its administration is tailored to client needs. Administration typically involves a demographic section to provide a snapshot of the composition of the workforce, and opportunities for participants to provide qualitative

responses. The Inclusion Baselining Survey also includes sections that capture participant behaviours and perceptions regarding flexible working, work-life balance, and attitudes towards leadership, diversity and inclusion at the organisation.

Procedure

All employees and regular contractors were invited to complete the survey via each organisation's internal communications methods. This included emails from leadership and human resources, oral communication at meetings and posters. Participation was voluntary and able to be completed during paid work hours. To facilitate participation by operational staff the survey could be completed online via SurveyMonkey, or with pen and paper. Hard copy surveys were disseminated to all sites with reply-paid envelopes. The online survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete.

To understand the psychometric properties of the Inclusion Baselining Survey across organisations and industries exploratory factor analysis was undertaken for responses from Organisation 1 and then the same methods repeated for data collected from Organisation 2.

Item Inclusion Criteria

The administration of the Inclusion Baselining Survey differed between Organisation 1 and Organisation 2 contingent on the clients' needs. Participants from Organisation 1 completed a total of 82 items. Participants from Organisation 2 completed 128 items.

As the survey was not designed for factor analysis, a large portion of the items were not appropriate for correlational analyses and were excluded⁴. This included items with text-based responses and items that produced dichotomous data (i.e. Yes or No; Selected or Not selected). Items were also excluded if they were only administered to one organisation, or if the item was administered to both organisations, but different response options were provided. Thirty-four items were identified that had response options that were appropriate

⁴ For the purpose of assessment, additional information on the item response options is provided in Appendix X.

for correlational analyses and were administered consistently to both organisations.

Descriptive statistics for the 34 items that were retained are provided in <u>Table 2</u>.

Results – Organisation 1

Removal of participants

A large portion of participants from Organisation 1 were removed prior to factor analysis. Data from 49 participants was removed because they did not provide their age, or their age was specified as 'Under 25'. This was a conservative measure taken to avoid using data that could have been collected from children (persons under 18 years of age). This reduced the dataset to N = 865 participants.

Data was also removed from participants who left a high number of items blank. The data set showed high rates of non-completion. All of the 34 items had at least one response missing and nearly one quarter (24.74%) of participants omitted at least one item. In total 4.78% of the data set was incomplete. Incomplete data can threaten the validity of results by reducing statistical power, biasing results, or reducing the representative of the sample (Kang, 2013). However, deletion of all participants who left blank responses can truncate the sample and also threaten validity. To balance these issues a threshold for missing data was set at 10% of the items retained for factor analysis. Subsequently 68 participants were removed from further analyses because they left four or more items blank. Items with the highest portion of missing data were those that referred to how often participants used flexible working options and those at the end of the survey. Repeated missing data analysis after the removal of participants indicated that this reduced the portion of missing data to 0.75%. The portion of variables with complete data rose to 5.88%. The resulting dataset used in subsequent analyses retained responses from N = 797 (n = 125 female) participants.

Multiple Imputation

Removal of participants with high non-response rates improved the portion of

Table 2

Descriptive statistics and response options for items retained for factor analysis for Organisation 1 and Organisation 2.

			sation 1 : 797)	Organis (N =				
	Item	M	SD	M	SD	Response type	Min	Max
1	Changing start and finish times ^a	2.48	1.33	2.07	1.21	Frequency.	1	5
2	Changing days of work ^{a†}	1 31	0.72	1.66	0.96	Frequency.	1	5
3	Working from home ^{a†*}	1 21	0.59	1.47	0.89	Frequency.	1	5
	Taking time off to attend to family responsibilities or personal needs a†	2 53	0.86	2.00	0.85	Frequency.	1	5
5	Taking periods of unpaid leave ^{a†*}	1 29	0.65	1.31	0.74	Frequency.	1	5
6	Part time work ^{a†*}	1 16	0.77	1.13	0.58	Frequency.	1	5
7	Job sharing ^{a†*}	1.06	0.39	1.17	0.61	Frequency.	1	5
8	Flexible return from parental leave ^{a†*}	1.06	0.43	1.07	0.44	Frequency.	1	5
9	Work ^b	2 30	0.50	2.38	0.52	Satisfaction.	1	3
10	Family/Home Responsibilities ^b	1 57	0.54	1.43	0.51	Satisfaction.	1	3
11	Social Activities or Hobbies ^b	1.47	0.52	1.45	0.52	Satisfaction.	1	3
12	Personal Needs (e.g. health, mental care, spiritual needs etc.) ^d	1.47	0.52	1.46	0.51	Satisfaction.	1	3
	I am satisfied with the balance between work and the rest of my life $\!\!\!^{\rm c}$	3 25	0.97	3.11	1.00	Frequency.	1	5
14	I feel rushed or pressed for time ^c	3 39	0.89	3.33	0.98	Frequency.	1	5
15	I experience stress or conflict in attempting to balance work and personal life ^d	3 17	1.05	3.26	1.04	Agreement.	1	5
16	Anyone, no matter how different they are, can get to the top of the organisation if they have the right skills, experience and approache	2.78	1.15	3.02	1.12	Agreement.	1	5
17	In the last 12 months I have felt burnt-out ^c	3 31	1.12	3.52	1.08	Agreement.	1	5
	I would recommend [Organisation 1] to a friend as a good place to $work^{\rm c}$	3.40	1.09	3.49	0.92	Agreement.	1	5
19	Overall, I am satisfied with my current jobc	3.45	1.05	3.68 0.96		Agreement.	1	5
20	I plan to be working at [Organisation 1] in 12 months time ^c	3.87	1.08	3.96 1.00		Agreement.	1	5
21	I can be completely open about 'who I am' when I am at worke	3 30	0.98	3.54	1.06	Agreement.	1	5

Note. Table continued on next page.

Table 2 Continued

Item descriptive statistics for Organisation 1 and Organisation 2.

		Organi (N =	sation 1 797)	- C	sation 2 810)			
	Item	M	SD	M	SD	Response Type	Min	Max
22	My immediate manager is supportive when non-work issues interfere with work ^f	3.88	0.97	3.70	1.01	Agreement.	1	5
23	My immediate manager focuses on results rather than the time I am present at $work^{\rm f}$	3.54	1.05	3.41	0.97	Agreement.	1	5
24	If I requested a flexible work arrangement, my immediate manager would support me ^f	3.52	1.07	3.11	1.04	Agreement.	1	5
25	I am given the opportunity to meaningfully contribute and be $heard^g$	3.46	0.93	3.47	0.88	Agreement.	1	5
26	The contribution of all participants is valued equally ^g	3.05	1.02	3.11	0.95	Agreement.	1	5
27	Some people consistently dominate discussion and influence the way forward ^g	3.62	0.87	3.59	0.86	Agreement.	1	5
28	The work environment reflects and supports the diversity in our community (e.g. Aboriginal people, people with a disability, people with different sexual orientation, young and older people etc.) ^e	3.23	0.96	3.33	0.87	Agreement.	1	5
29	I feel guilty when I arrive "late", leave "early" or take time off work to attend to personal needs ^h	3.41	1.15	3.67	1.10	Agreement.	1	5
30	If I attend to personal commitments I disguise it so others won't $notice^h$	2.96	1.03	2.62	1.03	Agreement.	1	5
31	People on flexible work arrangements are viewed as productive and valued workers ^h	2.91	0.86	2.89	0.91	Agreement.	1	5
32	People make comments in jest when others arrive to work "late" or leave "early" h	3.58	0.97	3.65	0.91	Agreement.	1	5
33	People can only get ahead if they can show that work is their number one priority ^h	3.22	1.07	3.36	1.02	Agreement.	1	5
34	People who are present and visible at work for long hours are acknowledged and rewarded $^{h\dagger}^*$	3.10	1.08	2.91	1.04	Agreement.	1	5

Note. In the past 12 months, how frequently have you used the following? Are you satisfied with the amount of time you usually spend on statements do you experience the following? Indicate your current levels of work satisfaction by rating your agreement with the following statements. To what extent do you agree with the following statements about your managers at work? To what extent do you agree with the following statements about the meetings you attend at work? To what extent do you agree with the following statements about your experiences at [Organisation 1]?

Response options: Frequency refers to 1 = Never, 5 = Always/Almost always; Agreement refers to 1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree; Satisfaction with time refers to 1 = No, I don't spend enough time, 2 = Yes, I am satisfied, 3 = No, I spend too much time

 $^{^\}dagger$ Item removed from analysis for Organisation 1

^{*}Item removed from analysis for Organisation 2

participants with missing data, however a large portion of the retained participants had omitted one or more item (18.32%). To understand how this could affect the intended analysis, missing value patterns were examined using IBM SPSS (IBM Corp., 2017, version 25.0.0.1, 2017).

Little's MCAR test was used to assess if data was missing completely at random (MCAR) and produced a significant result ($\chi^2 = 6450.14(df = 5610)$, p = .000) (Little & Rubin, 1987). This indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between complete-responders and incomplete-responders. Pairwise *t-tests* confirmed that data was missing not at random (MNAR), that missingness was not independent of other variables, and was likely to be caused by an unmeasured variable. Therefore, deleting the responses of all participants who provided blank responses would bias the sample and results.

Multiple imputation was employed to address this issue. This method uses mixed modelling to predict a range of plausible estimates for missing responses based on relationships between other variables in the dataset. It is preferable to expectation maximisation methods because it does not require data to be missing at random. It also avoids issues of restricted variance that result from mean-substitution methods which can artificially inflate relationships between variables and obscure meaningful relationships (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Multiple imputation preserves relationships between variables in the dataset while maintaining variability in the sample (Wayman, 2003). All items that were administered as part of the Inclusion Baselining Survey as well as age, gender, whether the participant was a manager or not and if they were born overseas were included in the model to generate missing values. To emulate natural variability in responding this method was used to generate five datasets with imputed values. Analyses were conducted on each and average results are reported hereafter.

Assumption Testing

Item descriptive statistics are presented in <u>Table 2</u>. Variables were assessed for normality through inspection of histograms and QQ plots. Six of the remaining eleven items relating to flexible working demonstrated extreme positive skew (items 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, and 8; <u>Table 2</u>). Inspection of frequency tables revealed that for items 2, 3 and 5 over 77% of the sample responded 'Never', and for items 6, 7 and 8 over 90% of the sample did. The lack of variability in these items made them unlikely to benefit from transformation so they were removed from subsequent analysis. Twenty-eight items were retained.

The dataset satisfied criteria for factorability. The sample size far exceeded the quantity recommended by MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang and Hong (1999) for factor analysis when factors are not known or clearly defined. The participant to variable ratio was 25:1 and provided reasonable statistical power to reliably detect effects. The observed correlation matrix demonstrated multiple correlations >.30, therefore response patterns could be detected⁵.

The factorability of the data set was also assessed using Kaiser's measure of sampling adequacy (MSA). Overall MSA values were good with a mean of .91 (Kaiser, 1970). However the MSA for items 4 (MSA = .58) and 34 (MSA = .51) were unacceptable so they were removed. Twenty-six items were retained for factor analysis.

Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis on the remaining 26 items was conducted in R studio (RStudio Team, 2018, version 1.2.1335). The number of factors to extract was determined though examination of scree plots and parallel analyses which identified six factors⁶.

Principal axis factoring was used to extract factors. Item communalities ranged from .12 (item 1) to .87 (item 26) with a mean value of .45 (SD = .18) indicating that some items were unrelated to other variables in the dataset (Table 3).

⁵ For the purpose of assessment, the observed correlation matrix is provided in <u>Table A1</u>.

⁶ For the purpose of assessment, a scree plot is provided in Figure A1.

Table 3

Pattern matrix for Organisation 1 showing factor loadings for each item in addition to item communalities (h^2) and complexity scores.

				Fa	ctor				
	Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	h^2	Complexity
19	Overall, I am satisfied with my current job ^c	.77						.12	1
18	I would recommend [Organisation 1] to a friend as a good place to work ^c	.75						.28	1.06
20	I plan to be working at [Organisation 1] in 12 months time ^c	.74						.49	1.1
16	Anyone, no matter how different they are, can get to the top of the organisation if they have the right skills, experience and approach ^e Social Activities or Hobbies ^b	.40			.32			.50	2.08
11			.72					.45	1
10	Family/Home Responsibilities ^b		.67					.67	1.08
12	Personal Needs (e.g. health, mental care, spiritual needs etc.) ^d		.64					.41	1.1
13	I am satisfied with the balance between work and the rest of my life ^c	.26	.41				33	.60	2.86
9	Work ^b		36					.43	1.92
22	I can be completely open about 'who I am' when I am at worke			.79				.49	1
24	If I requested a flexible work arrangement, my immediate manager would support mef			.78				.68	1
23	My immediate manager focuses on results rather than the time I am present at work f			.59				.65	1.1
1	Changing start and finish times ^a			.38				.47	1.5
26	The contribution of all participants is valued equally ^g				.92			.32	1
25	I am given the opportunity to meaningfully contribute and be heardg				.56			.62	1.26
27	Some people consistently dominate discussion and influence the way forward ^g				45			.38	1.62
30	If I attend to personal commitments I disguise it so others won't notice ^h					.56		.68	1.1
29	I feel guilty when I arrive "late", leave "early" or take time off work to attend to personal needs ^h					.55		.54	1.1
32	People make comments in jest when others arrive to work "late" or leave "early" h					.44		.87	1.5
33	People can only get ahead if they can show that work is their number one priority ^h					.40		.23	1.82
15	I experience stress or conflict in attempting to balance work and personal life ^d						.76	.19	1
17	In the last 12 months I have felt burnt-out ^c						.65	.32	1.1
14	I feel rushed or pressed for time ^c						.55	.40	1.2
21	I can be completely open about 'who I am' when I am at worke	.31						.32	2.44
28	The work environment reflects and supports the diversity in our community (e.g. Aboriginal people, people with a disability, people with different sexual orientation, young and older people etc.) ^e	.23			.26			.30	2.3
31	People on flexible work arrangements are viewed as productive and valued workers ^h				.25			.29	3.76

Note. Factor loadings > 32 are in bold Factor loadings < 20 have been suppressed

Factor 1 = Job satisfaction Factor 2 = Work-life balance Factor 3 = Supportive supervision Factor 4 = Opportunity to make valued contributions Factor 5 = Showing visible commitment Factor 6 = Stress

all the past 12 months, how frequently have you used the following? bAre you satisfied with the amount of time you usually spend on your experience the following? d'Indicate your current levels of work satisfaction by rating your agreement with the following statements about workplace inclusion at [Organisation 1]? To what extent to you agree with the following statements about your managers at work? To what extent do you agree with the following statements about the meetings you attend at work? To what extent do you agree with the following statements about your experiences at [Organisation 1]?

Initial results of the common factor solution prior to rotation indicate that a 6 factor model accounts for 44.97% of the variance in the observed data. The first factor accounts for 25.01% of the total variance (equivalent to 55.63% of the explained variance) (<u>Table 4</u>).

Table 4

Eigen values, percentage of variance in the observed data accounted for by each factor, Cronbach's alpha scale reliability values for each factor and factor correlation matrix for Organisation 1.

						Fa			
	Factor	Eigen value	Explained variance	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Job satisfaction	6.50	25.01	.81					_
2	Work-life balance	1.91	7.34	.33	.79				
3	Supportive supervision	1.22	4.68	.46	.27	.72			
4	Opportunity to make valued contributions	0.83	3.19	.49	.29	.44	.72		
5	Showing visible commitment	0.77	2.98	14	21	29	18	.63	
6	Stress	0.46	1.77	33	60	26	26	.37	.74

Note. Cronbach's alpha scale reliability values on diagonal. Factor 1 = Job satisfaction. Factor 2 = Work-life balance. Factor 3 = Supportive supervision. Factor 4 = Opportunity to make valued contributions. Factor 5 = Showing visible commitment. Factor 6 = Stress.

Factors were expected to be interrelated, so the pattern matrix was generated using an oblique oblimin rotation method. Item factor loadings were interpreted using a minimum threshold of .32 (equivalent to the factor accounting for 10% variance in the item) which is acceptable for large datasets (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The pattern matrix is provided in Table 3. Three items did not meet this threshold for any factor (items 21, 28, 31) and were excluded from reliability analyses. Item complexity scores were generally satisfactory and ranged from 1.00 to 3.76 (item 31) with a mean of 1.50 (Table 3). The factor correlation matrix and Cronbach's alpha for each factor are provided in Table 4.

Items in the first factor, share a common theme of *job satisfaction*. This factor is strongly and positively related to factor 4, *opportunity to make valued contributions*, and to a lesser extent related to factor 2, *work-life balance*, and factor 3, *supportive supervision*.

The relationship between job satisfaction and factor 5, showing visible commitment was

negligible. Factor 5 comprised four items which each related to visible displays of prioritising work, however did not meet the minimum threshold for scale reliability (>.70) so inferences were made with caution in lieu of further research (Kline, 2000).

Factor 6 comprised three items relating to *stress*, which was strongly negatively related to *work-life balance*, and weakly to *job satisfaction*. In contrast, *stress* was positively related to *showing visible commitment* to a moderate extent. Factor 4, *opportunity to make valued contributions*, comprised only three items, but demonstrated adequate reliability and contained an item with a very high factor loading. The factor accounted for 84.64% of the variance in item 26 ('The contribution of all is valued equally'), which had a complexity score of 1.00 because it did not load on any other factor.

Results of exploratory factor analysis for the Inclusion Baselining Survey using data from Organisation 1 indicate that a six-factor model accounts for close to half the variance in the observed data. Although the mean item complexity was low, five items loaded on two or more factors, and one factor did not achieve adequate reliability (*showing visible commitment*, Table 4). However, these analyses may reflect characteristics of the organisational context. To gain a better understanding of the psychometric properties of the Inclusion Baselining Survey, and to validate its factor structure, results need to be replicated in other workplaces.

Results - Organisation 2

Preparation of the Data Set

Demographic characteristics of the final sample for Organisation 2 are provided in Table 1. Initially 1487 employees participated in the survey. Of this number, 53 were removed because their age was specified as 'Under 25'. As with Organisation 1, there were high rates of non-completion. All 34 variables contained incomplete responses and 52.37% of participants had omitted at least one item. Overall, the dataset was comprised of 22.00%

missing responses. A threshold of 10% was set resulting in the removal of 624 participants because of the 34 items identified for factor analysis, they left four or more blank. Overall, the non-response rate was high. Of the 624 participants removed, 92.31% had omitted 50 or more of the total 128 items. The removal of these participants reduced the portion of incomplete responses in the dataset to 0.60%, the portion of variables with incomplete responses was reduced to 91.18% and the number of participants with incomplete responses to 15.68%. Data from 810 participants was retained for further analyses. Multiple imputation was used to populate values for the remaining missing responses using the same method as Organisation 1. Results reported hereafter are the average of five imputed datasets.

Assumption Testing

Histograms, frequency tables and QQ plots were inspected to detect deviations from normality. Five items exhibited extreme positive skew. For items 3, 5, 6, 7 and 8 over 70% of the sample selected the same response, 'Never'. These items were removed, and 29 items were retained further analyses.

The dataset met criteria for factorability with a ratio of participants to variables of 25:1. The sample size was sufficient (N = 810), and the observed correlation matrix exhibited multiple values >.30⁷. One item failed to meet the acceptable threshold of .60 for Kaiser's measure of sampling adequacy (item 34, MSA = .56) and was removed. All other items met the criteria with a mean of MSA = .85. Factor analysis was conducted on the remaining 28 items (Table 2).

Factor Analysis

Seven factors were extracted using principal axis factoring based on result from a parallel analysis and inspection of a scree plot⁸. As with Organisation 1, item communalities were low. Communality values ranged from .13 (item 27) to .65 (item19) with a mean of .44.

⁷ For the purpose of assessment, the observed correlation matrix is provided in <u>Table A2.</u>

⁸ For the purpose of assessment, a scree plot is provided in Figure A2.

This indicates that some items in the data set contains a large portion of variance that is unaccounted for by the seven-factor structure.

The seven-factor solution accounted for 42.72% variance in the observed data. Once again, the first factor accounted for a large portion of the explained variance, followed by a number of factors that each account for only a small portion of unique variance beyond the first factor (Table 5).

Table 5

Eigen values, percentage of variance in the observed data accounted for by each factor, Cronbach's alpha scale reliability values for each factor and factor correlation matrix for Organisation 2.

							Factor	r		
	Factor	Eigen value	Explained variance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Stress	6.02	21.49	.79						_
2	Opportunity to make valued contributions	20.9	7.47	28	.76					
3	Use of flexible work arrangements	1.18	4.20	.00	.15	.72				
4	Showing visible commitment	0.84	3.01	.48	33	09	.59			
5	Supportive supervision	0.76	2.72	20	.38	.28	19	.66		
6	Job satisfaction	0.63	2.26	42	.47	.15	30	.35	.76	
7	Work-life balance	0.44	1.57	58	.14	.04	32	.11	.29	.75

Note. Cronbach's alpha scale reliability values on diagonal. Factor 1 = Stress. Factor 2 = Opportunity to make valued contributions. Factor 3 = Use of flexible work arrangements. Factor 4 = Showing visible commitment. Factor 5 = Supportive supervision. Factor 6 = Job satisfaction. Factor 7 = Work-life balance.

The data was subject to oblique oblimin rotation to generate the pattern matrix (<u>Table 6</u>). The factor correlation matrix and Cronbach's alpha for each factor is provided in <u>Table 5</u>. Four items (items 4, 21, 27 and 31) did not produce sufficient factor loadings and were excluded from reliability analyses for the factors. Two of the seven factors did not demonstrate adequate reliability (<u>Table 5</u>). These were factor 4, *showing visible commitment*, and factor 5, *supportive supervision*, comprised of four and three items respectively.

Only two items made up factor 3, *use of flexible work arrangements*, so it was interpreted with caution. Item 4 also referred to flexible working but was a complex item (complexity=2.24) and its loading on factor 3 was not sufficient for its inclusion.

Table 6

Pattern matrix for Organisation 2 showing factor loadings for each item in addition to item communalities and complexity scores.

					Factor					
	Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	h^2	Complexity
17	In the last 12 months I have felt burnt-out ^c	.78							.61	1.00
15	I experience stress or conflict in attempting to balance work and personal life ^d	.72							.63	1.00
14	I feel rushed or pressed for time ^c	.43							.42	1.72
13	I am satisfied with the balance between work and the rest of my life ^c	33					.21	.26	.43	3.38
26	The contribution of all participants is valued equally ^g		.74						.64	1.00
25	I am given the opportunity to meaningfully contribute and be heardg		.55						.46	1.40
16	Anyone, no matter how different they are, can get to the top of the organisation if they have the right skills, experience and approach ^e		.53						.48	1.60
28	The work environment reflects and supports the diversity in our community (e.g. Aboriginal people, people with a disability, people with different sexual orientation, young and older people etc.) ^e		.48						.32	1.30
2	Changing days of work ^a			.77					.57	1.00
1	Changing start and finish times ^a			.73					.58	1.10
29	I feel guilty when I arrive "late", leave "early" or take time off work to attend to personal needsh				.55				.29	1.10
32	People make comments in jest when others arrive to work "late" or leave "early" h				.54				.36	1.20
33	People can only get ahead if they can show that work is their number one priority ^h				.44				.27	1.14
30	If I attend to personal commitments I disguise it so others won't notice ^h				.42				.22	1.40
22	My immediate manager is supportive when non-work issues interfere with work ^f					.68			.54	1.04
24	If I requested a flexible work arrangement, my immediate manager would support me ^f					.63			.56	1.10
23	My immediate manager focuses on results rather than the time I am present at workf					.57			.26	1.20
19	Overall, I am satisfied with my current job ^c						.76		.65	1.00
20	I plan to be working at [Organisation 1] in 12 months time ^c						.68		.40	1.10
18	I would recommend [Organisation 1] to a friend as a good place to work ^c		.22				.62		.58	1.30
11	Social Activities or Hobbies ^b							.74	.52	1.00
12	Personal Needs (e.g. health, mental care, spiritual needs etc.) ^d							.62	.45	1.10
10	Family/Home Responsibilities ^b							.58	.51	1.30
9	Work ^b	.31						35	.37	2.20
4	Taking time off to attend to family responsibilities or personal needs ^a			.29					.13	2.24
27	Some people consistently dominate discussion and influence the way forward ^g				.26				.13	2.44
31	People on flexible work arrangements are viewed as productive and valued workers ^h				26				.29	3.02
21	I can be completely open about 'who I am' when I am at worke				23				.27	3.92

Note. Factor loadings >.3 are in bold. Factor loadings <.2 have been suppressed. Factor 1 = Experienced stress. Factor 2 = Opportunity to make valued contributions. Factor 3 = Use of flexible work arrangements. Factor 4 = Showing visible commitment. Factor 5 = Supportive supervision. Factor 6 = Job satisfaction. Factor 7 = Work-life balance. *In the past 12 months, how frequently have you used the following? *hAre you satisfied with the amount of time you usually spend on... *How frequently do you experience the following? *dIndicate your current levels of work satisfaction by rating your agreement with the following statements. *To what extent do you agree with the following statements about your managers at work? *To what extent do you agree with the following statements about the meetings you attend at work? *To what extent do you agree with the following statements about your experiences at [Organisation 1]?

Other items relating to flexible working were excluded prior to factor analysis due to a lack of variability in the items associated with the rarity of flexible working at the organisation.

The four items included in factor 1 relate to *stress*. It demonstrated strong negative correlation with factor 6, *job satisfaction*, and factor 7, *work-life balance*, and a strong positive relationship with factor 4, *showing visible commitment*. The pattern matrix demonstrates some similar relationships to those identified in previous analyses with Organisation 1. Only five items loaded on different factors between the two organisations. Three of these loaded on similar factors but items were complex and the magnitude of the loadings differed.

A key difference is the *use of flexible work arrangements* factor which was not detected in Organisation 1. Both organisations exhibited very low use of flexible working arrangements resulting in items being excluded prior to analyses. Three items were retained for Organisation 2. Only one item was retained for Organisation 1, so it was not possible to detect a flexible working factor for this organisation.

The *showing visible commitment* factor did not achieve adequate reliability in either sample (Organisation 1 α = .63; Organisation 2 α = .59), yet was comprised of the same four items and the factor demonstrated similar relationships with other factors in both analyses.

The factor, *opportunity to make valued contributions* also exhibited similar relationships with *stress, supportive supervision* and *job satisfaction* across both samples, but the factor indexed three items for Organisation 1 and four items for Organisation 2. The two items with the strongest factor loadings were the same across samples.

The factor correlation matrices are similar with respect to not only the direction but also the magnitude of relationships between factors (<u>Table 4</u> and <u>Table 5</u>). Notably, all factor relationships with *stress* are similar across the analyses. Also, both analyses detected strong negative relationships between *work-life balance* and *stress*, and strong positive relationships

between job satisfaction and opportunity to make valued contributions.

Discussion

This study examined the psychometric properties of the Inclusion Baselining Survey in two samples of employees working in Australia. Although the Inclusion Baselining Survey was not designed for factor analysis, this study detected two factors that reflect aspects of inclusion, *showing visible commitment*, and *opportunity to make valued contributions*, which were detected in both samples. The analyses also detected variables that index inclusion by proxy – *job satisfaction*, *work-life balance*, *supportive supervision*, and *stress*. The criterion validity of the two inclusion factors is tentatively supported by their relationships with these variables.

Opportunity to make valued contributions

The opportunity to make valued contributions factor was strongly positively related with job satisfaction in both samples. This implies that when employees are able to make meaningful and effective contributions, and feel valued, their psychological needs for competence and belonging are satisfied (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Previous research has demonstrated that feeling both valued and effective are important to employees feeling included and experiencing positive outcomes. There is little research that examines inclusion in Australian or blue-collar samples, however American child welfare workers who were included in decision making and able to voice their concerns were less likely to leave the organisation, and less likely to psychologically disengage from their work compared to those who did not have the opportunity to contribute (Travis & Mor Barak, 2010). Inclusion in information networks and decision-making has also been identified as important for the retention of male volunteers (Waters & Bortree, 2012).

In another study, workers who were included in decision making, but felt unable to influence the outcome, were more likely to disengage or leave than those who were not

included in decision making at all (Hopkins, Cohen-Callow, Kim, & Hwang, 2010). Therefore, organisations need to do more than structurally integrate minority-group employees into the organisation. To achieve positive outcomes employees must feel valued once employed, and that their contributions matter (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Mor Barak et al., 1998). This satisfies their need for competence.

Elly and Thomas's (2001) qualitative work identified three organisational motives for engaging in diversity management that influenced employee's experiences of inclusion. When employees' cultural identities are valued for their instrumental value workforce diversity enhances the organisation's ability to serve its clientele by reflecting the community in which it operates. However, by creating a narrow scope in which employees' are valued the internal workings of the business can suffer. If organisations are unable to integrate diverse perspectives and groups refuse to compromise, inefficient processes may go unaddressed, and internal competition and conflict may disrupt organisational functioning. In contrast, organisations can achieve meaningful inclusion by encouraging reciprocal influence and collaboration. This improves work processes, re-defines the status quo and allows the organisation to capitalize on the diversity within its workforce (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

The positive relationship between opportunity to make valued contributions and supportive supervision may be partially due to the influence exerted by direct supervisors over workgroup norms. Through their own example, leaders signal to the group what behaviours are desirable and rewarded. Inclusive leaders explicitly seek the contributions of minority-group members and demonstrate that these contributions are valued (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). In doing so, they redistribute opportunities to speak up and contribute evenly across high and low-status group members. By reducing status differences, leaders can create psychological safety within a workgroup so that members can speak up and contribute diverse perspectives without fear of exclusion or ridicule (Edmondson, 1999). According to

Ridgeway's (1991) Status Characteristics Theory, dismantling arbitrary status hierarchies by fairly distributing access to resources is an essential feature of an inclusive environment.

When identity characteristics appear to be correlated with status, opportunity and control over resources it can have a legitimizing effect on stereotyping, derogation and exclusion of minority-group employees (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Supportive Supervision, Work-Life Balance, and Flexible Working

Supportive supervision is the link between human resource policies, and such policies being used effectively to create a sense of inclusion (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Australian research examining employees working in the financial services industry has demonstrated a strong positive relationship between supportive supervision, and work-life balance (Talukder, Vickers, & Khan, 2018). This is because supervisors influence employee's workload and act as gatekeepers of their access to flexible working arrangements (Ryan & Kossek, 2008).

This study detected a similar but relationship. This difference can be explained by differences in the nature of work across these industries. Employees in financial services typically work in offices or branches. Flexible working policies are widely available but underutilized due to a culture of long working hours (Financial Services Institute of Australasia, FINSIA, 2016). Consequently, receiving encouragement from a supervisor is likely to be a deciding factor in if and how employees access flexibility.

In the present study, use of flexible working arrangements was so infrequent that most items relating to flexible work were excluded from analysis. Industry culture is likely to contribute to this. Additionally, both organisations are involved in work that is distinctly different from the financial services industry. In Organisation 1, 70.3% of the sample were tradespeople who work on large equipment manufacturing and construction projects.

Approximately half of the participants from Organisation 2 were shift-workers (51.7%) and/or FIFO workers (53.2%) who work on mining sites. Teamwork and safety are

paramount concerns for both organisations. Operational work is interdependent and procedures must be followed rigidly to assure workers' safety. This results in additional logistical challenges to the use of flexible working arrangements that office-based workers are unlikely to experience. Increasing access to and use of flexible working for blue-collar workers will require changing norms and radical redesign of established operational processes.

Showing Visible Commitment

Opportunity to make valued contributions and showing visible commitment were negatively related in both samples. The opportunity to make valued contributions factor relates to employees' perceptions that all members of the workgroup are included in collaborative decision-making, respected, and that the opportunity to actively contribute is fairly distributed across the team. The showing visible commitment factor is also conceptually related to inclusion, albeit negatively. It describes assimilation to avoid exclusion and the suppression of authenticity. The factor relationships with other constructs resembled that previously reported in research examining put-work-first norms. The factor was positively related to stress and negatively related to both work-life balance and job satisfaction (Glick et al., 2018). This is also consistent with research on facades of conformity. Employees experience greater stress when they engage in inauthentic behaviour, and to the extent that they are excluded for expressing themselves authentically (Hewlin, 2009; Hewlin et al., 2016; Liang, 2019).

Practical Considerations

The results of this study highlight the influence of work conditions and workgrouplevel norms on the use of work-life balance and flexible working options. Supervisors are able to exert influence over employee's access to and use of human resource policies. Where this is impractical, supervisors can contribute to an inclusive environment by calling out putwork-first norms, and demonstrating that employee's contributions are valued by actively seeking diverse perspectives from within the group.

Limitations and directions for future research

This study examined the psychometric properties of the Inclusion Baselining Survey and found that with few exceptions the factor structure was reliable across two different organisations and two different industries. There is a dearth of research that examines inclusion in an Australian context, or in blue-collar industries. This study is an important first step towards establishing a valid measure of inclusion in Australian workplaces.

This research identified ways that the Inclusion Baselining Survey can be strengthened. Foremost is through administering the survey with consistent response options. A limitation of central importance to the interpretation results is that not all items administered were able to be included in analyses. Thus, items with strong relevance may have been omitted. A clear next step is to standardise the response options within the survey and to allow for factor analysis, and re-examine the data. Validated measures of inclusion should be included in analysis to establish concurrent validity. For example, the Inclusion-Exclusion Scale, which is reliable across samples of employees working in the United States, Korea, and Israel (Cho & Mor Barak, 2008; Findler et al., 2007; Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998).

Secondly, there is considerable benefit to enhancing the efficiency of the survey by identifying and excluding redundant items. Reducing participation burden may increase participation rates. This is valuable because the validity and practical utility of results rests on the representativeness of the sample. In the future, the sample could be compared with human resource data to detect if an adequate cross section of employees has participated.

Future research should also identify if the factor structure is reliable for different groups, and identify if there are differences in the inclusion experiences of different groups of employees. American research has detected differences in the perceptions and experiences of

men and women, and employees of different racioethnicities (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Mor Barak et al., 1998). Only one known study has examined group differences in an Australian sample. Soldan (2009) surveyed Australian Government employees about their attitudes towards diversity management. They detected no significant difference in the perceptions of men and women but did identify that employees who were newer to the organisation held more positive views of diversity management compared to long-serving employees. Those that had longer tenure were cynical, and did not trust that diversity management was genuinely valued by managers.

Capturing a greater range of demographic variables in future studies, can provide valuable insight into how social identity and group membership in Australian workplaces reflects, or diverges from previous research, which has primarily been conducted in the USA (Chrobot-Mason, 2003; Chung et al., 2019; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998; Mor Barak et al., 1998). Much of the American research examines inclusion from the perspective of African American or Hispanic employees (Buttner, Lowe, & Billings-Harris, 2012; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Mckay et al., 2007). In Australia the inclusion experiences of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander employees, or Chinese-Australian employees are more relevant and warrants further research attention. The inclusion of women in male-dominated Australian industries may also differ from that reported in American research due to differences in government policy, access to tertiary education, affirmative action employment, and parental leave entitlements.

Future research should also compare the perceptions of office-based workers and operational workers. Differences in the working environments of these groups could impact their access to supportive organisational polices, and influence their attitudes towards diversity and inclusion. The work conducted by operational workers in this study involved a high degree of interdependency. According to the Affect Theory of Social Exchange, when

the contributions of each member are inseparable, and outcomes are successful, employees in a workgroup will perceive their own self-efficacy as intertwined with the group's which facilitates group cohesion (Lawler, 2001). Office-based work is relatively independent, so operational workers may experience more inclusion at the workgroup level. However, the effect could be reversed if groups do not experience success in the early stages of working together.

Conclusion

Establishing an inclusive work environment can avoid negative outcomes associated with workforce diversity, and enable the organisation to capitalise on diverse perspectives (Nishii, 2013). Diversity management in organisations is complex with the potential to backfire (Kossek & Zonia, 1993). It is crucial that practitioners evaluate diversity management practices and assess employee attitudes towards diversity and their experiences of inclusion. This study has taken a first step towards establishing an empirical foundation to an Australian measure of diversity and inclusion climates - the Inclusion Baselining Survey.

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Appendix 1: Supplementary Information on Survey Items

Organisation 1

In total 82 items were administered to participants from Organisation 1. A snapshot of diversity within the workforce was ascertained with fifteen demographic items. Participants then completed 15 items related to flexible working; Twenty-three items related to work life balance; and 29 items about their perceptions of inclusion and diversity in their organisation. The response options differed according to the item phrasing. Two items allowed a 'Yes' or 'No' response. Another two items asked the participant to select all options that apply. Three items asked participants to indicate the number of days per week that they engaged in the listed behaviours. Four items employed a three-point bipolar scale and asked participants about their satisfaction with the amount of time they typically spend on the listed activities. The response options for these four items ranged from 1 = No, I spend too little time, 2 = Yes, I am satisfied, 3 = No, I spend too much time. The two most common response types were five-point scales that related to frequency (1 = Never, 5 = Almost always or always), and endorsement of the item (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree). Fourteen items employed the five-point frequency scale, and 40 items asked participants to indicate the extent of their agreement. Finally, two items requested text-based responses.

Organisation 2

Participants from Organisation 2 completed 128 items. Nineteen items gathered demographic information followed by 117 items across three sections. Twenty-two items related to flexible working, 46 items to wellbeing and engagement, and 49 items to inclusion and diversity. As with Organisation 1, response options differed. Although many items were administered to both organisations, they were excluded from analysis because they used a dichotomous response format for one or other of the organisations and so were not appropriate for analysis using a factor analytic approach.

Appendix 2: Supplementary Tables

Table A1

Observed correlation matrix for Organisation 1.

	Item	1 4 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33
1	Changing start and finish times ^a	
4	Taking time off to attend to family responsibilities or personal needs ^a	.29
9	$Work^b$	07 - 03
10	Family/Home Responsibilities ^b	04 - 03 41
11	Social Activities or Hobbies ^b	05 - 03 32 .47
12	Personal Needs (e.g. health, mental care, spiritual needs etc.) ^d	04 - 0227 .45 .53
13	I am satisfied with the balance between work and the rest of my life ^c	.07 - 0446 .53 .46 .46
14	I feel rushed or pressed for time ^c	05 .09 .2833343444
15	I experience stress or conflict in attempting to balance work and personal life ^d	00 .10 .30333452 .49
16	Anyone, no matter how different they are, can get to the top of the organisation if they have the right skills, experience and approache	05 - 01 20 .15 .21 .18 .35 17 16
17	In the last 12 months I have felt burnt-out ^c	- 02 .09 .3229283146 .44 .5418
18	I would recommend [Organisation 1] to a friend as a good place to work ^c	.08 - 0120 .19 .20 .23 .451721 .4928
19	Overall, I am satisfied with my current job ^c	.08 - 0319 .22 .23 .21 .461821 .4429 .68
20	I plan to be working at [Organisation 1] in 12 months time ^c	02 0115 .11 .10 .11 .340714 .3522 .54 .55
21	I can be completely open about 'who I am' when I am at worke	.06 0118 .21 .27 .25 .432026 .3522 .38 .43 .29
22	My immediate manager is supportive when non-work issues interfere with work ^f	.21 .0818 .14 .15 .15 .301421 .2816 .32 .30 .23 .31
23	My immediate manager focuses on results rather than the time I am present at work ^f	.20 - 0110 .07 .08 .11 .241016 .2415 .26 .24 .12 .20 .49
24	If I requested a flexible work arrangement, my immediate manager would support mef	.29 .1320 .19 .17 .20 .331418 .3220 .39 .34 .22 .34 .66 .47
25	I am given the opportunity to meaningfully contribute and be heardg	.14 .0715 .18 .19 .19 .341519 .4219 .42 .41 .31 .36 .37 .31 .41
26	The contribution of all participants is valued equally ^g	.09 - 0114 .20 .19 .21 .331719 .4723 .43 .39 .28 .37 .32 .29 .39 .68
27	Some people consistently dominate discussion and influence the way forward ^g	- 04 02 .1318141620 .12 .1817 .21131108120907132940
28	The work environment reflects and supports the diversity in our community (e.g. Aboriginal people, people with a disability, people with different sexual orientation, young and older people etc.) ^e	02 0012 .13 .13 .16 .251714 .3914 .32 .24 .22 .24 .13 .06 .21 .28 .3311
29	I feel guilty when I arrive "late", leave "early" or take time off work to attend to personal needs ^h	- 04 - 05 0509121613 .16 .23 - 02 .19 - 01 - 0411061309101010 .10 00
30	If I attend to personal commitments I disguise it so others won't notice ^h	08 00 .1515151927 .20 .2611 .22111611232016261812 .1109 .38
31	People on flexible work arrangements are viewed as productive and valued workers ^h	.10 0319 .17 .20 .22 .322118 .4020 .38 .30 .25 .29 .30 .26 .36 .33 .4119 .221520
32	People make comments in jest when others arrive to work "late" or leave "early" h	00 .06 .0913141618 .21 .2216 .25181612181623211924 .2310 .27 .3228
33	People can only get ahead if they can show that work is their number one priority ^h	09 - 03 .1612192024 .16 .2116 .231720262725261412 .1608 .24 .3223 .24
34	People who are present and visible at work for long hours are acknowledged and rewarded ^h	02 03 - 05 .08 05 - 01 .11 03 - 02 .07 - 03 .11 02 00 04 .07 - 01 .09 .10 .13 - 02 01 .09 02 05 .10 .32

Note. Correlations significant at p<.05 are in bold.

^aIn the past 12 months, how frequently have you used the following? ^bAre you satisfied with the amount of time you usually spend on... ^cHow frequently do you experience the following? ^dIndicate your current levels of work satisfaction by rating your agreement with the following statements. ^cTo what extent do you agree with the following statements about workplace inclusion at [Organisation 1]? ^fTo what extent to you agree with the following statements about the meetings you attend at work? ^bTo what extent do you agree with the following statements about your experiences at [Organisation 1]?

Table A2

Observed correlation matrix for Organisation 2.

	Item	1	2	4	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
1	Changing start and finish times ^a	_																											
2	Changing days of work ^a	.54																											
4	Taking time off to attend to family responsibilities or personal needs ^a	.26	.21																										
9	Work ^b	- 05	- 03	- 04																									
10	Family/Home Responsibilities ^b	03	03	07	47																								
11	Social Activities or Hobbies ^b	- 02	- 01	00	34	.50																							
12	Personal Needs (e g health, mental care, spiritual needs etc) ^d	01	05	00	32	.45	.52																						
13	I am satisfied with the balance between work and the rest of my life ^c	02	00	02	42	.43	.35	.36																					
14	I feel rushed or pressed for time ^c	02	02	05	.39	39	31	36	36																				
15	I experience stress or conflict in attempting to balance work and personal life ^d	- 02	01	05	.41	42	.38	38	52	.47																			
16	Anyone, no matter how different they are, can get to the top of the organisation if they have the right skills, experience and approach ^e	.12	.13	04	21	.21	.20	.27	.25	28	30																		
17	In the last 12 months I have felt burnt-out ^c	- 02	01	04	.36	38	29	32	41	.49	.62	26																	
18	I would recommend [Organisation 1] to a friend as a good place to work ^c	.12	07	.09	21	.18	.13	.18	.28	24	26	.42	29																
19	Overall, I am satisfied with my current job ^c	.13	.10	04	25	.25	.18	.26	.34	26	30	.41	34	.61															
20	I plan to be working at [Organisation 1] in 12 months time ^c	.09	05	01	17	.15	.11	.13	.27	18	16	.23	18	.43	.50														
21	I can be completely open about 'who I am' when I am at worke	.10	.08	04	18	.17	.14	.16	.20	23	19	.32	20	.31	.34	.19													
22	My immediate manager is supportive when non-work issues interfere with work ^f	.22	.13	.11	12	.13	05	.08	.12	09	14	.21	11	.29	.26	.13	.28												
23	My immediate manager focuses on results rather than the time I am present at work ^f	.11	- 01	.12	01	01 -	- 01	- 03	06	04	- 03	- 02	02	.09	.08	05	.08	.32											
24	If I requested a flexible work arrangement, my immediate manager would support me ^f	.27	.21	.17	23	.18	.12	.18	.19	18	17	.27	16	.28	.27	.19	.26	.55	.31										
25	I am given the opportunity to meaningfully contribute and be heardg	.15	02	04	08	.08	03	.12	.13	17	16	.37	17	.43	.31	.20	.25	.36	.10	.34									
26	The contribution of all participants is valued equally ^g	.12	.08	06	16	.14	.10	.18	.18	27	25	.47	24	.42	.35	.19	.33	.31	05	.33	.61								
27	Some people consistently dominate discussion and influence the way forward ^g	03	00	02	.09	08	09	13	13	.17	.15	19	.11	12	16	- 03	15	- 03	06	- 06	07	23							
28	The work environment reflects and supports the diversity in our community (e g Aboriginal people, people with a disability, people with different sexual orientation, young and older people etc) ^e	.09	05	.07	18	.16	.14	.16	.14	20	19	.46	16	.33	.30	.17	.29	.23	05	.23	.32	.40	09						
29	I feel guilty when I arrive "late", leave "early" or take time off work to attend to personal needs ^h	- 05	- 06	10	.12	15	13	19	20	.20	.21	13	.20	09	13	08	16	- 05	02	- 07	08	12	.11	- 06					
30	If I attend to personal commitments I disguise it so others won't notice ^h	08	- 04	- 03	06	12	.08	13	17	.14	.20	20	.21	20	20	16	28	17	- 02	15	20	16	.09	08	.24				
31	People on flexible work arrangements are viewed as productive and valued workers ^h	.15	.10	.08	23	.21	.17	.20	.24	24	29	.37	27	.30	.29	.19	.30	.23	.07	.29	.20	.33	19	.24	19	21			
32	People make comments in jest when others arrive to work "late" or leave "early" h	01	02	- 06	.21	19	15	17	20	.28	.27	18	.28	13	19	08	18	10	- 03	17	14	24	.26	15	.31	.22	25		
33	People can only get ahead if they can show that work is their number one priority ^h	- 06	07	- 02	.17	16	.16	19	23	.20	.28	24	.24	18	17	14	17	13	- 01	14	23	23	.14	12	.27	.23	22	.33	
34	People who are present and visible at work for long hours are acknowledged and rewarded ^b	.08	- 01	03	- 01	00 -	- 04	00	00	- 01	07	00	01	05	07	.08	02	02	00	07	05	05	- 01	02	.08	.09	- 03	.14	.31

Note. Correlations significant at p<.05 are in bold.

^aIn the past 12 months, how frequently have you used the following? ^bAre you satisfied with the amount of time you usually spend on... ^cHow frequently do you experience the following? ^dIndicate your current levels of work satisfaction by rating your agreement with the following statements. ^cTo what extent do you agree with the following statements about workplace inclusion at [Organisation 1]? ^cTo what extent to you agree with the following statements about the meetings you attend at work? ^bTo what extent do you agree with the following statements about your experiences at [Organisation 1]?

Appendix 3: Supplementary Figures

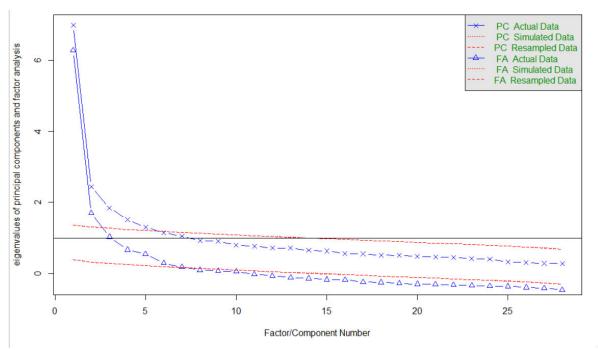


Figure A1. Scree plot for Organisation 1 showing six factors based on analysis of 26 variables (N=797).

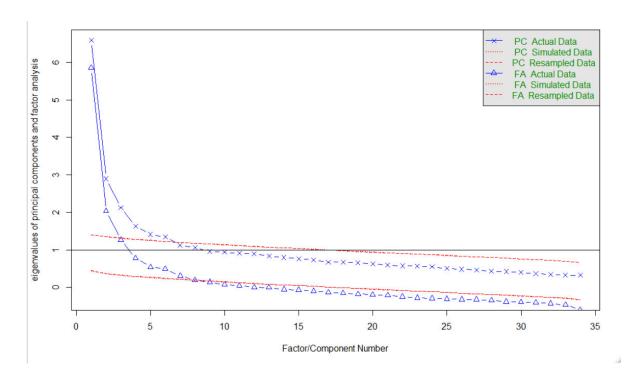


Figure A2. Scree plot for Organisation 2 indicating 7 factors based on analysis of XX variables (*N*=810).

Appendix 4: Journal Submission Guidelines: Personnel Review

Manuscript requirements

Please prepare your manuscript before submission, using the following guidelines:

Format

Article files should be provided in Microsoft Word format. LaTex files can be used if an accompanying PDF document is provided. PDF as a sole file type is not accepted, a PDF must be accompanied by the source file. Acceptable figure file types are listed further below.

Article Length

Articles should be between 6000 and 8000 words in length. This includes all text including references and appendices. Please allow 280 words for each figure or table.

Article Title

A title of not more than eight words should be provided.

Author details

All contributing authors' names should be added to the ScholarOne submission, and their names arranged in the correct order for publication.

- Correct email addresses should be supplied for each author in their separate author accounts
- The full name of each author must be present in their author account in the exact format they should appear for publication, including or excluding any middle names or initials as required
- The affiliation of each contributing author should be correct in their individual author account. The affiliation listed should be where they were based at the time that the research for the paper was conducted

Biographies and acknowledgements

Authors who wish to include these items should save them together in an MS Word file to be uploaded with the submission. If they are to be included, a brief professional biography of not more than 100 words should be supplied for each named author.

Research funding

Authors must declare all sources of external research funding in their article and a statement to this effect should appear in the Acknowledgements section. Authors should describe the role of the funder or financial sponsor in the entire research process, from study design to submission.

Structured Abstract

Authors must supply a structured abstract in their submission, set out under 4-7 sub-headings (see our "How to... write an abstract" guide for practical help and guidance):

- Purpose (mandatory)
- Design/methodology/approach (mandatory)
- Findings (mandatory)
- Research limitations/implications (if applicable)
- Practical implications (if applicable)
- Social implications (if applicable)

• Originality/value (mandatory)

Maximum is 250 words in total (including keywords and article classification, see below).

Authors should avoid the use of personal pronouns within the structured abstract and body of the paper (e.g. "this paper investigates..." is correct, "I investigate..." is incorrect).

Keywords

Authors should provide appropriate and short keywords in the ScholarOne submission that encapsulate the principal topics of the paper (see the <u>How to... ensure your article is highly downloaded</u> guide for practical help and guidance on choosing search-engine friendly keywords). The maximum number of keywords is 12.

Whilst Emerald will endeavour to use submitted keywords in the published version, all keywords are subject to approval by Emerald's in house editorial team and may be replaced by a matching term to ensure consistency.

Article Classification

Authors must categorize their paper as part of the ScholarOne submission process. The category which most closely describes their paper should be selected from the list below.

Research paper. This category covers papers which report on any type of research undertaken by the author(s). The research may involve the construction or testing of a model or framework, action research, testing of data, market research or surveys, empirical, scientific or clinical research.

Viewpoint. Any paper, where content is dependent on the author's opinion and interpretation, should be included in this category; this also includes journalistic pieces.

Technical paper. Describes and evaluates technical products, processes or services.

Conceptual paper. These papers will not be based on research but will develop hypotheses. The papers are likely to be discursive and will cover philosophical discussions and comparative studies of others' work and thinking.

Case study. Case studies describe actual interventions or experiences within organizations. They may well be subjective and will not generally report on research. A description of a legal case or a hypothetical case study used as a teaching exercise would also fit into this category.

Literature review. It is expected that all types of paper cite any relevant

literature so this category should only be used if the main purpose of the paper is to annotate and/or critique the literature in a particular subject area. It may be a selective bibliography providing advice on information sources or it may be comprehensive in that the paper's aim is to cover the main contributors to the development of a topic and explore their different views.

General review. This category covers those papers which provide an overview or historical examination of some concept, technique or phenomenon. The papers are likely to be more descriptive or instructional ("how to" papers) than discursive.

Headings

Headings must be concise, with a clear indication of the distinction between the hierarchy of headings.

The preferred format is for first level headings to be presented in bold format and subsequent sub-headings to be presented in medium italics.

Notes/Endnotes

Notes or Endnotes should be used only if absolutely necessary and must be identified in the text by consecutive numbers, enclosed in square brackets and listed at the end of the article.

Figures

All Figures (charts, diagrams, line drawings, web pages/screenshots, and photographic images) should be submitted in electronic form.

All Figures should be of high quality, legible and numbered consecutively with arabic numerals. Graphics may be supplied in colour to facilitate their appearance on the online database.

- Figures created in MS Word, MS PowerPoint, MS Excel, Illustrator should be supplied in their native formats. Electronic figures created in other applications should be copied from the origination software and pasted into a blank MS Word document or saved and imported into an MS Word document or alternatively create a .pdf file from the origination software.
- Figures which cannot be supplied as above are acceptable in the standard image formats which are: .pdf, .ai, and .eps. If you are unable to supply graphics in these formats then please ensure they are .tif, .jpeg, or .bmp at a resolution of at least 300dpi and at least 10cm wide.
- To prepare web pages/screenshots simultaneously press the "Alt" and "Print screen" keys on the keyboard, open a blank Microsoft Word document and simultaneously press "Ctrl" and "V" to paste the image. (Capture all the contents/windows on the computer screen to paste into MS Word, by simultaneously pressing "Ctrl" and "Print screen".)
- Photographic images should be submitted electronically and of high quality. They should be saved as .tif or .jpeg files at a resolution of at

least 300dpi and at least 10cm wide. Digital camera settings should be set at the highest resolution/quality possible.

Tables

Tables should be typed and included in a separate file to the main body of the article. The position of each table should be clearly labelled in the body text of article with corresponding labels being clearly shown in the separate file.

Ensure that any superscripts or asterisks are shown next to the relevant items and have corresponding explanations displayed as footnotes to the table, figure or plate.

References

References to other publications must be in **Harvard** style and carefully checked for completeness, accuracy and consistency. This is very important in an electronic environment because it enables your readers to exploit the Reference Linking facility on the database and link back to the works you have cited through CrossRef.

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