A MODEL OF INCLUSION AND INCLUSIVE LEADERSHIP IN THE U.S.

by

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

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Changing demographics as more women and minorities join the workforce prompted changes in how organizations address and deal with diversity. Practitioners and researchers continue to debate the most effective methods of dealing with these changes on all levels, from the macro social consequences to the micro, such as the very definition of the term "inclusion" itself. This study proposed a model where servant leadership functioned as an inclusive leadership style that has a positive relationship with inclusion. Inclusion was hypothesized as a composite comprised of employee perceptions of uniqueness and belongingness within a workgroup. Consequently, inclusion was hypothesized to be positively related to both creativity and team citizenship behaviors. Utilizing structural equation modeling, the aim of this study was to test said model of inclusion from the perspective of employees.

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I. Introduction

Changing demographics as more women and minorities join the workforce has prompted changes in how organizations address and deal with diversity. Practitioners and researchers continue to debate the most effective methods of dealing with these changes on all levels, from the macro social consequences to the micro, such as the very definition of the term "inclusion" itself. This study proposes a model of inclusion and implementing effective methods to put it into practice in the real world.

Labor force projections that predict of greater numbers of women and minorities moving in the workforce (Langdon, McMenamin, &Krolik, 2002), have prompted organizations to focus their efforts on managing the effects of this demographic shift. By and large, organizations have adopted two different classes of initiatives. The first class of these initiatives are majority class centric and focus on educating majority group members through education and training (Cox, 1994; Morrison, 1992). The other class of initiatives focus on minority group members through recruiting, maintaining a diverse workforce, sponsoring mentoring programs, education, and removing barriers that prevent women and ethnic minorities from immersing into the organization (Wentling& Palma-Rivas, 2000).

Definitions of Inclusion

Academics and practitioners find these diversity initiatives, both majority and minority centric, result in mixed outcomes. Critics point out that organizational practices, such as diversity and inclusion trainings, do not work, and may actually reinforce existing stereotypes, and increase backlash (Bergen, Soper, & Foster, 2002; Bregman, 2012; Kalev, Dobbin, & Kelly, 2006; Kidder, Lankau, Chrobot-Mason, Mollica, & Friedman,

2004). Yet other researchers find when done correctly, these diversity and inclusion trainings can improve cross-group relations by increasing awareness of gender equity issues, improving empathic listening, and decreasing implicit racial biases (Prime, Foust-Cummings, Salib, & Moss-Racusin, 2012; Prime, Otterman, & Salib, 2014; Rudman, Ashmore, & Gary, 2001; Shields, Zawadzki, & Neill, 2011).

Throughout this debate, practitioners and academics still remain divided even on a consistent definition for both diversity and inclusion. For example, inclusion has been defined in both job-characteristic (i.e. relating to organizational practices and approaches) and psychological terms (i.e. the subjective experiences employees). Some of the common job-characteristic definitions of "inclusion" include access to information and resources (Mor Barak &Cherin, 1998) and an organizational objective to leverage demographic diversity by ensuring the participation of all employees (Roberson, 2006). For example, Sturm (2006, p. 249) defines inclusion as "identifying the barriers to full participation and the pivot points for removing those barriers and increasing participation."

However, by utilizing this definition and focusing solely on objectives and job characteristics, organizations may unwittingly miss key indicators that signal exclusion. One of the popular definitions of inclusion was developed by Michalle Mor Barak. In her book, *Managing Diversity* (2010), Barak discussed in depth the importance of belonging and leveraging unique identities in workgroups. She even dedicated an entire chapter to reviewing the social psychological theories that underpin inclusion and exclusion. Yet when she defined inclusion, it was stripped of all psychological theory. She described inclusion as access to information and resources because "racial and ethnic minority

women commonly believe they are excluded from the organizational power structure and have the least access to organizational resources" (p. 167).

To illustrate this point, Barak created an inclusion-exclusion scale. The inclusion-exclusion scale directly asks individuals about their ability to, among other things, influence decisions and access information. Barak defined and operationalized inclusion as an outcome; an outcome that is the opposite of exclusion.

Yet, even among women in top management positions – women who arguably have the most access to information and resources – turnover is twice that of men, indicating that individual level, psychological factors may affect inclusion (Krishnan, 2009). Indeed, previous research demonstrates that greater perceived inclusion and inclusive leadership reduces turnover (e.g. Nishii & Mayer, 2009).

Job-characteristic definitions of inclusion run the risk of being motivated by the business case for diversity, which maintains that a more diverse workforce results in a competitive edge (Cox & Blake, 1991). In a qualitative study of differing approaches to organizational diversity, Ely & Thomas (2001) describe the "access-and-legitimacy" perspective as one where diverse individuals are incorporated into an organization, but are not integrated into the larger organizational culture. This approach to diversity increases assimilationist strategies by minority group members. For these reasons, job-characteristic definitions are best treated as outcomes of inclusion and a more psychological approach is necessary.

Defining key psychological aspects of inclusion. Some researchers choose to take a psychological approach to inclusion, defining it as "the degree to which an employee is accepted and treated as an insider by others" (Pelled, Ledford, Jr,

&Mohrman, 1999, p. 1014). Other definitions focus on a sense of belonging, having voices heard, and feeling as though their organization values their perspectives and seeks their engagement (Holvino, Ferdman, & Merrill-Sands, 2004; Lirio, Lee, Williams, Haugen, &Kossek, 2008; Wasserman, Gallegos, & Ferdman, 2008).

Belongingness. A common theme among these psychological definitions is this sense of belonging in the workgroup or work culture. As Baumeister and Leary (1995) proposed, this sense of belonging explains that the need to belong to social groups results from a fundamental human need to form lasting relationships with others. A strong sense of belonging to a given social group protects individuals from the negative effects of social exclusion which can impair self-regulation and cognitive processes (Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco, &Twenge, 2005; Baumeister, Twenge, &Nuss, 2002). In an organizational setting, when group members share common goals and values, indicating a sense of belonging, diversity leads to sustained beneficial outcomes (Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999).

Yet, belongingness may only reflect half the story when it comes to inclusion. An overt emphasis on belonging to a group may create an environment where outsiders feel pressured to assimilate by denying their uniqueness in order to conform to the group's norms. Research on facades of conformity reveal that when individuals feel at odds with the values or demographic makeup of their work team or organization, they engage in impression management strategies in order to assimilate (Hewlin, 2003, 2009). The primary antecedents to engaging in facades of conformity are non-participative work environments (i.e. the organization is not receptive to diverse opinions, attitudes, or

values), perceptions of minority status (gender, race, etc.), self-monitoring behavior, and collectivism.

In a survey of 238 part-time MBA students and alumni, Hewlin (2009) examined facades of conformity behaviors, antecedents, and consequences such as emotional exhaustion and intention to leave. Hewlin found that engaging in facades of conformity was significantly predicted by minority status, emotional exhaustion, and employee perceptions of non-participative work environments. Emotional exhaustion also acted as a mediator between intentions to leave and facades of conformity.

Hewlin's results are a clear example of the dangers of emphasizing belongingness alone for minority group members. Moreover, females in male-dominated work teams often feel the need to conform to their environments and adopt masculine traits and behaviors in order to belong (Ely, 1995; Gutek, 1985; Kanter, 1977). Ely (1995) interviewed and surveyed female attorneys employed in both male-dominated and sex-integrated law firms. In the male-dominated law firms, female attorneys reported stereotypically masculine traits were rewarded, but when women adopted masculine or agentic traits they suffered from backlash and were viewed as unlikable (Rudman & Glick, 1999, 2001; Rudman, 1998). One participant in Ely's (1995) study relayed a story where a highly qualified female interviewed at the participant's law firm and was not hired. The participant explained "…people hated her. Men and women alike said, 'She's too mannish'…" (p. 617). This is not just an issue for women in the workplace; minorities also feel this need to conform in order to belong in their organizations (Anderson, 2002).

Uniqueness. What is missing from these psychological definitions of inclusion? Shore et al. (2011) theorized that inclusion occurs when optimal distinctiveness needs are fulfilled. Optimal distinctiveness theory (ODT) (Brewer, 1991) accounts for group memberships by explaining the motivational forces behind why people join and maintain groups. At the heart of the theory, individuals have opposing needs for assimilation and differentiation and seek group memberships that satisfy both needs and provide equilibrium. The addition of distinction needs to current psychological definitions of inclusion may fulfill the gap that belongingness alone creates.

The need for uniqueness was first proposed in the seminal work by Snyder and Fromkin (1980). Snyder and Fromkin theorized that individuals have a need to be distinctive because distinctiveness contributes to an individual's self-esteem and self-concept. Thus, individuals are driven to find moderate levels of distinction. When people feel too similar to others, they try to reassert their independence. Similarly, feeling overly distinctive is unpleasant and drives individuals to find a balance between distinction and similarity. Researchers propose that these competing needs for both belongingness and uniqueness are fundamental, universal human needs (Baumeister& Leary, 1995; Brewer, 1991; Sedikides, Gaertner, &Toguchi, 2003; Sedikides, Gaertner, &Vevea, 2005; Vignoles, Chryssochoou, &Breakwell, 2000), indicating the importance of fulfilling both in a work team.

Psychological consequences of inclusion. Adding to this conceptualization of inclusion, Shore et al. (2011) proposed a 2x2 framework for inclusion that describes the consequences of different levels of belonging and distinction (Figure 1). When a work team places a low value on both belongingness and uniqueness, an employee feels

excluded. When a work team places a high value on belongingness and a low value on uniqueness, employees feel they must assimilate to group norms in order to feel like a full team member (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Hewlin, 2003). Differentiation occurs when a high value is placed on uniqueness and a low value is placed on belongingness. This situation is illustrated in Ely and Thomas' (2001) description of the "access and legitimacy" approach to diversity in organizations. Minority members were recruited to the organization with the expressed purpose of gaining a "competitive edge." A high value was placed on the unique characteristics they brought into the organization. Minority group members were not integrated into the larger organizational culture (low belonging) and reported feelings of isolation.

Individuals feel included when the team places a high value on both the unique characteristics and knowledge each team member brings and a high value on each team member's belonging. This conceptualization of inclusion is removed from perceptions of competence indicating that both low and high performing employees have the ability to feel included. This depiction of inclusion is similar to Ely and Thomas' (2001) "integration and learning" approach to diversity. In organizations adopting this perspective, the "insights, skills, and experiences employees have developed as members of various cultural identity groups are potentially valuable resources" (p. 240). Thus, both majority and minority group members do not feel like "outsiders" and are free to be their unique, authentic selves at work. By following those guidelines to inclusion, organizations adopting the "integration and learning" perspective attained lasting benefits from their diverse workforce (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

The management and social work literature provides preliminary support for Shore et. al.'s (2011) model. Key words found in the literature such as "accepted," "insider," and "sense of belonging" indicated that researchers already were examining a sense of belongingness in the workgroup to satisfy inclusion needs. While key words such as "valuing contributions from all employees," "contribute fully," "individual talents," and "have their voices heard and appreciated" indicate avenues in the literature that point to uniqueness (Shore et al., 2011).

In this paper, I propose a model of inclusion in which optimal distinctiveness theory defines inclusion, where both state feelings of belongingness and uniqueness contribute to an employee's perception of inclusion in a work team. As one of the primary antecedents to inclusion (Shore et al., 2011), this study will focus on the leader's role in creating perception of inclusion where the leader's behavior focuses on satisfying followers' needs to belong and to be unique within the team.

Identifying an Appropriate Leadership Style

The current literature on inclusive leadership provides some insight into the leadership theories already used to model inclusion. Although many studies have examined what constitutes an inclusive organizational climate, an approach focusing on inclusive leadership research is still in its infancy.

In one early study, Nishii and Mayer (2009) applied leader-member exchange theory to model inclusive leadership. Leader-member exchange is a dyadic, social-exchange model where leaders form different relationships with each of their subordinates (Graen, 1976). Leader-member exchange (LMX) measures the quality of the relationship between the leader and the follower. High quality LMX relationships have

been linked to positive follower outcomes such as trust, organizational citizenship behaviors, job performance, satisfaction, and lower turnover intentions (Cogliser, Schriesheim, Scandura, & Gardner, 2009; Deluga, 1994, 1998; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Gómez & Rosen, 2001; Ilies, Nahrgang, &Morgeson, 2007; Scandura&Graen, 1984; Scandura&Pellegrini, 2008; Settoon, Bennett, &Liden, 1996).

Nishii and Mayer (2009) leveraged the benefits of LMX by using it as a proxy for inclusive leadership. In diverse work teams where all followers enjoyed the same high-level LMX relationships (i.e. low LMX differentiation among group members) with their supervisor, turnover rates were reduced.

In another study of over 1,000 health care professionals employed in neonatal intensive care units, Nembhard and Edmondson (2006) found that inclusive leadership predicted psychological safety; and safety moderated the relationship between inclusive leadership and engaging in quality improvement work (i.e. engaging in behaviors that improve the quality of care such as new communication styles between doctors and nurses). The authors did not rely on a pre-established leadership theory to model inclusive leadership. They defined inclusive leadership as "words and deeds by a leader or leaders that indicate an *invitation* and *appreciation* for others' contributions" (p. 947).

Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon, and Ziv (2010) also developed their own method of measuring inclusive leadership instead of relying on a pre-established leadership theory. They conceptualized inclusive leadership as a way to foster creativity, innovation, and psychological safety. Thus, they defined it as leaders who are "open, available, and accessible to employees who come up with new ideas [and] cultivate a context in which

people feel psychologically safe to voice and express new ideas that often defy the norms" (p. 253).

In this study, inclusive leadership improved employee psychological safety and creativity in the workplace. Hirak, Peng, Carmeli, and Schaubroeck (2012), also used the same definition as used in Carmeli (2010). They surveyed employees in clinical units at a large hospital at three different times. Inclusive leadership increased psychological safety, learning from failures, and subsequent unit performance.

These studies of inclusive leadership do not offer a consistent definition but focus on how the leader is capable of creating or destroying the environment conducive to inclusion. Nor do these studies offer insight into how leaders help fulfill the optimal distinctiveness needs of their followers.

Servant leadership. These inadequacies suggest that another approach is needed to identify an appropriate leadership style and to foster inclusion in the workplace[1]. As the globalization of businesses increase, more unethical business practices are unearthed (e.g. sub-prime mortgage crisis), and gender and racial discrimination lawsuits continue to rise (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2014), academics have called for a stronger focus on ethical paradigms of leadership (Gotsis&Kortezi, 2013; Maak&Pless, 2009; Paine, 1994).

One leadership style connected to ethics, virtues, and morality is servant leadership (Graham, 1991; Russell, 2001; Whetstone, 2002). This theory is characterized

[1] In keeping with the theme of a need for greater emphasis on psychological approaches, previous research on leadership focused on two-factor conceptualizations such as task vs. relations oriented, charismatic vs. non-charismatic, and transformational vs. transactional leadership. While the leadership theories reviewed in this study may have evolved from these early conceptualizations, a review is beyond the scope of this work. Furthermore, research on the effectiveness of these two-factor approaches has yielded inconsistent results (Yukl, 2006). These approaches tend to oversimplify leadership by using broad categories that cannot describe how leaders behave in different situations thereby increasing stereotyping of leaders (Yukl, 1999). For a review of historical leadership theories, their effectiveness, and limitations see Yukl, 1999.

by a consistent focus on fulfilling the needs of followers (Greenleaf, 1977). A systematic literature review found that servant leadership increases overall individual and team-level effectiveness, trust in the organization and the leader, greater collaboration, and greater helping behaviors among employees (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Although servant leadership dates back to the 1970's, it did not garnered much empirical research until 2004, and even then much of that work has focused on defining the concept (Parris & Peachey, 2013). One Harvard Business School professor, Jim Heskett (2013), postulated that servant leadership is not applied more because focusing on followership rather than the bottom line is risky or that the name itself is perceived as paradoxical.

Aspects of servant leadership. Of those that choose to study servant leadership, many turn to Greenleaf's original writings to identify the key behaviors associated with the leadership style. Researchers have interpreted his writings in different ways and thus created a wide variety of indicators (e.g. Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; van Dierendonck&Nuijten, 2011). In an effort to unify the different interpretations of servant leadership, Dirk van Dierendonck (2011) reviewed the existing literature and measures. He identified six key characteristics of servant leadership: empowering and developing people; humility; authenticity; interpersonal acceptance; providing direction; and stewardship.

When a leader empowers and develops team members, members are valued for their abilities while being provided with the necessary resources, information, and access to encourage performance. Humility, an aspect most contrary to implicit leadership theories[2], refers to taking a step back from one's own accomplishments and appreciates

[2] Implicit leadership theories refer to "beliefs and assumptions about the characteristics of effective leaders" (Yukl, 2006, p. 129). They are often stereotypes of the characteristics, traits, and behaviors of leaders. Also

the contributions of others. Taking responsibility for others and an ability to admit to mistakes are key aspects of humility. Authenticity expresses the "true self" such as keeping one's promises and being honest. Interpersonal acceptance involves accepting people for who they are, empathy for others, and developing trusting relationships. Transparency of expectations, tailoring those expectations to an individual's needs, and creating accountability ensures that the leader is providing direction. Finally, stewardship describes a holistic behavior where the leader acts as an example for employees and the organization. Stewardship tends to the needs of others and the organization before one's own needs.

After reviewing several scales developed to measure servant leadership, van Dierendonck (2011) settled on his own recently published measure as having the best factor structure and capturing all six aspects of servant leadership. This multi-dimensional scale was developed by interviewing leaders identified by the Greenleaf Centre for Servant Leadership as exemplifying this leadership style (van Dierendonck&Nuijten, 2011). The scale underwent rigorous psychometric testing that assessed content and predictive validity. The resulting 30-item scale contains eight factors descriptive of servant leadership: empowerment, accountability, humility, authenticity, courage, forgiveness, standing back, and stewardship.

Servant leadership has been studied in a number of countries such as Australia, China, Indonesia, Ghana, the United Kingdom, and the United States (Hale & Fields, 2007; Hamilton & Bean, 2005; Han, Kakabadse, &Kakabadse, 2010; Pekerti&Sendjaya, 2010; Schaubroeck, K, & Peng, 2011). Researchers have also studied it in 26 countries by

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of note, organizational definitions of implicit do not hold the same meaning as psychological definitions of implicit (e.g. Greenwald & Banaji, 1995).

using items in the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) as a proxy for servant leadership (Hale & Fields, 2007; Mittal &Dorfman, 2012; Pekerti&Sendjaya, 2010). Adoption of this style has been linked to several employee outcomes like job satisfaction, trust in the leader and organization, organization and community citizenship behaviors, performance, and job commitment (Ehrhart, 2004; J. Hu &Liden, 2011; Joseph & Winston, 2005; Liden et al., 2008; Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008; Walumbwa, Hartnell, &Oke, 2010).

Exploring Outcomes of Inclusion

Servant leadership outcomes. Both servant leadership and inclusion research share some common team- and individual- level outcomes. Both organizational and team citizenship behaviors are commonly studied in both areas of research. Organizational/team citizenship is considered an extrarole, helping behavior that positively affects the workplace. Although these behaviors are not the main job or task, they support overall organizational/team functioning. Examples of citizenship behaviors include volunteering for extra jobs or tasks, helping others, and upholding rules and procedures even when inconvenient (Borman&Motowidlo, 1993). That is, citizenship behaviors are helpful and perhaps altruistic, but not required behaviors. Several studies have found servant leadership to positively impact employee engagement in citizenship behaviors (Ebener& O'Connell, 2010; Ehrhart, 2004; J. Hu &Liden, 2011; Liden et al., 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2010).

Another important outcome in followers is creativity in the workplace. In order to keep current in an evolving marketplace, creativity is a highly valued and desirable behavior. Although there are many individual and contextual factors that affect creativity,

managerial style is a known predictor. Managers can create environments that facilitate creativity by adopting a supportive leadership style (Deci& Ryan, 1985). In a study about regulatory focus, Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko and Roberts (2008) found that a promotion focus mediated the positive relationship between servant leadership and creativity. In a study about salespeople, arguably a field with relatively high turnover, servant leadership supported creativity, improved employee well-being, and reduced turnover intentions (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009).

Inclusion outcomes. Shore and colleague's (2011) theory of inclusion predicted that both creativity and citizenship are consequences of inclusion. Evidence of inclusion, and the proposed model of inclusion, increasing creativity and citizenship behaviors was present in the previous literature. Carmeli et al. (2010), found that inclusive leadership positively impacted self-reported creativity in the workplace. However, when examining the two components of inclusion, belongingness and uniqueness, it is unclear which component best predicts workplace creativity or citizenship behaviors.

First, team identification, which from a social identity theory perspective is similar to belongingness, predicted creativity in a few studies (Gu& Wang, 2012; Hirst, van Dick, & van Knippenberg, 2009). Second, previous research has found that individual differentiation also predicts creativity (Janssen & Huang, 2008), but Gu and Wang (2012) found the opposite and concluded that differentiation did not, in fact, predict creativity. Third, another study found that belongingness predicts citizenship behaviors (Den Hartog, B, & Keegan, 2007), while both perceived insider status and group identification, similar constructs to belongingness, predicted altruism and citizenship (Du, Choi, & Hashem, 2012).

Only two studies examined both belongingness (operationalized as team identification) and uniqueness (operationalized as individual differentiation) (Gu& Wang, 2012; Janssen & Huang, 2008). Janssen & Huang (2008) measured team identification and individual differentiation as predictors of team citizenship and creativity behaviors in middle management teams in a Dutch bank. Results indicated that team identification predicted citizenship behaviors while individual differentiation predicted creativity. One of the strengths of this study was the lack of dependence on self-assessment. Participants' managers rated employee's citizenship behaviors, creativity, and effectiveness on the team. The researchers determined that team identification, not individual differentiation, positively predicted citizenship behaviors.

Gu& Wang (2012) also conducted a study, using the same uniqueness and belongingness scales as Janssen & Huang, among Research and Development teams in Chinese technology companies. Again, researchers surveyed supervisors for performance ratings and employees for levels of identification and innovation. Team identification, not individual differentiation, increased employee workplace innovation.

These studies are not without their limitations – the operationalization of constructs is problematic. Team identification is not a direct measure of belongingness, but it may serve as an adequate proxy. Sample items of team identification include "I would rather belong to another team (reverse-scored)" and "I feel good about my team." In contrast, the scale on individual differentiation does not directly assess the whole concept of uniqueness. Participants rated how different they are from other team members on dimensions such as personal opinions, beliefs, skills, and abilities. The scale

seems to assess the extent to which individuals are different from their work teams and not whether uniqueness is valued within the work team.

The Proposed Model

In addition to the model of inclusion, the proposed research investigates the antecedents and consequences to inclusion in work teams (Figure 2). The model demonstrates how employees' perceptions of their manager as servant leaders affect their feelings of uniqueness and belongingness which then influence self-reported creativity and team citizenship behaviors.

Inclusion is expressed as a composite comprised of uniqueness and belongingness. Evidence of this formative model of inclusion can be derived directly from Brewer's (1991) initial presentation of optimal distinctiveness theory and throughout her writings (e.g. Brewer, 1993). She explains that "needs for assimilation and differentiation are represented as opposing forces" (p. 477). According to the theory, assimilation and differentiation are separate, act independently, and may function in opposition. In standard measurement models, indicators of a latent construct represent reflective arrangement. In other words, the indicators are caused by and are synonymous with the latent construct that cannot be directly measured. Indicators are interchangeable.

In a formative model, composites are defined by their indicators and these indicators can be correlated or not at all (Kline, 2011). Stress is an example of a composite where indicators could be major life changes, personal relationships, health, and money. Each of these indicators is independent and may be correlated or not correlated. Any indicator alone is unable to predict levels of stress, but combined they form a complete measure. Inclusion is theorized to be a combination of both uniqueness

and belongingness where neither aspect alone is sufficient and correlations may be high or at zero.

I began testing the proposed model by examining the psychometric properties of each construct. Using structural equation modeling, I then tested the model of inclusion from servant leadership through employee outcomes. Since inclusion may be a key aspect to success for women in the workplace, it was important to examine the impact of gender on perceptions of inclusion. To test gender differences in perceptions, I examined the gender invariance of each construct. Following this examination, I tested gender differences in the entire model.

Specific predictions tested were:

Hypothesis 1: Inclusion, defined in Optimal Distinctiveness terms, is structured as a composite, not a reflective latent variable, comprised of uniqueness and belongingness.

Hypothesis 2: Servant leadership increases inclusion, uniqueness, and belongingness.

Hypothesis 3: Both perceptions of servant leadership and inclusion increase self-reported team citizenship and creativity in the workgroup.

Hypothesis 4: Inclusion is hypothesized to be a universal construct; therefore, there will be no gender differences in the inclusion model.

Hypothesis 5: There will be no gender differences in the overall model of inclusive leadership.

II. Inclusive Leadership Modeling

Method

Participants

Participants were 253 (126 female) employees aged 22 or older, working in companies with 50 or more employees in the United States. 83% identified as White, 6% identified as Hispanic, 5% identified as Black, 4% identified as Asian/Pacific Islander, 1% identified as Native American/Alaskan Native, 1% identified as some other race, and 1% declined to answer. Participants reported their managers' gender as 139 male and 114 female. Split by participant gender, 69.3% of men, and 59.5% of women reported having a same-gender manager. All participants were recruited by the market research company Harris Interactive. A well-established research firm, Harris Interactive specializes in obtaining research samples, designing, and analyzing market research studies. (One notable client includes the American Psychological Association.) They have access to business populations and panels that are difficult for the average researcher to obtain. Due to restrictions from Harris Interactive, I was unable to obtain any further information about sampling procedures and recruitment.

Measures

Servant Leadership. Although there are several servant leadership questionnaires currently in use in the academic literature, the dataset included one developed by van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) (Appendix A). In a recent meta-analysis, this survey demonstrated the best psychometric properties and captured many of the key dimensions of servant leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011). Participants reported their managers' behaviors on 30 items, which assessed the following eight dimensions:

empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, humility, and stewardship. Items were scored on a Likert-type scale of 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). Sample items included "My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well" and "My manager is open about his/ her limitations and weaknesses."

Uniqueness. The scale used to measure uniqueness assessed state perceptions of uniqueness in a work team and was developed for this dataset (Appendix B). Other measures exist to examine aspects of uniqueness, but none are specific to workplace behaviors and all measure dispositional uniqueness and differentiation. The developed scale consisted of 8 items scored on a Likert-type scale of 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). Sample items included "My individual talents are valued in my work team" and "I feel my work team respects my belief systems."

Belongingness. The perceived insider status (PIS) scale (Appendix C) was used as proxy for belongingness (Stamper & Masterson, 2002). The original scale assessed PIS in organizations; therefore, items were modified to assess work teams. This scale consisted of six items scored on a Likert-type scale of 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). Sample items included "My work team makes me believe that I am included in it" and "I don't feel included in this work team (Reverse-scored)."

Team Citizenship Behaviors. Team citizenship behaviors were measured with a scale developed for a 360-feedback approach where managers assessed followers (Janssen & Huang, 2008). This scale was modified so employees were able to self-report their citizenship behaviors (Appendix D). The six items were measured on a Likert-type scale of 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). Sample items included "I help others who have been

absent" and "I take time to listen to other team members'/ colleagues' problems and worries."

Creativity. Creativity was assessed using a four-item scale (Appendix E; Tierney, Farmer, &Graen, 1999). Items were measured on Likert-type scale of 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). Sample items included "I try out new ideas and approaches to problems" and "I generate novel but operable work-related ideas."

Procedure

All surveys were programmed into an online data collection website and coded by Harris Interactive. Participants were recruited through their proprietary online panels and only those who met the inclusion/ exclusion criteria were allowed to take the survey. Participants then filled out a series of questionnaires assessing their manager, experiences on their work team, and general demographics. Individuals were compensated for their participation through the standard avenues agreed to by panel members and Harris Interactive.

Results and Discussion

Psychometric Analyses

Preliminary analyses involved examining the measurement models for each scale. The quality of results of a structural equation model is heavily dependent upon establishing good measurement models. The measurement model, like a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), indicates whether the model is plausible and reflects the data (Kline, 2011). Each scale's factor structure was examined with a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in order to establish adequate psychometric properties. Although the majority of the scales were pre-established, there was need to demonstrate the data collected in this sample replicate the original factor structure; therefore, all attempts were made to replicate the original factor structure. Fit of these measurement models were assessed by examining the chi-squared statistics, CFI[3] (>.95 indicates good fit; L. Hu &Bentler, 1998), RMSEA[4] (<.05 indicates close fit; < .08 indicates adequate fit; Browne &Cudeck, 1993), and SRMR[5] (<.08 indicates good fit; L. Hu &Bentler, 1998).

In newly developed scales and measures that failed a CFA's goodness of fit test, the following steps were taken. Analyses began with an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) solely for the purpose of determining the number of factors that best fit the data. Next, a target rotation EFA was conducted to allow the testing of specific factor structures while providing significantly more information about the model fit than a CFA (McCrae, Zonderman, Costa Jr., Bond, &Paunonen, 1996). A confirmatory factor analysis on raw data can lead to poor model fit and rejection of what might be a good model of the data.

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[3]Comparative Fit Index.
[4]Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.
[5]Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

A target EFA also provides the researcher with a better conceptual sense of how to identify a future CFA analysis. Therefore, an "exploratory factor analysis within the CFA framework" was conducted with maximum likelihood estimates. Factor variances were fixed at 1 while item variances were free to vary (Brown, 2006).

Upon deciding between two models statisticians and researchers often support the parsimony principle which states that "given two models with similar fit to the same data, the simpler model is preferred, assuming that model is theoretically plausible" (Kline, 2011, p. 102). The principle often underlies the idea simpler hypotheses are more likely to be true than complex ones because they have fewer sources of error. The principle of parsimony is also related to degrees of freedom in that complex models with no degrees of freedom do not test any hypotheses and are therefore uninteresting (Kline, 2011). Simpler models are often preferred because they are easier to test and thereby falsifiable (Courtney & Courtney, 2008).

As of late, several prominent researchers have spoken against the parsimony principle stating that sometimes a more complex model is necessary to address complex issues(Gelman, 2004; Haidt, 2014; Hirschman, 1984; Neal, 1996). In a book on Bayesian statistics, Radford Neale wrote

> Sometimes a simple model will outperform a more complex model . . . Nevertheless, I believe that deliberately limiting the complexity of the model is not fruitful when the problem is evidently complex. Instead, if a simple model is found that outperforms some particular complex model, the appropriate response is to define a different complex model that captures whatever aspect of the problem led to the simple model performing well (1996, pp. 103–104).

In other words, when hypothesizing complex issues, a complex model should be chosen over a simple model. Indeed, statistician Andrew Gelman noted "if you can approximate reality with just a few parameters, fine. If you can use more parameters to fold in more information, that's even better" (Gelman, 2004). He explains that he is even unaware of any "good general justification for parsimony" (Gelman, 2004). Therefore, when comparing models in the current study, I let theory guide the final models. When faced with a complex issue, I chose models that maximized model fit while reflecting the underlying theory – even at the expense of parsimony.

Servant Leadership. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the original 8-factor structure of the servant leadership model and did not indicate good model fit, χ^2 (397, N=252) = 750.68, p< .001, RMSEA = .06 [90% CI = .05, .07], CFI = .92, SRMR = .06. Additionally, both RMSEA and CFI were out of excellent fit ranges. Since the original factor structure was unable to be perfectly replicated, a principle components analysis (PCA) was conducted on each individual factor with its corresponding set of items (e.g. a PCA on the Humility factor and its original items). Items with low factor loadings (.4 or lower) or low communalities (.4 or lower) were eliminated from further analysis. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with eight factors and a promax rotation was conducted with the remaining set of items. Items that were conceptualized to load on one factor but cross-loaded on another and items that did not load onto their original factor were also dropped from the analysis. A total of 20 items and 6 factors remained: Humility (Items: 10, 18, 25, 29, 30), Accountability (Items: 6, 14, 22), Empowerment (Items: 1, 2, 3, 4, 27), Forgiveness (Items: 7, 15, 23), Courage (Items: 6, 8), Stewardship (Items: 11, 26).

Next, an "exploratory factor analysis within the CFA framework" was conducted with maximum likelihood estimates using MPlus software. Factor variances were fixed at 1, while item variances were free to vary. The target rotation did not indicate good model fit to the data, χ^2 (164, N=253) = 305.275, p< .001, RMSEA = .06 [90% CI = .05, .07], CFI = .96, SRMR = .05. While this model demonstrated improvement over the previous model, CFI and RMSEA values were out of excellent fit ranges. Reverse-coded items sometimes create unexpected factor structures, model misfit, and reduced scale reliabilities (Babakus&Boller, 1992; Herche&Engelland, 1996; Swain, Weathers, &Niedrich, 2008). Task complexity increases the cognitive demand in interpreting these items which results in "misresponses" (i.e. responding to the same side of the scale for both reverse and non-reverse coded items; Swain et al., 2008). Therefore, all of the forgiveness items were dropped from subsequent analysis. This analysis showed improvement in the chi-square value and other fit statistics but did not indicate good model fit, χ^2 (114, N=253) = 198.18, p< .001, RMSEA = .05 [90% CI = .04, .06], CFI = .97, SRMR = .04. A chi-square difference test between these two target rotational models indicates that removing forgiveness resulted in a significantly better model, χ^2_D (50) = 107.10, p< .001. Further, this model also placed the CFI value within the excellent fit range.

Modification indices[6] demonstrated a decrease in chi-square value if Item 29 (Humility) was loaded on the Empowerment factor (decrease by 21.22), Item 3 (Empowerment) was loaded on Stewardship (decrease by 15.85), and if Items 3, 4, and 29 (Empowerment) were loaded directly onto the Servant Leadership second order latent

[6] Modification indices are univariate Lagrange Multipliers expressed as a chi-square value with 1 degree of freedom. Values indicate the amount that the overall chi-square goodness of fit test would decrease should the parameter be freely estimated (Kline, 2011).

factor (decrease by 12.60, 10.43, and 17.43, respectively). These modification indices can be roughly interpreted as indicators of cross-loading and model misfit (Brown, 2006) and so these items were dropped from the analysis. A confirmatory factor analysis of all remaining factors and items indicated good model fit, χ^2 (72, N=253) = 86.76, p> .05, RMSEA = .03 [90% CI = .00, .05], CFI = .99, SRMR = .04. A chi-square difference test between this CFA and previous model (all forgiveness items dropped) indicated that the CFA showed significant improvement, χ^2_D (42) = 111.42, p< .001. Additionally, the RMSEA value and confidence intervals were in the excellent fit range. Standardized and unstandardized loadings of items and latent factors on to the second order factor of Servant Leadership can be found in Table 1.

Uniqueness. An exploratory factor analysis was conducted on all items in order to determine the optimal number of factors. Eigenvalues greater than 1 indicated that there were 2 unique factors that account for 62.71% of the total variance. An examination of the scree plot indicated there were 2 factors that account for a majority of this variance. Examination of the 2-factor solution indicated that the reverse-coded items loaded onto the second factor and all other items loaded onto the first. There were no highly cross-loaded items. After dropping reverse-coded items, another exploratory factor analysis was conducted and both the scree plot and eigenvalues (λ = 3.35 accounting for 67.19% of the variance) indicated a 1 factor solution.

A target-rotation EFA was conducted in order to examine the factor loadings of each item. A chi-square test of the remaining items indicated poor model fit, χ^2 (5, N=246) = 12.05, p> .05, RMSEA = .08 [90% CI = .02, .13], CFI = .99, SRMR = .02. RMSEA values were also out of excellent fit range. After dropping item 3, which

replicates the factor structure in Prime and Salib's (in press) report, good model fit for both chi-square and model fit statistics in a CFA was achieved, χ^2 (2, N=246) = 3.66, p> .05, RMSEA = .06 [90% CI = .00, .15], CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .02. A chi-square difference test indicated that removing item 3 showed a significant improvement in model fit, χ^2_D (3) = 8.39, p< .05. Standardized and unstandardized factor loadings are listed in Table 2.

Belongingness. A confirmatory factor analysis of items included in the perceived insider status scale indicated poor model fit, χ^2 (9, N=246) = 181.11, p< .001, RMSEA = .28 [90% CI = .24, .32], CFI = .81, SRMR = .10. The chi-square value was significant and all model fit statistics were well out of the good fit ranges. One possible source of model misfit in a scale is the inclusion of reverse coded items. After dropping all the reverse coded items except one (a CFA on a 3-item scale does not have enough degrees of freedom to produce chi-square test and model fit statistics), the resulting scale demonstrated adequate psychometric properties (Table 3), χ^2 (2, N=246) = .37, p> .05, RMSEA = .00 [90% CI = .00, .07], CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .006. A chi-square difference test indicated that the reduced model was a significant improvement, χ^2_D (7) = 180.74, p< .001. This model also placed all model fit statistics within the excellent range.

Inclusion. Inclusion was hypothesized to be a composite comprised of uniqueness and belongingness (Figure 3). This formative model was compared to three alternative models to determine which best fits the data: a reflexive 2nd-order latent factor model (i.e. inclusion is the second order latent factor with 2 latent indicators of uniqueness and belongingness; Figure 4), and a latent model where uniqueness and belongingness are correlated (Figure 5), and a one-factor model where all uniqueness and belongingness items load onto a single inclusion factor (Figure 6).

The first analysis of the composite (Figure 3) indicated poor model fit in both chi-square and RMSEA values, χ^2 (19, N=246) = 33.98, p< .05, RMSEA = .06 [90% CI = .02, .09], CFI = .97, SRMR = .04. Examination of the factor loadings determined the lowest loading item is the reverse-coded item in the belongingness scale (λ = .57). After dropping this item from the analysis, the model fit the data well (Table 4), χ^2 (13, N=246) = 15.47, p> .05, RMSEA = .03 [90% CI = .00, .07], CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .02, AIC = 3929.64, BIC = 4006.76. All model fit statistics were within the excellent fit range. A chi-square difference test indicated that dropping the reverse-coded item resulted in an improved model, χ^2_D (6) = 18.51, p< .001. Factors were correlated at r = .43, p< .001 and standardized scale loadings onto inclusion were significant (Uniqueness = .39, p< .001, Belongingness = .63, p< .001).

Analysis of the 2nd-order latent reflexive model was not identified because a model with two indicators cannot be identified (Figure 4). The second comparison model is one where no second order latent variable, inclusion, is specified and only uniqueness and belongingness are correlated latent factors (Figure 5). This model produced an identical solution to the composite model, indicating that structurally, but not conceptually, these two are the same, χ^2 (13, N=246) = 15.47, p> .05, RMSEA = .03 [90% CI = .00, .07], CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .02, AIC = 3929.64, BIC = 4006.76. In light of this information, I chose the composite model because theory, and not parsimony, should guide when choosing between similar models.

The last model, a one-factor model with all uniqueness and belongingness items, indicated poor model fit to the data, Figure 6, χ^2 (14, N=246) = 24.45, p< .05, RMSEA = .06 [90% CI = .12, .09], CFI = .98, SRMR = .03, AIC = 3941.20, BIC = 4014.81. Not

only was the chi-square test significant, indicating that the single factor model does not accurately reflect the data, but RMSEA value was out of range. Additionally, when comparing CFI values to the composite model (Figure 3), the one-factor model (Figure 6) resulted in a .02 decrease. A .01 or greater change in CFI is significant indicating that in this case the one factor model is a significant reduction in model fit (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Upon comparing AIC and BIC values, the single factor model (Figure 6) values were higher than the composite model. Both AIC and BIC are parsimony adjusted calculations, where penalties are added for greater model complexity. Although the composite model is more complex (Figure 3), AIC and BIC values indicate that the more parsimonious model does not reflect the data as well as the composite model. Lastly, a chi-square difference test determined that the additional degree of freedom in the one-factor model resulted in worse model fit of the data , $\chi^2_D(1) = 8.98$, $p < .01$.

Indeed, although overall the model fit statistics appeared similar to the composite model, the single-factor model is a statistically worse model. Further, a more parsimonious model (the single factor model) not only does not reflect the theory but it is unlikely to reflect reality since inclusion is a complex issue. Therefore, the composite model of inclusion was chosen because it best fit the data (Hypothesis 1).

Scope of inclusion in this sample. To examine the variability in inclusion responses, I created scatterplots where belongingness scores are on the X-axis and uniqueness scores are along the Y-axis (Figures 7-9). There appears to be a strong linear trend among scores for uniqueness and belongingness (Figure 7), which is supported by a correlation of r = .77, $p < .001$ (Table 5). To assess whether I have actually measured the variations in inclusion that Shore et al. proposed (Figure 1), I added hypothetical

quadrants at the midpoints of each scale. If these quadrants actually recreate Shore's framework then I have successfully sampled in in all four quadrants: inclusion, exclusion, differentiation, and assimilation. Few participants were sampled in the differentiation quadrant and even fewer were in the assimilation quadrant. A similar pattern emerges among male (Figure 8) and female participants (Figure 9). Most male participants appear to fall within the inclusion quadrant with some falling into exclusion.

An analysis like this should be seen as a preliminary investigation of the distribution of scores within the proposed inclusion model. In order to test whether I have participants who feel included, excluded, assimilated, differentiated, I would have to conduct a known-groups analysis. In this case, I would administer these scales to participants who have already been identified as being included, excluded, assimilated, or differentiated then examine the pattern of responses. What can be gleaned from this analysis is that uniqueness and belongingness appear to be linearly related and that participants scores fall within the full range (1 through 5) in each scale. This adds legitimacy to my analyses in that any conclusions drawn based on the SEM analysis can be said to be based on a full range of scores rather than a sample that falls clustered within any one quadrant.

Team Citizenship Behaviors. A confirmatory factor analysis of the team citizenship scale indicated poor model fit in both chi-square and RMSEA values, χ^2 (9, N=253) = 18.67, p< .05, RMSEA = .07 [90% CI = 02, .11], CFI = .99, SRMR = .02. After dropping item 5, the scale demonstrated good fit among all fit statistics, χ^2 (5, N=253) = 6.10, p> .05, RMSEA = .03 [90% CI = 00, .10], CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .02. A chi-square difference test indicated that removing item 5 resulted in significant

improvement, χ^2_D (4) = 12.57, p< .05. Standardized and unstandardized factor loadings can be found in Table 6.

Creativity. Good model fit was achieved in a CFA analysis for all items the creativity scale (Table 7), χ^2 (2, N=253) = .34, p> .05, RMSEA = .00 [90% CI = .00, .07], CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .003.

Zero-order correlations and descriptive statistics of all the latent constructs in the Inclusive Leadership model are in Tables 5 and 8, respectively. Zero order correlations and descriptive statistics for all indicators in the latent constructs are in Tables 9 and 10, respectively.

Indicator Reduction

Although there are no official standards for sample size in SEM[7], it was likely that the number of indicators in the model require a much larger sample size than available to have sufficient power to detect an effect. One rule of thumb for estimating sample size is 10:1 where each parameter estimate requires 10 participants, with a minimum sample size of 200 (Kline, 2011). With 30 observed variables and 11 latent variables in the current model, a minimum of 745 would be needed to detect a small effect (δ = .1) with a power of .8 (Cohen, 1988; Soper, 2014; Westland, 2010)[8]. If latent indicators for servant leadership were dropped and all scales were reduced to only 2-indicators per latent variable, there would remain 6 latent and 10 observed variables (Figure 10). At this point, a minimum of 526 participants would be needed to detect an

[7] Kline (2011) suggests a minimum of 200 participants for any SEM analysis.

[8] Sample sizes for structural equation models were made using an online sample size calculator (Soper, 2014). Formulas for the calculator were obtained from both Cohen (1988) and Westland (2010).

effect size of .1 with a power of .8. Therefore, all scales were reduced to only 2-indicators per latent variable.

When reducing a scale a few methods exist to identify the best performing items. Many researchers rely on choosing items with the highest factor loadings. Items with the highest loadings may create the best reliability, but predictive validity is not a necessary condition of reliability. An alternative, data-driven approach is to use forward and backward stepwise regression to identify items that contribute the most variance to the total score (Liu & Jin, 2009). A forward stepwise regression enters items into the model to maximize the variation explained, while in backward stepwise regression all independent variables are entered into the equation and are systematically removed to improve the model. By choosing items that explain the most amount of variance in the total score, I maximized the predictive validity of the scale. Total scores were calculated by summing all current items in the scale. Two regression models, forward and backward, were analyzed where the dependent variable was the total score and the independent variables were scale items. Items were selected by choosing the 2 items with highest beta values in both analyses.

Servant leadership. All items identified in the previous analysis of the Servant Leadership scale were submitted to forward and backward stepwise regression analyses. Based on the overlap of the two analyses and current factor loadings, the items "My manager encourages me to use my talents" (Forward: Std. = .51, Backward: Std. = .11, Std. Factor Loading: .86) and "My manger admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior" (Forward: Ust. = .49, Backward: Ust. = .11, Std. Factor Loading: .85) were selected as most representative of the total score for Servant Leadership, $\alpha = .76$. These two items

correspond to the empowerment and humility factors, respectively, so it is implied that these two behaviors most characterize the essence of being a servant leader.

Remaining scales. Similar analyses were conducted for the remaining scales. All four items from the uniqueness analysis were submitted to the both the forward and backward stepwise regression analysis to predict the total score. The overlap of the two analyses determined that "I feel my work team respects my belief systems" (Forward: Std. = .35, Backward: Std. = .33, Std. Factor Loading: .73) and "My colleagues on my work team are interested in learning about my unique perspectives" (Forward: Std. = .37, Backward: Std. = .33, Std. Factor Loading: .70) best represented the total scale score, α = .71. The analyses for belongingness indicated items "I feel very much a part of my work team" (Forward: Std. = .61, Backward: Std. = .37, Std. Factor Loading: .68) and "I feel I am an 'insider' in my work team" (Forward: Std. = .47, Backward: Std. = .41, Std. Factor Loading: .90) would represent this scale, α = .76. Analyses for the creativity scale determined "I try out new ideas and approaches to problems" (Forward: Std. = .40, Backward: Std. = .29, Std. Factor Loading: .88) and "I generate novel but operable work-related ideas" (Forward: Std. = .33, Backward: Std. = .28, Std. Factor Loading: .80) best represented creativity, α = .83. Finally, analyses indicated team citizenship was best represented by "I help others who have been absent" (Forward: Std. = .36, Backward: Std. = .27, Std. Factor Loading: .75) and "I help others who have heavy workloads" (Forward: Std. = .42, Backward: Std. = .26, Std. Factor Loading: .79).

Zero-order correlations of full scales and reduced scales are located in Table 11. As demonstrated in the table, all correlations of the full scale with the shortened scale were high, all α's > .88. One exception is in the Servant Leadership scale. Because the

two items were selected from the Humility and Empowerment sub-scales, correlations with those two sub-scales were high while correlations with the other sub-scales (Accountability, Courage, and Stewardship) were significant but noticeably lower.

Gender Differences in Servant Leadership

Prior to performing any modeling, I tested whether there were any gender differences in Servant Leadership behaviors reported by participants. A series of 2 (Participant Gender) x2 (Manager Gender) ANOVAs were conducted with each indicator of Servant Leadership as a dependent variable (Table 12). There were no significant gender differences in the main effects or interactions in perceptions of Servant Leadership (all *p*'s > .05). These results were not surprising given that a meta-analysis on sex differences in leadership finds virtually no differences (Eagly& Johnson, 1990). Another meta-analysis on sex differences in leadership effectiveness similarly found differences to be minimal or nonexistent (Eagly, Karau, &Makhijani, 1995). Therefore, no further analyses were conducted regarding the manager's gender.

Inclusive Leadership Modeling

In order to address Hypotheses 2 and 3 in this study, a structural equation model was used to test the inclusive leadership model. A two-step modeling approach was taken where in the first step a measurement model was tested, and the second step tested the structural model. This two-step approach helps identify possible areas of model misfit within either the structure or measurement of indicators and latent variables (Kline, 2011). All data analysis was conducted using Mplus statistical software (Muthén&Muthén, 1998-2012).

Measurement Model. This measurement model tested a confirmatory factor analysis with latent variables, variances, and covariances specified. Tables 13-15 present robust maximum likelihood estimates, residuals, and variance/covariances of the measurement model. Fit statistics for the measurement model indicate good fit, Table 16, Model 1, χ^2 (25) = 23.16, p> .05, RMSEA = .00, CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .03. In the measurement model, all latent constructs are correlated so if model fit is poor, then it is likely that the hypotheses are wrong and that fitting a structural model will be even worse (Kline, 2011). Since the measurement model resulted in good model fit, any model misfit in the structural model can be attributed to the hypothesized paths between constructs.

Structural Model. Next, I tested the structural model, which included the measurement model and all hypothesized paths between latent variables (shown in Figure 11). The chi-square goodness of fit tests and all model fit statistics demonstrated excellent fit to the data (Table 16, Model 2). All hypothesized paths in the model were significant at p < .001 (Figure 11). To determine the amount of total variance accounted for in each latent construct, I calculated R^2_{smc}[9] by subtracting the standardized disturbance[10] from 1 (Kline, 2011). The full inclusive leadership model explains approximately half of the total variance in both uniqueness (R^2_{smc} = .40) and belongingness (R^2_{smc} = .51). Approximately one-quarter of the total variance in creativity (R^2_{smc} = .25) and team citizenship (R^2_{smc} = .27) was explained by the model.

Frequently, the examination of indirect effects is just as, if not more compelling than the direct effects. Indirect effects were estimated with Mplus software. A Sobel test (Sobel, 1986) to calculate the significance of the indirect effects was unnecessary because

[9]Squared multiple correlation.
[10]The disturbance is the error, residual, or unexplained variance in the latent construct (Kline, 2011).

Mplus calculates both standard errors and significance values using the delta method (MacKinnon, 2008). A table of all indirect effects calculated in the model is located in Table 17.

First, this model demonstrated that Servant Leadership predicted both uniqueness and belongingness. Since both Servant Leadership and the inclusion constructs are not on the same scale, I compared the standardized coefficients and found that perceptions of Servant Leadership in a manager contributed more to belongingness (.71, $p < .001$) than uniqueness (.63, $p < .001$). Additionally, indicators of inclusion were statistically significant and contributed to inclusion somewhat equally (Belongingness .56, $p < .001$; Uniqueness: .48, $p < .001$).

The composite model of inclusion was comprised of both uniqueness and belongingness. Examination of the standardized direct effects finds that uniqueness and belongingness load onto inclusion almost equally (respectively, .48 and .56). Since I hypothesized that Servant Leadership would have a positive effect on the model of inclusion, I examined the corresponding indirect effects (Hypothesis 2). The total indirect effect of Servant Leadership on inclusion was significant and large in standardized magnitude (.70, $p < .001$). Specific indirect effects indicated that the path through belongingness (.40) was somewhat larger than the path through uniqueness (.30).

Direct effects of inclusion on self-reported creativity and team citizenship behaviors were significant and appreciable in standardized size (respectively, .50 and .52). Interestingly, the magnitudes of the direct paths from inclusion to employee outcomes were nearly identical. This suggests that the model of inclusion that includes

both uniqueness and belongingness contributes to creativity and citizenship behaviors equally.

To examine this statement further, I reviewed the indirect effects of uniqueness and belongingness on creativity and team citizenship. Previous research found inconsistent results from the contributions of uniqueness and belongingness to team citizenship and creativity. Janssen and Huang (2008) found that team identification (belongingness) was positively related to team citizenship while individual differentiation (uniqueness) was positively related to creativity. Contrastingly, Gu and Wang (2012) found team identification, and not individual differentiation, was positively related to innovation. Examination of the standardized indirect effects of belongingness and uniqueness in the present research found that they both contribute almost equally to creativity (respectively, .28 and .24). Moreover, belongingness and uniqueness contributed almost equally to team citizenship behaviors (respectively, .25 and .29). In the current dataset, I was unable to replicate the effects of either Gu and Wang's (2012) or Janssen and Huang's (2008) studies. Further deconstruction of these effects will be examined in the gender invariance model results.

I also found that examining the total indirect effect of Servant Leadership on employee outcomes yielded identical standardized path coefficients (Table 17; Creativity: .35, $p < .001$; Team Citizenship: .36, $p < .001$). When comparing the two, Servant Leadership had a greater impact on employee creativity than team citizenship behaviors. Previous research has found that a Servant Leadership style significantly contributed to employee creativity and team citizenship behaviors in the workplace. The indirect effects in the model offer additional support to these findings.

III. Gender Invariance of Inclusive Leadership.

Method

In order to determine if there are gender differences in perceptions of the inclusive leadership model, I tested the gender invariance of the structural equation model following the guidelines outlined by Muthén and Muthén(2009). Tests of measurement invariance are closely related to issues of construct bias in that a lack of invariance over populations implies the scale tests something different depending on each population (e.g. men and women; Kline, 2011). In the first step, a multiple-group CFA examined each scale for configural, metric, or scalar invariance. I conducted analyses using the full scales for each construct outlined in Section 1. Because the item reduction analysis reduced each scale to 2 indicators, invariance tests could not be conducted on the shortened measures due to a lack of degrees of freedom. Comparisons between each level of invariance were made with chi-square difference tests (Satorra&Bentler, 2001), which compared each level of invariance (Cheung &Rensvold, 2002).

Configural invariance determines whether the basic structure of the scale does not differ between groups (men and women). This means the model tested has the same number of factors and the same set of zero factor loadings. Establishment of configural invariance is a necessary condition for metric invariance. Should any scale prove to not be configural invariant, it can be assumed that men and women fundamentally differ in their perceptions of that construct and either separate exploratory factor analyses should be conducted for each group or the scale should be discarded.

Metric invariance produces a model that holds the factor loadings equal between the two groups but intercepts are allowed to differ. Should the model fail the test of

metric invariance, it can be concluded that the scale is configural invariant and men and women view the construct in the same way but differ in their endorsement of each item. Finally, scalar invariance produces a model where the factor structure, factor loadings, and intercepts/ thresholds are held equal across groups. Should the chi-square difference tests between the metric and scalar models determine metric has a better fit, then the model is not scalar invariant and a metric model will be accepted. A scalar model assumes both groups interpret the scale in the same way. If the chi-square difference test indicates scalar invariance is the best model fit, then factor loadings and intercepts are the same and direct comparisons of scores between groups can be made.

After I tested each scale's invariance, I followed the same 2-step approach to SEM (Kline, 2011) but with adjustments to the syntax for multiple-groups. I obtained guidelines for conducting a multiple-groups analysis in the short course instructed by Muthén and Muthén(2009). Results of the structural model indicated the degree to which there are gender differences in the path loadings of the overall model.

Results and Discussion

Invariance Test of Scales[11]

Servant Leadership. A modified approach, divergent from outlined in the above Methods section, was taken to analyze the gender invariance of the Servant Leadership scale. I tested first-order latent constructs, without the second-order construct, at once in a multiple-groups CFA. Results of the chi-square difference tests offer mixed results (Table 19). Comparisons of metric and configural invariance determined that the constructs were configurally invariant. Yet, comparisons of scalar and metric indicated the model improves when scalar constraints are added. To parse out these results, I added an additional chi-square comparison to test whether the addition of scalar constraints (i.e. no differences between men and women) is worse than that of a configural model (i.e. different factor loadings between men and women). Results of the chi-square difference test (χ^2 [23] = 33.53, p = .07) found that the scalar model is preferred over the configural model. Both men and women conceptualized the constructs of humility, empowerment, accountability, courage, and stewardship in the same way.

I next tested gender differences in the entire servant leadership model, while holding first-order constructs scalar invariant, using a multiple-groups SEM. Chi-square difference tests indicate that each factor loaded onto Servant Leadership with metric invariance (Table 19). A closer examination of the intercepts and residual variances of the latent constructs (humility, accountability, etc.) onto Servant Leadership yields a few differences. While the intercepts of the first order constructs for women appear to be different from men, all intercept values were non-significant (p> .05). Upon examining

[11] Descriptive statistics by gender for all latent constructs are located in Table 18.

the residual variances, measurement errors for each latent construct, the constructs are generally measured with less error in men than women (Empowerment: Men = .003, Women = .11; Courage: Men = .23, Women = .38). Accountability (Men: .36, Women: .34) and stewardship (Men: .12, Women: .07) and Humility (Men = .19, Women = .15) were exceptions where constructs were measured with less error in women than men. Additionally, Servant Leadership factor variances differed in men (.61) and women (.81), where women may be more variable than men on all factors. Taken together, this Servant Leadership scale is a construct that generally measures the same thing in both men and women.

Inclusion. I tested the model of inclusion in a similar way. I first tested the levels of invariance in uniqueness and belongingness scales separately. Chi-square difference tests of invariance for both uniqueness and belongingness identify both scales as scalar invariant (Table 19). There are no gender differences in these two constructs.

Next, I tested the levels of invariance of the formative model of inclusion while holding uniqueness and belongingness scalar invariant. Results of the chi-square difference test determined that the additional constraints imposed by scalar invariance did not significantly worsen the model. It can be concluded that there are no gender differences in the model of inclusion (Table 19, Hypothesis 4). This result is particularly notable since men and women face different barriers to inclusion in the workplace. Moreover, although their challenges may differ, the same structure is necessary and the same needs need to be fulfilled to feel fully included in a work team. These results also run contrary to the suggestion of practitioners and some academics that different strategies are necessary to address the inclusion needs of women and minorities.

Creativity and Team Citizenship. I conducted tests of measurement invariance on creativity and team citizenship separately. Both scales showed best model fit for the scalar invariance model. Invariance tests and chi-square difference tests are located in Table 19.

Multiple Groups SEM

Measurement Models. To test the measurement model, all short-forms of the scales, with corresponding invariance constraints were entered into a multiple-groups confirmatory factor analysis. The chi-square goodness of fit test indicated good fit for the measurement model, χ^2 (55) = 66.80, p = .13 (Table 16, Model 3). All other fit statistics are within the acceptable range (RMSEA = .04, CFI = .98, SRMR = .06).

Structural Model. Prior to testing the structural model of inclusive leadership, I first examined the pattern of zero-order correlations for all scales between men and women (Table 20). When making comparisons within a SEM model, there is no way to determine whether the paths are significantly larger or small than another. Only comparisons of magnitude can be made (Kline, 2011). An interesting pattern emerged from the correlations. Uniqueness and belongingness were correlated equally with Servant Leadership (r = .46, p< .001) among women. The magnitude of this correlation was similar for uniqueness (r = .44, p< .001) but was higher for belongingness (r = .58, p< .001) among men. Furthermore, Servant leadership appears to have a higher correlation with creativity than team citizenship (r = .50 and .48, p < .001, respectively) among women than men (r = .29, p< .01; r = .21, p< .05, respectively). When examining the correlations of uniqueness and belongingness with employee outcomes, I found that uniqueness was equally correlated with outcomes (Creativity: r = .36, p<.001, Team

citizenship: r = .35, $p < .001$) among men. Yet among women, uniqueness has a higher correlation with creativity (r = .45, $p < .001$) than team citizenship (r = .38, $p < .01$). The opposite pattern held for belongingness where it was correlated equally with outcomes among women (Creativity: r = .28, $p < .01$, Team citizenship: r = .29, $p < .01$) but had a higher correlation with team citizenship (r = .35, $p < .001$) than creativity (r = .29, $p < .01$) among men.

Following the measurement model, the structural component was added and a multiple-groups structural equation model was estimated. The chi-square model fit statistic (Table 16, Model 4) indicated model misfit, χ^2 (63) = 90.45, $p = .01$. All other fit statistics indicated good model fit (RMSEA = .06, CFI = .96, SRMR = .07). This model misfit may be attributed to the small sample size and increase in model parameters (Model 2: $df = 29$; Model 4: $df = 63$). All path coefficients and factor loadings for both men and women were significant at $p < .01$ with the exception of the correlation of team citizenship and creativity in men which was marginally significant, $p = .08$.

Men. Results of the structural equation model for men can be found in Figure 12. Indirect effects are located in Table 21. Direct effects of Servant Leadership on uniqueness and belongingness were both statistically significant and considerable in standardized magnitude (respectively, .58 and .76). Perceptions of Servant Leadership behaviors among male employees seemed to have had a greater effect on feelings of belongingness than uniqueness where the standardized direct effect on belongingness is approximately 1⅓ times that of uniqueness. Overall, a little over ⅓ of the total variance uniqueness ($R^2_{smc} = .34$, $p = .01$) and almost 60% of the total variance in belongingness ($R^2_{smc} = .58$, $p < .001$) were accounted for by the model.

Furthermore, indicators of inclusion were statistically significant and sizable in standardized magnitude (Uniqueness: .50; Belongingness: .54). This lends preliminary support to the hypothesis that the composite of inclusion holds in both genders (Hypothesis 4). Examination of the indirect effects of Servant Leadership on inclusion found that the total standardized indirect effect was also significant and large (Table 21, .70). Servant leadership's effect on inclusion is stronger through the path to belongingness (Standardized: .41) than uniqueness (Standardized: .29). These results support the hypothesis that Servant Leadership positively affects inclusion through uniqueness and belongingness (Hypothesis 2).

Direct effects of inclusion on creativity and team citizenship were significant and appreciable in standardized size (respectively, .44 and .46). Similar to the analysis of the full model, I was interested in examining the indirect effects of uniqueness and belongingness on creativity in order to rectify the differing results in the literature (i.e. Janssen & Huang [2008] and Gu and Wang [2012]). Standardized indirect effects from uniqueness and belongingness to creativity indicated that uniqueness and belongingness affected creativity almost equally (Table 21, respectively, .22 and .24). Nearly identical results were found when examining the indirect effects of uniqueness and belongingness on team citizenship (respectively, .23 and .25).

Because previous literature identified the positive effects of Servant Leadership on both creativity and team citizenship, I examined the indirect effects of these paths in the model (Table 21). The total indirect effect of Servant Leadership on creativity was significant (Standardized: .31, $p < .01$), where the standardized effect was stronger in the path through belongingness (.18, $p = .01$) than uniqueness (.13, $p = .01$). The total

indirect effect of Servant Leadership on team citizenship was nearly identical (Standardized: .32, $p = .001$) and the path through belongingness (.19, $p = .001$) was larger than uniqueness (.13, $p < .01$). Overall, 19% and 21% of the total variance in creativity and team citizenship, respectively, was explained in this model. These R^2_{smc} values are smaller than that of the overall model (respectively, 25% and 27%).

Women. Direct effects of paths and indicators in the structural equation model are located in Figure 13 while indirect effects are found in Table 21. Results of the SEM model for women were similar to that of men with a few exceptions detailed below. Direct effects of Servant Leadership on uniqueness and belongingness were significant and standardized effects large in magnitude (respectively, .68 and .69). Additionally, perceptions of Servant Leadership affected uniqueness and belongingness equally. Overall, the model explained almost 50% of the total variance in both uniqueness and belongingness (respectively, $R^2_{smc} = .47$ and $R^2_{smc} = .48$).

The standardized direct effects of uniqueness and belongingness on inclusion were significant and sizeable (Figure 13, respectively, .46 and .57). Belongingness' contribution to inclusion was approximately 1¼ times that of the effect of uniqueness. This also lends preliminary support for the hypothesis that the model of inclusion is gender invariant (Hypothesis 4). The total standardized indirect effect of Servant Leadership on inclusion was large in magnitude (.71, $p < .001$) and the path through belongingness (.40, $p < .001$) was larger than that of uniqueness (.31, $p < .001$). These results also support the hypothesis that Servant Leadership positively affects uniqueness and belongingness (Hypothesis 2).

Direct effects of inclusion on creativity and team citizenship were significant and sizeable in magnitude (Figure 13, respectively, .55 and .58). Again, in order to parse out the differing results between the Janssen and Huang (2008) study and the Gu and Wang (2012) study, I analyzed the indirect effects of uniqueness and belongingness on creativity. Examination of the indirect effects of uniqueness and belongingness on creativity demonstrated the standardized effect to be significant and similar in magnitude (Table 21, respectively, .25 and .32). Examination of the standardized indirect effects of uniqueness and belongingness on team citizenship yielded almost identical results to those found for creativity (respectively, .27 and .33).

Again, to support previous literature on the effects of Servant Leadership on team citizenship and creativity, I examined the indirect effects of these paths. The total indirect effect of Servant Leadership on creativity was significant and sizeable in standardized magnitude (Table 21, .39, $p < .001$). Specific indirect effects through uniqueness and belongingness indicated the standardized path through belongingness was slightly larger than that of uniqueness (respectively, .22 and .17). Overall, this model explained equal amounts of total variance, approximately one third, in creativity and team citizenship (Creativity: $R^2_{smc} = .31$; Citizenship: $R^2_{smc} = .33$).

***Gender Comparisons*.** First, I addressed Hypothesis 4, which stated that the inclusion model was gender invariant. In the preliminary analyses, I found that both the uniqueness and belongingness constructs were scalar invariant. When I tested the inclusion measurement model, I found that the model was scalar invariant and, therefore, there were no gender differences in the model. This provides some support to Hypothesis 4.

Next, I compared the direct effects of uniqueness and belongingness to inclusion within the full structural equation model. Generally, examining the unstandardized estimate is recommended when comparing paths between groups and the standardized estimate is recommended when comparing paths within groups.[12] In this case, the unstandardized estimates were fixed at 1 as a condition of identifying a formative model (Muthén&Muthén, 2009). In light of this, I could only make comparisons of the magnitude of differences between the paths to inclusion for both men and women. Among men, belongingness and uniqueness load onto inclusion almost equally, where the standardized path from belongingness was 1.05 times that of uniqueness. Among women, the difference was larger; the path from belongingness was 1¼ times greater than that of uniqueness. Taken together, within the context of the model, belongingness appeared to be more influential to inclusion among women than men. Hypothesis 4 was partially supported. This gender difference might be due to a greater need for distinction among men. Baumeister and Sommer (1997) suggested that men may seek unique traits and abilities in order to be indispensable to the group. This striving for uniqueness actually served as a way to achieve greater belonging among men.

To address Hypothesis 5, that there are no gender differences in the model, I compared the direct and indirect effects for both men and women. First, I compared the direct effects of servant leadership to uniqueness and belongingness. The significant and sizable direct effects of Servant Leadership on uniqueness and belongingness in both men and women provide support of the hypothesis that there were no gender differences in the overall model (Hypothesis 5). Examination of the unstandardized estimates indicated that

[12] The unstandardized estimate is recommended when comparing the same path between groups because values are on the same scale. The standardized estimate is recommended when making comparisons within groups because estimates are all in standard deviation units (Kline, 2011).

perceptions of a manager's servant leadership behaviors increased uniqueness (Women: .53, Men .44) and belongingness (Women: .66, Men: .63) in women more than men (respectively, Figures 13 and 12). More specifically, the size of the unstandardized direct effect of servant leadership on belongingness in women is 1.04 times greater than that of men. The size of the unstandardized direct effect of servant leadership on uniqueness was almost 1¼ times greater for women than that of men.

Although men and women did not differ in the effects of servant leadership on belongingness, women's perceptions of uniqueness were affected more by leader behaviors than men. When taking into account Baumeister and Sommer's (1997) hypothesis, men may be deriving more of their perceptions of uniqueness from sources outside of the leader. If men's uniqueness needs within a workgroup were served by developing unique abilities, they may have fulfilled their uniqueness needs from the workgroup and not their manager. This hypothesis is further supported by comparisons of R^2_{smc} values. The model accounts for 34% of the total variance in uniqueness among men but accounts for 47% among women.

Inclusion also appears to have had nearly the same impact on creativity and team citizenship in both men and women (respectively, Figures 13 and 12). The unstandardized effect of inclusion to creativity appeared to be slightly larger in women than in men (respectively, .26 and .22). Comparisons of men's and women's indirect effects of uniqueness and belongingness on creativity found no substantial differences (Table 21). Women overall reported greater creativity based on their felt uniqueness and belongingness within their workgroup (Unstandardized: .26 and .26), but it was nearly identical to effects in men (Unstandardized: .22 and .22). The differing results in the Gu

and Wang (2012) and Janssen and Huang (2008) studies were not addressed in this study. Rather, I concluded that felt uniqueness and belongingness within the work group affected creativity equally in both men and women. Virtually no gender effects were found when comparing the unstandardized indirect effects of uniqueness and belongingness on team citizenship behaviors (Table 21).

Finally, a similar pattern of indirect effects were found when comparing the paths of servant leadership to creativity in men and women (respectively, Figures 12 and 13). Perceptions of servant leadership had a greater effect on creativity in women (Unstandardized: .31) than men (Unstandardized: .23). This is about a 1⅓ increase in women over men. Nearly identical unstandardized indirect paths were found when examining the path from Servant Leadership to team citizenship in men and women (respectively, .25 and .28).

IV. General Discussion

This research examined the antecedents and consequences of inclusion with the goal of clarifying the process. It provides several new insights and innovations to both the psychological and business literature, first by providing a definition of inclusion that applies components of optimal distinctiveness theory. By relying on basic psychological processes that are hypothesized to be fundamental needs, future studies may find this conceptualization of inclusion is a cross-cultural construct. Second, this research is the first application of servant leadership as an inclusive leadership style. Previous research has demonstrated the utility of servant leadership in positive employee outcomes, yet no one has examined it as an inclusive leadership style. Third, by gaining an understanding of the individual level processes, future research may be able to expand to a multi-level model of inclusive leadership.

As evidenced by tests of the overall model depicted in Figure 11, my data generally supported the proposed model of inclusive leadership. In the model, the proposed multi-dimensional construct of inclusion was supported and perceptions of greater servant leadership behaviors positively predicted participants' perceptions of inclusion. Additionally, although there were minor differences, the model remained generally invariant between men and women.

As a whole, this research provides valuable insights to inclusion and its relation to gender. Although there is a dearth in research on gender differences in workplace exclusion, there is a multitude of research on gender based workplace discrimination. Men and women no longer differ in wanting more job responsibilities and career mobility (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2011). Yet, even when women adopt the same strategies

for advancement as men, they still suffer backlash and fall behind in both salary and promotions (Carter & Silva, 2010; Rudman & Glick, 2001). Women who feel discriminated against and face barriers to growth are less committed and more likely to leave to their organization (Carter & Galinsky, 2008; Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2006). The case for inclusive leadership in the workplace for women is easy to see; it is a talent management issue.

Lack of inclusion is not just an issue for women; men also suffer backlash from violating masculine gender norms in the workplace. Male leaders are evaluated as less competent, less desirable to work for, and less effective after making a mistake more than a female leader making the same mistake (Thoroughgood, Sawyer, & Hunter, 2013). Even among male champions, who wish to engage in gender initiatives, gender egalitarian men in high powered positions are seen as feminine, weaker, and more likely to be gay than other men (Rudman, Mescher, & Moss-Racusin, 2013).

Although women's desire for more time with their children has not changed much, men are requesting more flexible work arrangements and reporting more work-family conflict than they did 30 years ago. Nearly 49% of men now report that they spend as much or more time than their wives taking care of their children (Galinsky et al., 2011). Yet men requesting family leave are still stigmatized and suffer backlash from their organizations (Allen & Russell, 1999; Rudman &Mescher, 2013; Wayne &Cordeiro, 2003). While women may be given a "free pass" when performance is affected by family conflict, managers view men's performance as suffering(Butler &Skattebo, 2004). In a recent study in the Netherlands, a country known for gender equitable practices, men who shared parenting responsibilities with their spouses were

rated as less ambitious, available, competent, and successful than women in the same position (Vinkenburg, van Engen, Coffeng, &Dikkers, 2012). As long as men do not appear to be actively involved in their children's lives, they actually enjoy a boon in status at work (Correll, Benard, & Paik, 2007).

Top down approaches to managing diversity in the workplace may be necessary to reduce these negative behaviors. As keys to promotions and raises, managers must be able to effectively engage both male and female team members. There is a strong need for leaders who are able to effectively manage across these gender and racial lines. The current research offers some promising insights into how to make the workplace more inclusive. Although men and women may differ in their barriers to inclusion, the formula for inclusion remains generally the same between both men and women. This is particularly important because it appears as though differing approaches are not necessary to reach men, women, and ethnic minorities.

Limitations and Strengths

Although this research has some compelling findings, it is not without its limitations. As one of the first explicit tests of Shore et al.'s (2011) model, I was unable to use existing measures (e.g. Perceived Insider Status as a Belongingness measure; Stamper& Masterson, 2002) and created constructs where the literature was lacking (e.g. Uniqueness scale). A recently published scale of inclusion addresses Shore et al.'s (2011) theory (Jansen, Otten, van der Zee, &Jans, 2014). What is promising is that after reviewing the items, the new publication's scale seems to have similar items to ones used in this study. Future research on this conceptualization of inclusion may be able to utilize established measures.

Moreover, after examining the distribution of inclusion, the majority of participants fell within the “included” and “excluded” quadrants (see Figure 1). Due to the lack of sampling within other quadrants, “assimilation” and “differentiation”, I cannot be sure that this model would apply to those individuals. Future researchers should conduct known groups analyses where they specifically collect data from all four hypothesized quadrants.

The next limitation relates to the sample size of the study. Although the sample size is above the minimum needed to conduct and SEM analysis (min. 200), several hundred more participants would be needed to test all aspects of the hypothesized model. This severely limits the generalizability of the study, and future research will need to test this model with a larger dataset.

In addition to sample size, I am unable to ascertain exactly who my participants were due to recruitment from a market research company. Although it is was highly unlikely that participants would work in the same group, there is no definitive way to ensure this. When individuals in a study are in the same workgroup or organization, it is necessary to model the group/organizational level data as they have shared sources of error. Because I was unable to model participant nesting within workgroup or even organizations, this may have been a source of error.

Furthermore, without additional information regarding the recruitment of participants, I was unable to report how Harris Interactive obtains their panel participants or any specifics of their sampling procedure such as the total number of people asked to participate and the number of rejections. Thus, it was difficult to draw conclusions about the population in this study. For example, perhaps the individuals who decided to

participate in this study were all generally happy with their manager's performance or that individuals who agreed to participate in panels were generally satisfied with their workplaces. As a whole, the participants chose to act as participants in Harris Interactive panels and those motivations and potential common characteristics may bias the data. This lack of information made it impossible to conclude that the sample was random or to ascertain whether there were any common characteristics among participants that may have biased the sample. Relatedly, researchers within psychology and management have made multiple calls for multi-level models in the organizational literature (e.g. Dansereau, Alutto, &Yammarino, 1984; Pettigrew, 2006; Yammarino&Dansereau, 2008). This study examines the effects of employees scattered throughout organization in a cross-sectional study. This was limiting for several reasons. Specifically, this study was correlational thereby limiting the ability to draw conclusions about the directionality among constructs. For example, perceptions of inclusion may cause creativity and team citizenship behavior or creative and helpful people may just generally feel more included in workgroups. Moreover, because of the correlational design, I was unable to determine if the relationships were causal or if there may have been other variables affecting the relationships. Ideally, this type of research would follow entire work teams and nest them within managers, organizational practices, and organizations in a longitudinal multi-level model (Dansereau, Yammarino, &Kohles, 1999). Future researchers are encouraged to test this model with an experimental design to begin to determine causality and to start ruling out alternative explanations for the relationships between variables.

Yet, despite the limitations, this research contained many strengths. Field studies such as this one with a large sample of individuals working in organizations is not only

difficult to obtain but also unusual for the field. When researchers do obtain field data, many are only able to collect data in one or two organizations(e.g. Baugh &Graen, 1997; Edmondson, 1999; Kossek&Zonia, 1993). Although I am unable to determine how many, I can conclude that data was collected in several organizations. Relatedly, this study is unique in that it has actual employees in organizations filling out these surveys rather than a sample collected in a lab. This increases the ability to draw conclusions in the real world.

Designing a field study such as this one is challenging because a survey that contains many items will ensure that many participants will not complete the survey. Therefore, many field surveys often contain only a few constructs with only the highest loading items of a scale included. This study contained the full scales for each construct, which provided a richer understanding of the constructs and relationships at hand. For example, although the servant leadership scale used in this study was cross-culturally validated (van Dierendonck&Nuijten, 2011), only 5 of the 8 factors were demonstrated in this sample. Interestingly, one of the more influential indicators in this scale (determined by the factor loading of the subscale on to servant leadership) was humility. Humility is generally antithetical to the stereotypes of leaders in this country (Exline& Geyer, 2004; Yukl, 1999). For example, Jack Welch, former CEO of General Electric, is considered to be a great leader in this country, yet one would not describe him as humble.

Due to these design strengths, this study offers some preliminary real-world benefits for organizations. Inclusion is a talent management issue in that perceptions of exclusion is related to turnover (e.g. Krishnan, 2009; Nishii & Mayer, 2009; Nishii, 2013). This study demonstrates that not only is servant leadership positively related to

inclusion but also to positive employee outcomes. By applying servant leadership, a style with known benefits to reduce turnover (e.g. Jaramillo et al., 2009), managers who may have hesitated at adopting a servant leadership style may feel more confident that it would benefit their teams.

Conclusion

This research sought to address the antecedents and consequences of inclusion among employees in the United States. Results indicated that servant leadership might act as form of inclusive leadership in that perceptions of servant leadership behaviors were positively associated with felt inclusion among employees. This, in turn, increased self-reported creativity and team citizenship behaviors. This study also examined a novel approach to defining inclusion in terms of optimal distinctiveness. Furthermore, the model of inclusion as a whole was generally invariant between men and women adding to the body of knowledge that optimal distinctiveness and inclusion needs are universal.

Tables

Table 1.Factor Loadings for a Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Servant Leadership.

Item	Humility		Accountability	
	Ustd.	Std.	Ustd.	Std.
Humility	1.00*** (--)[a]	.89[a]		
If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.	1.08*** (.06)	.90		
My manager learns from criticism.	1.00*** (--)[b]	.85		
My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.	1.03*** (.57)	.85		
My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.	0.99*** (.06)	.82		
Accountability			.43*** (.09)[a]	.51[a]
My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.			1.00*** (--)[b]	.81
My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.			1.02*** (.12)	.80
I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.			.99*** (.13)	.77
Empowerment				
My manager encourages me to use my talents.				
My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.				
My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.				
Courage				
My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.				
My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.				
Stewardship				
My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.				
My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work.				

Item	Empowerment		Courage	
	Ustd.	Std.	Ustd.	Std.
Humility				
If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.				
My manager learns from criticism. My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.				
My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.				
Accountability				
My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.				
My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.				
I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.				
Empowerment	1.00*** (.09)[a]	.97[a]		
My manager encourages me to use my talents.	1.13*** (.08)	.86		
My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.	1.15*** (.08)	.83		
My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.	1.00*** (--)[b]	.78		
Courage			.81*** (.11)[a]	.77[a]
My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.			1.06*** (.11)	.86
My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.			1.00*** (--)[b]	.78
Stewardship				
My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.				
My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work.				

Item	Stewardship	
	Ustd.	Std.
Humility		
If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.		
My manager learns from criticism.		
My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.		
My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.		
Accountability		
My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.		
My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.		
I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.		
Empowerment		
My manager encourages me to use my talents.		
My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.		
My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.		
Courage		
My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.		
My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.		
Stewardship	1.06*** (.09)[a]	.93[a]
My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.	1.00*** (--)[b]	.85
My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work.	.88*** (.07)	.72

Note. $N = 253$. Ustd., Unstandardized estimate; ( ), Standard Error; Std., Standardized Estimate; ***. $p < .001$

[a]. Indicates factor loading onto 2nd-order latent construct of Servant Leadership

[b]. Not tested for statistical significance (i.e., constrained parameter).

Table 2. Unstandardized Loadings (Standard Errors) and Standardized Loadings for 1-Factor Confirmatory Model of Uniqueness (N = 246).

Item	Ustd.	Std.
My individual talents are valued in my work team.	1.49*** (.16)	0.84
I feel my work team respects my belief systems.	1.36*** (.16)	0.73
I am comfortable with fully contributing to my work team.	1.00*** (--)[a]	0.62
My colleagues on my work team are interested in learning about my unique perspectives.	1.32*** (.16)	.70

Note. Ustd., Unstandardized estimate; ( ), Standard Error; Std., Standardized Estimate.*** $p < .001$.

[a]. Not tested for statistical significance (i.e., constrained parameter).

Table 3. Unstandardized Loadings (Standard Errors) and Standardized Loadings for 1-Factor Confirmatory Model of Belongingness (N = 246).

Item	Ustd.	Std.
I don't feel included in this work team (R)	.75*** (.08)	.59
I feel I am an 'insider' in my work team.	.82*** (.07)	.68
My work team makes me believe that I am included in it.	.91*** (.06)	.83
I feel very much a part of my work team.	1.00*** (--)[a]	.90

Note. Ustd., Unstandardized estimate; ( ), Standard Error; Std., Standardized Estimate.*** $p < .001$

[a]. Not tested for statistical significance (i.e., constrained parameter).

Table 4. Unstandardized Loadings (Standard Errors) and Standardized Loadings for 2-Factor Formative Confirmatory Model of Inclusion (N = 246).

Item	Ustd.	Std.
Uniqueness	1.00*** (--)[a]	.39[a]
My individual talents are valued in my work team.	1.39*** (.18)	.81
I feel my work team respects my belief systems.	1.35*** (.21)	.76
My colleagues on my work team are interested in learning about my unique perspectives.	1.26*** (.19)	.69
I am comfortable with fully contributing to my work team.	1.00*** (--)[b]	.64
Belongingness	1.00*** (--)[a]	.63[a]
My work team makes me believe that I am included in it.	1.01*** (.07)	.88
I feel very much a part of my work team.	1.00*** (--)[b]	.85
I feel I am an 'insider' in my work team.	.87*** (.08)	.68

Note. Ustd., Unstandardized estimate; ( ), Standard Error; Std., Standardized Estimate.

[a]. Indicates factor loading onto composite of Inclusion.

[b]. Not tested for statistical significance (i.e., constrained parameter).

***. $p < .001$

Table 5. Zero-Order Correlations among Latent Constructs in the Inclusive Leadership Model

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Servant Leadership								
1. Humility	--							
2. Accountability	.33**	--						
3. Empowerment	.77**	.42**	--					
4. Courage	.60**	.29**	.61**	--				
5. Stewardship	.68**	.44**	.72**	.57**	--			
Inclusion								
6. Uniqueness	.48**	.36**	.59**	.38**	.51**	--		
7. Belongingness	.45**	.30**	.56**	.30**	.45**	.77**	--	
8. Creativity	.41**	.29**	.42**	.41**	.41**	.45**	.27**	--
9. Team Citizenship	.30**	.43**	.39**	.33**	.47**	.50**	.38**	.51**

**$p < .001$.

Table 6. Unstandardized Loadings (Standard Errors) and Standardized Loadings for 1-Factor Confirmatory Model of Team Citizenship (N = 253).

Item	Ustd.	Std.
I help others who have heavy workloads.	1.01*** (.08)	.79
I go out of my way to help new employees.	.93*** (.08)	.78
I help others who have been absent.	1.00*** (--)[a]	.75
I pass along work-related information to other team members/colleagues.	.82*** (.08)	.71
I take a personal interest in others.	.86*** (.08)	.69

Note. Ustd., Unstandardized estimate; ( ), Standard Error; Std., Standardized Estimate.

[a]. Not tested for statistical significance (i.e., constrained parameter).

***. $p < .001$

Table 7.Unstandardized Loadings (Standard Errors) and Standardized Loadings for 1-Factor Confirmatory Model of Creativity (N = 253).

Item	Ustd.	Std.
I try out new ideas and approaches to problems.	1.06*** (.07)	.88
I demonstrate originality in my work.	1.00*** (--)[a]	.83
I identify opportunities for new products or processes.	1.03*** (.07)	.83
I generate novel but operable work-related ideas.	.04*** (.07)	.80

Note. Ustd., Unstandardized estimate; ( ), Standard Error; Std., Standardized Estimate.

[a]. Not tested for statistical significance (i.e., constrained parameter).

***. $p < .001$.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics for Latent Constructs in the Inclusive Leadership Model

				Hypothetical		Actual	
	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum
Servant Leadership							
Humility	253	3.21	.99	1	5	1	5
Accountability	253	4.19	.76	1	5	1	5
Empowerment	253	3.54	1.00	1	5	1	5
Courage	253	3.18	1.00	1	5	1	5
Stewardship	253	3.54	1.01	1	5	1	5
Inclusion							
Uniqueness	246	3.78	.73	1	5	1.75	5
Belongingness	246	3.69	.92	1	5	1	5
Creativity	253	3.59	.77	1	5	1	5
Team Citizenship	253	4.01	.70	1	5	1.80	5

Table 9.Zero-Order Correlations of All Measurement Model Indicators

	1	2	3	4
Servant leadership				
Humility				
1. My manager learns from criticism.				
2. My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.	.660**			
3. My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.	.592**	.635**		
4. If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.	.669**	.703**	.685**	
Accountability				
5. My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.	.244**	.274**	.230**	.239**
6. I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.	.220**	.312**	.242**	.274**
7. My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.	.254**	.329**	.282**	.289**
Empowerment				
8. My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.	.546**	.554**	.524**	.540**
9. My manager encourages me to use my talents.	.576**	.579**	.580**	.609**
10. My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.	.546**	.574**	.616**	.640**
Courage				
11. My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.	.451**	.393**	.452**	.441**
12. My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.	.487**	.474**	.518**	.536**
Stewardship				
13. My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.	.545**	.540**	.539**	.552**
14. My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work.	.487**	.528**	.569**	.564**

	1	2	3	4
Inclusion				
Uniqueness				
15. I am comfortable with fully contributing to my work team.	.333**	.372**	.358**	.372**
16. My individual talents are valued in my work team.	.297**	.368**	.380**	.389**
17. I feel my work team respects my belief systems.	.267**	.318**	.321**	.331**
18. My colleagues on my work team are interested in learning about my unique perspectives.	.320**	.331**	.359**	.375**
Belongingness				
19. I feel very much a part of my work team.	.307**	.355**	.370**	.379**
20. My work team makes me believe that I am included in it.	.266**	.303**	.321**	.351**
21. I feel I am an 'insider' in my work team.	.287**	.289**	.302**	.324**
Creativity				
22. I demonstrate originality in my work.	.290**	.309**	.335**	.334**
23. I try out new ideas and approaches to problems.	.309**	.350**	.361**	.378**
24. I identify opportunities for new products or processes.	.317**	.359**	.385**	.374**
25. I generate novel but operable work-related ideas.	.297**	.332**	.363**	.344**
Team Citizenship				
26. I help others who have been absent.	.163**	.215**	.213**	.227**
27. I take a personal interest in others.	.192**	.238**	.253**	.271**
28. I help others who have heavy workloads.	.211**	.255**	.259**	.263**
29. I go out of my way to help new employees.	.194**	.199**	.198**	.208**
30. I pass along work-related information to other team members/colleagues.	.161**	.221**	.147**	.202**

	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
6	.544**								
7	.558**	.609**							
8	.338**	.318**	.344**						
9	.367**	.369**	.371**	.662**					
10	.254**	.297**	.321**	.602**	.665**				
11	.213**	.204**	.203**	.423**	.496**	.478**			
12	.276**	.287**	.302**	.474**	.537**	.565**	.669**		
13	.350**	.329**	.373**	.567**	.649**	.577**	.445**	.483**	
14	.266**	.300**	.347**	.515**	.534**	.588**	.391**	.489**	.579**
15	.303**	.354**	.339**	.395**	.430**	.393**	.276**	.328**	.403**
16	.281**	.314**	.310**	.436**	.479**	.445**	.297**	.377**	.379**
17	.247**	.277**	.313**	.375**	.353**	.354**	.204**	.317**	.300**
18	.208**	.270**	.260**	.372**	.392**	.421**	.292**	.365**	.344**

	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
19	.230**	.284**	.273**	.413**	.415**	.417**	.240**	.340**	.381**
20	.280**	.302**	.294**	.375**	.373**	.367**	.225**	.327**	.344**
21	.186**	.215**	.195**	.335**	.347**	.385**	.253**	.294**	.268**
22	.275**	.278**	.282**	.309**	.366**	.347**	.304**	.332**	.354**
23	.284**	.263**	.272**	.351**	.411**	.419**	.336**	.378**	.354**
24	.255**	.253**	.257**	.324**	.403**	.416**	.339**	.384**	.355**
25	.259**	.253**	.255**	.310**	.405**	.416**	.328**	.364**	.340**
26	.232**	.267**	.232**	.244**	.214**	.274**	.150**	.225**	.212**
27	.236**	.245**	.248**	.249**	.251**	.290**	.199**	.267**	.241**
28	.246**	.260**	.268**	.295**	.306**	.316**	.206**	.252**	.277**
29	.293**	.321**	.299**	.252**	.242**	.228**	.154**	.230**	.241**
30	.307**	.339**	.326**	.258**	.221**	.222**	.098**	.166**	.196**

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
15	.362**									
16	.349**	.594**								
17	.309**	.535**	.594**							
18	.360**	.539**	.598**	.543**						
19	.350**	.650**	.655**	.561**	.566**					
20	.322**	.604**	.651**	.577**	.586**	.704**				
21	.318**	.476**	.512**	.471**	.482**	.600**	.559**			
22	.356**	.400**	.431**	.355**	.443**	.373**	.352**	.361**		
23	.384**	.412**	.466**	.364**	.463**	.390**	.372**	.390**	.682**	
24	.378**	.376**	.444**	.334**	.453**	.369**	.320**	.332**	.673**	.697**
25	.353**	.362**	.423**	.339**	.441**	.349**	.320**	.336**	.661**	.674**
26	.261**	.369**	.356**	.323**	.322**	.341**	.317**	.276**	.370**	.389**
27	.270**	.388**	.393**	.360**	.359**	.363**	.369**	.313**	.363**	.350**
28	.296**	.407**	.407**	.358**	.368**	.386**	.371**	.317**	.438**	.437**
29	.235**	.393**	.366**	.350**	.306**	.375**	.363**	.293**	.380**	.371**
30	.233**	.415**	.367**	.347**	.297**	.388**	.369**	.315**	.333**	.367**

	24	25	26	27	28	29
25	.694**					
26	.349**	.335**				
27	.361**	.368**	.494**			
28	.402**	.418**	.597**	.496**		
29	.328**	.350**	.537**	.475**	.565**	
30	.272**	.309**	.491**	.449**	.489**	.542**

**p< .01

Table 10. Means and Standard Deviations of All Measurement Model Indicators

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Servant leadership			
Humility			
1. My manager learns from criticism.	3.24	1.09	1512
2. My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.	3.41	1.06	1512
3. My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.	3.28	1.13	1512
4. If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.	3.31	1.07	1512
Accountability			
5. My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.	4.09	.93	1512
6. I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.	3.99	.95	1512
7. My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.	3.91	.93	1512
Empowerment			
8. My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.	3.70	1.02	1512
9. My manager encourages me to use my talents.	3.69	1.11	1512
10. My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.	3.42	1.12	1512
Courage			
11. My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.	3.09	1.14	1512
12. My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.	3.38	1.07	1512
Stewardship			
13. My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.	3.58	1.07	1512
14. My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work.	3.49	1.10	1512

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Inclusion			
Uniqueness			
15. I am comfortable with fully contributing to my work team.	4.02	.90	1491
16. My individual talents are valued in my work team.	3.84	.93	1491
17. I feel my work team respects my belief systems.	3.80	.94	1491
18. My colleagues on my work team are interested in learning about my unique perspectives.	3.57	.95	1491
19. I feel very much a part of my work team.	3.95	.96	1491
20. My work team makes me believe that I am included in it.	3.93	.94	1491
21. I feel I am an 'insider' in my work team.	3.74	1.06	1491
Creativity			
22. I demonstrate originality in my work.	3.75	.89	1512
23. I try out new ideas and approaches to problems.	3.79	.88	1512
24. I identify opportunities for new products or processes.	3.68	.95	1512
25. I generate novel but operable work-related ideas.	3.61	.91	1512
Team Citizenship			
26. I help others who have been absent.	3.85	.89	1512
27. I take a personal interest in others.	3.75	.92	1512
28. I help others who have heavy workloads.	3.85	.87	1512
29. I go out of my way to help new employees.	4.03	.87	1512
30. I pass along work-related information to other team members/colleagues.	4.09	.84	1512

Table 11.Zero-Order Correlations of Full Scales and Shortened 2-Item Scales in Inclusive Leadership Model.

	SL-Short	Unique-Short	Belonging-Short	Creativity-Short	TC-Short
Servant Leadership					
Humility	.88**				
Accountability	.39**				
Empowerment	.88**				
Courage	.61**				
Stewardship	.71**				
Inclusion					
Uniqueness		.92**			
Belongingness			.97**		
Creativity				.95**	
Team Citizenship					.91**

p< .01

Table 12. Summary of Analyses for all 2 (Participant Gender) x 2 (Manager Gender) Iterations.

Main Effect - Participant Gender	
Humility	$F(1, 252) = .00, p = .99$
Accountability	$F(1, 252) = .04, p = .84$
Empowerment	$F(1, 252) = .00, p = .99$
Courage	$F(1, 252) = 1.80, p = .18$
Stewardship	$F(1, 252) = 2.45, p = .12$
Main Effect - Manager Gender	
Humility	$F(1, 252) = 1.49, p = .22$
Accountability	$F(1, 252) = .18, p = .67$
Empowerment	$F(1, 252) = .12, p = .73$
Courage	$F(1, 252) = 1.35, p = .25$
Stewardship	$F(1, 252) = .01, p = .93$
Interaction - Participant x Manager	
Humility	$F(1, 252) = 2.11, p = .15$
Accountability	$F(1, 252) = .35, p = .56$
Empowerment	$F(1, 252) = .66, p = .42$
Courage	$F(1, 252) = .27, p = .60$
Stewardship	$F(1, 252) = .01, p = .93$

Table 13.Factor Loadings for a Measurement Model of Inclusive Leadership.

Indicator	Ustd.	SE	Std.
Servant Leadership			
S1	1.00[a]	--	.86
S2	.83	.09	.72
Inclusion			
Uniqueness	1.00[a]	--	.47
U1	1.00[a]	--	.74
U2	1.03	.13	.75
Belongingness	1.00[a]	--	.57
B1	1.00[a]	--	.84
B2	.94	.11	.73
Team Citizenship			
T1	1.00[a]	--	.74
T2	1.07	.12	.83
Creativity			
C1	1.00[a]	--	.83
C2	.99	.10	.85

Note. Ustd., unstandardized; SE, standard error; Std., standardized.

[a]. Not tested for statistical significance. For all other unstandardized estimates, $p < .001$.

Table 14.Residuals for a Measurement Model of Inclusive Leadership.

Indicator	Ustd.	SE	Std.
Servant Leadership			
S1	.32	.08	.26
S2	.62	.09	.49
Inclusion			
Uniqueness			
U1	.41	.08	.45
U2	.42	.06	.44
Belongingness			
B1	.31	.07	.29
B2	.58	.12	.46
Team Citizenship			
T1	.39	.07	.45
T2	.25	.07	.31
Creativity			
C1	.24	.06	.31
C2	.21	.05	.28

*N*ote. Ustd., Unstandardized estimate; SE, Standard error; Std., Standardized estimate;

All unstandardized estimates, $p < .001$.

Table 15.Factor Variances and Covariances for a Measurement Model of Inclusive Leadership.

Parameter	Ustd.	SE	Std.
Servant Leadership (SL)	.93	.13	1.00
Inclusion			
Uniqueness	.50	.10	1.00
Belongingness	.76	.12	1.00
Team Citizenship (TC)	.48	.09	1.00
Creativity	.53	.09	1.00
Unique↔Belonging	.52	.08	.85
Unique↔SL	.42	.07	.61
Belonging↔SL	.56	.09	.67
Creativity↔SL	.36	.07	.51
Creativity↔Unique	.28	.05	.54
Creativity↔Belong	.23	.06	.36
TC↔SL	.30	.07	.46
TC↔Unique	.25	.06	.52
TC↔Belong	.27	.08	.45
TC↔Creativity	.30	.06	.59

Note. Ustd., Unstandardized estimate; SE, Standard error; Std., Standardized estimate; All unstandardized estimates, $p < .001$.

Table 16.Model Fit Statistics for Two-Step Testing of a Structural Regression Model of Inclusive Leadership.

Model	χ^2	*p*	*df*	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR	AIC	BIC
1. Inclusive Leadership				.00			6092	6234.
Measurement Model	23.16	.57	25	(.00-.05)	1.00	.03	.94	28
2. Inclusive Leadership				.04			6107	6234.
Structural Model	38.90	.09	29	(.00-.07)	.98	.05	.45	65
3. Multiple-Groups				.04			6115	6380.
Measurement Model	66.80	.13	55	(.00-.07)	.98	.06	.97	97
4. Multiple-Groups				.06			6128	6365.
Structural Model	90.45	.01	63	(.03-.08)	.96	.07	.65	39

Note. N = 253; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error Approximation; CI, confidence interval; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; SRMR, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; AIC, Akaike Information Criteria; BIC, Bayesian Information Criteria.

Table 17.Total and Indirect Effects in the Inclusive Leadership Model.

	Ustd.	S.E.	Std.
Servant Leadership→Inclusion			
Total	1.10***	.15	.70
SL→Uniq→Inc	.48***	.08	.30
SL→Belong→Inc	.62***	.08	.40
Uniqueness→Creativity			
Total	.24***	.06	.24
Belongingness→Creativity			
Total	.24***	.06	.28
Uniqueness→Citizenship			
Total	.24***	.05	.25
Belongingness→Citizenship			
Total	.24***	.05	.29
Servant Leadership→Creativity			
Total	.26***	.07	.35
SL→Uniq→Inc→Crt	.11***	.03	.15
SL→Belong→Inc→Crt	.15***	.04	.20
Servant Leadership→Citizenship			
Total	.26***	.07	.36
SL→Uniq→Inc→Citizen	.11***	.03	.16
SL→Belong→Inc→Citizen	.15***	.04	.21

Note. Ustd., Unstandardized Estimate; SE, Standard Error; Std, Standardized Estimate, SL, Servant Leadership; Uniq, Uniqueness; Inc, Inclusion; Belong, Belongingness.

***$p < .001$.

Table 18. Descriptive Statistics of Latent Constructs by Gender

				Hypothetical		Actual	
	N	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
Male							
Servant Leadership							
Humility	127	3.24	.98	1	5	1	5
Accountability	127	4.20	.75	1	5	1	5
Empowerment	127	3.55	.90	1	5	1	5
Courage	127	3.11	.98	1	5	1	5
Stewardship	127	3.44	.97	1	5	1	5
Inclusion							
Uniqueness	124	3.74	.71	1	5	1.75	5
Belongingness	124	3.67	.84	1	5	1.67	5
Creativity	127	3.64	.73	1	5	1	5
Team Citizenship	127	3.92	.69	1	5	2	5
Female							
Servant Leadership							
Humility	126	3.18	1.01	1	5	1	5
Accountability	126	4.19	.77	1	5	2	5
Empowerment	126	3.53	1.09	1	5	1	5
Courage	126	3.25	1.02	1	5	1	5
Stewardship	126	3.64	1.03	1	5	1	5
Inclusion							

Uniqueness	122	3.83	.76	1	5	1.75	5
Belongingness	122	3.70	.99	1	5	1	5
Creativity	126	3.53	.81	1	5	1	5
Team Citizenship	126	4.10	.70	1	5	1.80	5

Table 19. Gender Invariance Tests for Latent Constructs in the Inclusive Leadership Model.

Model	χ^2_M	p_M	df_M	x^2_D	df_D	p_D	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR
Servant Leadership									
1st Order									
Configural	163.05	.05	134				.04 (.01-.06)	.99	.04
Metric	181.96	.02	143	18.91	9	.03	.05 (.02-.07)	.98	.06
Scalar	196.58	.02	157	14.62	14	.40	.05 (.02-.06)	.98	.06
2nd Order									
Configural	205.33	.01	162				.05 (.02-.06)	.98	.06
Metric	208.26	.01	165	2.93	3	.40	.05 (.02-.06)	.98	.06
Scalar	216.49	.00	167	8.23	2	.02	.05 (.03-.07)	.98	.06
Uniqueness									
Configural	6.73	.15	4				.07 (.00-.17)	.99	.02
Metric	7.27	.40	7	.54	3	.91	.02 (.00-.11)	1.00	.04
Scalar	7.96	.63	10	.69	3	.88	.00 (.00-.08)	1.00	.04
Belongingness									
Configural	.00	.00	0				.00	1.00	.00
Metric	1.18	.56	2	1.18	2	.56	.00 (.00-.15)	1.00	.03
Scalar	1.40	.84	4	.23	2	.89	.00 (.00-.08)	1.00	.03
Inclusion									
Configural	44.15	.01	26				.08 (.03-.11)	0.98	0.03

Metric	47.55	.09	36	3.40	10	.97	.05 (.00-.09)	.99	.05
Scalar	49.14	.11	38	1.59	2	.45	.05 (.00-.08)	.99	.05
Creativity									
Configural	1.50	.83	4				.00 (.00-.08)	1.00	.01
Metric	1.58	.98	7	.08	3	.99	.00 (.00-.00)	1.00	.01
Scalar	7.75	.65	10	6.16	3	.10	.00 (.00-.08)	1.00	.02
Team Citizenship									
Configural	10.68	.38	10				.02 (.00-.10)	.99	.02
Metric	16.66	.27	14	5.98	4	.20	.04 (.00-.10)	.99	.08
Scalar	17.83	.47	18	1.17	4	.88	.00 (.00-.08)	1.00	.08

Note. χ^2_M, Model chi-square goodness of fit; p_M, Model p-value; df_M, Model degrees of freedom; x^2_D, Chi-square difference; df_D, Degrees of freedom difference, p_D, P-value of difference test; RMSEA, Root mean square error of approximation; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; SRMR, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

Table 20. Zero-Order Correlations of Short-Scale Constructs in the Inclusive Leadership Model by Gender.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Servant Leadership	--	.44***	.58***	.29**	.21*
2. Uniqueness	.46***	--	.61***	.36***	.35***
3. Belongingness	.46***	.64***	--	.29**	.35***
4. Creativity	.50***	.45***	.28**	--	.36***
5. Team Citizenship	.48***	.38**	.29**	.60***	--

Note. Correlations for men appear above the diagonal and correlations for women are below the diagonal; *p< .05; **p< .01; ***p < .001.

Table 21.Total and Indirect Effects in the Inclusive Leadership Model by Gender.

	Men			Women		
	Ustd.	S.E.	Std.	Ustd.	S.E.	Std.
Servant Leadership→Inclusion						
Total	1.07***	.19	.70	1.19***	.21	.71
SL→Uniq→Inc	.44***	.11	.29	.53***	.12	.31
SL→Belong→Inc	.63***	.11	.41	.66***	.12	.40
Uniqueness→Creativity						
Total	.22**	.09	.22	.26***	.07	.25
Belongingness→Creativity						
Total	.22**	.09	.24	.26***	.07	.32
Uniqueness→Citizenship						
Total	.23**	.08	.23	.24***	.06	.27
Belongingness→Citizenship						
Total	.23**	.08	.25	.24***	.06	.33
Servant Leadership→Creativity						
Total	.23**	.09	.32	.31**	.11	.39
SL→Uniq→Inc→Crt	.10**	.04	.13	.14**	.05	.17
SL→Belong→Inc→Crt	.14**	.05	.19	.17**	.06	.22
Servant Leadership→Citizenship						
Total	.25**	.08	.32	.28**	.10	.41
SL→Uniq→Inc→Citizen	.10**	.04	.13	.13**	.05	.18
SL→Belong→Inc→Citizen	.15**	.05	.19	.16**	.06	.23

Note. Ustd., Unstandardized Estimate; SE, Standard Error; Std, Standardized Estimate, SL, Servant Leadership; Uniq, Uniqueness; Inc, Inclusion; Belong, Belongingness; Crt, Creativity; Citizen, Team Citizenship.

$^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$.

Figures

	Low Belongingness	High Belongingness
High Value in Uniqueness	Differentiation Individual is not treated as an organizational insider in the workgroup but their unique characteristics are seen as valuable and required for group/ organization success.	Inclusion Individual is treated as an insider and also allowed/ encouraged to retain uniqueness within the work group.
Low Value in Uniqueness	Exclusion Individual is not treated as an organizational insider with unique value in the work group but there are other employees or groups who are insiders.	Assimilation Individual is treated as an insider in the workgroup when they conform to organizational/ dominant culture norms and downplay uniqueness.

Figure 1. Reprinted from Shore et al. (2011): Hypothesized inclusion framework.

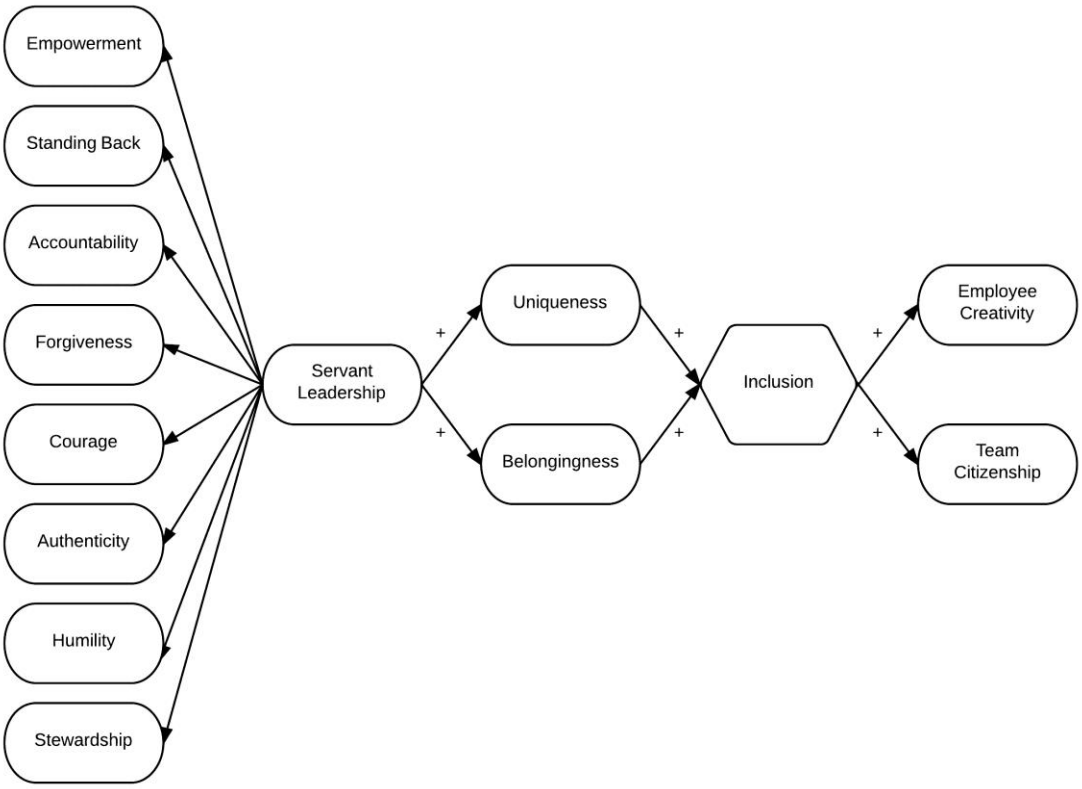

Figure 2. Anticipated Paths of the Structural Equation Model of Inclusive Leadership.

Note. Exogenous variables are not included in this depiction of the model.

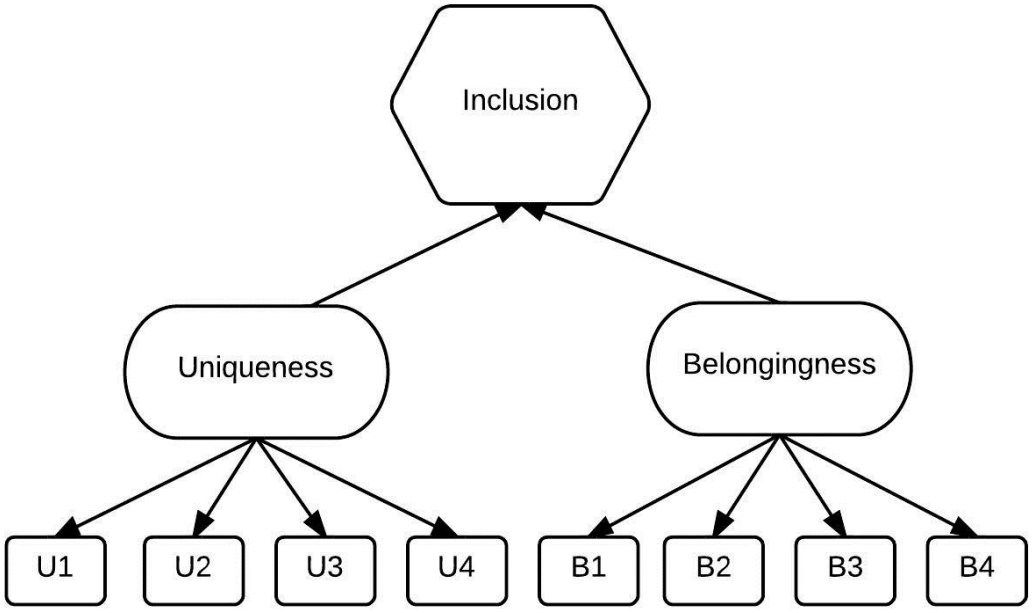

Figure 3. Inclusion as a Composite.

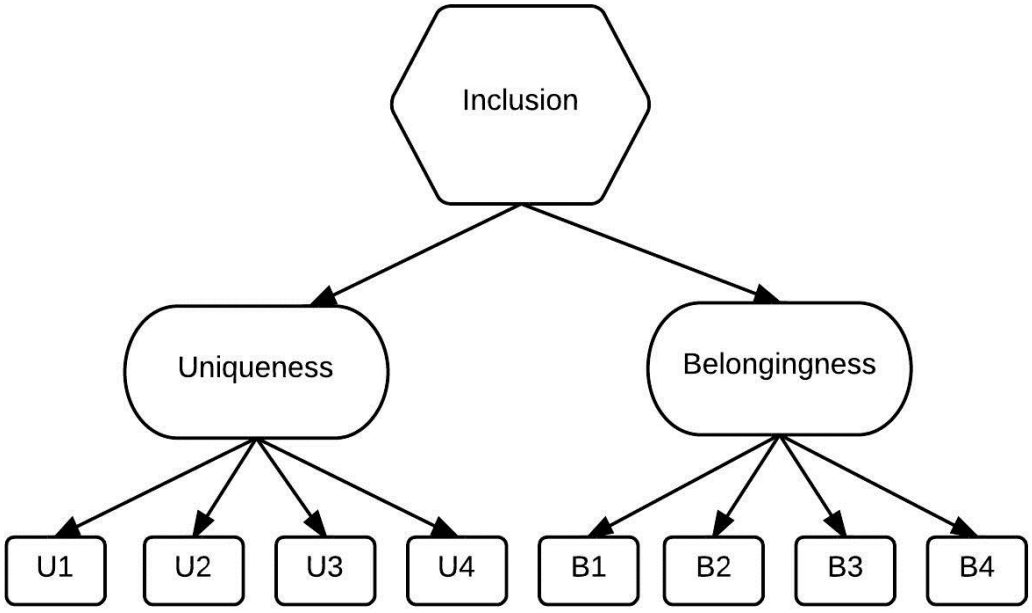

Figure 4. Inclusion as a Reflexive Latent Construct.

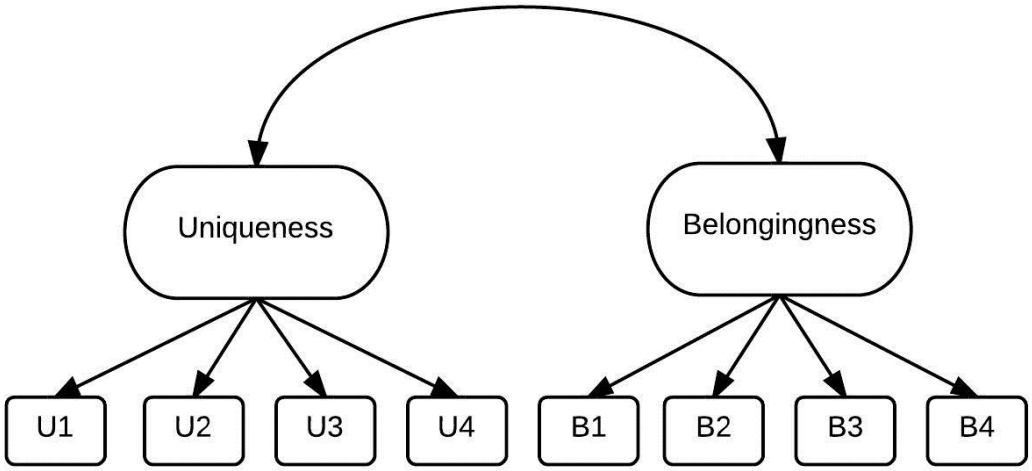

Figure 5. Inclusion as Correlated Factors.

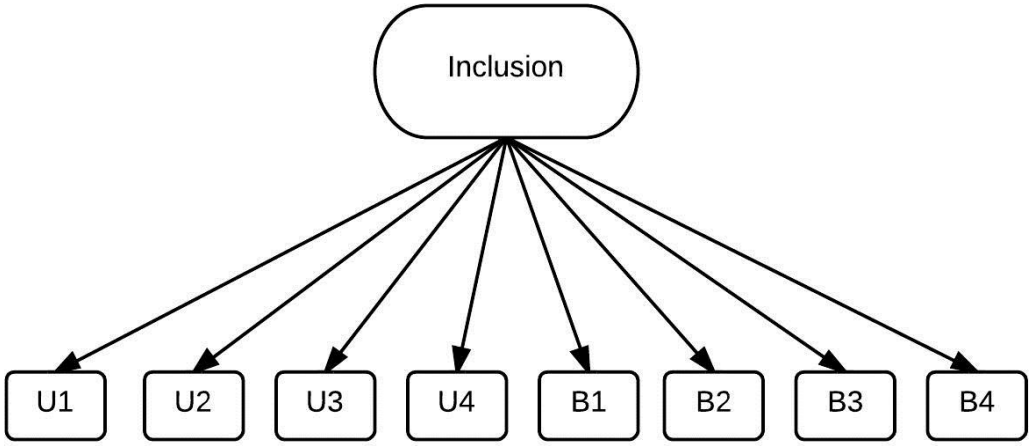

Figure 6. Inclusion as a Single Factor.

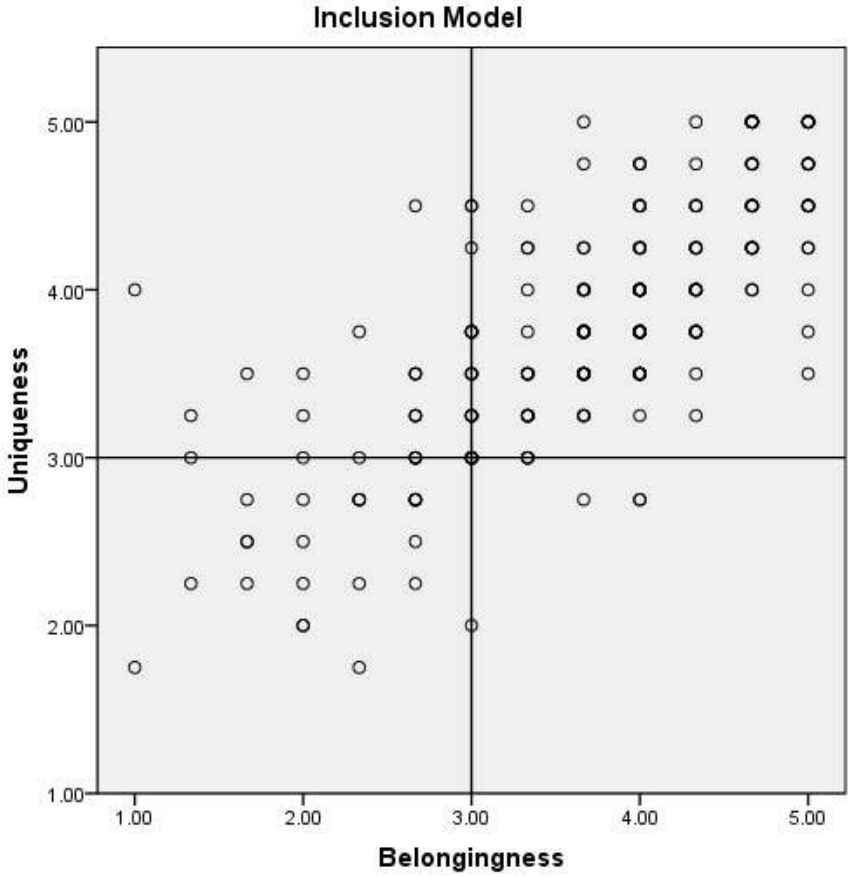

Figure 7. Scatterplot of Inclusion Model. Quadrant markings for illustrative purposes only.

Figure 8. Scatterplot of Inclusion Model for Male Participants. Quadrant markings for illustrative purposes only.

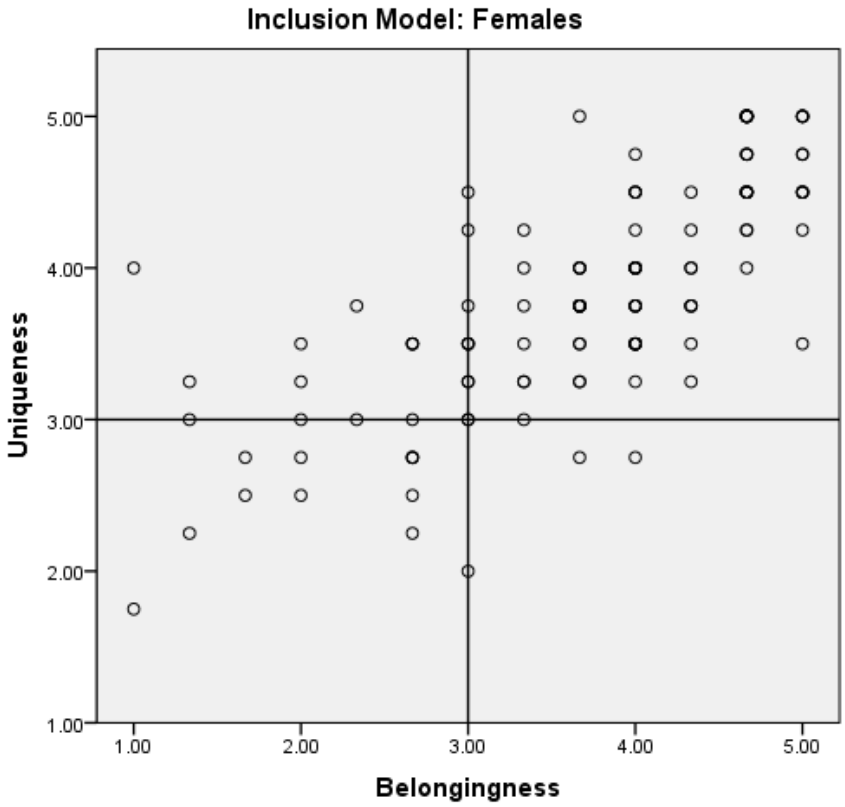

Figure 9. Scatterplot of Inclusion Model for Female Participants. Quadrant markings for illustrative purposes only.

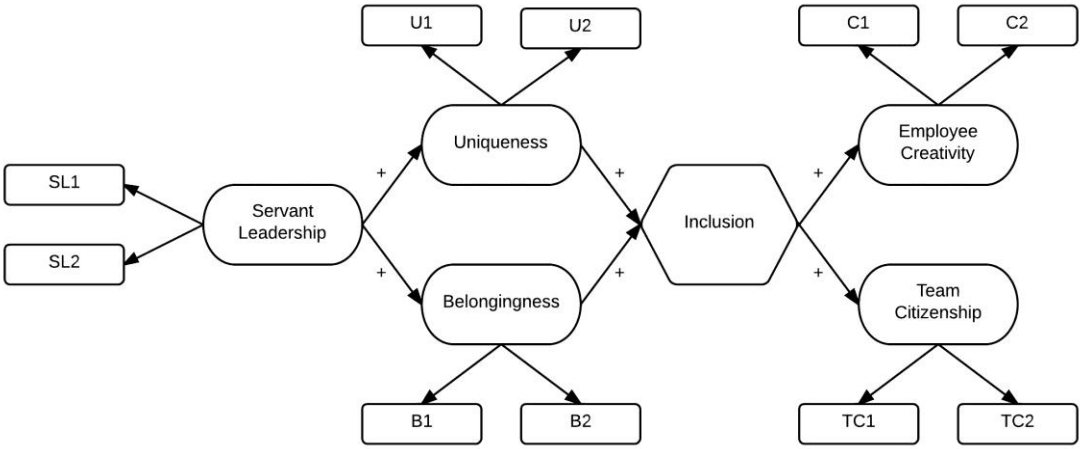

Figure 10. Revised Inclusive Leadership Model

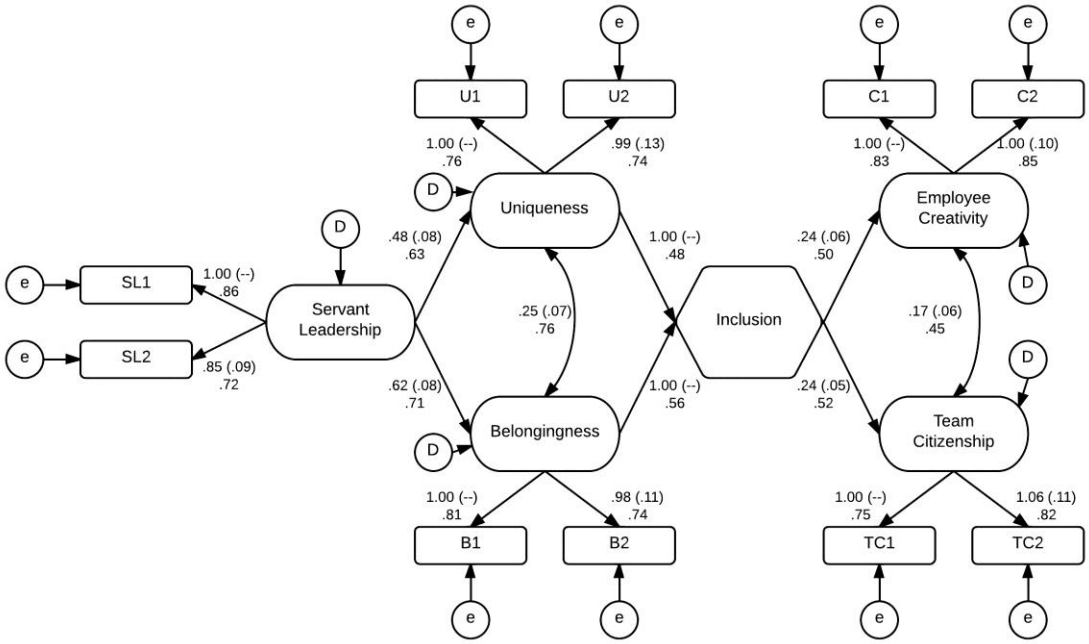

Figure 11. Results of the Modified Inclusive Leadership Model. Estimates are reported as unstandardized (standard error) standardized. All unstandardized estimates are significant at $p < .001$.

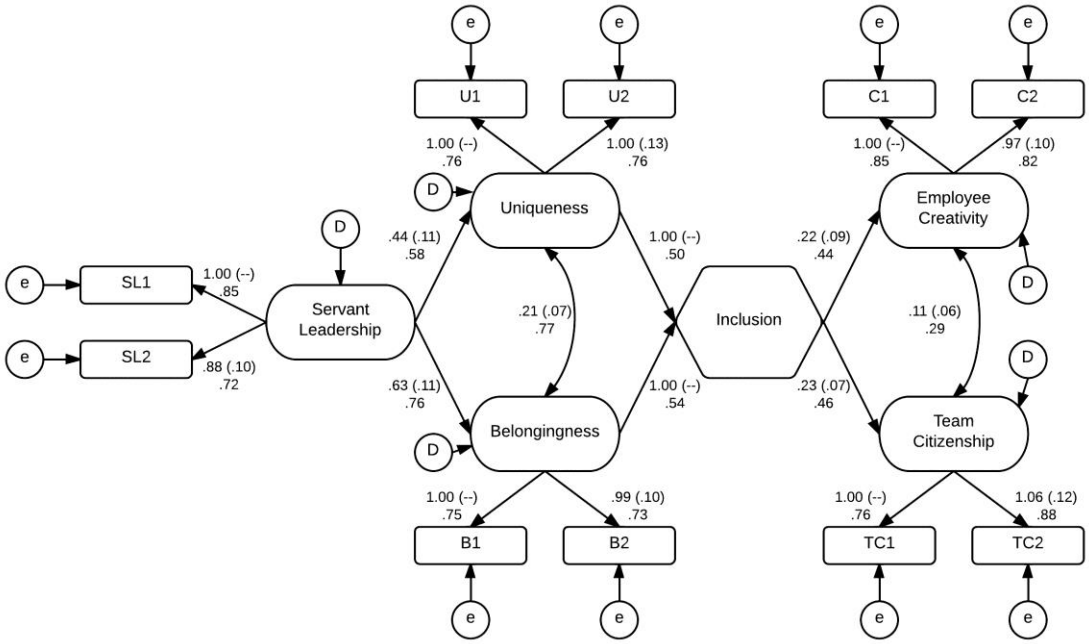

Figure 12. Results of the Multiple-Groups Inclusive Leadership Model for Men. Estimates are reported as unstandardized (standard error) standardized. All unstandardized estimate are significant at $p < .01$.

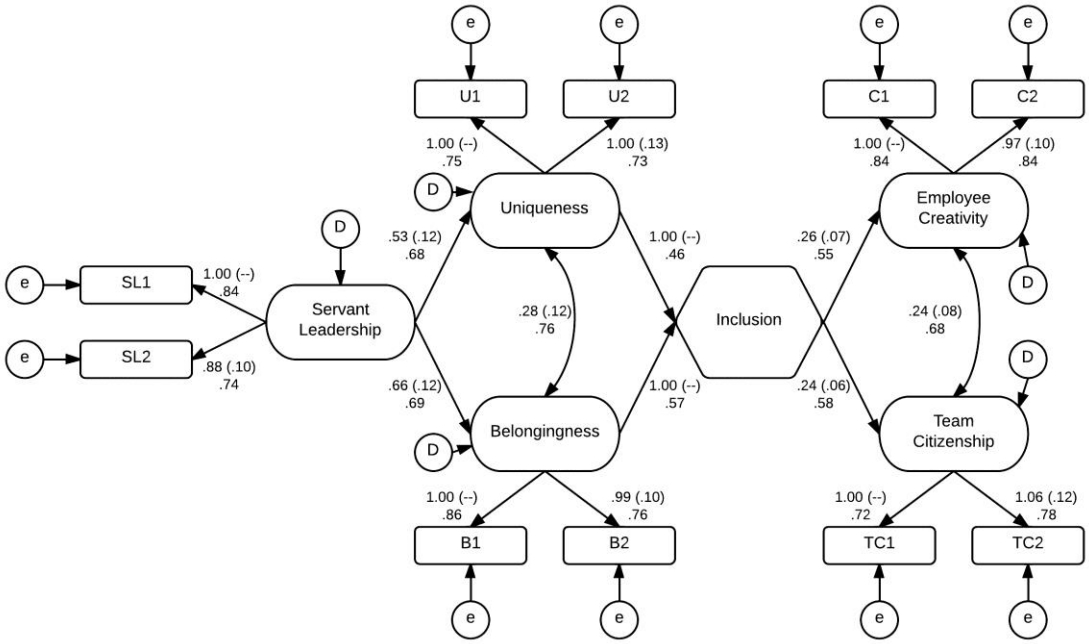

Figure 13. Results of the Multiple-Groups Inclusive Leadership Model for Women. Estimates are reported as unstandardized (standard error) standardized. All unstandardized estimates are significant at $p < .001$.

Appendices

Appendix A. Servant Leadership Scale

(van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)

For the next several questions, please think of your manager at work. By "manager," we mean the person to whom you report in your current job.

Please choose the answer that best describes your manager.

1 Never

2 Rarely

3 Sometimes

4 Often

5 Always

1. My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.
2. My manager encourages me to use my talents.
3. My manager helps me to further develop myself.
4. My manager encourages his/her staff to come up with new ideas.
5. My manager keeps himself/herself in the background and gives credit to others.
6. My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.
7. My manager keeps criticizing people for the mistakes they have made in their work.
8. My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.

9. My manager is open about his/her limitations and weaknesses.
10. My manager learns from criticism.
11. My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.
12. My manager gives me the authority to make decisions which make work easier for me.
13. My manager is not chasing recognition or rewards for the things he/she does for others.
14. I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.
15. My manager maintains a hard attitude towards people who have offended him/her at work.
16. My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.
17. My manager is often touched by the things he/she sees happening around him/her.
18. My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.
19. My manager has a long-term vision.
20. My manager enables me to solve problems myself instead of just telling me what to do.
21. My manager appears to enjoy his/her colleagues' success more than his/her own.
22. My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.
23. My manager finds it difficult to forget things that went wrong in the past.
24. My manager is prepared to express his/her feelings even if this might have undesirable consequences.
25. My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.

26. My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work.

27. My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.

28. My manager shows his/her true feelings to his/her staff.

29. My manager learns from the different views and opinions of others.

30. If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.

Appendix B. Uniqueness Scale

(Developed for this study)

Please think of the people on your work team who report to the same manager that you do.

To what extent do each of the following statements describe your relationship with people on your work team?

1 Never

2 Rarely

3 Sometimes

4 Often

5 Always

9 N/A – No others on work team

1. I am comfortable with fully contributing to my work team.
2. My individual talents are valued in my work team.
3. My unique perspective is appreciated in my work team.
4. I feel my work team respects my belief systems.
5. I'm not encouraged to voice my differences of opinion.
6. My colleagues on my work team are interested in learning about my unique perspectives.
7. I choose to keep my beliefs private on my work team.
8. I feel individuality is devalued on my work team.

Appendix C. Perceived Insider Status Scale

(Stamper & Masterson, 2002)

Please think of the people on your work team who report to the same manager that you do.

To what extent do each of the following statements describe your relationship with people on your work team?

1 Never

2 Rarely

3 Sometimes

4 Often

5 Always

9 N/A – No others on work team

1. I feel very much a part of my work team.
2. My work team makes me believe that I am included in it.
3. I feel like I am an 'outsider' in this work team.
4. I don't feel included in this work team.
5. I feel I am an 'insider' in my work team.
6. My work team makes me frequently feel 'left-out.'

Appendix D. Team Citizenship Behaviors

(Janssen & Huang, 2008)

Please indicate the extent to which the following statements best describe you, and the way you relate to people in your work team or other colleagues.

1 Never

2 Rarely

3 Sometimes

4 Often

5 Always

1. I help others who have been absent.
2. I take a personal interest in others.
3. I help others who have heavy workloads.
4. I go out of my way to help new employees.
5. I take time to listen to other team members'/colleagues' problems and worries.
6. I pass along work-related information to other team members/colleagues.

Appendix E. Creativity Scale

(Tierney et al., 1999)

To what extent do each of the following statements describe how you try out new ways to perform your job?

1 Never

2 Rarely

3 Sometimes

4 Often

5 Always

1. I demonstrate originality in my work.
2. I try out new ideas and approaches to problems.
3. I identify opportunities for new products or processes.
4. I generate novel but operable work-related ideas.

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