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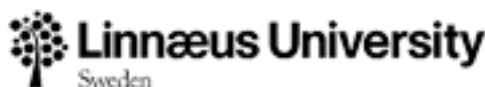
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# Diversity management for all? An empirical analysis of diversity management outcomes across groups

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## Abstract

**Purpose** – The purpose of this paper is to examine if and how diversity management outcomes differ across non-native and native Dutch groups within public sector organizations. The effects of diversity management on the extent employees feel their organizational environment is inclusive and on their attitudes and behaviour, are expected to be dependent on how diversity management is perceived by non-native and native Dutch employees in the organization. Drawing on social exchange theory, the authors expect that employees who positively value diversity management practices will reciprocate through showing attitudes and behaviours that are valued by the organization. Since social exchange refers to a social relationship between the employee and the organization that goes beyond the formal contract alone, the authors analyse affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as employee outcomes.

**Design/methodology/approach** – The authors analyse data from a quantitative survey of a sample of Dutch central government employees and use structural equation modelling (SEM) to analyse the consequences of diversity management across non-native and native Dutch employee groups.

**Findings** – Results show that diversity management is associated with higher levels of inclusion which in turn boosts affective commitment and OCB of both non-native and native Dutch employees.

**Practical implications** – The findings show that higher levels of diversity management is associated with an increased inclusive environment, which in turn boosts employees' affective commitment and OCB. This effect is equal for social-demographic diverse groups. Public managers should therefore implement diversity management that focus on creating an environment that is inclusive for all employees. The positive employee attitudes and behaviour resulting from this can contribute to achieving organizational goals.

**Originality/value** – This paper combines theory on diversity management outcomes and social exchange to empirically explore and explain group differences by testing these linkages using SEM.

**Keywords** Quantitative research, Affective commitment, Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), Ethnicity, Diversity management, Inclusive culture, Structural equation modelling (SEM), Social exchange

**Paper type** Research paper

## Introduction

Public organizations have a long history of implementing diversity policies. At first, these diversity programmes focused on affirmative action and equal employment opportunities (AA/EEO) to enhance minority groups' representation in the public workforce. By conducting diversity policies, with the focus on representativity and fairness, public organizations emphasized their exemplary role and improved their legitimacy (Groeneveld and Van de Walle, 2010; Selden and Selden, 2001). More recently, however, traditional AA/EEO policies which focus on recruitment and selection processes are increasingly replaced by policies with a focus on the business case of diversity, also in public organizations (Groeneveld and Van de Walle, 2010;

Kirton and Greene, 2010; Wise and Tschirhart, 2000). Diversity management is used to attract, retain and effectively manage a diverse workforce in order to contribute to the organization's performance and, as such, can be considered an aspect of strategic human resource management (HRM) (Ashikali and Groeneveld, 2015; Benschop, 2001; Groeneveld and Van de Walle, 2010). In this view, diversity management is about changing organizational practices and climates for that is the only way to realize the potential of a diverse workforce (Ely and Thomas, 2001; Roosevelt Thomas, 1990).

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

Previous research on HRM outcomes has been based on social exchange theory which argues that the organization's and management's investments in HR practices and the organizational environment will elicit positive work attitudes and behaviour (Gould-Williams, 2007; Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005; McClean and Collins, 2011; Nishii and Mayer, 2009; Van de Voorde *et al.*, 2012). The argument is based on the underlying premises of social exchange "that refers to those voluntary actions of actors that are motivated by the returns they are expected to elicit from others" (Blau, 1964, p. 91). The need to reciprocate in such a way to return those benefits is the starting mechanism for social interaction and group structure (Blau, 1964). Following this line of reasoning it is argued that employees who positively value HRM practices will reciprocate through showing attitudes and behaviours that are valued by the organization (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1990; Gould-Williams, 2007; Van de Voorde *et al.*, 2012). These employee reactions to HR practices are affected by their perceptions of the practices implemented (Paauwe *et al.*, 2013; Wright and Nishii, 2007). It can thus be argued that when employees perceive HR practices to be beneficial for them, they will reciprocate in positive attitudes and behaviour that will contribute to achieving organizational goals. In a similar vein it can be argued that diversity management outcomes depend on the effect of employees' perceptions of diversity management on their attitudes and behaviour.

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

The purpose of this paper is to examine if and how the relationships between diversity management, inclusive organizational culture and employees' attitudes and behaviours differ across socio-demographic groups in public organizations. The focus

of this paper will lie on cultural diversity and hence on differences between non-native and native Dutch employee groups[1]. Data are derived from a quantitative survey of a sample of Dutch central government employees. We use structural equation modelling (SEM) to test the above mentioned relationships. The following part of this paper describes the theoretical framework. Next, the data and methods are discussed, followed by the results section and the discussion and conclusion.

## Theoretical framework
### Diversity management, inclusion and employees' attitudes and behaviour
Diversity management concerns organizational and management practices that are assumed to enhance the value of diversity for the organization aimed at all employees (Pitts, 2009; Kirton and Greene, 2010). The concept of diversity management was introduced by Roosevelt Thomas (1990) stating diversity management embraces managing diversity effectively, by changing organizational culture and practices, valuing differences among employees and creating a work environment in which diversity can contribute to organizational goals. This changing of work environment has been linked to the inclusiveness of the organizational culture (Ashikali and Groeneveld, 2015; Celik *et al.*, 2011; Pless and Maak, 2004; Shore *et al.*, 2011). An inclusive culture is an environment where individual employees are treated as an insider, while at the same time they are encouraged to express their "uniqueness" (Shore *et al.*, 2011). By developing an inclusive culture through diversity management the organization shows employees that it appreciates everyone's input. This appreciation goes beyond short-term economic benefit alone; it is a recognition and appreciation of the unique value of each individual employee for the organization as a whole, contributing to a sustainable organization in the long term.

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

*H1a.* Diversity management enhances the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. The effect of diversity management on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture is equal for both non-native Dutch and native Dutch employees.

Social exchange refers to the bond that is established between the employee and the organization (Aryee *et al.*, 2002; Eisenberger *et al.*, 1990). This emotional bond can be expected to become visible in the affective commitment of the employee to the organization and in organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). A climate for diversity

has also been associated with affective commitment and OCB in previous studies (e.g. Gonzalez and DeNisi, 2009; Hicks-Clarke and Iles, 2000; Mamman *et al.*, 2012). Antecedents of affective commitment lie in employees' perceptions of and experiences with the job and work environment characteristics (Meyer *et al.*, 2002). If employees perceive a high quality of social exchange relationship between the organization and themselves, they are more likely to feel affectively committed to the organization (Van Knippenberg and Sleebos, 2006). We restrict ourselves to affective commitment as an attitudinal outcome, because it refers to a sense of belonging to the organization more than normative commitment, which is based on a sense of obligation influenced by familial, cultural and organizational socialization (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Furthermore, continuance commitment, rather than influenced by social exchange, is based on employees' perceptions of economic advantages in one's current job in respect to other employment opportunities (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1990; Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

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

> *H2a.* Diversity management has an indirect positive influence on employees' affective commitment through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. The indirect effect of diversity management on employees' affective commitment through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture is equal for both non-native Dutch and native Dutch employees.

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

OCB comes in different forms, on the one hand behaviour towards individuals and on the other behaviour towards the organization, that diverge in several dimensions, namely, altruism and helping, civic virtue and sportsmanship (Paillé, 2013). First, OCB towards individuals involves helping others. It includes behaviour such as courtesy, cheerleading and peacemaking. Helping others encompasses cooperative and spontaneous behaviour as providing assistance to others or preventing the occurrence of work-related problems and contributing to interpersonal harmony (Organ, 1997; Paillé, 2013). It also fosters cohesiveness among employees, good relationships with co-workers and a sense of belonging to the team which may help the organization to retain employees (Paillé, 2013). Second, civic virtue and sportsmanship indicate a form of OCB towards the organization (Organ, 1997). Civic virtue involves an interest in the

organization expressed in voluntary behaviour of the employee. It concerns active and voluntary participation of individuals in decision making by formulating new ideas, suggesting improvements or protecting the organization. Sportsmanship is a willingness to avoid complaints about unimportant matters and being an example for others (Paillé, 2013; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994). The above reasoning leads to the following hypothesis:

*H3a.* Diversity management has an indirect positive influence on employees' OCB. The indirect effect of diversity management on employees' OCB through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture is equal for both non-native Dutch and native Dutch employees.

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

In the literature several reasons can be found why diversity management would differently affect the attitudes and behaviour of majority and minority groups. A first reason could be because diversity management is historically based on AA and equal employment opportunity policies, in particular in public organizations (Groeneveld and Verbeek, 2012). Therefore, diversity management still could be associated with these traditional policies aimed at increasing fairness and participation of minority groups, and reducing discrimination (Lorbiecki and Jack, 2000). In addition, in practice diversity management may still consist of the implementation of the more traditional AA/EEO policies, and only framed differently as "managing diversity". Previous research found evidence for implementing policy instruments such as target figures within the frame of diversity management in the Dutch public sector (Hofhuis and Van 't Hoog, 2010; De Ruijter and Groeneveld, 2011). As a result, diversity management can be perceived by employees as traditional AA/EEO policies affecting their attitudes and behaviour. If native Dutch employees feel that these kinds of policies particularly favour the position of non-native Dutch, and thus experience an absence of social exchange, they may feel disadvantaged and respond negatively.

Second, traditional diversity policies have been changed to one of "managing" diversity, wherein critics find a critical argument of "who is being managed?". According to them diversity management creates a division between those who manage (e.g. managers) and those who are being managed or need to be managed (e.g. diverse groups or minority groups), which could result in negative attitudes and behaviour against diversity management (Lorbiecki and Jack, 2000). It is argued that diversity management practices rather than diminishing inequality within organizations give rise to inequality due to its focus on differences between employees, resulting in responses of antagonism and resentment by both majority and minority

groups (Bassett-Jones, 2005). In addition, critics of the more traditional AA and equal employment practices discuss a "backlash" effect, due to different approaches to majority and minority groups, which could affect the perceived social exchange of those groups. As a result, non-target groups of diversity practices could feel as the "outsiders" group, resulting in negative attitudes and behaviour against these diversity programmes (Kravitz, 2008).

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

All in all, the competitive views developed above result in rival hypotheses on the existence of non-native and native Dutch employee group differences in the relationships between diversity management, inclusion and employee outcomes. The following rival hypotheses can be formulated (Figure 1):

*H1b.* The positive effect of diversity management on inclusiveness of the organizational culture is stronger for non-native Dutch employees compared to native Dutch employees.

*H2b.* The indirect positive effect of diversity management on employees' affective commitment through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture is stronger for non-native Dutch employees compared to native Dutch employees.

*H3b.* The indirect positive effect of diversity management on employees' OCB through the inclusiveness of the organizational culture is stronger for non-native Dutch employees compared to native Dutch employees.
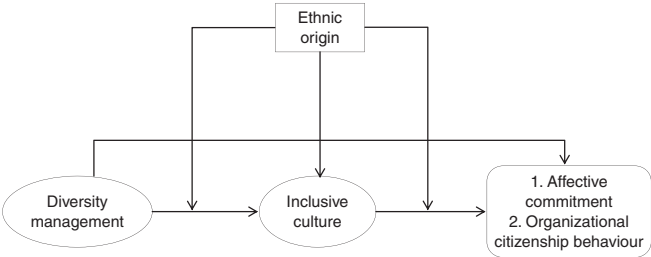


**Figure 1.**
Conceptual model

## Data and method
*Data*
The data used in this research are from an online panel survey among a representative sample of Dutch public sector employees that had been commissioned by the Dutch Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations. This panel consisted of approximately 30,000 Dutch public sector employees who had been invited to join the panel. Members were recruited based on a probability sample from the administrative records of the Dutch public sector pension fund (ABP). The survey was conducted in spring 2013. At that time, 17,503 panel members were available to participate in this research, and an e-mail with an invitation to the online survey was sent to them. There were 4,351 respondents, a response rate of 24.9 per cent. After removing cases where there were missing values, the remaining sample contained 4,331 public sector employees, a response rate of 24.7 per cent.

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

Of these respondents, 33 per cent were female, whereas 43 per cent of central government employees in 2012 were female[2]. Totally, 12 per cent of the respondents had non-native Dutch origins whereas, in 2012, 17 per cent of central government employees had non-native Dutch origins. The mean age of the respondents was 51.5 years compared to a mean public sector age of 43 years in 2012. Since female and non-native Dutch employees were underrepresented in the final sample and the mean age of the respondents was higher, age and gender were added as a control variable in the analyses. Furthermore, the analyses were run for ethnic groups separately. We have no reason to believe that the subsamples of non-native and native Dutch employees were biased.

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

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

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

Table I.
Representation by gender and ethnic origin

*Measurements*

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

    *Inclusive organizational culture.* To measure the extent of inclusiveness we used the intercultural group climate scale of Luijters *et al.* (2008). We chose this measure of inclusiveness since it exclusively refers to the cultural dimension of diversity. Originally the inclusiveness scale consisted of six items (Luijters *et al.*, 2008), but the

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

**Table II.**
List of items

sixth item seemed to have an overlap with the first item. Therefore this item was removed. The inclusiveness of the organizational culture is measured by five items (see Table II: items IC1 – IC5). All the items were measured using the same Likert scale as before and, again, the higher the score, the more employees perceive the organizational culture to be inclusive.

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

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

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

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

Table IV shows the correlations between the main research variables and the Cronbach $\alpha$'s of the constructs.

## Results
### Affective commitment
The first SEM was built to test the relationships linking diversity management, inclusive culture and affective commitment. In the second model, the multi-group analysis is conducted. The first model, with diversity management, inclusive culture and affective commitment and the control variables age, gender and educational level

| | Min. | Max. | Total Mean | SD | Non-native Mean | Native Dutch Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Diversity management | 1 | 5 | 3.13 | 0.88 | 3.08 | 3.13 |
| 2. Inclusive culture | 1 | 5 | 3.20 | 0.75 | 3.30 | 3.19 |
| 3. Affective commitment | 1 | 5 | 3.94 | 0.98 | 3.92 | 3.94 |
| 4. Altruism | 1 | 5 | 4.47 | 0.59 | 4.51 | 4.47 |
| 5. Helping | 1 | 5 | 3.88 | 0.64 | 3.93 | 3.87 |
| 6. Civic virtue | 1 | 5 | 3.85 | 0.77 | 3.90 | 3.84 |
| 7. Sportsmanship | 1 | 5 | 3.94 | 0.75 | 3.90 | 3.95 |
| 8. Ethnic origin (0 = native Dutch, 1 = non-native Dutch) | 0.0 | 1 | 0.12 | 0.32 | | |
| 9. Gender (0 = male, 1 = female) | 0.0 | 1 | 0.33 | 0.47 | 0.34 | 0.33 |
| 10. Age | 24 | 66 | 51.54 | 8.71 | 51.58 | 51.54 |
| 11. Educational level | 2 | 9 | 6.20 | 1.58 | 6.25 | 6.12 |
| $n$ | 664 | | | | 79 | 585 |

**Note:** An independent-samples *t*-test showed that the mean differences between groups are not significant

| | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. | 11. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Diversity management | (α=0.75) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Inclusive culture | 0.52** | (α=0.80) | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Affective commitment | 0.33** | 0.29** | (α=0.90) | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Altruism | 0.13** | 0.15*** | 0.26** | (α=0.80) | | | | | | | |
| 5. Helping | 0.19** | 0.24** | 0.24** | 0.43** | (α=0.72) | | | | | | |
| 6. Civic virtue | 0.13** | 0.18** | 0.35** | 0.35** | 0.44** | (α=0.73) | | | | | |
| 7. Sportmanship | 0.18** | 0.18** | 0.24** | 0.23** | 0.28** | 0.22** | (α=0.76) | | | | |
| 8. Ethnic origin (0 = native Dutch, 1 = non-native Dutch) | -0.02 | 0.05 | -0.01 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.02 | -0.02 | | | | |
| 9. Gender (0 = male, 1 = female) | -0.04 | -0.07 | -0.03 | -0.01 | -0.11** | -0.03 | -0.06 | 0.01 | | | |
| 10. Age | 0.04 | 0.08* | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.07 | -0.040 | 0.10* | 0.0 | -0.24** | | |
| 11. Education | -0.01 | -0.08* | 0.01 | -0.01 | -0.04 | 0.07 | -0.01 | 0.01 | 0.07 | -0.18** | |

**Notes:** $n = 664$. ***,**Correlations are significant at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels (two-tailed), respectively

**Table IV.**
Correlations and
Cronbach α's

had the following goodness-of-fit statistics: (CMIN) $\chi^2 = 289.38$, df $= 65$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2$/df $= 4.45$; The normed-fit-index (NFI) $= 0.92$, comparative-fit-index (CFI) $= 0.93$, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) $= 0.91$ and root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) $= 0.07$ indicating a poor fit. The model's outputs suggest that the model would be improved by adding correlational links among the disturbance variances of items of the inclusiveness scale IC4 and IC5 and among the disturbance variances of items DM3 and IC2[3]. These correlations were added based on theoretical reasoning, since the correlated items cover the same issue (Byrne, 2010). The adjusted model, following these modifications, improved the fit with the data to a satisfactory level. The revised goodness-of-fit statistics were: (CMIN) $\chi^2 = 159.43$, $p < 0.001$; df $= 63$; $\chi^2$/df $= 2.53$; NFI $= 0.95$, CFI $= 0.97$, TLI $= 0.96$ and RMSEA $= 0.05$. The large sample results in a large and statistically significant value for $\chi^2$ (Hoelter, 1983), but the CFI ($> 0.95$) and RMSEA ($< 0.06$) values indicate that the model fits the data well (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Byrne, 2010). The complete adjusted model can be found in Appendix A1.

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

The results presented in Table V show that inclusiveness of the organizational culture has a positive effect on the affective commitment of employees ($\beta = 0.20$). The more employees perceive the organizational culture as inclusive, the more they feel committed to the organization. Furthermore, diversity management has a positive effect on affective commitment ($\beta = 0.21$). The more employees experience diversity management in their organization, the more they identify with the organization. In addition, a bootstrap analysis of indirect effects showed that diversity management has a significant indirect effect on the affective commitment of employees through the perceived inclusiveness of the organizational culture ($\beta = 0.14$, $p = 0.001$). Diversity management fosters an inclusive organizational culture, which enhances employees' affective commitment towards the organization (Figure 2).

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

The previous estimated unconstrained model was tested, whereby no assumptions about the equality of the measurement and structural paths across the groups are made. The goodness-of-fit statistics of this model are: $\chi^2 = 213.39$, df 126, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2$/df $= 1.69$; NFI $= 0.94$; CFI $= 0.97$, TLI $= 0.96$ and RMSEA $= 0.03$. The NFI, CFI and RMSEA goodness-of-fit statistics indicate that the model has a reasonable fit. Second, using AMOS 20 graphics several models were generated, each model placing more restrictions on the paths assuming equivalence across groups. Table VI shows the goodness-of-fit statistics of these models. All models appear to fit the data reasonably well except for $\chi^2$ (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Byrne, 2010).

Standardized estimates

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Measurement paths* | | | |
| DM1 | ← | Diversity management | 0.75na |
| DM2 | ← | Diversity management | 0.87*** |
| DM3 | ← | Diversity management | 0.56*** |
| IC1 | ← | Inclusive culture | 0.59na |
| IC2 | ← | Inclusive culture | 0.57*** |
| IC3 | ← | Inclusive culture | 0.78*** |
| IC4 | ← | Inclusive culture | 0.60*** |
| IC5 | ← | Inclusive culture | 0.67*** |
| AC1 | ← | Affective commitment | 0.84na |
| AC2 | ← | Affective commitment | 0.86*** |
| AC3 | ← | Affective commitment | 0.94*** |
| | | | |
| *Structural paths* | | | |
| Inclusive culture | ← | Diversity management | 0.64*** |
| Affective commitment | ← | Diversity management | 0.21*** |
| Affective commitment | ← | Inclusive culture | 0.20*** |
| Affective commitment | ← | Education level | 0.04 |
| Affective commitment | ← | Gender | −0.01 |
| Affective commitment | ← | Age | 0.01 |
| Inclusive culture | ← | Education level | −0.07 |
| Inclusive culture | ← | Gender | −0.05 |
| Inclusive culture | ← | Age | 0.04 |
| | | | |
| *Indirect effects* | | | |
| Affective commitment | ← | Inclusive culture ← Diversity management | 0.13*** |
| $R^2$ | | Inclusive culture | 0.43 |
| | | Affective commitment | 0.14 |

**Notes:** $n = 664$. na, not applicable (fixed parameter). $\chi^2 = 159.43$, $p < 0.001$; df $= 63$; $\chi^2$/df $= 2.53$, NFI $= 0.95$, CFI $= 0.97$, TLI $= 0.96$ and RMSEA $= 0.05$. ***$p < 0.001$; **$p < 0.01$; *$p < 0.05$

**Table V.**
Results SEM analysis alternative model diversity management, inclusive culture and affective commitment



**Figure 2.**
Regression paths diversity management, inclusive culture and affective commitment
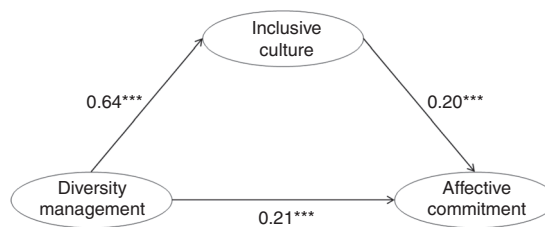
**Notes:** Standardized direct estimates $n=664$.
***$p<0.001$

To determine the equivalence across the groups two methods can be used: the traditional method of $\Delta\chi^2$ significance and the $\Delta$ of CFI (Byrne, 2010). In Table V the model comparison of the $\chi^2$ difference test is shown. Comparing the models results in a statistically significant difference of $\Delta\chi^2$ indicating a significant variance across the different groups. However, since the $\chi^2$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ are sensitive to sample size, even small differences across groups can lead to a significant value of $\Delta\chi^2$ implying group variance (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002; Cheung and Lau, 2012). Therefore the change of

| Model | CMIN | df | $p$ | CMIN/df | NFI | CFI | TLI | RMSEA |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Unconstrained | 213.39 | 126 | 0.000 | 1.694 | 0.940 | 0.974 | 0.963 | 0.032 |
| Measurement weights | 229.74 | 134 | 0.000 | 1.714 | 0.936 | 0.972 | 0.962 | 0.033 |
| Structural weights | 233.09 | 143 | 0.000 | 1.630 | 0.935 | 0.974 | 0.966 | 0.031 |
| Structural covariances | 244.84 | 153 | 0.000 | 1.600 | 0.932 | 0.973 | 0.968 | 0.030 |
| Structural residuals | 245.14 | 155 | 0.000 | 1.582 | 0.932 | 0.973 | 0.969 | 0.030 |
| Measurement residuals | 267.79 | 168 | 0.000 | 1.594 | 0.925 | 0.971 | 0.968 | 0.030 |
| Saturated model | 0.000 | 0 | | | 1.000 | 1.000 | | |
| Independence model | 3,582.46 | 182 | 0.000 | 19.684 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.168 |

*Model comparison*

| Model | $\Delta$df | $\Delta$CMIN | $p$ | NFI Delta-1 | TLI $\rho^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Measurement weights | 8 | 16.35 | 0.038 | 0.005 | 0.001 |
| Structural weights | 17 | 19.70 | 0.290 | 0.005 | −0.003 |
| Structural covariances | 27 | 31.46 | 0.253 | 0.009 | −0.005 |
| Structural residuals | 29 | 31.75 | 0.331 | 0.009 | −0.006 |
| Measurement residuals | 42 | 54.41 | 0.095 | 0.015 | −0.005 |

Table VI.
Goodness of fit
statistics and
model comparison
native Dutch and
non-native Dutch
employees

alternative fit indices NFI and CFI will be used to test for measurement invariance and
the equivalence of the regression paths. In Table VI these fit indices are shown for
different models. The changes in the fit indices are smaller than 0.01 which may be
considered an indication of equivalence across the groups (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002;
Meade *et al.*, 2008).

The multi-group analyses suggest that the effect of diversity management on the
inclusiveness of the organizational culture and affective commitment is equal across
ethnic groups[4]. The results confirm *H1a* and *H2a* and reject *H1b* and *H2b*. They show
that diversity management fosters an inclusive culture, which in turn enhances employees'
affective commitment. By creating an inclusive culture all employees feel valued and
appreciated, which employees reciprocate by their commitment towards the organization.

*OCB*
In the following SEM analysis a hypothesized model with diversity management,
inclusive culture and four OCB dimensions are tested. The initial model with diversity
management, inclusive culture and four OCB dimensions resulted in a poor fit with the
following goodness-of-fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 481.12$, df $= 217$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/$df $= 2.22$;
NFI $= 0.90$, CFI $= 0.94$, TLI $= 0.93$ and RMSEA $= 0.04$. Reviewing the factor loadings
showed that some items loaded poorly on their construct. Of the helping dimension the
first item "I take steps to try to prevent problems with other personnel in the company"
had a low-factor loading of 0.38 and was removed. The same was done for the third
item of civic virtue "I actively participates in company meetings" (0.44) and the fourth
item of sportsmanship "I always find fault with what the company is doing" (0.49).
After deleting these items the model fitted the data reasonably well, with the following
goodness-of-fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 308.213$, df $= 154$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/$df 2; NFI $= 0.93$,
CFI $= 0.96$, TLI $= 0.95$ and RMSEA $= 0.04$. The complete adjusted model can be
found in Appendix A2. The results of the SEM analysis are shown in Table VII.

Figure 3 shows the significant effect of diversity management on the inclusiveness
of the organizational culture ($\beta = 0.64$, $p < 0.000$). The more employees experience
diversity management is implemented in their organization, the more they feel the
organizational culture to be inclusive. Diversity management does not have significant

Standardized estimates

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Measurement paths* | | | |
| DM_1 | ← | Diversity_management | 0.75na |
| DM_2 | ← | Diversity_management | 0.87*** |
| DM_3 | ← | Diversity_management | 0.54*** |
| IC_1 | ← | Inclusive_culture | 0.59na |
| IC_2 | ← | Inclusive_culture | 0.57*** |
| IC_3 | ← | Inclusive_culture | 0.78*** |
| IC_4 | ← | Inclusive_culture | 0.60*** |
| IC_5 | ← | Inclusive_culture | 0.67*** |
| OCB_A1 | ← | Altruisms | 0.871na |
| OCB_A2 | ← | Altruisms | 0.77*** |
| OCB_H2 | ← | Helpings | 0.72na |
| OCB_H3 | ← | Helpings | 0.80*** |
| OCB_H4 | ← | Helpings | 0.65*** |
| OCB_C1 | ← | Civic_virtue | 0.94na |
| OCB_C2 | ← | Civic_virtue | 0.74*** |
| OCB_S1 | ← | Sportsmanships | 0.76na |
| OCB_S2 | ← | Sportsmanships | 0.76*** |
| OCB_S3 | ← | Sportsmanships | 0.69*** |
| | | | |
| *Structural paths* | | | |
| Inclusive_culture | ← | Diversity_management | 0.64*** |
| Inclusive_culture | ← | Education | −0.07 |
| Inclusive_culture | ← | Gender | −0.05 |
| Inclusive_culture | ← | Age | 0.04 |
| Altruism | ← | Diversity_management | 0.01 |
| Altruism | ← | Inclusive_culture | 0.20** |
| Helping | ← | Diversity_management | 0.03 |
| Helping | ← | Inclusive_culture | 0.28*** |
| Civic_virtue | ← | Diversity_management | −0.02 |
| Civic_virtue | ← | Inclusive_culture | 0.22** |
| Sportsmanship | ← | Diversity_management | 0.09 |
| Sportsmanship | ← | Inclusive_culture | 0.13 |
| Altruism | ← | Education | 0.004 |
| Altruism | ← | Age | −0.01 |
| Altruism | ← | Gender | 0.01 |
| Helping | ← | Education | −0.001 |
| Helping | ← | Age | 0.03 |
| Helping | ← | Gender | −0.12** |
| Civic_virtue | ← | Education | 0.10* |
| Civic_virtue | ← | Age | −0.08 |
| Civic_virtue | ← | Gender | −0.06 |
| Sportsmanship | ← | Education | 0.07 |
| Sportsmanship | ← | Age | 0.07 |
| Sportsmanship | ← | Gender | −0.05 |
| | | | |
| *Indirect effects* | | | |
| Altruism | ← | Inclusive culture←Diversity management | 0.13* |
| Helping | ← | Inclusive culture←Diversity management | 0.18** |
| Civic virtue | ← | Inclusive culture←Diversity management | 0.14** |
| Sportsmanship | ← | Inclusive culture←Diversity management | 0.08 |
| $R^2$ | | Inclusive culture | 0.44 |
| | | Altruism | 0.04 |
| | | Helping | 0.11 |
| | | Civic virtue | 0.05 |
| | | Sportsmanship | 0.05 |

**Table VII.**
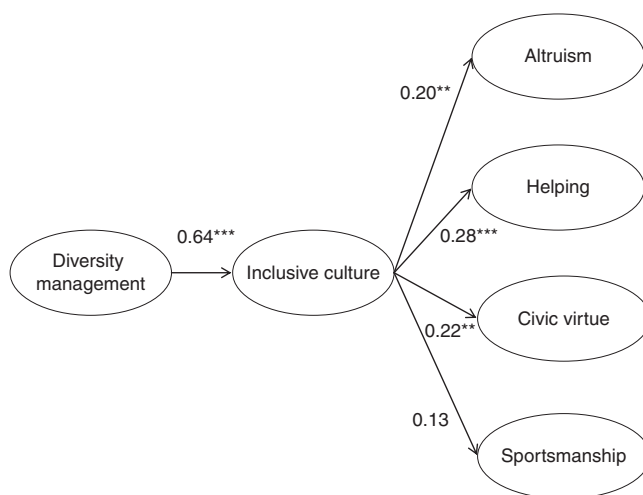Results SEM
analysis alternative
model diversity
management,
inclusive culture and
OCB Dimensions

**Notes:** $n = 664$. na, not applicable (fixed parameter). $\chi^2 = 308.21$, $p < 0.001$; df = 154; $\chi^2/\mathrm{df} = 2$, NFI = 0.93, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.95 and RMSEA = 0.04. ***$p < 0.001$; **$p < 0.01$; *$p < 0.05$

**Notes:** Standardized direct estimates $n=664$. ***$p<0.001$;
**$p<0.01$

Figure 3.
Direct regression
paths diversity
management,
inclusive culture
and OCB

direct effects on the OCB dimensions altruism, helping, civic virtue and sportsmanship. However, diversity management has an indirect effect on altruism ($\beta = 0.13$, $p < 0.05$), helping ($\beta = 0.18$, $p < 0.01$), civic virtue ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.01$) through its effect on the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. In other words, diversity management can enhance employees' OCB by fostering an inclusive culture. Inclusive culture has a direct positive effect on altruism ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$), helping ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.001$) and civic virtue ($\beta = 0.22$, $p < 0.010$). When employees experience an organizational culture where differences are valued and appreciated it results in more voluntary behaviours that are beneficial for the organization.

To determine group differences the same steps as in the previous multi-group analysis were followed. A first multi-group analysis was conducted with two groups, namely, non-native Dutch and native Dutch employees to estimate group equivalence or difference. Table VIII shows the goodness-of-fit statistics and the model comparison between the unconstrained and constrained models where it is assumed that the model is equivalent across groups. The model comparison shows that there is a significant variance across the different groups. Comparing the models results in a statistically significant difference of $\Delta\chi^2$. However, like before, the alternative fit indices will be used to estimate group variance (or invariance) and equivalence of the regression paths. The $\Delta$CFI and $\Delta$NFI are $< 0.01$. This result suggests that the measurement paths and structural paths are equivalent across groups[5].

## Discussion and conclusion
The purpose of this paper was to examine if and how diversity management outcomes differ across socio-demographic groups within public sector organizations. The effects of diversity management on the extent employees feel their organizational environment is inclusive and on their attitudes and behaviour, were expected to be dependent on how diversity management is perceived by majority and minority socio-demographic groups in the organization. Drawing on social exchange theory we expected that

| Model | CMIN | df | $p$ | CMIN/df | NFI | CFI | TLI | RMSEA |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Unconstrained | 578.64 | 337 | 0.000 | 1.72 | 0.879 | 0.945 | 0.931 | 0.033 |
| Measurement weights | 592.36 | 343 | 0.000 | 1.73 | 0.876 | 0.943 | 0.930 | 0.033 |
| Structural weights | 610.61 | 363 | 0.000 | 1.68 | 0.872 | 0.943 | 0.934 | 0.032 |
| Structural covariances | 612.45 | 365 | 0.000 | 1.68 | 0.872 | 0.943 | 0.935 | 0.032 |
| Structural residuals | 629.78 | 375 | 0.000 | 1.68 | 0.868 | 0.942 | 0.935 | 0.032 |
| Measurement residuals | 643.248 | 385 | 0.000 | 1.67 | 0.866 | 0.941 | 0.936 | 0.032 |
| Independence model | 4,788.80 | 420 | 0.000 | 11.40 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.125 |

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**Table VIII.**
Goodness of fit
statistics and
model comparison
non-native Dutch
and native
Dutch employees

*Model comparison*

| Model | $\Delta$df | $\Delta$CMIN | $p$ | NFI Delta-1 | TLI $\rho^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Measurement weights | 6 | 13.72 | 0.033 | 0.003 | 0.001 |
| Structural weights | 26 | 31.96 | 0.194 | 0.007 | −0.003 |
| Structural covariances | 28 | 33.80 | 0.207 | 0.007 | −0.004 |
| Structural residuals | 38 | 51.13 | 0.076 | 0.011 | −0.004 |
| Measurement residuals | 48 | 64.60 | 0.055 | 0.013 | −0.004 |

employees who positively value diversity management practices will reciprocate through showing attitudes and behaviours that are valued by the organization. Since social exchange refers to a social relationship between the employee and the organization that goes beyond the formal contract alone, we analysed affective commitment and OCB as employee outcomes. We analysed data from a quantitative survey of a sample of Dutch civil servants and used SEM to analyse the consequences of diversity management across ethnic majority and minority socio-demographic groups. Results showed that diversity management is associated with higher levels of inclusion which in turn boosts affective commitment and OCB of both ethnic minority and native Dutch employees. Additional analyses by gender groups also resulted in equal effects of diversity management for both male and female employees. This underlines that creating an inclusive work environment is important for all employees and will result in positive attitudes and behaviour.

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

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

which employees are examined embedded within their organization. By doing so, it can be examined whether diversity management and the inclusiveness of the culture in the organization is differently perceived by diverse groups and how this would impact attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. Related to this, with the available data it was not possible to measure the degree of ethnic-cultural diversity within the organizations, while it was theoretically argued that levels of similarity and diversity would affect diversity management outcomes across groups. For it is relevant to examine how diversity management as intended by the organization is actually implemented by the supervisor, ideally the research design also encompasses the level of the work unit. Such a three-level research design was unfortunately not feasible within the current research project, but certainly is an important direction for future research.

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

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

Despite its limitations, with this study we believe we have contributed to the literature on diversity management outcomes by using social exchange theory as a theoretical lens through which we analysed how majority and minority groups would respond to diversity management. This study did not aim to test a social exchange theory of diversity management outcomes. Such a theory should specify rules and norms of exchange, resources exchanged and the relationships that emerge (Cropanazano and Mitchell, 2005) which we have not, but certainly would propose as a promising avenue for future studies on diversity management outcomes. Nevertheless, the social exchange perspective adopted in this study proved to be a fruitful framework for explaining diversity management outcomes within which insights from previous studies on HRM outcomes and diversity management could be integrated.

### Notes

1. The Dutch definition of an ethnic minority is based on Dutch immigration policies. Ethnic minorities are non-native Dutch persons of whom at least one parent is born abroad in another country than the Netherlands. In this group of non-native Dutch persons there are persons originating from a country in Africa, South America or Asia (excl. Indonesia

and Japan) or Turkey (non-western) and persons originating from a country in Europe (excl. Turkey), North America or Oceania or Indonesia or Japan (western). A native Dutch person is someone of whom both parents are born in the Netherlands.

2. Derived from the Dutch public sector personnel data: "Arbeid en Overheid" (www.arbeiden overheid.nl/tng/default.aspx?guid=8a9a1fa6-e728-4c64-b6dc-682bdfca029eandtype=pg).

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

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

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

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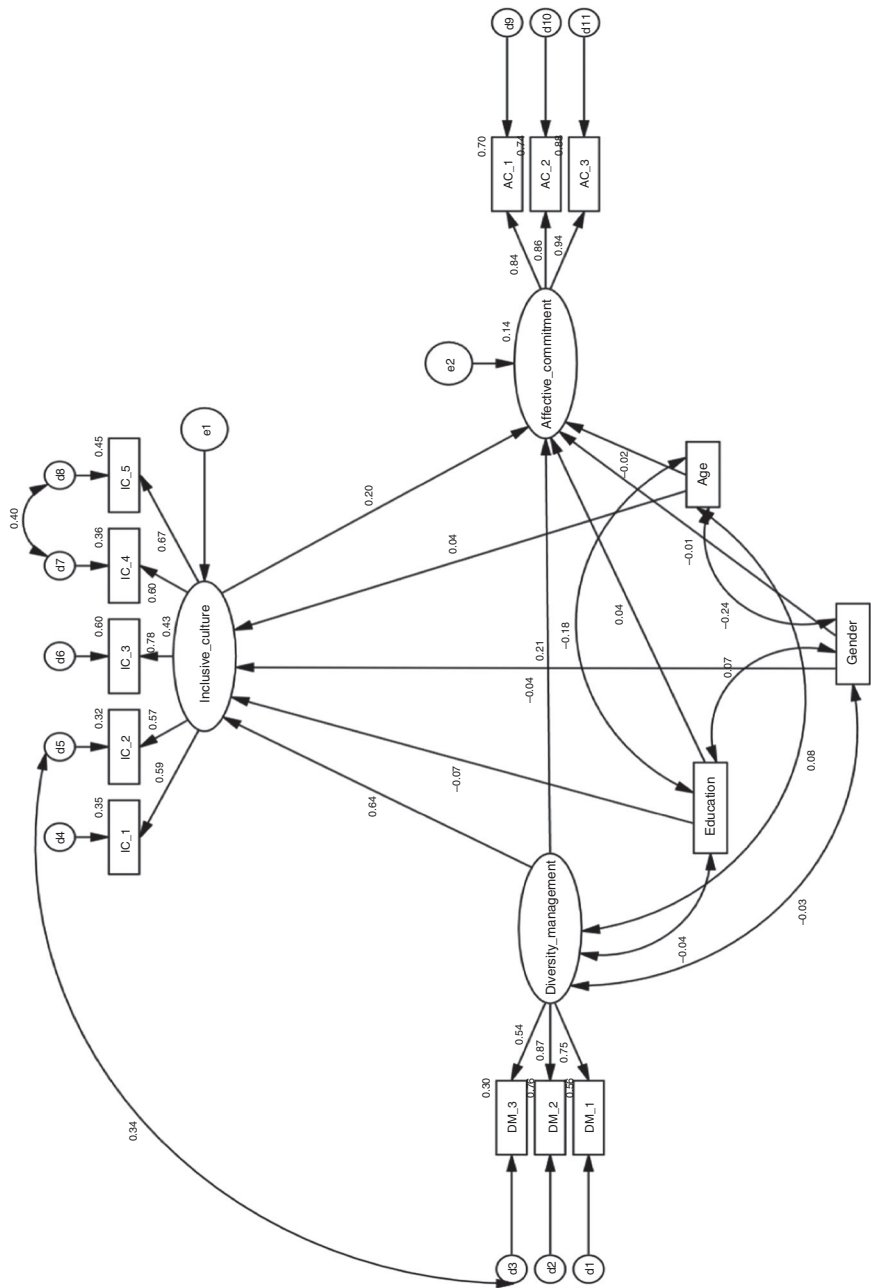
(The Appendix follows overleaf.)

Appendix 1

778



**Figure A1.**
Full structural
equation model:
diversity
management,
inclusive culture
and affective
commitment
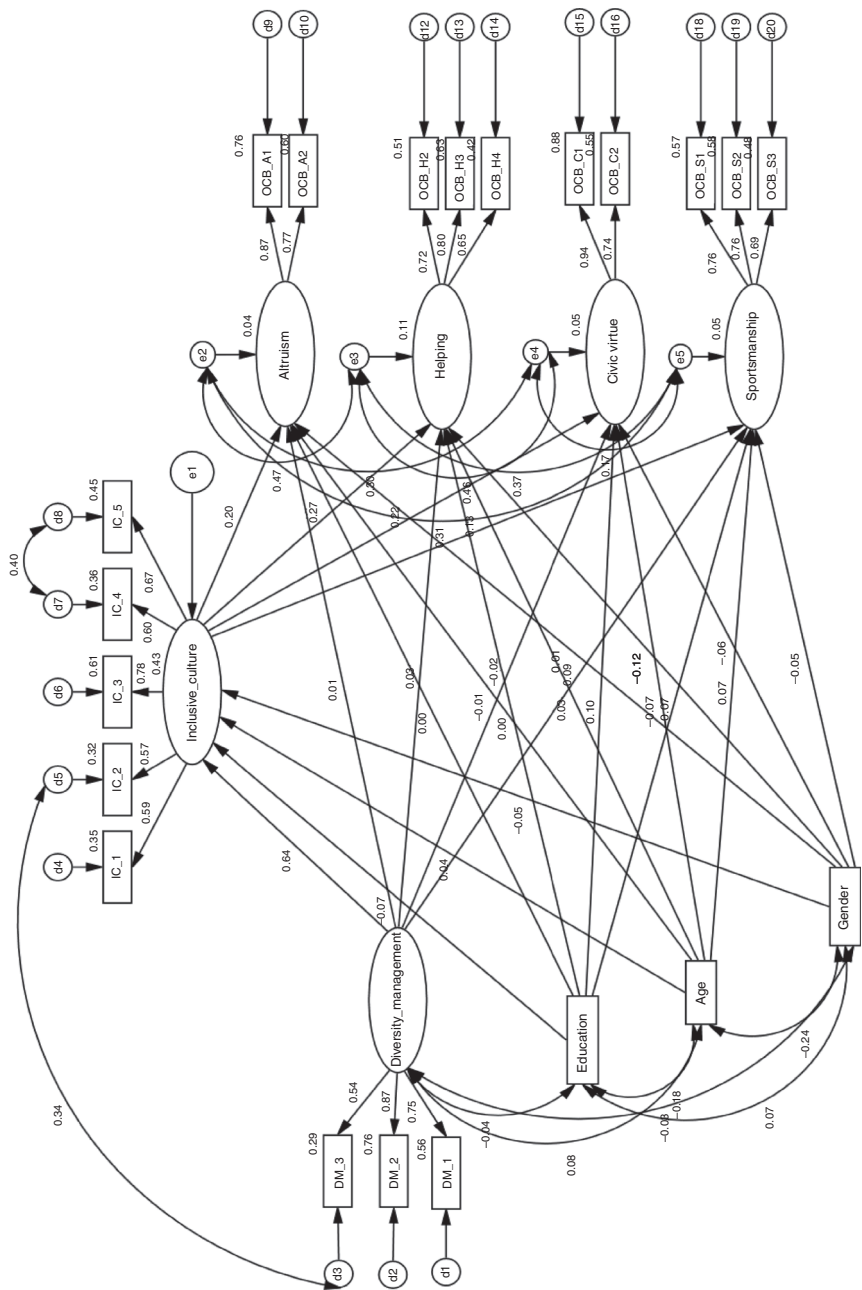
**Appendix 2**

**Figure A2.**
Full structural
equation model:
diversity
management,
inclusive culture
and OCB

PR
44,5

780

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