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**The Effect of Cultural Values and Perceived Inclusive Leadership  
on Employee Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Intention  
to Leave**

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of  
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Siqi (Skee) Joseph

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## ABSTRACT

Workplace inclusion had increasingly gained attention in the rapid expansion of globalization and multi-cultural workforces (e.g., Chen & Tang, 2018; Rankin-Gomez, 2011). Behind any organisational culture and practices, leaders were thought to be the driver of building a diverse workforce, displaying inclusive behaviours, implementing inclusive practices and offering equitable treatment to all individuals (Shore et al., 2011; Myers, 2023). Inclusive leadership and its facilitating effect on individual, team and organisational outcomes has attracted increasing attention in the last decade around the world, however no studies have explored the influence of inclusive leadership in New Zealand.

By collecting data from professionals (n=99) across industries in New Zealand, this study examined the effect of perceived inclusive leadership (PIL) on different forms of organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB), as well as its impact on employee's intention to leave (ITL). Exploring the role of cultural values as a mechanism through which perceived inclusive leadership assert influence was another focal point of this study. This study revealed the positive effect of PIL on organisation citizenship behaviours directed at the organisation (OCBO) and its negative effect on intention to leave. Surprisingly, no relationship was found between PIL and organisational behaviours directed at individuals (OCBI). Individualism showed a positive association with OCBO and ITL, whereas collectivism was positively related to OCBI. Despite of these associations, there was no evidence supporting the moderating effect of cultural values individualism on the relationship between PIL and OCBO or ITL, nor the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between PIL and OCBI. This study contributes to the existing literature by highlighting the complex dynamics between leadership, cultural values, and employee behaviours in New Zealand, providing valuable insights for leaders and HR professionals aiming to foster inclusive and supportive work environments.

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## CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

Organisations in the 21st century are bringing an increasingly diverse range of individuals into their workforce. As the nation with increasing diversity in the society and workplace, New Zealand joined the rest of the world in paying closer attention to retaining and attracting talent, employee wellbeing, mental health and flexibility. Talent shortage, diversity and inclusion has become the most important topics (Diversity Works NZ, 2022), along with the need to support employees on work-life balance, mental wellbeing and coping with stress. The traditional authoritative leadership style is deemed to be no longer effective at promoting wellbeing, driving innovation and performance, nor it is desirable amongst employees with different characteristics (Fang et al., 2019). Leadership in organisations has evolved into more collaborative and participative approaches, and leaders are expected to adapt their styles to suit the diverse cultural backgrounds of their team members.

A global workplace survey revealed that 59% of employees admitted engaging in 'quiet quitting' behaviours such as putting in the minimum effort and watching the clock at work due to the feeling of psychologically disconnected from their employers (Gallop, 2022). Participants reported their disappointment as a result of lacking actions from leadership after concerns were raised, and lacking leadership presence. More than half of global employees intended to leave their role (Gallup, 2024).

Opposite to these counter-productive behaviours, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is a proactive and constructive effort that encompasses discretionary actions and contributions 'above and beyond' role expectations (Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), it is believed that OCB is a voluntary behaviour displayed by individuals as a form of reciprocity and a return of favour (Kaufman et al., 2001). Numerous research demonstrated the enhancing effect of OCB and extra-role

behaviours on organisational effectiveness (Podsakoff et al., 1997; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994). Therefore, how to promote employee engagement and galvanize employee's proactive behaviours have become increasingly important to sustainable organisational performance. OCB is more likely to be displayed by employees when they report a high level of perceived organisational trust and support (e.g., Alder et al., 2006; Rubin et al., 2010), and a positive perception of leadership styles such as transformational leadership (Goodwin et al., 2001; Mackenzie et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2005). Leadership styles and supportive team behaviours (e.g., Salcinovic et al., 2022), and effective management of team conflict (e.g., Jackson & LePine, 2023) were found to be the key variables to high performance, whereas an overly top-down leadership style and inadequate leadership/management skills were identified to be two of the most salient barriers to performance (Beer & Walton, 1987). Consistently, negatively perceived leadership behaviours and actions, and inadequate leadership could lead to reduced employee enthusiasm and satisfaction, and increased intention to leave (Rahman & Nas, 2013; Reina et al., 2018).

Employee intention to leave is considered as one of the key performance indicators organisations use to measure employee wellbeing and performance, as well as a strong predictor for actual turnover (Lazzari et al., 2022). A meta-analysis revealed a difference up to 51% in employee turnover between highly engaged and disengaged organisations (Harter et al., 2024). There has been abundance of research on a range of leadership styles and intention to leave, however few has examined the impact of inclusive leadership on employee turnover intention (Hanh Tran & Choi, 2019; Yasin et al., 2023). In comparison to other leadership styles, inclusive leadership distinctly focuses on providing diverse individuals with recognition, fostering a strong sense of belongingness, and promoting inclusive practices (Randel et al., 2018). This study is intended to expand existing literature by delving into the

important role of an inclusive leader in managing employees' intention to leave in New Zealand.

In a cross-cultural or multicultural context that is prone to biases and prejudices (Setati et al., 2019), leaders who find themselves in teams and situations that involve other cultures need to be not only open to the differences and conflicts encountered during their interactions with other cultures, but they should also respect cultures different from their own, as well as recognising what aspects of their values and belief systems are a results of their own enculturation (Graen et al., 1997; Graen & Hui, 1999). Inclusive Leadership is one of the most effective practices in diversity and inclusion management as it inaugurates the feelings of being treated respectfully and fairly, as well as being valued, welcomed and desired amongst all team members (Bourke & Espedido, 2019). Inclusive leadership is thought to play a unique role in creating equal access to resources, decision making, career progression, and other management practices for enhancing wellbeing and eliminating bias (Shore et al., 2018). Inclusive leaders are tasked with the responsibility to openly address and confront these biases, prejudice and behaviours that hinder inclusion (Amin et al., 2018).

The literature on this particular leadership style is still in its infancy phase (Thompson & Matkin, 2020) and few studies have been dedicated to the effect of perceived inclusive leadership on OCB and intention to leave. However, there have been accumulating evidence to support the positive impact of inclusive leadership on a range of organisational consequences across the globe, including enhanced OCB and reduced turnover intentions (e.g., Nishii & Mayer, 2009; Saniewski, 2011, Panicker et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019).

Individualism-Collectivism (I-C) is one of the most frequently used measures for cultural values (Oyserman et al., 2002). It has gained increasing attention to diverse areas within the organisational setting including leadership styles (Offerman & Hellmann, 1997), work style and problem-solving behaviour (Workman, 2001), support seeking behaviour

(Goodwin & Plaza, 2000), vocational personality type and values (Robinson & Betz, 2008), career commitment (Noordin et al., 2002), team dynamics and performance (Gelfand et al., 2007, Eby & Dobbins, 1997), self-attributional process (Nisbett et al., 2001), and OCB (Florida et al., 2011; Hartung et al., 2010; Moorman & Blakely, 1995). Many studied the I-C, leadership perception and effectiveness based on the Leader-member exchange theory (LMX), which is a mutual relationship through role-taking and role-making attempts amongst leaders and followers (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). While pioneer researchers suggested that individualistic and collectivistic societies favour different types of leadership styles (Hofstede, 1980a), others enriched the literature by developing a dimensional approach to conceptualise and measure I-C (Triandis, 1995) and further distinguished sub-facets of I-C with relevant value systems such as familialism (Shulruf et al., 2007), subverting the concept of I-C as two contradicting and polarising cultural beliefs. Studies that assumed a single homogenous cultural identity for each country returned mixed results, showing overlapping I-C values across countries (Den et al., 1999) and calling for closer examination of I-C at an individual level, and its role in the individuals' attitudes, self sense-making and cognitive processes as a future research direction (House & Aditya, 1997; Oyserman et al., 2002).

Individual characteristics and leadership behaviours were identified as two of the four main antecedents of OCB (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Dewett & Denisi, 2007; Finkelstein, 2010), and there has been a growing interest in studying individual differences in attitudes, values and beliefs to explain workplace behaviours and outcomes. Studies that investigated I-C at country level and individual level lent support to the moderating or/and mediating effects of cultural values between contextual factors on job satisfaction and turnover intention (Lee et al., 2017), affective commitment (Newman & Butler, 2014), self-efficacy (Mughal et al., 2022), OCB (Alkhadher et al., 2020; Kirkman et al., 2009), team performance and potency (Schaubroeck et al., 2007).

Graen et al. (1998) argued that the increasing globalization of business will increase the homogeneity of organisational culture and thus eliminate the need to study cross-cultural leadership. However, other empirical evidence suggested that while certain leadership styles are valued universally (e.g., charismatic leadership), differences existed in the enactment of such leadership characteristics across cultures (Drenth et al., 1998). It is anticipated that culture would still play a significant role in leadership perception, and more evidence is expected to show culture as a moderator of effects of leadership and/or perceived leadership, and that leaders will continue to face unexpected challenges when confronting cultural interchange (Den Hartog, 1999). Leaders' inclusive behaviours such as valuing individual uniqueness, promoting fairness and equity, and being open to individual contributions can make employees feel that they are receiving favourable treatment, especially when the leaders' actions are perceived more positively than employee's pre-established subconscious prototypes, which is in turn influenced by employees varied values and belief systems as a result of cultural values embedded in the society (Brown Jr, 2018).

A review of prior research suggests that few studies have investigated the moderating effect of cultural values on the perceived inclusive leadership, OCB and intention to leave relationships (Thompson & Matkin, 2019; Zhao et al., 2023). The purpose of this study is to expand the current literature by examining the intricate relationships between employees' cultural values, perception of inclusive leadership behaviours, their willingness to go above and beyond their normal job duties to help others and the organisation, and their intention to leave in the context of diverse and contemporary organisations in Aotearoa. This study will be the first study that dedicates to inclusive leadership and its impact in the context of the unique cultural make up in New Zealand. The findings of this study will not only contribute to the body of literature dedicated to the multifaceted dynamic between cultural values,

leadership perception, OCB and turnover intentions, but also offer practical insights for managers and leaders on fostering inclusive work environments in Aotearoa New Zealand.

## **CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Inclusive Leadership**

The formation of the concept of inclusive leadership can be attributed to social psychology. Brewer (2003) introduced the framework of Optimal Distinctiveness Theory (ODT) in the aim of studying ingroup-outgroup differences, and explaining the interaction between social settings and personal needs for uniqueness and belongingness. The ODT suggests that “individuals desire to attain an optimal balance of inclusion and distinctiveness within and between social groups and situations” (Brewer, 2023, p.481); and that individuals seek to balance two needs: the feeling of validation by being similar to others, while being recognised as a unique self. When these needs are not met, individuals are likely to feel excluded (Shore et al., 2011), hide their true identities and capacities at work (Kahn, 1990). Thus, the feeling of being included at an individual level is essential to produce positive performance, which is likely to benefit the whole at a team or organisational level (Nishii & Leroy, 2022).

Inclusive leadership was originally conceptualised as leadership processes that invite and appreciate all members’ participation and contribution (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). Typical behaviours expected from an inclusive leader would be to not only practice active listening and provide support accordingly, but also encourage employees to openly communicate their expectations and explore different ways to achieve results (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). A more outcome-oriented approach explained the aim of inclusive leadership as ensuring equity and justice, and supporting employees through encouraging shared decision making and diverse contributions (Randel et al., 2018). The primary focus of inclusive leadership at the individual level is to enable every subordinate to experience inclusion through demonstrating behaviours that lead to a strong sense of belongingness

(including supporting group members, ensuring justice and equity, and sharing decision making) and a sense of uniqueness (encouraging diverse contributions and helping group members fully contribute) (Randel et al., 2018). An inclusive leader should proactively include other members in team discussions, acknowledge the value of others' views regardless of power or status differences, especially when their input may not be taken into account or overlooked (Carmeli et.al., 2010).

Carmeli et al. (2010) approached the definition from a leader-employee interaction perspective, defining inclusive leadership as leaders who exhibit visibility, accessibility and availability in their interactions with followers. The interactive nature of leadership approach had gained popularity in the literature, with an increasing number of studies considering inclusive leadership as a relational leadership style where leaders are concerned about employee's needs, readily available to employees (Hollander, 2012), and investing in developing high quality exchange relationships with employees (Nishii & Leroy, 2022).

Many scholars agreed that research on inclusion is still in the early stages (e.g., Shore et al., 2018), and questioned the differentiation between inclusive leadership and other contemporary leadership characteristics that aim to facilitate openness, encouragement, empowerment and ethical behaviours. While sharing similar characteristics with ethical leadership, servant leadership and transformation leadership that display supportive behaviours, being open to, and receiving feedback from employees (Van Dierendonck, 2011), inclusive leadership is less concerned with creating homogeneity or conformity, but places a strong emphasis on embracing diversity in all its forms, including background, experiences perspectives and identities (Carmeli et al., 2010), and promoting experiences of inclusion amongst followers (Nishii & Leroy, 2022).

In Randel et al. (2018)'s review of the relationship between inclusive leadership and other leadership styles, it was concluded that inclusive leadership has a distinct focus on

fostering openness and empowerment by directly balancing power, authority and decision making when team members are diverse and have different hierarchical status, and apply interventions when required (Nembhard and Edmondson, 2006). Inclusive leadership is specifically referred to as deliberate effort to foster an inclusive environment, promote fairness and equality, address barriers and biases that affect certain individuals, make diverse individuals feel valued and able to bring their authentic selves to work (Mor Barak et al., 2021). Whilst some described inclusive leaders' purpose as reducing status differences and cultivating a sense of shared identity amongst subordinates (e.g., Shore et al., 2018), others called attention to the danger of misconceptualising leader neutrality as an act of inclusive leadership, as a generic approach will allow status quo and may fail to recognise the unique needs and social positions of individual followers, which could lead to feeling of exclusion (McCluney & Rabelo, 2019), thus highlighting the adaptive and flexible nature of inclusive leadership.

More recently, efforts were made to review the concept of inclusive leadership in a systematic manner, and elevated the paradigm from individual level to team and organisational level implications. Ferdman (2014) proposed that inclusive leaders and their practices shape not only employee experiences, but also organisational imperatives and strategies. Veli Korkmaz et al. (2022) suggested multiple dimensions of inclusive leadership, which encompasses the behaviours to strengthen belongingness within a team (by ensuring equity, building trusted relationships and sharing decision making), and support organisational efforts (promoting organisational mission, reducing discrimination, aligning an organisation's human resource management practices to achieve diversity and inclusion goals).

## **The importance of inclusive leadership in a diverse workplace**

Workplace diversity imposes the challenges of lower cohesion, conflict and turnover (Randel et al., 2018). Leaders are thought to have a key role in directly shaping organisational climate and team dynamics (e.g., Boekhorst, 2015). Many studies discussed the leaders' role as key agents in the process of enforcing inclusive strategies and practices in the workplace, as they are the decision makers of inclusion and diversity policies, who also ensure such policies are well implemented (Myers, 2023). The effect of diversity culture on work groups was found to be largely varied. Some observed a heightened effect of diversity culture on employees who identify as belonging to minority groups (Carr et al., 2003; Parker et al., 2003), whereas others believed that all employees are affected by diversity climate regardless of ethnic or cultural differences (Ensher et al., 2001; Wessel & Ryan, 2012).

An accumulation of empirical evidence strongly advocated that a greater level of diversity does not automatically translate to inclusion, and that inclusion requires managerial practices that provide equal access to valued resources, decision-making and advancement mobility (Roberson, 2006; Ferdman, 2014). Seventy percent of team engagement is attributable to the manager (Gallup, 2022), as leaders foster an inclusive climate through role modelling behaviours and setting the standard and expectations for their teams (Wasserman et al., 2008; Randel et al., 2018). Inclusive leadership is crucial for supporting and fostering inclusiveness in diverse team, playing the role of encouraging discussion and exchange of ideas, facilitating collaboration amongst diverse team members, and valuing distinctiveness and ensuring belongingness (Ashikali et al., 2021).

## **Inclusive leadership as the driver of inclusion and inclusive climate**

Organisational inclusion interacts with workplace diversity and influences individual outcomes such as well-being, satisfaction and organisational commitment (Findler et al., 2007). To build feelings of inclusion, an environment needs to be created where individuals

from diverse backgrounds feel that they can bring their authentic selves to work, be treated as insiders, while leveraging the differences amongst team members (Dwertmaan et al., 2016). Hollander (2012) argued that individuals form perceptions of inclusion based on how they are treated at work and how others are treated. Therefore, leaders' behaviours are a form of representation of inclusion (and exclusion). They should be the drivers who strive for equity and fairness through inclusion.

Studies that examined workplace inclusion often used perceived inclusion, climates of inclusion and inclusive climate interchangeably, and attempted to define inclusive climate through the lens of employee perception. Some studies referred to employees' perception of inclusivity and fairness as diversity climate (e.g. Shore et al., 2006), or inclusive climate which was defined as "a workgroup or organisational atmosphere characterized by openness, trust and respect where all individuals feel valued, authentic and able to be themselves" (King et al., 2011, p.384), or "the degree to which members perceive their organisation to be supportive of diversity, encourage inclusion, and provide equitable treatment to all individuals, regardless of their social identities" (Long et al., 2016, p.583). Empirical evidence indicated that a positive perception of inclusion was linked to organisational commitment, job satisfaction, willingness to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and wellbeing (e.g., Brimhall et al., 2014; Cho and Mor Barak, 2008), whereas perception of exclusion was strongly associated with intention to leave (Mor Barak et al., 2006).

In Shore et al. (2018)'s model of inclusion, it was suggested that perceived inclusion, inclusive climate, retention of talent can only be driven by leader's commitment and effort to enhance inclusion and prevent exclusion through inclusive practices such as encouraging involvement in the work group, influencing decision making, recognising and honouring diversity. The immediate manager has a critical role to play in creating inclusive experiences

especially for those who are more prone to exclusion or discrimination (Shore, et al., 2018). A study based in India in the higher education sector consolidated such link and suggested that uplifting leader's diversity awareness, embedding inclusive leadership and minimising discrimination would create positive perception of inclusivity of the organisation (Panicker et al., 2018).

Measuring cultural differences and the associations with leadership variables in a valid and reliable manner may provide more adequate evidence to better assess leadership across cultures (Yan & Hunt, 2005). Most existing studies on inclusive leadership (and perceived inclusion) called for more empirical studies in a wider range of sectors to be able to further generalise the findings, to test more complex models (e.g., Ashikali et al., 2021), or to examine in more detail on how leader behaviours are interpreted as inclusive (Shore et al., 2018). Another area that has been lacking in the existing literature was to establish the concept of workplace inclusion entirely on the basis of individual viewpoint and to explain relationship of workplace inclusion on workplace outcome (including OCB) by incorporating certain moderating or intervening variables (Panicker et al., 2018). It was also accentuated that the focus of previous studies has been exclusively on the practices in diversity management, rather than on people who plan and carry out relevant activities. Thus, studies should place an emphasis on researching the role of leaders in implementing inclusive practices in the future (Jin et al., 2017). To address these gaps, the primary interest of this study was on inclusive leadership behaviours and individual's perception of these (or a lack of) inclusive leadership characteristics exhibited during typical interactions in the workplace.

### **Direct and indirect impact of inclusive leadership**

A wide range of earlier studies provided empirical evidence of the direct and indirect consequences of inclusive leadership. Leaders are shown to have profound impact in demonstrating inclusive practices and creating an inclusive environment that enhances

psychological safety (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Hirak et al., 2010), creative working and employees' innovative behaviours (Carmeli et al., 2010), employee engagement (Choi, et al., 2015), and fosters sense of belongingness and organisational efforts (Korkmaz et al., 2022). Prime et al. (2014) showed that inclusive leadership played a heightened role in reducing gender bias and discrimination in ensuring both women and men have equal opportunities to career progression and contribution to work outcome.

A range of mediators and moderators for inclusive leadership and workplace outcome relationship was studied. A stronger team identification and lower level of perceived status difference (Lin et al., 2016, Michell et al., 2015), a caring and ethical climate (Qi & Liu, 2017) were found to mediate the effects of inclusive leadership on team performance.

Organisational learning was evidenced to mediate the positive relationship between inclusive leadership style and OCB and innovative work behaviours (Aboramadan et al., 2002).

Vicarious learning and organisational inclusion climate were proven to jointly moderate the relationship between senior leader's inclusive leadership and the supervisor's inclusive leadership; and supervisor's inclusive leadership asserted a mediating effect between senior leader's inclusive leadership on employees' innovative behaviour (Zhong & Li, 2021).

Inclusive leadership positively impacted civil servants' job performance through the mediating effect of workplace spirituality, and leader-member exchange and perceived dissimilarity moderated the mediating effect (Ke et al., 2022). Elsaied (2020) found a direct effect of inclusive leadership on job embeddedness, and indirect influence on the attenuated turnover intentions and actual turnover. Affective commitment was tested as a mediator between inclusive leadership and followers taking charge, with traditionality moderating the mediation relationship (Wang et al., 2020). A study in China established a moderated mediation model, where employees' power distance moderated the relationship between inclusive leadership and employees' psychological safety, as well as the indirect relationship

between inclusive leadership and employees' learning from error (Ye et al., 2018). One of the latest studies during the COVID-19 pandemics lent support to the negative relationship between inclusive leadership and psychological distress through the mediating role of work engagement (Ahmed et al., 2020).

The consequences of leadership styles were found to be interdependent and relational. Leadership is "the process of being perceived by others as a leader" (Lord & Maher, 1991, p.11). Cameli et al. (2010) believed that it is a form of 'relational leadership' that can be realised through the interaction between leaders and individuals. Inclusive leadership is reflected in gestures such as openly inviting input, enabling information sharing (and sharing of diverse perspectives), and therefore eliciting the perception or feeling of being respected and valued equally (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). The sense of belongingness and uniqueness from employees were spontaneously facilitated by inclusive leadership behaviours (Veli Korkmaz et al., 2022). Mor Barak (2000) initially proposed that diversity and organisational culture influence perceptions of inclusion-exclusion, however later emphasized the role of employee's perception of inclusion-exclusion as a continuum of the degree to which individuals feel a part of critical organisational process (Mor Barak et al., 2001). Leaders and the extent of their inclusive practices contribute to the experience of individual and teams, as well as organisational strategies and decisions (Ferdman & Deane, 2013). Multiple studies highlighted the role of perceived leadership from an employee's perspective (Hollander, 2012) and employees' awareness of the impact of diversity and inclusive practices on their organisations (Panicker et al., 2018).

## **Organisational Citizenship Behaviour**

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) is used to describe positive, constructive and voluntary behaviours exhibited by employees that support co-workers and performance of the company. OCB was defined as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Employees who frequently engage in OCB are the ones who go ‘the extra mile’ or ‘above and beyond’ the minimum requirements to complete a task. Typical examples of OCB are assisting new team members to familiarise the office and surroundings, helping with parts of a project so that the deadlines can be met, sharing role knowledge and working extra time without expecting additional pay (Van Scotter et al., 2000).

These voluntary behaviours have attracted increasing interest in the last fifty years. The discretionary construct was initially thought to be difficult to define or measure. It was originally compared to contextual performance, which was concerned with ‘non-task related, above and beyond’ behaviours that contribute to the facilitation of social and psychological aspects of the organisation, in addition to the job functions and tasks (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). It was also viewed in parallel with prosocial organisational behaviour, which was aimed at improving the welfare of an individual, a group or an organisation (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), and extra-role behaviour that attempts to benefit the organisation and that goes beyond existing role expectations (Organ et al., 2006). As such, OCB is referring to informal contributions that individuals can choose to display or suppress, regardless of whether formal incentives were rewarded as a result of such behaviours.

OCB is recognised as a multidimensional construct (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Dimensions of OCB include behaviours such as helping others (altruism), providing proactive and preventive advice about work problems (courtesy), working hard and

complying with organizational norms (conscientiousness), being constructively involved in the functioning of the organization (civic virtue), tolerating less than ideal work circumstances and refraining from complaining (sportsmanship), helping prevent, resolve, or mitigate negative interpersonal conflicts (peacekeeping), and acknowledging co-workers' achievements (cheerleading; Organ, 1988). Researchers have found that OCB can be empirically distinguished based on whether the behaviour supports other individuals (OCBI) or the broader organization (OCBO). OCBI includes OCBs that have been conceptually categorized as altruism, cheerleading, courtesy, and peacekeeping, whereas OCBO includes OCBs categorized as civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship (Lee & Allen, 2002; Organ, 1997; Ozer, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2009).

Based on the literature, antecedents of OCB can be categorized into individual disposition/personality (trait), task characteristics, organisational characteristics and leadership/group factors (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Correlations were established between four of the 'big five' personality traits – conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism and extraversion. Borman et al. (2001) found a 0.24 correlation for Conscientiousness, whereas Organ & Ryan (1995) found correlations between 0.15 to 0.22. These correlations are weaker in comparison to the other antecedents, therefore personality traits appear to have the least impact on OCBs. However, others argued that the limited effect of personality may be restricted by a narrower range of demand of characteristics or external incentives for individual behaviours (e.g., Dyne et al., 2000). Whilst these dispositional factors may influence what individuals recognise as satisfying, fair and supportive, they tend to be seen as indirect contributors of OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Job satisfaction (with the highest correlation at 0.9), engagement, trust between individual employee and their team and supervisors, organisational commitment, motivation, staff morale and perceived fairness were proven to be valid predictors of OCB, with

correlations range between 0.27 to 0.9 (Organ et al., 2006). In addition, Chahal and Mehta (2010) suggested that role perception, which is referred to as individuals' perception of whether a job is clearly defined and how much the role overlaps with other coworkers, can also affect OCB.

In addition, most recent studies identified partially different antecedents and outcomes for OCBI and OCBO (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Gómez et al., 2024). Based on the functional approach to human behaviour, Rioux and Penner (2001) identified three functional motives for OCB, including prosocial values (PV), organisational concern (OC) and impression management (IM). PV was identified to be the key driver for OCBI, whereas OC linked more strongly with OCBO (Bolino et al., 2012; Takeuchi et al., 2015). Rioux and Penner (2001) also found that PV mostly assembles with altruism (an OCBI), and OC was strongly linked with conscientiousness (an OCBO). Highest level of OCBI occurs when PC and OC motives are high and IM motives are low, whereas the highest level of OCBO occur when all three motives are high (Takeuchi et al., 2015).

Because OCB is intangible, it may not always be formally rewarded or measured against quantifiable indicators. However, OCB was evidenced to positively impact outcome at an organisational level, uplifting organisational effectiveness across a range of measures, including performance quality, performance quantity, financial efficiency indicators, and customer service indicators (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Companies who embed contemporary human resources and organisational development practices are encouraged to promote OCB, as research suggested that OCB was related to lower turnover rates and absenteeism, enhanced employee experience, increased profitability (Ehrhart, 2004), productivity, efficiency, and customer satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

Further, OCB is proven to have effects on manager's perception on individual employee performance. Podsakoff et al. (2009) found that workers who display OCB are

more likely to receive higher performance ratings, gain rewards including pay increases bonuses, promotions or other benefits, even though it may be attributed to the 'halo effect' bias where these individuals are perceived more favorably by their managers. Employees who engage in OCB were found to have a lower chance of being made redundant during downsizing (Organ et al., 2006). Organ et al. (2006) suggested that OCB can attract and retain good employees by creating and maintaining a supportive working environment and a sense of belonging, create social capital through enhancing trust, connections and communication between workers, minimise resources at a management level as OCB enables autonomous and cooperative behaviours amongst employees.

In general, OCB is evidenced to have a positive impact on employee performance and wellbeing, and promote the effective functioning of the organisation (Organ, 1988). It is a unique form of work conduct that is beneficial to team success through enhancing intra-team dynamics, as well as facilitating team processes and activities (Sun et al.,2014).

## **Intention to Leave**

Intention to leave (or turnover intention) is referred to as one's attitude towards leaving one's job (Jenson, 2021). More specifically, intention to leave is defined as employees' conscious and deliberate willingness to quit their jobs in the near future (Lin et al., 2022). An organisation's turnover rate has a significant impact on its financial wellbeing, operational efficiency and overall performance. The consequences of high turnover rates include decreased organisational effectiveness, increased organisational mortality, inhibiting an organisation's sustainability and its ability to gain competitive advantage and achieve its goals (Hom et al., 2017). Turnover incurs direct costs on separation, replacement, recruitment and training resources, and adds to the financial burden (Hom et al., 2012). A study focused on the costs of nursing turnover in hospital not only found the similar negative impact on finance and resources, but also indicated an association with decreased patient satisfaction scores and nurse-to-patient ratios that negatively impacted the quality of care (Coomber & Barriball, 2007). An employee's intention to leave is directly linked to retention, helps to identify factors that contribute to turnover, and serves as a precursor for actual turnover rate (Mobley et al., 1978).

Targeted actions and HR related policies can be developed at individual, team and organisation level to rectify and improve retention. One of the earliest studies by Steel and Ovalle (1984) investigated the mediating effect of turnover intentions between job satisfaction and actual turnover, and emphasized the importance of measuring turnover intention. In a meta-analysis of turnover research, Griffeth et al. (2000) identified turnover intentions as one of the strongest predictors of actual turnover, offering insight into employees' attitudes, perceptions and motivators as to whether they are intending to stay or leave the organisation.

Early studies focused on examining the antecedents of intention to leave, which include job satisfaction, organisational commitment and perceived job alternatives (Mobley et al., 1978; Griffeth et al., 2000). Mitchell et al. (2001) found that job embeddedness (i.e., the level of connection employees feel towards their jobs, organisations and communities), was associated with reduced intention to leave, in addition to job satisfaction. Perceived organisational support was also found to reduce employee's intention to leave (Eisenberger et al., 2002, Podsakoff et al., 2000; Bolino et al., 2010; Islam, et al., 2018).

Research on the dynamics between OCB and intention to leave returned mixed results. Memon et al. (2017) surprisingly found no direct relationship between OCB and turnover intention in the oil and gas industry in Malaysia. Islam et al. (2018) tested and proved the partial mediating effect of overall OCB between perceived organisational support and intention to leave. Anvari et al. (2017) supported the significant and negative influence of OCBI and OCBO respectively on intention to leave. However, the results showed a considerably stronger path coefficient for OCBO than OCBI. Goo et al. (2022) established the negative relationship between OCBI and intention to leave only when introducing task interdependence as a moderator, whereas task interdependence did not moderate the previously established negative relationship between OCBO and intention to leave. Organisational Commitment (Naiemah et al., 2017) and gender (Annur Khalid et al., 2009) have been proven to moderate the relationship between overall OCB and intention to leave. OCBI plays a role in providing assistance to other colleagues in problem solving, balancing social interaction, enhancing personal bonding amongst employees (Anvari et al., 2017), and eliciting positive and favourable attitude towards one's relationship with others (Young & Parker, 1999). OCBI asserts influence on social interactions and interpersonal support for each other, and decreasing individual's intention to leave. OCBO involves behaviours that advantages the organisation such as conforming to informal gules, participating in the

governance of the organisation and volunteering for additional responsibilities beyond the role duty, which could increase efficiency of the workplace (Organ & Ryan, 1995), induce positive evaluation of the workplace (Organ et al., 2006), and decrease willingness to leave.

*Hypothesis 1a (H1a): OCBI is negatively related to Intention to Leave.*

*Hypothesis 1b (H1b): OCBO is negatively related to Intention to Leave.*

### **Perceived Inclusive Leadership and OCB**

Diversity and inclusion practices from management have been identified as vital elements of organisational culture (Hedman, 2016). Leadership effectiveness is influenced by the perception and reaction of followers (Lord & Maher, 1991). While OCB is seen as a type of initiative from individual employees, it can be fostered and developed within the organisation. The reciprocal nature of OCB is thought to be embedded in the Social Exchange Theory (SET) that describes the feeling of the need to reciprocate the support they received from others through the interaction over a period of time (Blau, 1964, cited in Panicker et al., 2018). The key to an employee's decision to perform OCB may depend on the degree the leaders of an organisation have taken steps to promote employee wellbeing, or the welfare of the group.

Leadership was widely recognised as a common antecedent to OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Although indifference to rewards was the only employee characteristic that consistently relates to OCB (Chahal & Mehta; 2010), OCB increases when leaders offer rewards based on employee performance (Alkahtani, 2015). Other contemporary leadership styles were found to be important predictors of OCB, such as transformational leadership that inspires and motivate employs (Owusu-Agyeman, 2021), ethical leadership that promotes normatively appropriate conducts (Zeng & Xu, 2020), servant leadership that prioritises the greater good of the team/organisation (Aboramadan et al., 2020),

supportive/appreciative leadership that is concerned with employee's wellbeing (Sopiyana & Soelingc, 2020), and spiritual leadership that encourages followers to intrinsically motivate themselves and installs faith and hope (Göçen & Şen, 2021).

Organ et al. (2006) suggested that good quality leader-follower relationship plays a pivotal role. The quality of relationship can be seen as an indication of how well a particular leadership style is implemented. High quality leader-follower relationship is likely to lead to mutual trust and liking, as well as reciprocity of courteous and altruistic acts, which in turn facilitates OCB (Wang, 2008). Leaders are tasked with creating a shared experience with followers, and Hollander & Julian (1968) used leadership relationship theory to call attention to the importance of employees' perception of a leader, and such perception will in turn encourage employees to engage in leaders' role modeling behaviours.

Researchers suggested that employees' perceptions about how inclusive the policies, practices and procedures are, have implications on individual attitudes, behaviours, psychological and health outcomes (e.g., Mor Barak et al., 2016). Workplace inclusion in general, has been associated with higher level of OCB (Wayne et a., 1997). Perception of inclusion was found to have predictive effect of organisational commitment and job performance (Co & Mor Barak, 2008); whereas workplace exclusion negatively impacts work attitudes and psychological well-being (Hitlan et al., 2006). An abundance of literature supports the link between employee perceptions of organisational climate and individual outcomes such as productivity, general health and well-being and intention to leave (e.g., Hedman, 2016). Panicker et al. (2018) suggested perceived inclusive leadership form an integral part of employee's overall perception of organisation's inclusion and inclusive climate. Empirical evidence supported the positive association between inclusive leadership and OCB and the negative association with counterproductive work behaviour (Seo, 2016; Hanh Tran & Choi, 2019; Aboramadan et al., 2022).

Uniquely differed from other leadership styles, inclusive leadership focuses on ensuring an even distribution of power, authority and decision making amongst diverse team members (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). A strong presence of an inclusive leader is likely to bring effective conflict management and anti-discrimination (Panicker, et al., 2018), acting as a collaborative mechanism to ensure that everyone feels involved (Ryan, 2006). Employees who are interested in others' wellbeing and helping others should appreciate an inclusive leader's effort in advocating for their colleagues who have been in an unfavourable position, therefore are more encouraged to engage in OCBI and advocate for others. An inclusive leader should role model the behaviour of listening, paying attention and showing concern to employees' needs (Hollander, 2012), thus inspiring team members to be more sensitive to others' needs, especially when others are experiencing difficulties. We hypothesise that a higher level of perceived inclusive leadership is linked with a higher level of OCBI from individual employees.

*Hypothesis 2a (H2a): Perceived inclusive leadership is positively related to the performance of OCBI.*

Inclusive leaders focus on implementing practices that increase information accessibility and decision making participation (Aboramadan et al., 2022), balance of power; and demonstrate behaviours that match organisational values (Wasserman et al., 2008). Under the supervision of an inclusive leader, individual employees are likely to gain more exposure in organisational wide processes, understanding the shared goals and objectives, and be provided with frequent opportunities to offer input and suggestions because their unique thoughts and ideas are valued by the inclusivity of their leaders (Carmeli et al., 2010). Inclusive leadership was found to have a facilitation effect for employees to engage in organisational learning, creating discussion and information sharing (Hanh Tran & Choi,

2019), offering the opportunities to enrich employee's knowledge relevant to the role and the organisation, and creating a learning-oriented culture (Zagoršek et al., 2009; Aboramadan et al., 2022). When provided with organisational resources to upskill and the assistance to develop professionally, employees are likely to feel a stronger need to protect an organisation's reputation and promote their employer to others. Therefore, we hypothesise that stronger perception of inclusive leadership amongst employees are associated with a higher level of OCBO.

*Hypothesis 2b (H2b): Perceived inclusive leadership is positively related to the performance of OCBO.*

### **Inclusive Leadership and Intention to leave**

A low quality relationship with the leader, lack of development opportunities, excessively long working hours, and welfare were amongst the most influential factors for employees to consider quitting (Bassariya & Ahmed, 2019). Intention to leave has been a focal point for researchers because it is a precursor for voluntary turnover, however is subject to influence and interventions (Harhara et al., 2015). The existing literature examined the relationships between different leadership styles and intention to leave. Ethical, transformational and servant leadership styles were proven to predict employee turnover intention, emphasizing the importance of a strong leader-follower relationship in reducing intention to leave (Babakus et al., 2010; Pravichai & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2018). These studies have accentuated the role of the essential leader-follower relationship and highlighted the need for a leadership style that fosters such relationship. In comparison, inclusive leaders distinctly focus on offering recognition, fostering belongingness, inclusiveness and valuing diverse individuals' identity (Randel et al., 2018), with an emphasis on the relationship with employees exclusively (Yasin et al., 2023). However, there is lacking

research in how inclusive leadership may contribute to employees' retention (Yasin et al., 2023).

Employee perception of the workplace can play an important role in determining their commitment and intention to leave (Whiteoak, 2007). Higher levels of perceived organisational support and Leadership Member Exchange (LMX) were found to be significant predictors of decreased intention to leave (Hom et al., 2009). Perceived organisational inclusion was found to moderate the negative relationship between resilience, work-related adjustment and turnover intention (Davies et al., 2019). When leaders are displaying inclusive behaviours and practices, employees are feeling a stronger sense of organisational inclusion, organisational identification and job embeddedness (Elsaied, 2020); and strong job embeddedness level was proven to negatively associated with decreased employee turnover intention as well as actual turnover (Michelle et al., 2001). Empirical evidence supported the negative link between inclusive leadership and intention to leave with a range of mediating and moderating models. For example, self-efficacy was found to mediate the negative relationship between inclusive leadership and intention to leave (Khan, 2021); follower-leader goal congruence acted as weak mediator, suggesting that inclusive leadership initiates positive behavioural exchange process with employees, and employees preferred to stay in the organisation when they feel comfortable and attached (Yasin et al., 2023). In this study, it is predicted that perceived inclusive leadership is negatively related to intention to leave.

*Hypothesis 2c (H2c): Perceived inclusive leadership is negatively related to intention to leave.*

A review on the existing literature that investigated the impact of inclusive leadership on OCB and intention to leave, including potential moderating and mediating effects, has

been conducted in a limited number of countries/locations. These studies investigated the relationships between inclusive leadership and composite OCB, rather than OCBO and OCBI separately. The current study will be the first study to explore the influence of inclusive leadership on different forms of OCB and intention to leave within the workplace context in New Zealand.

**Table 1**

*A Summary of existing literature investigating the relationship between inclusive leadership, OCB and intention to leave*

Australia	
Seo, (2016)	Consolidated the role of inclusive leadership in promoting OCB and diminishing counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) through team cooperative goals and team conflict as mediators.
China	
Zhang et al., (2019)	Adopted an identity approach and found the influence of strong workplace identities and higher level of perception of being equally treated on decreased turnover intention.
Fang et al., (2019)	Established that inclusive leadership asserted positive influence on new generation employees’ innovative behaviour through the mediating effect of psychological capital. Different dimensions of inclusive leadership influenced innovative thinking and innovation outcomes respectively.
Wang et al., (2020)	Tested the positive effect of inclusive leadership on affective commitment and followers taking charge. Affective commitment acted as a mediator between inclusive leadership and followers taking charge.
Ahmed et al., (2020)	Showed that inclusive leadership has a significant negative relationship with psychological distress via the mediating role of work engagement amongst nurses during the COVID-19 pandemics; provided support for social exchange theory and the importance of work engagement to help control psychological distress.

Egypt	
Elsaied, (2020)	Discovered a significant positive association between inclusive leadership and job embeddedness, and indirection influence of inclusive leadership on reduced turnover intentions and the actual turnover.
Ho Chi Minh City	
Nguyen et al., (2019)	Examined the positive impact of inclusive leadership on employee wellbeing, personal-job fit, and innovative behaviour based on Leadership Membership Exchange (LMX) theory in the Vietnamese workplace context.
India	
Panicker et al., (2018)	Tested the positive impact of perceived workplace inclusion on OCB and reduced turnover in the education sector.
Netherland	
Ashikali et al., (2021)	Identified inclusive leadership as a mediator between team's ethnic-cultural diversity and inclusive climate, suggested that greater team diversity needs to be supported by inclusive leadership in order to foster a more inclusive climate.
Pakistan	
Nazeer & Khan., (2021)	Based on the hospitality industry, the study examined the relationships between inclusive leadership, job engagement and turnover intention, using self-efficacy as a mediator.
Yasin et al., (2023)	Used a dual lens of Leadership Member Exchange (LMX) and social exchange theories to evidence the negative effect of inclusive leadership and intention, with the mediating effect of follower-leader goal congruence and organisational commitment.
Palestine	
Aboramadan et al., (2022)	Revealed that inclusive leadership yields a positive impact on extra-role behaviours (including OCB and innovative work behaviours) through the mediating role of organisational learning in the Palestinian higher education environment.
South Korea	
Davies et al., (2019)	Observed the attenuated relationship between workplace inclusion and turnover through the moderating effect of high Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). Inclusive climate enhanced resilience and the ability to adjust to work environment of

foreign-born employees in a highly homogenous society.

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Taiwan

Lin et al., (2019)

Explored turnover intention from learning perspectives by testing psychological safety as a mediator and inclusive leadership as a moderator.

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The United States

Nishii & Mayer, (2009)

Established the relationships between perceived workplace inclusion and turnover, with Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) as a moderating factor.

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Randel et al., (2016)

Supported a positive relationship between inclusive leadership and leader-directed and work group-directed self-helping behaviours.

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Jin et al., (2017)

Found the key role of leaders in fostering inclusion for the foreign-born workforce in particular.

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Randel et al., (2018)

Proved the effect of perceived inclusion in enhancing sense of belongingness and work group identification and reducing intention to leave and subsequently the actual turnover.

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## **Individualism-Collectivism (I-C)**

Cultural values play an important role in the career development process (Hartung et al., 1998). The correlation between cultural orientations and work values are well established (White, 2006). Individuals use values as standards that are socially acceptable to guide individuals' cognition, behavioural and affective processes, as well as their self-evaluation, evaluation of others, and the establishment of personal goals (Brown, 2002). Individuals operate out of awareness, or be brought into awareness on how values influence their behaviours through the process of articulation and refinement of their culture values; and the process of prioritization to rank their values relative importance (Brown, 1996). Individualism-Collectivism (I-C) is widely accepted as culture dimensions and cross-cultural comparisons that influence employee behaviours (Alkhadher et al., 2020). It has been used as a key construct and description to understand cross-cultural behaviours. A meta-analysis found that I-C explained 88% of cultural values reported in cross-culture studies (Taras et al., 2010), and it has been frequently studied in the organisational settings at different levels. It is predominantly applied to describe how individuals define themselves as socially independent or interdependent (e.g., Hofstede, 2001).

Collectivism (COL) was defined as a social framework and system in which people's identity is based (Hofstede, 1980b) on the degree to which individuals care about their groups' collective wellbeing and prefer to remain integrated into those groups (Schwartz, 1994). Collectivism beliefs emphasise social interdependence, belonging to and fitting in certain groups, following norms and rules prescribed by social groups and compromising personal goals when they conflict with group goals (Fischer et al., 2009). Individuals with collectivistic values tend to display behaviours that follow group norms, duties and obligations. Hofstede (1980a) suggested that greater emotional dependence on members of the organisation is often observed in most collectivist societies. Collectivist societies are

characterized by the communal nature, where centralized and common goals and values are the guiding principle of individual's behaviour (Schwartz, 1994). Cooperation for the purpose of attaining group goals and safeguarding group welfare is the underlying driver within a collectivist culture (Earley, 1989); and individuals are expected to withhold their own needs in favour of group needs (Triandis, 1994).

Hofstede (1980b) defined Individualism (IND) as focusing on rights above duties, personal autonomy and self-fulfillment, and personal achievements. Individualists place a stronger emphasis on individual independence, being responsible for oneself and individual interests (Hofstede, 2001). Individualistic values emphasise expression of independence (rather than interdependence) including uniqueness, rational (rather than relational) considerations of personal loss and gain from relationship with others, and expression of personal attitudes (rather than norms) that resist social pressure (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Their behaviours are more likely to be guided by their personal needs and perceived personal acts (Fischer et al., 2009). Pursuing individual goals that may or may not be consistent with in-group goals and taking pride in one's own accomplishments are the key characteristics of an individualist culture, and individualists tend to view their relationships with the organisation more selectively. They may drop out of membership of an in group that differs from, or hinders attainment of, individual goals; and they may often associate themselves with multiple in groups (Earley, 1989). Individual goals and personal achievements are accentuated in individualistic cultures, and studies found that such focus on personal rewards, self-enhancement and intrinsic motivation can drive individual performance (Triandis et al., 1988).

Although certain societies seem to have more prevalent cultural values, there are mixed views with regards to whether I-C is a between or within-culture dimension. Early cross-cultural literature closely associated country (or nation) with one (and only one)

particular cultural type. Hofstede (1980a) conceptualised I-C as one of the key country-level differentiators, discussed antecedents and consequences of I-C dimensions in the workplace, and provided an overarching framework to compare different societies. The conceptual framework proposed that IND and COL reflect opposing views. For example, the United States of America represents a typical individualist country and China as a collectivist country (Hofstede, 1980a). It was commonly assumed that individualism was more prevalent in post industrialization Western countries than developing countries. However, others argued that this doesn't capture the complexity and evolving nature of a culture that can change over time (Oyserman et al., 2002). For example, the Civil Rights Movement in American championed the belief in freedom, free choice and self-actualization significantly uplifted the entitlement of individual rights and empowerment in African American societies that were previously thought to struggle to assimilate to the individualist culture that Europeans immigrants brought to the U.S. (e.g., Sampson, 2001). Carter (1991, p.166) argued that "there is considerable diversity within the values systems of people from the same cultural groups and extensive overlap in the cultural values held by people from different cultural groups".

Many suggested that an individual's cultural orientation should fall along a continuum regardless of the predominant cultural values of their countries. Triandis (1995) further investigated the underlying components of I-C, which include (1) individual's self-perception (the degree to which they define themselves based their distinctiveness from others or commonality with others); (2) individual's relationships with others (whether individuals manage their relationships with the group based on rational and cost-benefit factors or relational and social-emotional considerations); (3) the goals individuals follow (the extent to which individuals have goals that are distinctive from, or aligned with group goals); and (4) what drives individual's behaviours (whether individuals behave in a way

that follows their unique personal needs and attributes or group norms and obligations). Triandis (1995) proposed that countries where collectivist culture dominates have people who are more individualistic in nature, and vice versa. In a meta-analysis by Oyserman et al. (2002), it was found that European Americans were both more individualistic (valuing personal independence) and less collectivistic (feeling duty to in-groups), however no more individualistic than African Americans, or Latinos, and not less collectivistic than Japanese or Koreans. Only Chinese (amongst all Asian countries) were found to have a larger effect as being both less individualistic and more collectivistic. Later research supported this with no interactions found between country (and job level) and I-C by comparing U.S. and Chinese samples (Becton & Field, 2009). This highlighted the need to investigate the varying degree of cultural influences on individuals, regardless of which culture type is prevalent in the society. It was suggested that a greater variability of I-C beliefs can be expected at an individual level, as the process of individuals' self sense-making is chronic and under the influence of both individual attributes (independence) and the group (dependence) (Oyserman et al., 2002).

### **Measure of Individualism-Collectivism**

How best can cultural values be assessed has been a focal point for many discussions (e.g., Brown, 2022). Early conceptualization of I-C as contrasting or opposite cultural differentiators, especially when comparing European American and East Asian cultures (e.g., Hui, 1988; Chan, 1994; Yamaguchi, 1994). Hofstede (1980a) approached the measurement of I-C based on the assumption that they are on a single continuum, with low IND signifying high COL and can be used to indicate a country's unique cultural identity by correlating aggregate measure of individualism with each country's gross national product (GNP), population and density. However, Hofstede (1980a) acknowledged that country-level I-C measures could not explain individual behaviours. Others echoed this by demonstrating

within-group differences for all cultural groups as well as overlapping cross groups (e.g., Carter, 1991), and suggested that race and ethnicity should not be used as agents to assess culture (e.g., Ho, 1995; Brown, 2022), or assigning national cultural values to individuals as default (Smith et al., 2011).

Building upon the traditional I-C construct, Triandis (1998) developed a four-dimensional approach to measuring I-C based on factor analysis, redefining horizontal and vertical segments of individualism and collectivism. Horizontal individualism describes the extent to which individuals see themselves as unique and independent while still maintaining a sense of interconnection with others and do not seek higher status; whereas vertical individualists see themselves as independent from others and are driven primarily by self-interest. Horizontal collectivists view themselves as interdependent and embed in social relationships, and believe in the importance of sociality and cooperation, while vertical collectivism refers to the degree to which individuals value personal autonomy and differentiation within a hierarchical view of social relationships.

Others developed questionnaires to associate individual I-C level with outcomes, attitudes, and behaviours by asking respondents to rate the degree to which they agree to certain statements, or how important they found the behaviours or attitude to them (Singelis, 1994; Singelis et al., 1995; Hui, 1988). However, limitations of these measures were frequently raised amongst researchers. Firstly, these instruments asked respondents to report on their attitudes and beliefs in everyday life, whereas Schwarz and Oyserman (2001) argued that such general attitudes and beliefs may not be representative of individuals I-C level when placed in different contexts. Secondly, an accurate reflection of individual's I-C level is dependent on respondents' declarative knowledge and may be limited in indicating more subtle and implicit values (Peng et al., 1997). Thirdly, the consistency to which cross-cultural respondents comprehend the meaning of rating scales such as "very much agree" or

“very important”, was questionable. Ji et al. (2000) addressed that response scales influenced Chinese and American respondents differently, and others consistently found that certain ethnic groups tended to respond to more extreme scales more frequently than others (e.g., Peng et al., 1997; Heine et al., 2002). Lastly, Heine et al. (2002) pointed out the potential ‘reference group effect’ bias that may occur, where respondents compared themselves to others they know, which are most likely to be people from their own culture. Therefore, the frame of reference of agreement could be inconsistent.

The Auckland Individualism-Collectivism Scale (AICS) was developed to address the above concerns by measuring individual values and beliefs using frequency of behaviours rather than agreement (Shulruf et al., 2007). It was developed based on a meta-analysis conducted by Oyserman et al. (2002), which called attention to the reference-group effect of previously developed instruments. Oyserman et al. (2002) also highlighted the confounding effect of familialism, where previous research showed that people prioritised immediate family’s interests over their own amongst individualist societies, suggesting that familialism may not be a major attribute of collectivism but a separate domain of collectivism. Many out of the 21 items that did not relate to any factor were family-related items, and these items were excluded in the AICS (Shulruf et al., 2007). The AICS adopted a dimensional approach to define and measure I-C, which reflected more recent findings that suggested no clear distinction of individualism and collectivism across cultures, and there should be varying patterns of I-C dimensions in each society (Triandis, 2001).

### **Individualism-Collectivism as a Moderator**

Whilst research found evidence to the influence of I-C in the workplace, the simple main effect of I-C on job performance or satisfaction should not be studied in isolation. Rather, it should be explored within specific social contexts and with its interaction with the effect of I-C. For example, an improvement in performance was achieved only when instructions were group focused for Chinese managers (within a presumed highly collectivistic culture); whereas in the U.S. (within a presumed typical individualistic culture), managers improved their performance when the instructions they received focused on individual efficacy (Earley, 1994). Chatman and Barsade (1995) had similar findings, where collectivists' cooperative behaviours were enhanced in an environment that promotes cooperative norms, however no such effect was found amongst individualists. Collectivist individuals tend to find their work more satisfying when social networks are emphasised, whereas individualist employees tend to gain a higher level of satisfaction when their work is self-defining (Oyserman et al., 2002). I-C was found to have a positive association with group efficacy and group performance only when COL was high, and such association did not exist when COL was low (Gibson, 1999). These findings demonstrated the selective nature of individual cognitive processes under the influence of differing cultural values, which in turn could precipitate varying behavioural and business outcomes in the work context.

Leadership can be seen as an outcome of the social cognitive process, and such intentional process can be realised through leader behaviours, traits and characteristics, and how these are interpreted by followers (House & Aditya, 1997). Gersner and Day (1994) examined the reason why productive leaders often were able to affect their subordinates, and concluded that the level of leadership effectiveness was dependent on the acceptance of leaders by their subordinates. Factors such as age, gender, the size of the business, skill

levels may be the determinants of such subconscious prototypes, and culture has become a frequently studied contributor to forming leadership perceptions (Shafer et al., 2005). Lord and Maher (1991) proposed two processes of leadership perception based on the social-cognitive theory. Inference-based perception involves recognising leadership effectiveness through key organisational events and successful outcomes, whereas recognition-based process utilise previous knowledge pays attention to the underlying leadership traits and behaviours. Collectivists tend to identify with their leaders' goals more often and the shared vision of the group, exhibit higher level of loyalty (Jung et al., 1995), whereas individualists are more likely to follow and comply with leaders' direction based on performance (Conger and Kanungo, 1998). It was suggested that collectivists tend to adopt a recognition-based process, whereas individualists may adopt a combination of recognition and inference-based processes (Yan & Hunt, 2005).

While the social exchange theory lays the foundation to describe the overall relationship between inclusion and OCB, individual perception of inclusive leadership behaviours and the feelings elicited may differ under the influence of their own psychological characteristics and cultural beliefs. That is, the exchange of supportive behaviours from employees are more likely to be displayed to leaders who have made them feel included and supported. Hofstede (1980a) suggested that individualistic societies tend to prefer transactional leadership styles that place a stronger emphasis on task completion, goal setting and rewards, as well as on individual accountability and performance. On the contrary, collectivistic cultures tend to favour transformational leadership that concentrates on intellectual stimulation, individual inspiration and consideration, and motivation (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The moderating effect of culture were found to be stronger for directive leadership than for supportive leadership on group level organisational citizenship behaviour, and the effect of directive leadership was more negative in individualistic cultures (Euwema

et al., 2007). Collectivism moderated the relationship between paternalistic leadership style and OCBI, whereas individualism did not have any moderating effects on the relationship between empowering leadership style and OCB (Ersoy et al., 2012).

The moderating role of culture on the leadership and OCB relationship have been evidenced through different processes (Euwema et al., 2007). Studies showed a number of leadership attributes that gained positive perception universally across cultures, while others are more culturally sensitive. In the GLOBE project that aimed to investigate leadership and organisational behaviour across various cultures, commonalities and significant differences were found in the endorsement of charismatic and transformational leadership attributes. Attributes such as being visionary, inspiring and having high integrity were found to be universally endorsed. However, different cultural groups valued certain aspects of leadership attributes more highly. For example, high COL cultures that emphasise hierarchy favour leadership attributes related to group harmony and benevolence, whilst high IND cultures prefer leadership attributes related to assertiveness and achievements (Den et al., 1999). This insinuates that individuals from varying cultural backgrounds will appreciate, and benefit from certain shared leadership characteristics, however through different lenses curated by what each individual believes as important, as a repercussion of their own enculturation. The essence of inclusive leadership is to create environments where every individual feels valued, respected, and empowered to contribute their unique perspectives and talents (Pless, et al., 2011). Because individualists are concerned with self-interests and favour work environments that endorse their personal needs (Nisbett et al., 2001), individualistic employees who work under an inclusive manager are likely to be granted a higher level of autonomy and independence, and more frequent opportunities pursue personal growth and fulfilment; whereas collectivistic employees are more inclined to seek stronger interpersonal

connections, shared goals and team contribution within a stable, supportive and cohesive culture that an inclusive manager can foster.

Smith et al. (2011) concluded that the differences between I-C behaviours were more strongly predicted by contextual factors of the organisation such as hierarchical relations than by nation-level collectivism practices. Similarly, Oyserman et al. (2002) suggested that individuals are likely to differ on what they understand to be reinforcing and rewarding, and how they treat in-group as opposed to out-group members, therefore relationality (closeness to others and ingroup relations) needs to be considered when studying self-concept and attitude. This lends support to Brown (2002)'s conclusion, that a number of other variables interact with values to influence occupational choice and outcome.

Influenced by studies of volunteerism, Finkelstein (2012) incorporated I-C into a conceptual framework for understanding OCB. It was suggested that volunteerism and OCB share common attributes such as “long term, planned, and discretionary acts that occur in an organisational context and benefit nonintimate others” (Finkelstein, 2012, p. 1636) . The study examined I-C as antecedents of OCB by integrating two traditional theories: functional analysis and role identity theory. Functional analysis entails the identification of the function or need an activity serves in order to understand why a person engages in that activity (Clary et al., 1998).

Other researchers supported motives and role identity as antecedents to sustained OCB (e.g., Dávila & Finkelstein, 2010). Based on the role identity theory, it was suggested that a person associate him/herself with the organisational citizenship identity that consists of two dimensions: identifying as one who helps individuals in the organisation (RII), and as one who helps the organisation (RIO) (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Collectivists were more strongly associated with the identity as one who helps individuals (RII), whereas individualists tend to have a higher level of regard for the organisation (RIO). It was

encapsulated that the amount of organisational citizenship individualists and collectivists display does not differ, however in why they served and how they perceived the experience does (Finkelstein, 2013).

Hence, it is reasonable to postulate that the expectations of an inclusive leader may differ between employees with collectivistic and individualistic cultural beliefs. This study incorporated perceived inclusive leadership (PIL) as the context in which the varying degree of I-C values may link with forms of OCB and intention to leave. Subordinates tend to favour managers or leaders who compared positively with the prototype already established subconsciously (Shaw, 1990), however the processes and cognitive mechanisms in perceiving an inclusive leader and matching such perception to individual's own prototype and expectations differ between individualistic and collectivistic employees (Finkelstein, 2013). The degree to which these expectations are met and fulfilled, will in turn lead to differing levels of willingness to display voluntary behaviours that are beneficial to co-workers or (and) the organisation.

Previous studies evidenced the moderating effect of I-C on a range of leadership styles and OCB, including transformational leadership (Sehrawat & Jindal, 2016), directive leadership and supportive leadership (Euwema et al., 2007), authoritative leadership (Hongyu et al., 2012), caring leadership and paternalistic leadership (Kececi, 2017). However, these studies examined OCB as a composite construct, rather than investigating the mechanisms through which leadership may assert influence on different types of OCB. This study's primary focus is to examine the moderating effect of culture in the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBI and OCBO respectively.

### **Collectivism as a moderator for Perceived Inclusive Leadership and OCBI**

In the workplace context, employees with collectivist values tend to perceive one's relationship with the organisation as a moral bond (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006) and feel a

stronger need to repay favorable treatment in the form of OCB. Thus, it was believed that collectivistic individuals depend more on others, feel a greater level of obligation, and are more likely to repay favourable treatment as an act of reciprocity (Alkhadher et al., 2020). Employees who are collectivistic may go beyond their in-role requirements and offer examples of interpersonal support and boost individual initiative (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). Employees in collectivistic countries are less likely to establish clear boundaries between work and personal domains (Smith, et al., 1996) or calculate costs and benefits associated with extra work commitments due to their strong association with the organisation as one of their social groups (Yang et al., 2012). Employees in collectivistic cultures conform to group norms and duties rather than personal interests (Fischer et al., 2009), are more sensitive to their surroundings (Nisbett et al., 2001), consider others' viewpoints, and emphasising the need to achieve social harmony through group cooperation (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). Gomez et al. (2000) found that collectivists tend to provide more generous evaluations to in-group members, and favour receiving team-based rewards than individualists (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2000).

Studies that focused on team dynamics suggested that teamwork and collaboration were highly favoured in collectivistic cultures. Higher levels of harmony, shared responsibility and interdependence, as well as team-based approaches are more frequently observed, and highly promoted in collectivistic societies (Gelfand et al., 2007). Collectivistic values were also shown to influence team level performance. Eby & Dobbins (1997) suggested that teams with a higher number of collectivists are likely to display more cooperative and supportive behaviours, which were typically linked with higher level of team effectiveness (Campion et al., 1996; Hyatt & Ruddy, 1997). In a study that investigated self-managing work teams across countries, it was found that teams with higher level of collectivistic beliefs achieved higher level of productivity, cooperation and

empowerment (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). Teams with a stronger collectivistic orientation display more cooperative behaviour, which mediates the relationship between I-C and team performance (Eby & Dobbins, 1997). Pillai and Meindl (1998) found a positive association between collectivism and charismatic leadership, which was in turn positively related to satisfaction with the leader, and leader effectiveness.

Finkelstein (2010) found that collectivism was associated with altruistic motives, whereas individualism was strongly related to the self-focused desire for career advancement. The social and group-focused behaviour of collectivists was identified with norms, obligation and perceived duties. Leadership provides guidance, coordination, and motivation to team members to achieve common goals in a strategic manner (Widyastuti & Wahyuningsih, 2024). Inclusive leaders are responsible for ensuring everyone bring their full selves to work and are valued for what each individuals have to offer, regardless of their backgrounds (Ferdman, 2014), role modelling behaviours that collectivistic employees believe as important. Collectivistic employees tend to focus their attention upon the context within which interpersonal interactions occur, thus they are likely to be delighted and encouraged by an inclusive leader's contribution to foster an environment that cultivates the cohesion and the team's overall success.

Highly collectivistic individuals were found to display stronger concern for coworkers and stronger self-identification as one who helps colleagues (Finkelstein, 2012). Inclusive leaders tend to demonstrate behaviours such as actively seeking out diverse viewpoints, fostering collaboration and promoting equity through eliminating favoritism and removing barriers to stereotypical thoughts (Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000). This should in turn strengthen interpersonal connections, motivate collectivistic employees to achieve shared goals and collaboration, optimise the working environment particularly for collectivists who are driven by the desire to form social bonds and group cohesion (Leung,

et al., 2005), and provide ample opportunities for collectivists to support colleagues to collaborate and contribute to team objectives in a collegial manner. We predict that employees with stronger collectivistic values tend to display a higher level of OCBI when they perceive a higher level of inclusive behaviours from their leaders.

*Hypothesis 3a (H3a): The positive relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBI is stronger for employees with higher collectivistic values.*

### **Individualism as a moderator for Perceived Inclusive Leadership and OCBO**

Individualists follow self-interests rather than group norms, favour work environments that are sensitive to their personal needs, and focus more on the immediate task at hand by engaging in analytical cognition more frequently (Nisbett et al., 2001). The social behaviour of individualists was predicted by their attitudes and internal processes, rather than norms, obligation or perceived duties (Singelis et al., 1995).

In the work context, I-C values were shown to influence employee's attributional process in assessing accountability of work demands, which indirectly impact one's perceived ability to cope. Employees in individualistic countries were found to have a lower inclination to expect and seek support, following normative instructions to solve problems to perform tasks as autonomously as possible (Goodwin & Plaza, 2000). Employees with strong individualistic values regulate their behaviours and investments for the gain of direct benefits, are more sensitive to the costs and benefits of maintaining relationships, and tend to focus more on the leader than their peers (Eumewa et al., 2007), shaped by their independent self-construals (Yang et al., 2012). Individualists tend to pursue career advancement, individual achievement, and status via competition (Chan & Snape, 2013). Empirical evidence supported I-C's moderating role in the relationship between unemployment and

lower life satisfaction, self-esteem and happiness, and the moderating effect is stronger for individualists than for collectivists (Martella & Maas, 2000), suggesting that personal achievement weighted more heavily amongst individualists.

Individualists tend to give more emphasis to performance orientation and task focus (Smith et al., 2011), and Finkelstein (2012) found that highly individualistic people were more strongly associated with commitment to the institution and identified as ones who serve the organisation. They tend to engage in OCB as avenues to enhance the possibility of promotion, especially when they are exposed to the manager or important personnel (Eastman, 1994), driven by personal orientation, impression management and calculative motives (Bolino, 1999). Alkhadher et al. (2020) argued that individualists may take any form of OCB including even OCBI with their managers' presence, as long as it serves their self-interest and helps to obtain advancement; and their study showed a strong association between individualism and OCBO only. Therefore, it is possible that individualistic employees favour inclusive leaders who are more attentive to their desire to achieve personal goals and career progression, displaying above and beyond behaviours directed at the organisation (OCBO) to better align themselves with more senior positions within the organisation.

***Hypothesis 3b (H3b):** The positive relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBO is stronger for employees with higher individualistic values.*

### **Individualism as a moderator for Perceived Inclusive Leadership and Intention to Leave**

Employee turnover rate is relatively higher in a multi-cultural environment (Morris et al., 2009) than in local operations. HR practices alone failed to assert a strong impact on

employee retention when employees share different sets of norms and values (Zhang et al., 2019). A comparison of human resource practices that aimed to improve retention between countries suggested that such practices in western countries (EU/US) had the least impact on Chinese employees (Zimmerman et al., 2013), suggesting that a different set of retention strategies may be more effective for individualistic and collectivistic individuals.

Most research investigating the role of cultural values in the context of employee turnover intention and actual turnover was based on Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of national culture, whereas others were based on the I-C framework developed by Triandis (1995). Yang et al. (2012) found that I-C moderated the mediating effect of perceived workload between work hours and both job dissatisfaction and turnover intentions.

Individualistic employees tend to perceive high workload and work strain more negatively than collectivistic employees, displayed lower job satisfaction and higher intention to leave.

When working the same number of hours, individualistic employees reported a higher perceived workload than employees in collectivistic countries (Yang et al., 2012).

Individuals with stronger individualistic values were more motivated by their personal attitudes about job seeking and less concerned with perception of social pressure (Hooft & Jong, 2010)

In a meta-analysis conducted by Wong and Cheng (2020), individualism was found to moderate the positive relationship between turnover intention and actual turnover, indicating that individualistic employees were more likely to leave the organisation after the intention was formed; whereas collectivistic individuals may be more inclined to ponder on their intention. In a cross-country comparison of the effect of job embeddedness on turnover, personal-job fit predicted lower turnover in the US, whereas personal-organisational fit, organisational links and community links were significant predictors for lower turnover in India (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010), indicating that the connections between individuals and

their work and community groups in collectivistic cultures played a buffering effect between the stages of forming turnover intentions and actual turnover.

Self-serving attribution (the tendency to attribute positive situations to self and negative ones to other causes) is more likely to occur amongst individualistic employees in face of adverse events (attributing unmet personal expectations to organisational factors, poor management, or others' shortcomings) (Thomas et al., 2003; Mezulis et al., 2004). In an individualistically oriented culture, executives and senior leaders are commonly thought to have the responsibility for either success or failure of the business (Yang et al., 2012). On the other hand, Employees in collectivistic countries are less self-serving in their attributional process concerning the accountability of adverse events, perceive a higher level of coping mechanisms such as social support, and therefore are less likely to form negative perceptions (Yang et al., 2012).

Hence, we argue a perceived lower level of perceived inclusive leadership may not play a pivotal role in shaping collectivistic individual's intention to leave, as their bond with their peers are likely to surpass the relationship with the leader. Previous studies found evidence that an absence of supportive leadership may strengthen the bond between subordinates, as they become increasingly reliant on each other for support, guidance, and collaboration (e.g., Kanfer et al., 1995; Chênevert et al., 2015). Collectivists who emphasise interpersonal bond and collaboration are likely to turn to team members when a leader failed to demonstrate inclusive behaviours. Yan and Hunt (2005)'s study lent support to the self-serving attribution tendency among individualists, suggesting that due to the emphasis a collectivist culture places on group effort and success, the failure is more likely to be attributed to the lack of effort to the entire group, rather than to individual leaders albeit they may play the most important role in achieving team and organisational success. On the contrary, an individualistic person's primary focus is on self-fulfillment, personal

achievements and interests (Hofstede, 2001) rather than in-group goals or relationships (Triandis et al., 1988). They tend to maintain relationships based on calculative motives, assess the costs and benefits of the relationships (Fischer et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2012), and may drop out of membership that hinders the attainment of individual goals (Earley, 1989), including the association with a non-inclusive leader who is not able to offer the opportunity to personal achievement and success. Hence, we argue that a lower level of perceived inclusive leadership behaviours is more likely to cause individualistic employees to lose interest in showing concerns for the organisation and form a stronger intention to leave.

**Hypothesis 3c (H3c):** *The negative relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and Intention to leave is stronger for employees with higher individualistic values.*

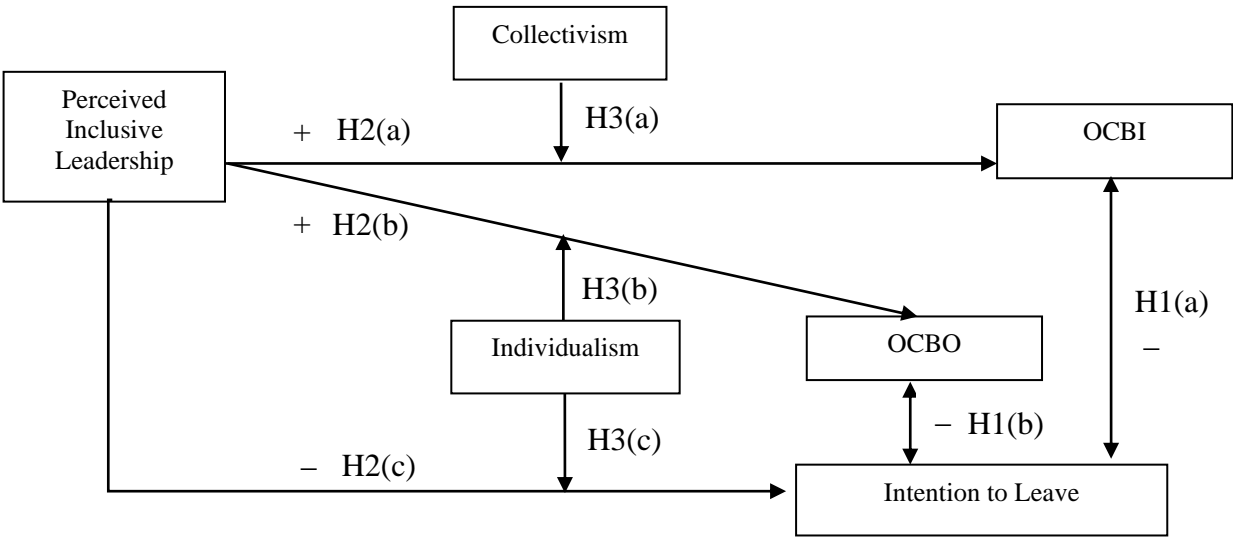


Figure 1: Conceptual Model

## **CHAPTER 3 - METHOD**

### **Design**

The present study applied a non-experimental, cross-sectional design using an online survey for the purpose of data collection. To establish statistical linkages between constructs for the purpose of this study, a survey was developed combining reliable and validated questionnaires measuring perceived inclusive leadership, individualism-collectivism, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to leave. Demographic questions were also built into the survey.

### **Procedure and Ethical Considerations**

In line with Massey University Ethic regulations, this study has been evaluated by peer review and qualified as a low risk study, and launched as a low risk project with the Ethics Committee (Low Risk Notification 4000027407; see Appendix B). The survey was uploaded to and administered via online survey platform Qualtrics (see Appendix C). Participants completed the self-administered questionnaire online. Responses were collected anonymously, and participants' data was kept confidential on the Qualtrics platform.

Invitations to complete the survey were advertised on social media platforms and shared to the main researcher's network and relevant groups. An introduction page was available to participants after clicking on the link, outlining the anonymous and voluntary nature of the study and that the data collected would be treated confidentially. Participants were also informed that they had the right to abandon the survey at any point in time, and no identifiable data would be captured. A thank you message, and a brief summary of the research topic was provided at the end of the survey.

## Sample

Data was collected from a convenience and snowball sample of working professionals (n=99) across locations, industries and sectors in New Zealand. Recruiting participants from a single organisation was avoided to reduce bias and ensure a wider spectrum of cultural values were represented.

Eligible respondents needed to be of more than 18 years of age, have a direct manager or team leader, and have worked in a team of more than 5 people (inclusive of the manager/team leader) for more than 3 months. The size of the team and the length of service were determined to filter respondents who would have ample opportunities to interact with their manager in one-on-one or within a team context, observe the interaction between their manager/team leader and their colleagues, and form consistent perceptions on typical leadership behaviours.

A priori power analysis using G\*Power was conducted assuming a medium effect size, an alpha error of .05 and a power of .95. Table 2 displays the participants' demographic data. With regards to age, 40.4% were between 22 to 29 years old, and 59.6% were between 40 to 64 years old. Two-thirds (66.7%) of the participants have been in their current team between 3 to 24 months, whereas one-third (33.3%) have worked in their team for 24 months or more. Table 2 shows the final sample consisted of 99 participants with 78% female, 19% male and 3% preferred not to say.

**Table 2**

*Descriptive statistics of the sample's (n = 99) demographic variables*

Variable	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Deviation
Age	40.75	41	22	64	9.177
Tenure (in months)	30.25	36.96	3	204	36.96

**Table 3***Descriptive statistics of the sample's gender (n=99)*

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Accumulated %</b>
Male	19	19	19
Female	77	78	97
Prefer not to say	3	3	100

### **Measures**

Data was collected via a composite questionnaire containing four measures and demographic variables. Factor structures of all scales (except for Intention to Leave) were tested in supplementary analyses (detailed in Appendix A).

#### **Individualism-Collectivism (I-C)**

The current study used the 26 item Auckland Individualism-Collectivism Scale for measuring attributes of collectivism and individualism among adult populations, developed by Shulruf et al. (2007). It uses a 6-point frequency Likert-scale (1= *Never or almost never*; 2= *Rarely*; 3= *Occasionally*; 4= *Often*; 5= *Very often*; 6 = *Always*). Eleven items comprise two domains (Advice and Harmony), which relate to collectivistic attributes. Fifteen items form three domains (Compete, Unique and Responsibility), which relate to individualistic attributes. Samples items are the following: '*I define myself as a competitive person*' (Compete domain), or '*Before I make a major decision, I seek advice from people close to me*' (Harmony domain). The domain scores were obtained by calculating the mean scores of the respective subscales. Higher scores represent stronger cultural values (individualistic or collectivistic).

A study (Shulruf et al., 2011) that validated the AICS across populations from 5 different countries showed a good level of reliability ( $\alpha = .78$  for both collectivism and

individualism). The scales in the present study showed good internal consistency for individualism ( $\alpha = .77$ ) and collectivism ( $\alpha = .78$ ).

### **Perceived Inclusive Leadership (PIL)**

A 9-item Inclusive Leadership measure was used to assess three dimensions (openness, availability and accessibility) of inclusive leadership (Carmeli et al., 2010). Respondents were asked to assess on a five-point scale (ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*) on whether their manager/ team leader display openness and is available and accessible for them at work. Sample items include “*My manager is available for consultation on problems (availability)*” and “*My manager encourages me to access them on emerging issues (accessibility)*”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this measure was .93. The overall PIL score was calculated based on the mean scores of nine items. The higher the score the stronger the perception of inclusive behaviours from participants’ leaders.

### **Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)**

OCB was measured using a 16-item scale developed by Lee and Allen (2002). These items were selected from a pool created by previous OCB scales to avoid overlapping OCBI and OCBO items. Sample items of this scale are “*I give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems*” (OCBI)” and “*I defend the organisation when other employees criticize it* (OCBO)”. Respondents were asked to assess on a seven-point scale (ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) on the extent to which they demonstrate behaviours that supports others or/and the organisation. OCBI and OCBO comprised of 8 items each, and the Cronbach alphas were .80 and .86 respectively. The overall OCBI and OCBO scores were calculated based on the means of the corresponding eight items. The higher the scores the more likely participants are to display these behaviours during a typical workday.

### **Intention to Leave (ITL)**

This is a three-item scale asking the extent to which participants think about quitting their job (Cole & Bruch, 2006). Sample item includes “*I think about quitting my job.*”.

Participants provided rating on a seven-point rating scale (1=Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree). The overall ITL rating was calculated based on the means of these three items. Higher scores indicate stronger intention to leave.

### **Statistical Analysis**

Scale scores were computed from individual items using mean values, except for demographic variables (Tenure, Gender and Age) . There was no missing data from the sample upon screening. All variables met the assumption of normal distribution. All skewness values were within the acceptable range of  $\pm 1$  and kurtosis values within the acceptable range of  $\pm 2$  (Hair et al., 2010; Bryne, 2010).

Pearson correlations were computed to establish relationships. Subsequently, moderation was tested using centred independent variables and centred moderators. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis process tested for linear and moderator effects. The first step tested for linear effects between the demographic variables as control variables (Age, gender and tenure) and the dependent variables (OCBI, OCBO, PIL). The second step tested linear effects between the centred independent variables (PIL), the moderators (IND and COL), and the dependent variables. Interaction effects were calculated by multiplying the centred independent variable with each moderator variable. The interaction effect was added in the third step of the regression analysis.

The check for multiple regression assumptions was performed. Normal P-P plots for standardized residuals was checked to ensure multivariate normally for the regression model, and scatter plots of standardized residuals were plotted against standardized predicted values to ensure homoscedasticity assumptions were met. In addition, VIF values were assessed to

check potential issues of multicollinearity. All VIF values were below the critical conservative value of 5 (Garson, 2012).

## CHAPTER 4 - RESULTS

### Gender Differences

An independent t-test was conducted to explore gender differences. The results showed no meaningful differences between male and female in how they perceive inclusive leadership behaviours, individualistic or collectivistic values, OCB or intention to leave.

**Table 4**

*Results of t-test gender*

Gender	Male		Female		<i>t</i> (97)	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Tenure in Months	37.37	48.09	28.78	34.53	.89	.43	.23
Collectivism	3.73	.67	3.44	.63	1.76	.96	.45
Individualism	4.03	.43	3.92	.59	.76	.17	.19
Perceived Inclusive Leadership	3.89	.54	4.25	.76	-1.92	.14	-.49
OCBI	5.65	.71	5.90	.64	-1.52	.58	-.39
OCBO	5.47	1.00	5.82	.75	-1.71	.33	-.44
Intention to Leave	4.84	1.41	3.04	1.78	2.05	.15	.53

### Hypothesis Testing

**Hypothesis 1(a) and (b): OCBI and OCBO will have a negative relationship with intention to leave.**

Hypothesis 1(a) and (b) predicted that organisational citizenship behaviours would be negatively related to intention to leave. As indicated in Table 5, our analysis suggested no evidence of relationships between citizenship behaviours that benefit the individuals (OCBI,  $r=.09$ ,  $p=ns$ ) with intention to leave, whereas citizenship behaviour that benefit the organisation (OCBO  $r=-.31$ ,  $p<.01$ ) had a negative significant relationship with intention to leave. Hence, hypothesis 1(a) was rejected and 1(b) was supported.

**Hypothesis 2(a) and 2(b): Perceived inclusive leadership is positively related to the performances of both types of organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBI and OCBO).**

Hypothesis 2(a) and 2(b) predicted that perceived inclusive leadership will have a positive relationship with both types of organisational citizenship behaviours. As indicated in Table 5, our analysis suggests that perceived inclusive leadership is positively related to the citizenship behaviours that benefit the organisation (OCBO,  $r=.30$ ,  $p<.05$ ), but not related to behaviours that benefit individuals (OCBI,  $r=.04$ ,  $p=ns$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 2(a) was rejected and 2(b) was supported.

**Hypothesis 2(c): Perceived inclusive leadership is negatively related to intention to leave.**

Hypothesis 2c predicted that perceived inclusive leadership will have a negative relationship with intention to leave. As indicated in Table 5, perceived inclusive leadership ( $r=-.46$ ,  $p<.01$ ) is negatively related to intention to leave. Therefore, hypothesis 2c is supported.

**Hypothesis 3(a): The positive relationship between Perceived Inclusive Leadership and OCBI are stronger for employees with higher collectivistic values**

Hypothesis 3(a) predicted that collectivism would moderate the positive relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBI. Table 5 indicated a significant positive correlation between COL and OCBI ( $r= .26$ ,  $p< .05$ ), however no significant relationship between COL and OCBO ( $r= -.03$ ,  $p=ns$ ). A three-step hierarchical multiple regression was conducted with OCBI as the dependent variable. Table 6 showed that demographic characters had no significant effect on OCBI, explaining 5% of the variation. Only an addition of 10% of the variation was explained when PIL and COL was added in step two.

Collectivism was shown to be the only significant predictor in the model when added in step two ( $B=.34$ ,  $SE=.10$ ,  $p<.01$ ), and when the interaction effect was added in step three ( $B=.31$ ,  $SE=.10$ ,  $p<.01$ ). The results suggested that perceived inclusive leadership was not a significant predictor of OCBI, and collectivism did not moderate the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBI. Hence, hypothesis 4(a) was not supported.

**Hypothesis 3(b): The positive relationship between Perceived Inclusive Leadership and OCBO is stronger for employees with higher individualistic values.**

Hypothesis 3(b) predicted that individualism would moderate the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBO. Table 5 indicated a positive relationship between PIL and OCBO ( $r = .26$ ,  $p<.05$ ). As shown in table 7, in the first step, albeit tenure showed a significant effect on OCBO ( $B=.01$ ,  $SE=.00$ ,  $p<.05$ ), demographics explained only 6% of the variance in OCBO with no significant total effect. Adding the independent variable and the moderator to the regression model in the second step explained an additional 14% of the variation, where tenure was no longer a significant predictor. Perceived inclusive leadership ( $B=.32$ ,  $SE=.11$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and individualism ( $B=.33$ ,  $SE=.14$ ,  $p<.05$ ) were shown to be significant predictors for OCBO. However, when the interaction effect was added in the third step, less than 1% of additional variation was added. Perceived inclusive leadership and individualism remained to be significant predictors respectively, with non-significant interaction effect evidenced ( $B=-.05$ ,  $SE=.19$ ,  $p=.81$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 3(b) was not supported, suggesting that individualism did not moderate the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBO.

**Hypothesis 3(c): The negative relationship between Perceived Inclusive Leadership and Intention to leave is stronger for employees with higher individualistic values.**

Hypothesis 3(c) predicted that individualism will moderate the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and intention to leave. As shown in Table 8, in the first step of the regression model, demographic variables were shown to have a significant total effect, explaining 17% of the variance. Age ( $B=.05$ ,  $SE=.02$ ,  $p<.01$ ), tenure ( $B=-.01$ ,  $SE=.00$ ,  $p<.01$ ), and gender ( $B=-.75$ ,  $SE=.30$ ,  $p<.05$ ) were all significant predictors of ITL. Tenure and gender remained significant predictors during step two and step three. When independent variable (PIL) and the moderator (IND) were added in step two, an additional 19% of the variance was explained and age was no longer a significant predictor. Perceived inclusive leadership ( $B=-.99$ ,  $SE=.21$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and individualism ( $B=.71$ ,  $SE=.26$ ,  $p<.01$ ) were also evidenced to be significant predictor for intention to leave. In the third step where the interaction effect was added, no additional proportion of variance was shown, indicating that there was no significant moderating effect ( $B=-.04$ ,  $SE=.37$ ,  $p=.91$ ) of individualism in the perceived inclusive leadership and intention to leave relationship. Therefore, hypothesis 4(c) was not supported.

**Table 5**

*Pearson correlation matrix between the mean scores of Collectivism (COL), Individualism (IND), Perceived Inclusive Leadership (PIL), OCBI, OCBO, Intention to Leave (ITL), Tenure and age for the entire sample (n=99)*

<b>Variables</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>
1. Collectivism	3.49	.64	(.77)							
2. Individualism	3.93	.56	.21*	(.78)						
3. Perceived Inclusive Leadership	4.16	.73	.18	.10	(.93)					
4. OCBI	5.84	.65	.26*	.17	.04	(.80)				
5. OCBO	5.73	.81	-.03	.26*	.30**	.41**	(.86)			
6. Intention to Leave	4.10	1.73	-.03	.18	-.46**	.09	-.31**	(.85)		
7. Tenure	30.25	36.96	-.06	.09	.08	.17	.23*	-.21*		
8. Age	40.75	9.18	-.19	-.05	-.27**	.14	.05	.21*	.18	

Cronbach's alphas are presented in parentheses

*M* Mean, *SD* standard deviation \*\*p<0.01, \* <0.05

**Table 6**

*Multiple Hierarchical Regression-Moderation analysis of the effects of perceived inclusive leadership (PIL) and collectivism (COL) on OCBI*

Variable	Beta	SE	$\beta$	t	P	95% CI		R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	p
						LL	UL			
Step 1								.05	.05	.17
Age	.01	.01	.12	1.16	.25	-.00	.02			
Tenure	.00	.01	.16	1.51	.14	-.00	.01			
Gender	.11	.12	.10	1.02	.31	-.12	.36			
Step 2								.15	.10	.01
Age	.01	.01	.18	1.77	.08	-.00	.03			
Tenure	.00	.00	.17	1.70	.09	.00	.01			
Gender	.19	.12	.16	1.60	.11	-.05	.42			
PIL	.01	.09	.01	.07	.95	-.17	.19			
COL	.34	.10	.34	3.25	.00	.13	.54			
Step 3								.16	.01	.25
Age	.01	.01	.20	1.94	.06	.00	.03			
Tenure	.00	.00	.17	1.72	.09	.00	.01			
Gender	.17	.12	.14	1.45	.15	-.06	.40			
PIL	.03	.09	.04	.36	.72	-.15	.22			
COL	.31	.10	.31	3.00	.00	.11	.52			
PIL*COL	.16	.14	.12	1.15	.25	-.11	.43			

**Table 7**

*Multiple Hierarchical Regression-Moderation analysis of the effects of perceived inclusive leadership (PIL) and individualism (IND) on OCBO*

Variable	Beta	SE	$\beta$	t	P	95% CI		R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	p
						LL	UL			
Step 1								.06	.06	.11
Age	.00	.01	.01	.06	.95	-.02	.02			
Tenure	.01	.00	.24	2.34	.02	.00	.01			
Gender	.13	.15	.09	.90	.37	-.16	.43			
Step 2								.20	.14	<.001
Age	.01	.01	.11	1.07	.29	-.01	.03			
Tenure	.01	.00	.18	1.86	.07	.00	.01			
Gender	.16	.14	.11	1.15	.25	-.12	.44			
IND	.33	.14	.23	2.41	.02	.06	.60			
PIL	.32	.11	.29	2.92	.00	.10	.53			
Step 3								.20	.00	.80
Age	.01	.01	.10	1.04	.30	-.01	.03			
Tenure	.00	.00	.18	1.87	.07	.00	.01			
Gender	.16	.14	.11	1.15	.25	-.12	.44			
IND	.33	.14	.23	2.41	.02	.06	.61			
PIL	.32	.11	.29	2.87	.00	.10	.53			
PIL*IND	-.05	.19	-.02	-.25	.81	-.43	.33			

**Table 8**

*Multiple Hierarchical Regression- Moderation analysis of the effects of perceived inclusive leadership (PIL) and individualism (IND) on Intention to Leave (ITL)*

Variable	Beta	SE	$\beta$	t	P	95% CI		R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	p
						LL	UL			
Step 1								.17	.17	<.001
Age	.05	.02	.26	2.71	.01	.01	.09			
Tenure	-.01	.00	-.28	-2.93	.00	-.02	-.00			
Gender	-.75	.30	-.24	-2.51	.01	-1.34	-.16			
Step 2								.36	.19	<.001
Age	.03	.02	.16	1.75	.08	-.00	.06			
Tenure	-.01	.00	-.25	-2.87	.01	-.02	-.00			
Gender	-.60	.27	-.19	-2.25	.03	-1.13	-.07			
PIL	-.99	.21	-.42	-4.73	<.001	-1.40	-.57			
IND	.71	.26	.23	2.71	.01	.19	1.24			
Step 3								.36	.00	.91
Age	.03	.02	.15	1.72	.09	-.00	.06			
Tenure	-.01	.01	-.25	-2.81	.01	-.02	-.00			
Gender	-.60	.27	-.19	-2.23	.03	-1.14	-.07			
PIL	-.99	.21	-.42	-4.70	<.001	-1.40	-.57			
IND	.72	.27	.23	2.70	.01	.19	1.24			
PIL*IND	-.04	.37	-.01	-.12	.91	-.78	.69			

## CHAPTER 5 - DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of the dynamics between perceived inclusive leadership, cultural values, different forms of organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to leave in Aotearoa New Zealand. Traditionally, most efforts in explaining OCBs have concentrated on situational causes, rather than drawing evidence from the perspective of individual differences (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). Advanced from Hofstede (1980)'s foundational work on the dimensions and distinctions between cultures, a growing body of evidence in the literature believed that collectivists and individualists exist within and across countries in the form of individual difference (e.g., Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). With a particular focus on the moderating effect of individualism and collectivism at an individual level, this research aimed to uncover insights into how employees with varying cultural values perceived and responded to inclusive leadership, manifested in ways of displaying voluntary contributions beyond prescribed role tasks and responsibilities that benefit others and the organisation (Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995), and intention to leave. The results from this study partially supported prior research on the positive effect of perceived inclusive leadership on OCB that directed to the organisation (OCBO) (e.g., Padsakoff et al., 2000), and negative effect on intention to leave (e.g., Yasin et al., 2023); however no significant relationship was found between employee's perceived leadership and OCB that directed at the individual (OCBI). Individualism showed a positive association with OCBO, whereas collectivism was positively associated with OCBI. However, no evidence supported the moderating effect of individualism on the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBO, or intention to leave, nor

the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBI.

### **OCBI and Intention to Leave**

We hypothesised that individual employee's inclination to display OCBI is negatively related to intention to leave. The results from this study suggested no significant relationship between individual's tendency to display OCBI and their intention to leave, despite of the majority of existing literature that supported the negative relationship between overall OCB and employee's intention to leave (e.g., Tsai & Wu, 2010; Jun et al., 2010; Cho & Ryu, 2020). OCBI could enhance employees' perceptions of the relationships with coworkers (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Such positive feelings towards colleagues could lead to positive perceptions of the organisation as a better workplace, and in turn promote organisational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Empirical studies provided support that OCBI could lead to increased level of employee's attachment to the organization (Anvari et al., 2017) and decreased level of work-related stress (Viswesvaran et al., 1999; Tews et al., 2013). However, these studies examined perceived level of OCBI from colleagues, rather than individual's own willingness to offer OCBI. A possible explanation could be that OCBI displayed by individuals will lower the intention to leave the organisation for those who benefited from these gestures, whereas the degree to which an employee is inclined to display OCBI may have no association with their own intention to leave the organisation. Individuals who have lower level of intention to leave may not necessarily be the ones who displayed OCBI, but rather the ones who received OCBI from others.

Another viable annotation is that the cross-sectional methodology applied in this study may have limited the effect of OCBI. Because the data was gathered at one point in time, the

“same source” or “common method” biases (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001) may have subdued the beneficial influence of OCBI at an individual level. A most recent longitudinal study by Gómez et al. (2024) discovered the reciprocal link between OCBI and perceived prosocial impact, suggesting the positive and longitudinal link between OCBI (rather than OCBO) and sense of prosocial impact acts as a virtuous cycle, which will in turn reinforce individual’s prosocial identity and motivate employees to engage in more OCBI. Additionally, their results indicated an increased level of both OCBI and OCBO once employees feel that their behaviours have positively impacted others.

### **OCBO and Intention to Leave**

The results from this study showed that an employee’s intention to leave was negatively associated with how frequently he/she engaged in OCBO, and had no association with OCBI. This suggests that behaviours such as displaying loyalty to the organisation, adhering to organisational norms and engaging in tasks beyond their duties are strongly linked to a lower level of intention to leave. This finding is consistent with existing literature, supporting previous research showing negative relationship between OCBO and intention to leave across various countries and cultural backgrounds, including Taiwan (Tsai & Wu, 2010), Korea (Cho & Ryu, 2020; Goo et al., 2022), Malaysia (Anvari et al. 2017; Memon et al., 2017), Pakistan (Masood et al., 2020) Switzerland and Germany (Wombacher & Felfe, 2017), and China (e.g., Cheng et al., 2009; Cho & Ryu, 2020)

Combined with the rejected hypothesis 1(a), the findings further supported previous findings that OCBI and OCBO may relate to different workplace outcomes, or varying degrees of the same outcome. For example, whilst significant and negative influence of OCBI and OCBO on intention to leave was found in Anvari et al. (2017)’s study, the path coefficient results

showed a considerably stronger influence of OCBO than OCBI. Goo et al. (2022) established the negative relationship between OCBI and intention to leave only when introducing task interdependence as a moderator, whereas task interdependence did not moderate the previously established negative relationship between OCBO and intention to leave. Strydom (1994) argued that OCBI was not intentional action that aimed to improve the success of the organisation, therefore focused on examining only OCBO and turnover intention.

The contrasting findings between OCBI and OCBO on intention to leave lent support to the argument that different forms of OCB have different consequences. Previous research evidenced the influence of helping behaviour (a dimension that most closely resembles OCBI) on product quality, however civic virtue and sportsmanship (dimensions resemble OCBO) did not (Podsakoff et al., 1997). In another study based in the sales industry, sportsmanship and civic virtue had positive effect on unit level performance, whereas a negative effect of helping behaviour was found on unit level performance (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Additional development in theoretical framework may be valuable to identify the potentially unique antecedents and consequences of the different forms of citizenship Behaviour (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

### **Perceived Inclusive Leadership, OCBI and OCBO**

The results of this study demonstrated a strong linkage between inclusive leadership and employee's organisational citizenship behaviours that benefited the organisation (OCBO), suggesting that a stronger inclusive leadership perception is likely to enhance employee behaviours that produce benefits from the organisational perspective, such as promoting the organisation to outsiders, protecting and defending against reputation damage or defamation, and actively participating in the organizational governance (Malekar, 2020).

Surprisingly, no significant relationship was observed between perceived inclusive leadership and employee's organisational citizenship behaviours that benefit other individuals (OCBI). This suggests that individuals are willing to engage in interpersonal helping behaviours, for example, taking a personal interest in their well-being, spending time to listen to, and assisting others (Shareef & Atan, 2019), regardless of whether they perceive their leaders as an inclusive one or not.

OCB is recognised as a multidimensional construct (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Previous studies that inquired into the antecedents and outcomes of OCB predominantly examined composite OCB (e.g., Seo, 2016; Aboramadan et al., 2022; Masood et al., 2020). However, McNeely and Meglino (1994) posed that OCBO and OCBI should be differentiated as the underpinning motives behind these behaviours were disparate. Eastman (1994) suggested that OCB might stem from one of two causes: altruistic motives (e.g., personal values, loyalty to the organization, and a sense of moral standards) and instrumental motives (e.g., a desire to impress the boss, to obtain recognition, or to seek other organizational rewards). Lee and Allen (2002) supported this by suggesting that OCBOs were more strongly driven by cognition (for example, the perception of organisational justice); whereas OCBI was more motivated by affect, meaning that positive moods and emotions are more likely to drive altruistic behaviours above and beyond cognition. Moreover, empirical studies have generally supported that OCBO rather than OCBI is more likely to be influenced by organizational environmental factors such as procedural justice and leaders' behaviours such as interactional justice (Skarlicki & Latham, 1997; Williams & Anderson, 1991). The distinction between the underlying mechanisms for OCBOs and OCBI may offer explanation to the results of this study, as the perception of inclusive leadership is more of a mechanism in the cognition domain.

Another explanation for the findings in this study could be due to the variance existing in the social and cultural context. It was strongly believed that OCBO rather than OCBI is more likely to be a consequence of leadership behaviour in the Chinese context, because employees tend to perceive leaders as a representative of the organisation (Chen et al., 2002). Leaders may have a more profound influence on the degree to which Chinese employees respond to their organisations (Huang et al., 2010), and leader's commitment may elicit Chinese employees' extra efforts towards the organisation in a relationship-driven society (Cheng et al., 2003). Albeit New Zealand is recognised as a predominantly individualistic country (Hofstede, 2015), the comparatively smaller size of the average New Zealand company compels managers to develop personal relationships with staff, engage in frequent face-to-face interactions, and have no hiding space during problematic situations (Hines, 1973). New Zealand managers are thought to place a much stronger emphasis on interpersonal relationships than did managers in the U.S. or Europe; and was described to have overlapping characteristics of leaders in a typical collectivistic country (Hofstede, 2015), such as rule obliging, avoiding uncertainty favouring stability, predictability and security in the GLOBE study (Kennedy, 2000). Thus, managers may also be perceived as strong representatives for the organisation by employees in New Zealand, and a leader's behaviours are thought to be reflective of the organisation from the followers' perspectives.

Inclusive leaders often act as an ambassador of inclusive policies, showing commitment to enhance inclusive practices and prevent exclusion (Shore et al., 2018), and therefore are likely to be perceived as an organisational representative, eliciting individuals' willingness to display Behaviours directed at the organisation. The results of this study provided some indication that individuals in New Zealand may also strongly link their perception of their leaders with the

organisation. When working with an inclusive leader, employees tend to feel that their voices are being heard and their needs are being addressed. The findings further support the role of inclusive leaders in inviting all employees for input to decision making (Shuck & Herd, 2012), making employees feel a stronger association with the organisation and more encouraged to participate in the organisation's decision making process (Zhou & Mou, 2021).

### **Perceived Inclusive Leadership, Collectivism and OCBI**

This study aimed to examine the moderating effect of collectivism in the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and organisational citizenship behaviours that benefit the individual (OCBI). Multiple regression analyses did not indicate a significant moderating effect of collectivism. Perceived inclusive leadership did not predict employees OCBI level, however collectivism was a significant predictor of OCBI. This lends support to previous findings in high collectivism and power distance societies, where employee attitudes and behaviours were found to depend less on perceived treatment from leaders (Tyler et al., 2000). A longitudinal study in the United States found that employees with higher collectivistic values were less reliant on servant leadership in fulfilling their psychological contract, suggesting that due to the strong belief in cooperation, harmony and self-sacrifice, collectivistic individuals may be able to provide some of the benefits of a servant leader to in-group members by developing strong ties with them (Panaccio et al., 2015). Based on our findings, collectivistic employees' willingness to engage in activities to help coworkers is not affected by their perception of the leaders' inclusiveness.

Existing literature suggested that employees direct OCB differentially at different recipients (Williams & Anderson 1991), driven by different identifies and motives (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Out of the three motives to perform OCB identified by Finkelstein (2012),

collectivism was most strongly correlated with the motive of showing concern for coworkers. Collectivistic employees are associated more with the identity as one who helps others at work (Finkelstein, 2012) and they tend to hold a broader role definition that includes OCB (Jiao et al., 2013). Previous studies supplied evidence to the influence of cultural differences in perception of in-role and extra role behaviours, suggesting collectivistic individuals tend to hold a broadened role definitions that include OCB and consider the seemingly extra role behaviours as a part of the job (Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Jiao et al., 2013). The results of this study not only support the identity and motivational approach to explain OCBI, but also support that collectivistic employees' demonstration of OCBI should be derived from the attenuation of self-interest-based influences, rather than the application of social exchange theory (Jiao et al., 2013) such as the need to repay reciprocal favours from an inclusive leader. This may provide further support to previous findings of weaker links between overall OCB and organisational commitment (Chen & Francesco, 2003), as well as overall OCB and perceived organisational support (Farh et al., 2007) in China (high collectivism), suggesting that highly collectivistic individuals may consider OCB less as a reciprocal gesture of social exchange and more as a sense of duty to fulfill their collective self (Jiao et al., 2013).

Whilst the positive relationship between collectivism and OCBI reinforces the argument that collectivists are more inclined to seek ways to aid the prosperity of the group even when such aid is irrelevant to their personal interest (Earley, 1989), the insignificant relationship between collectivism and OCBO was a rather surprising finding, as existing literature has unanimously supported the significant positive relationship between collectivism with both OCBO and OCBI (e.g., Florida et al., 2011). Collectivism was the belief that individuals are organically embedded in their social contexts and are willing to sacrifice personal interests for

the community (Hofstede, 1980). It is widely agreed that collectivistic values significantly impact the motivation and performance of employees at work (Moorman & Blakely, 1995), and those who hold collectivistic values obtain better performance (Phillips et al., 2003). OCBI may elicit employee's positive feelings towards coworkers, which could then lead to a more positive perception towards the organisation as a preferred place to work (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and create a feeling of being valued and socially integrated at work (Pollock et al., 2000). Collectivism was evidenced to positively relate to cooperation (Eby & Dobbins, 1997), and moderate the relationship between group efficacy and group performance (Gibson, 1999). It is plausible that the moderating effect of collectivism would be more detectable at a team or group level.

However, whilst previous studies found significant influence of collectivism on most of the OCB dimensions, there have always been exceptions. For example, Moorman & Blakely (1995) found no connection between collectivism and performance above and beyond the call of duty, speculating that such behaviour was mostly likely to lead to contingent rewards and would be more in line with the pursue of individualists. Another U.S. study that segregated collectivism into two dimensional (vertical and horizontal) constructs found that vertical collectivism (emphasising on incorporation into in-group and conforming to in-group status) had no association with either OCBO or OCBI, whereas horizontal collectivism (believing in the importance of being interdependent with others and embedding within social relations) predicted both OCBI and OCBO (Lee et al., 2022). As such, examining individualism and collectivism using a 4-dimensional approach (Triandis, 1998) may reveal additional layers of relationships between cultural values and types of OCB. Research on the ethical leadership and OCB relationship discovered similar findings, where the contracting moderating effects of two

dimensions of collectivism were found, showing a positive moderating effect of horizontal collectivism and a negative moderating effect of vertical collectivism (Strydom, 2021). With emerging evidence of horizontal collectivism's positive moderating effect such as between leader-member exchange and OCBI and OCBO (Tano et al., 2023), the 4-dimensional approach to collectivism (and individualism) warrants further research in different cultural and leadership contexts and associated outcomes.

### **Perceived Inclusive Leadership, Individualism and OCBO**

The results of regression analysis showed that perceived inclusive leadership was a significant predictor of OCBO, suggesting that a stronger perception of inclusive leadership behaviours increase employee's tendency to display discretionary behaviours that benefit the organisation such as improving the functioning of the organisation. Our findings suggest that New Zealand employees uphold OCBO as their end of the social exchange relationship with their leaders' inclusive gestures. This provided further support for the notion that employees do not only normally see their supervisors as representatives of the organisation (Chen et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2003; Huang et al., 2010; Ozer et al., 2014), but also as an embodiment of the organisation because leaders are the primary link of employees' relationships with the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2010). This further lends support to previous findings that creating an inclusive climate can enhance employees' ability to adjust to work environment and feel a stronger sense of alignment with organisational identity in a multicultural workplace (Davies et al., 2019). Inclusive leaders value employee's unique and differing needs, and therefore are likely to endorse an individualistic employee's desire to achieve strong

performance or seek advancement opportunities, as well as to recognise their effort in contributing to organisational processes and overall success.

Individualism was also a significant predictor of OCBO. Previous studies yielded mixed results on the predictive value of individualism on OCBO. Finkelstein (2013) found strong associations between individualism and both OCBI and OCBO, and such associations are weaker than the positive relationships between collectivism and OCBI and OCBO. However, Finkelstein (2013)'s participants were U.S. undergraduates who might not be fully exposed to the corporate environment or have established a strong cognitive and emotional links between self and others as an employee. A Spanish study showed no relationship between individualism and OCBI or OCBO, and their findings were ascribed to individualistic employees may consider OCBs as extra-role behaviours (Florida et al., 2011). Another U.S. study using a two dimensional approach to individualism found no relationship between vertical individualism (seeking achievement and power, and to improve individual status) and any forms of OCB, whereas horizontal individualists (who desire to be self-reliant, unique and distinct from others) displayed a mild tendency for OCBO (Lee et al., 2022). Interestingly, this study incorporated OCBS (citizenship behaviours targeted at immediate supervisors) as an outcome variable which was predicted by individualism, implying that certain types of individualists were more inclined to engage in OCB as means to manage and promote their image, and create a positive impression especially when accompanied by their supervisors (rather than their coworkers) (Lee et al., 2022). Our findings provide evidence to the motivational and identity approach to explain OCBO, that individualistic employees self-identify as the ones who help the organisation (Grube & Piliavin, 2000) rather than ones who help others (Florida et al., 2011).

However, Individualism did not moderate the relationships between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBO, indicating that the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and OCBO does not change with a person's level of individualism. Individualists tend to exhibit stronger inclination towards independence, a person's own career and rewards (Hofstede, 1984). New Zealand is considered to be an individualistic country (Hofstede, 2015) and research into New Zealand managers behaviours described the typical leadership style as valuing individuality, independence and performance rather than social status, however avoiding uncertainty (Kennedy, 2000). The absence of the moderating effect of individualism on the relationship between inclusive leadership and OCBO implies that NZ employees may be more self-reliant on displaying initiatives, meeting measurable performance outcomes, earning merits for their potential to be considered for promotion decisions (Sehrawat & Jindal, 2016), rather than on how attentive their leaders are to their unique attributions. The possibility of other constructs playing a mediating role in the hypothesised moderating effect is high (Florida et al., 2011). For example, individualism was found to moderate the mediation effect of psychological contract fulfilment on the servant leadership and personal industry (a type of OCBO). Other contextual factors such as perception towards reward equity and recognition (McNeely & Meglino, 1994) were also found to have a stronger influence on citizenship behaviours targeted at the organisation.

### **Perceived Inclusive Leadership, Individualism and Intention to Leave**

The regression analysis indicated that perceived inclusive leadership was a significant negative predictor of intention to leave. Employees disclosed a lower level of intention to leave when perceived inclusive leadership was strong. This finding adds to a small number of studies in supporting the positive effect of an inclusive leader on preventing employees' intention to leave in a variety of cultural backgrounds including the United States (Nishii & Mayer, 2009),

the Netherlands (Bladel, 2016), and Pakistan (Khan, 2021; Yasin et al., 2023). This also further consolidates the overarching effect of other contemporary leaderships styles in reducing attrition and better retaining talent, such as transformational leadership (e.g., Situmorang & Wardihani, 2022), authentic leadership (e.g., Azanza et al., 2015), servant leadership (e.g., Dutta & Khatri, 2017; Omanwar & Agrawal, 2022), ethical leadership (e.g., Elci et al., 2010; Suifan et al., 2020); and supportive leadership (e.g., Rajabipoor et al., 2022). Whilst inclusive leadership specifically focus on creating a sense of belonging and ensuring equity, these leadership styles have been proven to promote employee wellbeing and satisfaction, encourage commitment to organisational value, and foster positive relationships with subordinates (Jung et al., 2003; Eisenbeiss et al., 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2010).

The regression analysis also revealed that that individualism positively predicts employee's intention to leave. This indicates that in general, employees with higher individualistic values have a stronger intention to seek professional opportunities in other organisations in the future. Individualists are more concerned about their own success rather than the group, and shall maintain relationships as long as they serve the individual's preferences and satisfy cost-benefit analyses (Triandis et al., 1990). Individualistic employees may assess whether their personal achievements can be realised in the existing role or organisation on a regular basis, and proactively look for other opportunities when the organisation can no longer facilitate further advancement. In comparison to collectivistic individuals, they are less likely to consider the normative implications, or to be held back from social factors such as disapproval of the family when considering voluntarily leaving the organisation (Wasti, 2003). The findings of this study extended previous research on the strong links between individualism and intention to

leave in high collectivism societies (Li et al., 2022; Lobburi, 2012; Wasti, 2003) to a high individualism context in New Zealand.

Intention to leave is widely regarded as a direct antecedent to actual voluntary turnover behaviour and individualism was found to have a strong significant moderating effect between turnover intention and actual turnover (Wong & Cheng, 2020). The existing literature indicated a role that cultural values play in understanding and preventing voluntary turnover. Although no moderating effect of individualism was found between the perceived inclusive leadership and intention to leave relationship.

### **Theoretical Implications**

To my best knowledge, this study is the first to research the outcome of individual employees' perception of inclusive leadership in New Zealand. The findings extended and provided further generalisation to the limited amount of research globally on the impact of inclusive leadership on types of OCB and intention to leave from countries with varying degree of cultural characteristics. The findings were coherent with previous studies around the globe and supported the positive influence of inclusive leadership behaviours on reducing turnover intention and employees' willingness to demonstrate citizenship behaviours that benefit the organisation.

Leadership styles and characteristics play a key role in inducing OCB (Thompson & Matkin, 2019). However, the mechanisms through which various leader behaviours determine OCB remain ambiguous (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The literature showing interest in leadership framework had shifted from defining inclusive leadership as a unique leadership style different from others and describing the qualities and behaviours of an inclusive leader, to a more comprehensive understanding of how leaders, followers, context and outcomes all interact

(Thompson & Matkin, 2019). This study has taken an interactive approach to reflect such dynamic, and contributed to examining cultural values as a potential mechanism through which the perceived inclusive leadership determines forms of OCB.

Organ (1988) suggested that more refined measures of OCB in the future should describe which factors were more influential in certain types of OCB. This study contributes to the existing literature by examining different types of OCB (OCBI and OCBO) respectively, supporting the different psychological, social, motivational and cognitive implications for each type of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Based on the social exchange theory, the findings further uphold that OCBI is associated with the social exchanges amongst employees towards each other; whereas OCBO is aiming at the social exchanges between the employee and the organisation.

Previous research confirmed a range of antecedents of OCB from four categories, including personal characteristics, task characteristics, organisational factors and leader behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This study also contributes to a better understanding of how cultural values at individual level is associated with employees' engagement in OCB, supports the benefits in including individualism and collectivism as a construct that may better enhance our understanding of OCB (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006). In addition, the results lend support to the motivational (Finkelstein, 2012) and identity approach (Grube & Piliavin, 2000) to explain OCBI and OCBO amongst individual employees. Although there was no evidence for the moderating effect of individualism or collectivism, the knowledge is valuable in providing future studies with additional mediating or moderating models, or further testing the moderating model in more specific social or organisational context.

This study adopted the Auckland Individualism-Collectivism Scale (AICS) to combat potential reference group effect (Heine et al., 2002), confounding effect (Oyserman et al., 2002),

and potential biases and inconsistencies from respondents in cross cultural research (Ji et al., 2000). In particular, the AICS scale measured frequency instead of agreement, and excluded familialism from the collectivism dimension (Shulruf et al., 2007). The initial development of the AICS was based on a tertiary institution (Shulruf et al., 2007). This study applied the measurement to the working population in New Zealand, further consolidated the scale and its construct relevance, especially within the realm of studying individual attitudes and outcomes in an organisational setting. The supplementary factor analysis indicated one item with high uniqueness score that did not load onto either Individualism or Collectivism, and another item cross-loaded onto both (see Appendix A). The smaller sample size in this study may have contributed to the variability in these loadings.

### **Practical Implications**

New Zealand is uniquely positioned in its cultural identity and make up, with Māori as original inhabitants and becoming a British colonization just over two hundred years with waves of immigrants and settlers (Novitz, 1989). New Zealand is hosting an increasingly wider ethnic structure just as the rest of the world as a result of globalisation; and cultural diversity had become a key element to the workplace (Knap-Stefaniuk & Sowa-Behtane, 2023). Compounded by the pace of change, uncertainty and competition, understanding the work values of employees and under what conditions different individuals are likely to perform, or motivated by, different type of OCBs, is beneficial to team and organisational performance (Finkelstein, 2013).

It is critical to understand that same leadership behaviours are likely to have different impact across individuals (Nishii & Leroy, 2022). Our findings indicate that inclusive leadership could facilitate employee's OCBO and reduce employee's intention to leave by developing a more committed workforce. Inclusive leadership is specifically referred to as deliberate effort to

foster an inclusive environment, promote fairness and equality, address barriers and biases that affect certain individuals, make diverse individuals feel valued and able to bring their authentic selves to work (Mor Barak et al., 2021). At the same time, inclusive leadership should be considered as an adaptive process through which leaders show gestures needed within a particular context and diversity of the team (Homan et al., 2020). Our results evidenced not only the differences in individual behaviours in the forms of citizenship behaviours targeted at different audience, but also from whom these behaviours may be demonstrated as a result of differences in cultural values. This will help raise New Zealand leaders' awareness to the continuous process of adaptation to the followers' expectations derived from their unique and diverse cultural values, and the emphasis on displaying actions that inaugurate positive leadership perceptions.

As organisational dynamics become more and more complex, organisations will require a combination of employees who engage in OCBI and/or OCBO (Shareef & Atan, 2019). Leaders should pay closer attention to how individuals differ in their workplace behaviours and performance, and understand the sociological and cultural motives behind it, rather than using their own cultural beliefs to evaluate individual performance or to assume the underlying intentions. Our findings further support that OCBI and OCBO tend to have distinct social and psychological implications for employees (Ozer, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2009). This should also help leaders developing effective reward and engagement systems and adopting different leadership techniques to better facilitate communication and performance (Knap-Stefaniuk & Sowa-Behtane, 2023). For example, offering opportunities for individualistic employees to directly contribute to the organisation during functions and public events by promoting the organisation's branding; whereas encouraging collectivistic employees to be a 'buddy' or mentor

for new starters in the team. Reversely, different types of activities will appeal to different employees, enhancing engagement and satisfaction in different ways. Employees themselves should also benefit from engaging in OCBs as they contribute to a better culture and overall working environment overall (Dovidio et al., 2006).

However, it is equally important to notice that there are factors outside of a leader's control that may affect and satisfy followers' needs for uniqueness and belonging (Randel et al., 2018). Our results suggest that the perception of inclusive leadership may not alter collectivistic employees' tendency to engage in OCBI. Thus, other organisational practices such as reward and recognition (McNeely & Meglino, 1994), perceived justice (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006), and leadership member exchange (Yasin et al., 2023) may also need to be taken into consideration when developing strategies for building an inclusive culture. How leaders display inclusive behaviours and to what extent, may also need to be exercised in moderation. Studies focused on examining the too-much-of-a-good-thing (TMGT) effect unfolded the potential hindering effect of high level of inclusive leadership on employees' motivation to contribute to the group or work harder, and on leader's decision making effectiveness due to the need to integrate different views (Zheng et al., 2018).

Improving the cultural intelligence (CQ) for employees and leaders by providing cultural training should be a key component of team development and leadership training toolkits (Simpson, 2017). Individuals are likely to experience both inclusion and engagement when being empowered to not only contribute to work in their perspectives, but also what informs them, including one's social and cultural identities (Khan, 1990). Employees will benefit from understanding the differences and the reasons why their coworkers are interested in dissimilar

behaviours and activities at work, as well as from leveraging their own strengths to contribute to team and organisational objectives while complementing others' skillset.

Job tenure can be considered as the consequences of the alignment between the cultural and work values of the worker, colleagues and supervisors (Brown, 2002). Prevention of turnover intentions is particularly vital for organisations in today's volatile and uncertain time (Goo et al., 2022), however have been proven to be more difficult in a multi-cultural environment (Morris et al., 2009). Thus, developing HR practices and supporting leaders to assert a stronger impact when having employees share different sets of norms and values become critical to an organisation's survival and sustainability (Zhang et al., 2019). If individuals who tend to offer OCBI more than others are indifferent to the level of perceived inclusive leadership, nor do they disclose a lower level of intention to leave, then it is important to identify other relevant mechanisms to retain these individuals. Our results showed a strong negative association between perceived inclusive leadership and intention to leave, and OCBO and intention to leave. This implies that developing organisational processes, carefully managing organisational reputation across all levels, and promoting an organisation's employer branding is pivotal to retaining talent.

### **Limitations**

This study has several limitations. One limitation was the reliance on self-reported data. Existing literature applied a mixture of self-report data and peer or supervisor ratings, (e.g., Anvari et al., 2017; Eastman, 1994). However, the interest of this study was less in the perception of OCB, but more in the willingness to perform OCB from individual employees' perspective. In addition, this study was limited by the typology of OCB based on the target of the behaviour. Including multiple dimensions of OCB such as conscientiousness, courtesy, civic

virtue, altruism and sportsmanship (Organ, 1988), or loyal boosterism, personal industry, initiative and interpersonal helping (Moorman & Blakely, 1995) may establish a more comprehensive model in understanding the role of leadership and cultural values on various OCB dimensions.

Because the data was collected from New Zealand employees across multiple organisations, potential variance in organisational characteristics such as power distance or organisational justice were not controlled in this study. Power distance influences the role-making process (Jiao et al., 2013), and treatment from those in authority has less impact on the attitudes and behaviours of employees in a high power distance context (Tyler et al., 2000). The degree to which an organisation upholds distributive justice (the fairness of transactional contracts and economic exchange), and procedural justice (the use of procedurally fair supervisory practices) may also play a role in determining whether individuals withhold or engaging in OCB (e.g., Mayer et al., 1995; Cohen & Avrahami, 2006).

Another limitation may have been the small sample size. Whilst it may be better to test relatively newer hypotheses in smaller number of subjects first (Hackshaw, 2008), it is likely to affect the statistical power and reduce the ability to detect significant differences or relationships. Future studies with a larger participant pool may be able to evidence the significance of OCBI emerging in the dynamics between perceived inclusive leadership and workplace outcomes.

The most recent literature amalgamated the fast growing research on inclusive leadership and illustrated inclusive leadership as a dynamic and relationship process that summons multiple levels of analysis, including its effect at individual, group and organisational level (Nishii & Leroy, 2022). Inclusive leadership served more as an instrumental purpose at an individual level, such as enabling accessibility to information and resources, inviting individuals to contribute to

formal and informal decision making process (Mor Barak, 2000); and more of a facilitative effect at a team/group level, focusing on how individuals within the group better work together, fostering group cohesion and resolving conflict (Kozlowski & Bell, 2019), developing shared mentality and advocating for diversity mindsets (Simons et al., 2022). The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of perceived inclusive leadership at an individual level, which may have limited the magnitude of its influence on OCBI.

The measurement to individualism and collectivism based on the traditional dichotomy construct may have restricted the moderating effect being detected. Studies published most recently had successfully discovered moderating effects of different segments of collectivism and individualism (e.g., Tano et al., 2023), therefore a more nuanced scale (e.g., vertical and horizontal I-C) may increase robustness in observing the dynamics between individual cultural values, leadership perception and different forms of OCB.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

The results of this study revealed disparate relationships of OCBI and OCBO with perceived inclusive leadership, cultural values and intention to leave. Most existing studies investigated the link between inclusive leadership and OCB examined composite OCB (e.g., Seo, 2016; Panicker et al., 2018; Aboramadan et al., 2022), and were limited to providing the differential effects of inclusive leadership on OCBI and OCB. Further research should consider testing the distinction of antecedents and/or consequences of different forms of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000), and exploring why and how inclusive leadership influences different aspects of OCB (Hanh Tran & Choi, 2019).

Organisational citizenship behaviour in the cross-cultural context warrants further research in the future, especially on the strengths of the relationship between forms of OCB and

its antecedents and consequences in different cultural settings (Naiemah et al., 2021). Future studies should examine these relationships across diverse cultural backgrounds and consider using moderating effects to explain unexpectedly absent, weak and inconsistent relationships, such as the observation between perceived inclusive leadership, OCBI, and intention to leave in this study. The mechanisms through which different types of OCB assert influences on individual, team and organisational level success is yet to be fully understood (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Tara et al., 2010). Identifying these pathways will enhance our knowledge of the specific benefits of OCB and inform targeted strategies to encourage these behaviours.

Combating the common method variance in OCB research should be a focus for future studies as it may have biased the observed relationships between OCBs and their antecedents and consequences, as they were all obtained from the same source. Longitudinal design will be able to control such bias and be advantageous to examine the long-term effects of OCBI and OCBO, as well as how these behaviours evolve and their sustained impact on individual and group outcomes. It would also warrant a more accurate assessment of the causal priority of OCBs, and reduce consistency biases, halo effects, and priming effects (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Obtaining observed OCB from various sources from peers (Anvari et al., 2017; Goo et al., 2022) or managers (Podsakoff et al., 2000) could be another method to reduce common method bias.

To obtain a realistic and practical view of the dynamics between perceived inclusive leadership, cultural values and different types of OCB, exploring whether a lack of inclusive leadership may interact with collectivism and OCBI may be valuable, as it is plausible that collectivistic employees amplify interpersonal helping behaviours to maintain harmony of the group when a manager does not resolve perceived inequality or imbalance within the team.

Dickson et al. (2003) suggested that continuously refining the identification of culture dimensions, as well as application of these dimensions to cultural variation in leadership should be a key focus in studying leadership in the cross cultural context. Applying the four-dimensional approach to measure individualism and collectivism in future research may be able to provide a more detailed analysis of the variance in one cultural indicator interact with leadership behaviours and forms of OCB, better capture the complexity of cultural dynamics and offer more precise insights into their effects on workplace behaviours. In addition, the relationships between cultural dimensions and individual identity orientations (and motives) for OCB will permit a more in-depth awareness of the underlying drivers of individuals with different cultural values willingness to perform of which types of OCB, and therefore offering leaders more avenues to engage and motivate a diverse team.

Hom et al. (2017) discussed the need to delve into how contextual factors can shape the antecedents of voluntary turnover. This study indicates that both perceived inclusive leadership and individualism can influence an employee's intention to leave. Future studies may be able to further investigate other contextual factors that cultural values may interact with to determine varying levels of turnover intention, especially in a multi-cultural workplace.

### **Conclusion**

The practice of fostering inclusion and supporting leaders' inclusive behaviours is universally important for organisational success (Brassel et al., 2022). This study pioneered the effort in exploring and extending the limited research on the impact of cultural values and perceived inclusive leadership on different types of organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) and intention to leave in the unique context of New Zealand. Although neither individualism nor collectivism was found to have a moderating effect for the relationship between perceived

inclusive leadership and different forms of OCB, or the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and intention to leave, this study contributes to the existing literature by reinforcing the importance of perceived inclusive leadership on preventing turnover intentions and promoting organisational citizenship behaviours that benefit the organisation (OCBO). In addition, this study provided empirical evidence for the influence of cultural values on different types of OCB, supporting the motivational and identity approach to explain individual's engagement in different forms of OCB.

Whilst this study acknowledges several limitations, the findings open avenues for future research to explore models with more comprehensive measurements. This study is particularly relevant for understanding the different behavioural patterns and the underlying reasons behind these patterns in New Zealand's culturally diverse workforce. It offers practical implications for managers and leaders to recognise the importance of adapting leadership behaviours, creating positive perceptions, and influencing and leveraging relevant organisational practices to foster inclusion and retain talent.

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## APPENDIX A

### Factor Analysis

Additional exploratory factor analysis was performed on Perceived Inclusive Leadership, OCB and Individualism-Collectivism scales, using the maximum likelihood method extraction. The oblique promax rotation method was used as the items are likely to be related conceptually.

The factor analysis results for the Perceived Inclusive Leadership scale indicated a strong and cohesive set of behaviours, with all items loaded onto one factor with high factor loadings and relatively low uniqueness scores, suggesting that they are well represented by the construct.

The factor analysis results highlighted OCBO and OCBI as two distinct factors of organizational citizenship behaviour with all items loaded into their respective factor. The items associated with OCBO displayed high factor loadings, indicating a strong association with this factor. These items also have relatively low uniqueness scores, suggesting that they are well-represented by the OCBO factor. The OCBI factor includes behaviours also show high factor loadings on the OCBI factor, indicating a clear distinction from the OCBO behaviours. The uniqueness scores for OCBI items are slightly higher, but still indicate that these behaviours are significantly captured by this factor. Overall, the factor analysis reveals a clear differentiation between organizationally focused and individually focused citizenship behaviours within the workplace.

The factor analysis for the Auckland Individualism-Collectivism Scale (AICS) revealed two distinct factors. All items successfully loaded onto the Collectivism factor with relatively moderate uniqueness scores, whereas the Individualism factor captured all corresponding items with low uniqueness scores except for the item “*I take responsibility for my own actions*”, which obtained a high uniqueness score (0.95) and did not align with either factor. The item “*Without*

*competition, I believe, it is not possible to have a good society”* cross-loaded into both Individualism and Collectivism, with a stronger loading with Individualism and a difference of .15. The word ‘society’ may have triggered the weak loading on the Collectivism factor. The relatively smaller sample of this study may have contributed to the cross loading.

**Appendix Table 1.**

*Factor loading Perceived Inclusive Leadership*

	PIL	Uniqueness
My manager is available for consultation on problems.	0.86	0.27
My manager is ready to listen to my requests.	0.84	0.30
My manager is attentive to new opportunities to improve work processes	0.82	0.33
My manager is open to discussing the desired goals and new ways to achieve them	0.82	0.33
My manager is accessible for discussing emerging problems	0.81	0.35
My manager is available for professional questions I would like to consult with him/her	0.76	0.42
My manager encourages me to access him/her on emerging issues	0.75	0.43
My manager is open to hearing new ideas	0.74	0.45
My manager is an ongoing ‘presence’ in this team - someone who is readily available.	0.68	0.53

**Appendix Table 2.**

*Factor loading OCB*

	OCBO	OCBI	Uniqueness
I express loyalty toward the organisation	0.83		0.43
I show pride when representing the organisation in public	0.80		0.45
I keep up with developments in the organisation	0.77		0.47
I defend the organisation when other employees criticize it	0.76		0.44
I take action to protect the organisation from potential problems	0.66		0.46
I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation	0.64		0.49

I express concern about the image of the organisation.	0.63	0.55
I attend functions that are not required but that help the organisational image.	0.62	0.57
I assist others with their duties.	0.78	0.43
I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.	0.76	0.50
I give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.	0.75	0.51
I help others who have been absent.	0.72	0.52
I share personal property with others to help with their work	0.62	0.58
I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems	0.61	0.60
I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.	0.52	0.62
I show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations	0.50	0.66

### Appendix Table 3.

#### *Factor loading Auckland Individualism Collectivism Scale*

	Individualism	Collectivism	Uniqueness
I enjoy working in situations involving competition with others	0.76		0.42
Winning is very important to me.	0.71		0.48
I define myself as a competitive person.	0.67		0.55
My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.	0.62		0.63
I prefer competitive rather than non-competitive recreational activities.	0.61		0.58
I try to achieve better grades than my peers.	0.55		0.69
I believe that competition is a law of nature.	0.50		0.68
I consider myself as a unique person separate from others.	0.47		0.78
Without competition, I believe, it is not possible to have a good society.	0.47	0.32	0.63
It is important for me to act as an independent person.	0.44		0.79
I enjoy being unique and different from others.	0.43		0.80
I see myself as 'my own person'.	0.41		0.81
I like to be accurate when I communicate.	0.39		0.80

It is important to consult close friends and get their ideas before making a decision.	0.73	0.47
I consider my friends' opinions before taking important actions.	0.71	0.49
Before I make a major decision, I seek advice from people close to me.	0.66	0.54
I consult my family before making an important decision.	0.61	0.63
Before taking a major trip, I consult with my friends.	0.60	0.63
I consult with superiors on work-related matters.	0.57	0.63
I ask the advice of my friends before making career related decisions.	0.54	0.70
I do not reveal my thoughts when it might initiate a dispute.	0.45	0.80
I discuss job or study-related problems with my parents/partner.	0.45	0.77
Even when I strongly disagree with my group members, I avoid an argument.	0.42	0.83
I prefer using indirect language rather than upsetting my friends by telling them directly what they may not like to hear.	0.41	0.80
I sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of my group.	0.38	0.84
I take responsibility for my own actions.		0.95

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## APPENDIX B

### Ethics Confirmation Letter



24/07/2023

Dear: Skee Joseph

**Re: Low Risk Notification - 4000027407 - Cultural influence on perceived inclusive leadership and its impact on organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to leave**

Thank you for your notification which you have assessed as Low Risk.

Your project has been recorded in our database for inclusion in the Annual Report of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee.

The low risk notification for this project is valid for a maximum of three years.

If situations subsequently occur which cause you to reconsider your ethical analysis, please contact a Research Ethics Administrator.

Please note that travel undertaken by students must be approved by the supervisor and the relevant Pro Vice-Chancellor and be in accordance with the Policy and Procedures for Course-Related Student Travel Overseas. In addition, the supervisor must advise the University's Insurance Officer.

**A reminder to include the following statement on all public documents:**

*"This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named in this document are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.*

*If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you want to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Professor Craig Johnson, Director - Ethics, telephone 06 3569099 ext 85271, email [humanethics@massey.ac.nz](mailto:humanethics@massey.ac.nz)."*

Please note, if a sponsoring organisation, funding authority or a journal in which you wish to publish requires evidence of committee approval (with an approval number), you will have to complete the application form again, answering "yes" to the publication question to provide more information for one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. You should also note that such an approval can only be provided prior to the commencement of the research.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'C Johnson', on a light-colored background.

Professor Craig Johnson  
Chair, Human Ethics Chairs' Committee and Director (Research Ethics)

Research Ethics Office, Research and Enterprise  
Massey University, Private Bag 11 222, Palmerston North, 4442, New Zealand T 06 951 6841; 06 95106840  
E [humanethics@massey.ac.nz](mailto:humanethics@massey.ac.nz); [animalethics@massey.ac.nz](mailto:animalethics@massey.ac.nz); [gtc@massey.ac.nz](mailto:gtc@massey.ac.nz)

## **APPENDIX C**

### Qualtrics Survey Questionnaire

#### **Information page**



#### **How do individuals perceive leadership at work?**

##### **Information Sheet**

Thank you for showing interest in being part of this research study. This study is conducted by Skee Joseph, Masters student from the School of Psychology Massey University and Dr Anja Roemer from the School of Psychology at Massey University.

##### **What is involved?**

The aim of our study is to understand how cultural values influence an individual's perception of leadership behaviours, and its impact on individuals' attitudes and behaviours at work. Should you choose to continue, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire about your interaction with your immediate manager/team leader, your values, attitude, and behaviours at work. It takes approximately 7-10 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

##### **Eligibility**

We would like to invite participants who are at least 18 years of age, have a direct manager/team leader, have worked in a team of 5 or bigger including their direct manager/ team leader, for more than three months in New Zealand.

## **Confidentiality/ Anonymity**

The data we collect does not contain any identifying information about you. All your responses go directly to the researchers via the survey software Qualtrics provided by Massey University. The researchers will keep all electronic study records with demographic data protected by a password for a period of five years after the publication of results. A dataset without any demographic information may be posted to Open Science Repositories. Only members of the principal investigator's research team will have access to the original data. Other researchers might access data without any demographic information through Open Science Repositories and will be stored there indefinitely. At the conclusion of this study, the researchers might publish findings in an aggregated or anonymous form in academic journals or at conferences.

## **Potential risks and questions**

This study does not involve any known risks.

## **Summary of results**

After responding to the last question of the survey, you will receive a summary of the study hypotheses. You can also contact the researcher directly if you wish to receive the results once data have been analysed by emailing the principal investigator Skee Joseph at [skee.joseph.1@uni.massey.ac.nz](mailto:skee.joseph.1@uni.massey.ac.nz). Kindly note that by contacting the researcher your identity will not be anonymous anymore, however, no link between you and the responses you submitted can be made.

## **Statement of rights**

- You are under no obligation to accept this invitation.
- Completion and submission of the questionnaire implies consent.

- You have the right to decline to answer any particular question.

Should you not wish to continue with the survey at any point of time, you can simply close the browser window. After submitting the survey, it is not possible to withdraw your responses because your response won't be identifiable.

### **Contact information**

If you have any questions or queries regarding this project, please don't hesitate to contact the following:

#### **Principle Investigator**

Skee Joseph

School of Psychology Massey University Palmerston North New Zealand

Email: [skee.joseph.1@uni.massey.ac.nz](mailto:skee.joseph.1@uni.massey.ac.nz)

#### **Supervisor**

Dr Anja Roemer School of Psychology Massey University

Palmerston North New Zealand

+64 9 213-6105

[A.Roemer@massey.ac.nz](mailto:A.Roemer@massey.ac.nz)

**Te Kunenga  
ki Pūrehuroa** |

Massey University School of Psychology – Te Kura

Hinengaro Tangata Palmerston North, New Zealand

T +64 6 3569-099 ext 85071 : W [psychology.massey.ac.nz](http://psychology.massey.ac.nz)

*This research project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.*

*If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact the Director, Research Ethics, email [humanethics@massey.ac.nz](mailto:humanethics@massey.ac.nz).*

## **Consent**

### **Respondent Consent**

#### **Summary**

By proceeding with the online survey, you are agreeing that:

1. You have read and understood this information
2. Questions about your participation in this study have been answered satisfactorily
3. You are aware of the potential risks
4. You are taking part in this research study voluntarily
5. Anonymised data may be shared in public research repositories.

I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and consent to collection of my responses.

*(Please click on the 'Yes' choice if you wish to proceed.)*

- Yes
- No

## Demographics

## Demographics

Please enter your age in years.

Do you have a direct manager or team leader?

- Yes
- No

### Team size

How many members are there in your team (including your manager/team leader)?

- Less than 5 people
- 5 or more than 5 people

### Tenure

How long have you worked with your current manager/team leader?

- Less than 3 months
- 3 months or more

If more than 3 months, please enter the length here:

*e.g., if you have worked with your manager for 6 months, enter 0 years 6 months.*

Years

Months

## Gender

What gender do you identify as?

- Male
- Female
- Non-binary
- Prefer not to say

## The Auckland Individualism-Collectivism Scale (AICS)

Please read the following questions and answer each question by indicating how often you would think or behave as described in each of the following items.

	Never or almost never	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Very often	Always
I define myself as a competitive person.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy being unique and different from others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Before I make a major decision, I seek advice from people close to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even when I strongly disagree with my group members, I avoid an argument.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I consult with superiors on work-related matters.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please read the following questions and answer each question by indicating how often you would think or behave as described in each of the following items.

	Never or almost never	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Very often	Always
I believe that competition is a law of nature.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I prefer competitive rather than non-competitive recreational activities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Before taking a major trip, I consult with my friends.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of my group.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Never or almost never	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Very often	Always
I consider my friends' opinions before taking important actions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like to be accurate when I communicate.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I consider myself as a unique person separate from others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important to consult close friends and get their ideas before <u>making a decision.</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Without competition, I believe, it is not possible to have a good society.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please read the following questions and answer each question by indicating how often you would think or behave as described in each of the following items.

	Never or almost never	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Very often	Always
I ask the advice of my friends before making career related decisions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I prefer using indirect language rather than upsetting my friends by telling them directly what they may not like to hear.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to act as an independent person.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I discuss job or study-related problems with my parents/partner.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Never or almost never	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Very often	Always
I take responsibility for my own actions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not reveal my thoughts when it might initiate a dispute.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I try to achieve better grades than my peers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please read the following questions and answer each question by indicating how often you would think or behave as described in each of the following items.

	Never or almost never	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Very often	Always
I enjoy working in situations involving competition with others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I consult my family before making an important decision.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Winning is very important to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I see myself as 'my own person'.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

### The Inclusive Leadership Scale

#### Instructions for respondents

For the following set of questions, think about your interactions with your current (direct) manager/team leader during a typical workday. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following 9 statements.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
My manager is open to hearing new ideas.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My manager is attentive to new opportunities to improve work processes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My manager is open to discussing the desired goals and new ways to achieve them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
My manager is available for consultation on problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My manager is an ongoing 'presence' in this team—someone who is readily available.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My manager is available for professional questions I would like to consult with him/her.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My manager is ready to listen to my requests.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My manager encourages me to access him/her on emerging issues.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My manager is accessible for discussing emerging problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

## The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS)

### Instructions for respondents

The following questions are to find out how you behave at work in relation to your team members (close colleagues) and to the organisation you work for. Please provide ratings on how often you behave as described in each item.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I keep up with developments in the organisation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I defend the organisation when other employees criticize it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I show pride when representing the organisation in public.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
				Neither Agree nor Disagree			
I express loyalty toward the organisation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I take action to protect the organisation from potential problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I express concern about the image of the organisation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

## Intention to Leave

### Instructions for respondents

The following questions are to find out your thinking on your career plans in the near future.

Please provide ratings on how often you behave as described in each item.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I intend to look for a job outside of my current organisation within the next year.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have no intention to remain indefinitely within this organisation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think about quitting my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

## Debrief

### Debrief to respondents at the end of the survey

Thank you for your time participating in the survey.

This study aims to investigate the influence of cultural values and beliefs on how individuals perceive inclusive leadership behaviours. It is hypothesized that higher level of perceived inclusive leadership is associated with individuals' willingness to go above and beyond, and lower inclination to leave. This association is likely to be stronger in individuals who have a greater good in mind.

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