Inclusive Leadership and Job Performance: A Study of Blue-Collar Worker Perceptions

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Abstract

In South Africa, blue-collar workers typically operate in labour-intensive work environments where inclusive leadership behaviours are often not viewed as a value-adding tool and where employee willingness to contribute to organisational processes is low. All of which can negatively impact individual job performance. Although there is growing literature focussing on inclusive leadership as a critical driver of job performance, there is a scarcity of research understanding this relationship in a South African blue-collar worker context, where this group is considered the backbone of the country's economy. This research argues that understanding the perceptions and behaviours of this group can be worthwhile when addressing the challenges faced by this group and identifying performance-motivating factors. The primary aim of this study was to explore the impact of perceptions of inclusive leadership on the job performance of blue-collar workers utilising three dimensions for performance, including (1) task performance, (2) contextual performance and (3) counterproductive work behaviour. Further, the moderating effect of psychological safety on this relationship was explored to expand on existing literature. Data was collected using a sample of 122 employees from multiple industries using self-report questionnaires. Data was analysed using correlation analysis, regression analysis and moderation analysis. The study's results revealed that the perceived perceptions of inclusive leadership of a blue-collar worker in South Africa positively influenced an employee's contextual performance and decreased the counterproductive work behaviour exhibited by an employee. Further, contrary to earlier studies, the results indicated that inclusive leadership did not significantly correlate with task performance. Additionally, this study revealed that psychological safety significantly correlated with task and contextual performance, whereas there was no significant relationship between psychological safety and counterproductive work behaviours. Despite the significance of these findings, the results were less robust than in previously published research. Lastly, it was observed that psychological safety was not an effective moderator of the relationship between inclusive leadership and job performance. Although these results were inconsistent with previous studies, these findings contribute to the growing body of inclusive leadership literature in South Africa.

Key Words: Inclusive Leadership, Blue-Collar Workers, Psychological Safety, Performance, Diversity, Inclusivity

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Leadership is not about being in charge; it is about taking care of those in your charge."
– Simon Sinek

Due to the growing recognition of the transformative benefits of inclusive practices, organisations have prioritised incorporating inclusionary measures in their Human Resources Management strategy (Jejeniwa & Mhlongo, 2024; Roberson & Perry, 2022). Consequently, implementing inclusive practices was said to create environments where employees of different backgrounds felt respected, their unique differences valued and were empowered to make meaningful contributions to the organisation. Consistent with the definition of inclusion, which is the extent to which an individual from a diverse background believes they are valued, respected and included in the workplace (Ashikali, Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2021; Jejeniwa & Mhlongo, 2024; Li & Tang, 2022). In addition, inclusion literature encouraged organisations to foster a working environment that was not only representative of society but an organisation that utilised distinct experiences of employees a value-adding tool to achieve organisational outcomes (Ashikali, Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2021; Edmondson & Bransby, 2023; Ferdman, Korkmaz et al., 2022; Li, 2022; Prime & Riggo, 2020; Randel et al., 2018). Consequently, leaders have been challenged to lead across employee differences and seek innovative ways to utilise this to improve organisational effectiveness, sparking further interest from scholars and researchers in this field to explore the concept of inclusive leadership (Johnson & Lambert, 2020; Korkmaz et al., 2022; Roberson & Perry, 2022). Inclusive leadership refers to the leadership behaviours that promote uniqueness and belongingness when contributing to group processes and outcomes in a team (Shore et al., 2011). Further, leaders were urged to eradicate any barriers that may hinder employees from using their unique backgrounds, beliefs, experiences, cultures and skills to positively contribute to the organisation (Ashikali, Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2021; Li & Tang, 2022; Roberson & Perry, 2022; Shore & Chung, 2022). Today, these differences are considered valuable tools organisations should strategically utilise to enable innovative and creative problem-solving, increase team collaboration, and enhance performance.

Research on inclusion and inclusive leadership was predominantly conducted, explained and understood using samples from the Global North or more developed regions, such as the United States (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon & Ziv, 2010; Ferdman, Prime & Riggio, 2020; Randel et al., 2018;), South Korea (Kim, Lee & Connerton, 2020), China (Ahmed et al., 2021; Ke, Zhang & Zheng, 2022; Li & Tang, 2022; Xiaotao et al, 2018) and the Netherlands (Ashikali, Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2021). In South Africa, there has been

significant exploration into the management of inclusive workforces due to the extent of the diversity of the South African workforce. However, this research has primarily focussed on the progress of legislation, such as the Employment Equity Act and Basic Conditions of Employment Act, following the end of Apartheid (Booysen, 2007; Daya, 2014; Nkomo et al., 2015; Otike, Messah & Mwalekwa, 2022; Wood & Bischoff, 2022). Post-1994, the new democratic South African government committed itself to establishing new and improved social order in organisations by implementing transformative initiatives, such as the Affirmative Action Policy and the Employment Equity Act of 1998 (Setati et al., 2019). Legislation aimed to protect South Africa's previously disadvantaged groups in the workplace from discriminatory work practices and promulgated to provide this group with equal opportunities to enter and advance within the workplace (Setati et al., 2019; Wolpe, 2023). Despite the number of legislations and social justice interventions aimed at addressing the legacies of Apartheid within the workforce, redressing discrimination in the workplace has been a slow and uneven journey (Bam & Ronnie, 2020). Further, the workforce remains unrepresentative of the country's population (Bam & Ronnie, 2020; Daya, 2014; Setati et al., 2019; Wolpe, 2023). As a result, there is a clear need for further exploration into this concept, specifically looking at South Africa's most diverse workforce segment, blue-collar workers (Daya, 2014; Mazibuko & Govender, 2017; Setati et al., 2019).

According to Koekemoer, Fourie, and Jorgensen (2019), South Africa's blue-collar workers comprised approximately 33% of the workforce. Further, in Quarter 1 of 2023, the informal sector grew by 107 000 persons, where growth was a result of the country's population entering into industries primarily dominated by blue-collar workers, such as community and social services (37 000), manufacturing (15 000) and transport (14 000) (Stats SA, 2023). Further, this segment has been considered the backbone of the economy. Kekana, Koekemoer and O'Neil (2023) characterised blue-collar jobs as manual work that typically involved unskilled or semi-skilled labour, often wearing protective equipment and operating machinery. Further, this segment has historically been employed in labour-intensive industries where formal education is not a requirement due to the lower levels of formal education received by individuals in this segment (Mittal, Dhiman & Lamba, 2019).
Although the blue-collar segment constitutes a significant portion of South Africa's workforce, little research has been conducted on blue-collar perceptions in South African organisations. Table A1 highlighted the scarcity of recent research on inclusion literature in a South African organisational context, specifically, the limited research conducted on blue-collar worker perceptions of inclusion in this context. On the contrary, research on white-

collar employee attitudes, expectations, and perceptions has dominated organisational behaviour research in South Africa (Lee & Mohamed, 2006; Setati et al., 2019). Additionally, most literature on inclusive leadership in South Africa focuses on the higher education sector (Table A1). This highlights the need for research into the experiences of blue-collar workers who play a critical role in South Africa's economy (Kekana, Koekemoer & O'Neil, 2023). Lee and Mohamed (2006) suggested that blue-collar workers have been a complex group to conduct research on due to the high levels of illiteracy and language barriers that hinder processes for data collection, making it a challenging segment to understand.

The Context for Inclusion Research in South Africa – Background

Under the rule of an Apartheid regime, South African organisations were primarily shaped by discrimination and inequality where the Black population was subjugated for the benefit of the White minority (Bam & Ronnie, 2020; Mazibuko & Govender, 2017; Setati et al., 2019; Wolpe, 2023). Consequently, the South African labour market was impacted significantly, as employment was reserved for whites during this time. Due to the end of Apartheid and heightened efforts of employment legislation, global norms, affirmative action measures and social justice practices, previously disadvantaged groups such as women, racial minorities and people with disabilities joined the South African workforce (Setati et al., 2019; Wolpe, 2023). The South African workforce transformed from largely homogenous (white and male-dominated) to moderately diverse and multi-ethnic.

The change in demographics due to South Africa's history provided organisations with the unique advantage of an abundantly diverse workforce, including various aspects of identity such as, but not limited to, culture, ethnicity, race, socio-economic status, gender, age, religion and physical ability (Daya, 2014; Mazibuko & Govender, 2017; Setati et al., 2019). Although this was considered a positive change, it led to organisational challenges in group processes due to differing perspectives, values and experiences of members in the group, fostering perceptions of unfair treatment and discrimination experienced by previously disadvantaged groups (Daya, 2014; Joubert, 2017; Kipnis et al., 2021). To address this, inclusion literature, specifically analysing leaders as change mechanisms, has been at the forefront of managing this transformation (Christos, 2020; Mazibuko & Govender, 2017).

Despite all efforts by organisations, according to McCallaghan, Jackson, and Heyns (2020), in 2018, the South African labour report indicated that the market remained dominated by historically privileged groups (i.e., white and male). Consequently, organisations remain unrepresentative of South Africa's contemporary population.

Consistent with inclusion literature, organisations that view inclusion as legal compliance rather than a value-adding strategy were more likely to face adverse outcomes, including discrimination and exclusion (Joubert, 2017; Setati et al., 2019; Shore et al., 2011). Unfortunately, this compliance-driven approach remains prevalent in many South African organisations (Setati et al., 2019; Wolpe, 2023). Despite the plethora of inclusion literature conducted globally, it cannot be assumed that the perceptions and experiences of the workforce in the global North are similar to those of South African blue-collar employees. According to Kekana, Koekemoer and O'Neil (2023), blue-collar employees typically face varying contextual factors, as opposed to their white-collar counterparts, that directly determine their perceptions of work experiences.

Due to the shift towards a more inclusive approach to effectively manage a workforce consisting of employees of distinct backgrounds in contemporary organisations, organisations have demanded that their leaders adopt innovative management practices to foster inclusive work environments (Ashikali, Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2021; Ke, Zhang & Zheng, 2022; Korkmaz et al., 2022; Li & Tang; 2022; Randel et al., 2018; Xiaotao et al., 2018). As a result, leaders are encouraged to ensure that employees from diverse backgrounds, with distinct ways of thinking, contribute to organisational outcomes by displaying inclusive leadership behaviours. The shift in global trends towards a more inclusive organisation served as a catalyst for a new, innovative, relational leadership style that focused on leadership qualities that promoted the inclusion of these diverse individuals in a group setting (Chung et al., 2020; Johnson & Lambert, 2020; Li & Tang, 2022; Shore & Chung, 2022). In contemporary organisations, this construct is called 'Inclusive Leadership'. There have been several conceptualisations of inclusive leadership due to the challenge experienced by researchers in establishing and converging upon a single, universal definition for shared understanding (Li, 2022; Randel et al., 2018). The conceptualisation of inclusive leadership was built on the definition of inclusion, defined as acknowledging and utilising individual differences to enhance an individual's engagement in the working environment (April, Katoma & Peters, 2009) and is central to the conceptualisation and theorising of inclusive leadership. The most adopted conceptualisation of this was constructed by Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon, and Ziv (2010) and Shore et al. (2011), who stated that inclusive leadership was the degree to which an individual in a team perceived themselves as an esteemed group member based on behaviours displayed by a leader that satisfied the individual's need for uniqueness and belongingness.

Research Question

To what extent do blue-collar workers' perceptions of inclusive leadership behaviours predict their job performance in South Africa?

Research Aim

This study aims to achieve two goals: first, it intends to explore the effect of blue-collar worker perceptions of inclusive leadership on job performance in South Africa, and second, it aims to determine whether psychological safety has a moderating effect on the relationship between inclusive leadership and job performance.

Literature Review

This section explores and critically reviews past and current inclusive leadership literature and its relationship with job performance. First, the strategy employed for sourcing and retrieving the literature used for the literature review will be detailed. Thereafter, the literature review will be divided into three parts. The first section will discuss the literature on Inclusive Leadership, section two will discuss Job Performance, and the final section will look at a potential moderating variable, Psychological Safety. Each section will begin with an exploration of the theoretical literature of the given variable in question, a review of the underpinning theoretical framework employed, and a critical discussion of key empirical studies that have previously looked at the interplay of the variables. Last, a conceptual model will be presented that provides a holistic depiction of the study in which the variables in question and the hypothesised relationships between them are illustrated (Figure 1). Thereafter, the hypotheses in this study will be presented.

Search Strategy

Various procedures were followed to identify peer-reviewed and academic literature within the scope of the research question, including automation tools such as keywords, Boolean operators, paradigms, and numerous research databases. The following databases were used to retrieve a wide range of literature on the topic: Primo, JSTOR, EBSCOhost, Scopus, Google Scholar and PsycINFO. The literature search took place over 1 year and 6 months, between January 2023 and June 2024. Additionally, the search strategy applied an exclusion criterion to ensure the quality and relevance of the sources retrieved. Namely, a parameter of '2020 – current' was specified within the search in the database to find the most up-to-date journals covering inclusive leadership literature. However, the parameter was removed for specific key terms to ensure literature that fell outside of this parameter were

also considered concerning the theoretical understanding of the constructs and their origin. Further, literature where full texts could not be accessed via databases mentioned above was excluded and any literature that was non-peer reviewed. The keywords used include: *inclusive leadership, inclusive leadership AND South Africa, workforce diversity AND leadership inclusion, inclusive leadership AND organisational outcomes, psychological safety, blue-collar workers AND performance.*

Understanding Inclusive Leadership – An Overview of the Literature

Inclusive Leadership was first defined by Nembhard and Edmondson (2006), who described this as the words and actions of an inclusive leader that effectively encouraged and recognised the unique contributions of diverse individuals in group processes. Consequently, it was stated that leaders who displayed positive, inclusive leadership behaviours had an increased propensity to influence team dynamics and, further, achieve higher levels of organisational outcomes such as performance, engagement and strengthened perceptions of group belongingness (Bataineh et al., 2022; Korkmaz et al., 2022; Nguyen et al., 2019; Randel et al., 2018; Shore & Chung, 2022). Building on this, Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon and Ziv (2010) conceptualised inclusive leadership as behaviours that demonstrated openness, accessibility and availability in engagement in group processes. Shore et al. (2011) noted that, at that time, inclusive leadership was a novel concept with no theoretical underpinnings. Shore et al. (2011) used the Optimal Distinctiveness Theory (ODT) framework to define an inclusive leader as fulfilling the fundamental human need for belongingness and uniqueness when contributing to group processes and outcomes. This work also focused on the individual's perception of workplace inclusion, specifically group dynamics. In a later article, Shore and Chung (2022) stated that insufficient research has been done to conceptualise inclusive leadership, particularly in diverse and evolving organisations, emphasising the need for further exploration into this construct. Consequently, inclusion leadership has gained significant popularity in academia and practice in the past few decades due to its direct influence on achieving organisational outcomes (Kuknor & Bhattacharya, 2022; Li & Tang, 2022; Shore & Chung, 2022).

Theoretical Foundation of Inclusive Leadership

The Optimal Distinctiveness Theory (ODT) was built on the principle that an individual working in a team had a fundamental need to be similar and different from other group members (Brewer, 1991). Further, this was described as tension stemming from the

desire for similarity and difference in a group. Individuals who experienced similarity believed that other group members had similar identities (e.g., race, gender, religion, culture, etc) and would display supportive behaviours, fulfilling the need for belonging. Additionally, an individual desires to feel distinct from other members to fulfil the need for feelings of uniqueness. Building on this, Shore et al. (2011) emphasised that perceptions of inclusion were rooted in an individual's experience in a group based on the individual's ability to establish a balance between two fundamental elements of self-identity, where individuals feel accepted in the group (i.e., Belongingness) while also recognising an individual's unique identities (i.e., Uniqueness) (Chung et al., 2020; Nishii et al., 2018; Randel et al., 2018; Shore et al., 2011). Belongingness refers to an individual seeking similarities and validation from other group members. This was further described as the extent to which individuals of diverse backgrounds could participate in group processes and how these employees could engage completely and make a meaningful impact in the group (Shore & Chung, 2022). Additionally, uniqueness refers to an employee seeking individuality amongst other group members where their unique identities are acknowledged and valued. Further, Shore and Chung (2022) stated that these two constructs positively influenced group dynamics, where belongingness enabled strong and productive relationships, and uniqueness reduced feelings of deindividuation. According to Brewer (1991) and Shore et al. (2011), the desired state, 'Optimal Distinctiveness', would only be achieved when an individual could find an equilibrium between these two contrasting perceptions. Thus, it was stated that for an employee to experience optimal distinctiveness in a group through fostering inclusive leadership behaviours, a leader was required to exhibit behaviours that increased perceptions of uniqueness and belongingness.

Randel et al. (2018), who built on the model of Shore et al. (2011), identified important leader behaviours that would facilitate the extent to which an individual experienced uniqueness and belongingness in a group. Namely, these behaviours include offering support to individuals working in the group, ensuring that these individuals share a similar experience of equity and justice, and providing equal opportunities for members to ensure shared decision-making on relevant topics. According to Randel et al. (2018), this enables perceptions of fair treatment and respect for unique contributions. Additionally, this approach acknowledged how group processes may unintentionally create a lack of equity amongst group members. Further, Shore and Chung (2022) proposed two added behaviours that encouraged individuals to perceive themselves as unique in a group. This included

leaders who encouraged diverse individuals to participate in group decisions and fostered positive, inclusive team dynamics.

Growing bodies of leadership and inclusion literature have highlighted the importance of leadership behaviours that promote elevated levels of inclusion in the workplace (Table B1) (Ferdman, Prime & Riggio, 2020; Korkmaz et al., 2022; Li & Tang, 2022; Randel et al., 2018; Shore & Chung, 2022). In addition, Table B1 highlights several research pieces that significantly contributed to the inclusive leadership literature while simultaneously highlighting the impact on different organisational outcomes. Researchers have extensively explored various organisational outcomes, particularly various forms of performance, including innovative performance (Li & Tang, 2022), job performance (Ke, Zhang & Zheng, 2022; Nguyen et al., 2019), adaptive performance (Bataineh et al., 2022), team performance (Qi & Liu, 2017), task performance (Xiaotao et al., 2018) and project success (Khan et al., 2020). Due to the influence of inclusive leadership on organisational outcomes such as performance, leaders are now encouraged to utilise methodologies that value and leverage the unique profiles of the employees (Ferdman, Prime & Riggo, 2020; Korkmaz et al., 2022; Li, 2022; Roberson & Perry, 2022; Shore & Chung, 2022; Xiaotao et al., 2018).

Inclusive Leadership and Job Performance

Job performance is a crucial criterion that is evaluated to determine whether the employee is successful in the business or not. According to Ramos-Villagrasa et al. (2019), understanding job performance is a crucial aspect of various organisational processes, such as promotion, compensation and rewards, training and development, and succession planning. Although the importance of job performance has been widely accepted historically, up until the 1980s, more was needed to model this construct (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). As a result, the conceptualisation of job performance often varied slightly from study to study as it required to fit the given context of a specific job. An early definition of job performance was proposed by Motowidlo (2003), who stated that job performance is the total expected value an employee provides to an organisation based on a set of discrete behaviours that an individual carries out over a specific time. This definition highlighted the idea that job performance is a set of behaviours rather than a single outcome or result of these behaviours. Over the past few decades, traditional views of job performance have changed from the accomplishment of fixed tasks to the understanding of work roles in changing organisational contexts (Ángeles López-Cabarcos, Vázquez-Rodríguez and Quiñoá-Piñeiro, 2022). The shift towards a contemporary view of job performance was due to the continuous need for

adaptability due to constant changes in the world of work; however, researchers have consistently converged to a shared understanding where job performance was viewed as the ability of an organisation to achieve its goals through individual performance (Ángeles López-Cabarcos, Vázquez-Rodríguez and Quiñoá-Piñeiro, 2022; Edmondson & Bransby, 2024; Ke, Zhang & Zheng, 2022; Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019).

Despite the various conceptualisations, there has been general consensus that job performance can be regarded as a set of behaviours an employee exhibits that positively contribute to organisational goals (Ke, Zhang & Zheng, 2022; Khan et al., 2020; Li & Tang, 2022; Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019; Roberson, Holmes & Perry, 2017; van der Vaart, 2021). This conceptualisation of job performance aimed to encapsulate all employee behaviours that positively and negatively contributed to attaining organisational goals. Understanding the role of job performance in an organisation is not only beneficial for the business but also for the employee. Intrinsically, employees who perform better at their jobs are likelier to commit to their jobs and find greater motivation to perform (Li, 2022; Nguyen et al., 2019; Setati et al., 2019). High-performing employees benefit the organisation by securing a competitive edge and higher financial returns for the business (van der Vaart, 2021). Therefore, for organisations to become market leaders, employees must consistently perform at high levels. It is imperative for performance evaluations to accurately reflect the input of an employee to understand better the specific actions or behaviours an employee contributes (Ke, Zhang & Zheng, 2022; Khan et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2019).

Performance literature at individual and group levels was pivotal in identifying the motivating and hindering factors (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015; Nguyen et al., 2019). Moreover, the study of positive and negative antecedents affecting performance was one of the most researched bodies of work in the Human Resource Management and Industrial/Organisational Psychology fields (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015; Ke, Zhang & Zheng, 2022; Khan et al., 2020; Li & Tang, 2022; Nguyen et al., 2019; Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019; Xiaotao et al., 2018). According to Ramos-Villagrasa et al. (2019), measuring performance is as crucial as conceptualising it. This laid the foundation for the development of several performance measures to be used for specific contexts. One significant difference when measuring performance relates to who completes the assessment: supervisor/manager, subordinates, colleagues or the individual themselves. Researchers have attempted to explain why ratings differed depending on who provided the rating. Woehr (2008) argued that this discrepancy resulted from differences in perceptions between observer and employee, or the lack of opportunity to assess/observe an employee's performance accurately.

Although previous research recommends looking at job performance at various levels (i.e., individual and team), this study focuses on evaluating employees' individual-level behaviours contributing to organisational effectiveness. This study utilises the Individual Workplace Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ), a measurement tool used to assess job performance at an individual level based on the following three dimensions: task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive workplace behaviour. According to Ramos-Villagrasa et al. (2019), extensive reviews on industrial/organisational psychology, management and economics literature have informed the basis of the dimensions of job performance used in this study discussed below:

Task Performance (TP). Task Performance is defined by behaviours that are either directly involved in producing goods and services or indirectly supporting the organisation's core technical processes, which contribute to the organisation's effectiveness (Decius, Schaper & Seifert, 2021; Li, 2022). Task performance is thus dependent on an employee's role and the expected responsibilities stipulated in the job description. However, in the context of blue-collar professions, this is an essential aspect of job performance due to tasks being low complexity and repetitive (Decius, Schaper & Seifert, 2021). In addition, the production of goods and services is relevant to the performance of an employee, especially in a manufacturing environment (Ángeles López-Cabarcos, Vázquez-Rodríguez and Quiñoá-Piñeiro, 2022). Further, organisational or team performance cannot occur without individuals carrying out their expected tasks.

Contextual Performance (CP). Unlike the above, contextual performance is defined by behaviours that contribute to the organisation's effectiveness through individual efforts that do not form part of the employee's job description (van der Vaart, 2021). These behaviours do not involve task completion and are supplementary to overall productivity (Decius, Schaper & Seifert, 2021). Behaviours can include proactively taking on new tasks once previous tasks have been completed, upskilling oneself in one's professional capacity and creatively contributing to group processes. These factors play an essential role in organisational effectiveness by shaping the managerial, social and psychological aspects which catalyse task activities (Decius, Schaper & Seifert, 2021).

Counterproductive Workplace Behaviours (CWB). Contrasting the above two dimensions, research has also underpinned the ideology of a set of voluntary, non-task behaviours that have negative consequences for the organisation by diverting employees from adding value to the organisation (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015; Ones & Dilchert, 2013). According to Decius, Schaper, and Seifert (2021), CWB includes different types of

dysfunctional, damaging or destructive actions. These negative behaviours exhibited by employees can manifest in attitudes and actions, such as frequent absenteeism, tardiness, theft, violation of company regulations, dishonesty, individual misconduct or neglecting workplace responsibilities. Robinson and Bennett (1995) conducted a multidimensional study analysing employee deviance and delinquent behaviour as these behaviours were beneficial in limiting organisational losses and costs. These behaviours are deliberately demonstrated behaviours influenced by situational and individual contexts.

Previous research highlighted the extent of the relationship between inclusive leadership and its significant influence on job performance, establishing its impact on various performance dimensions (see Table B1). Further, this highlighted how inclusive leadership behaviours fostered an environment that increased job performance. This study used ODT to explain the relationship between inclusive leadership and job performance. Following the ODT, the theory suggests that when leaders address employees' need for belongingness and uniqueness, leaders foster high-quality relationships with employees, enhancing job performance (Xiaotao et al., 2018). When these needs are met, employees perceive the work environment as one where they both belong and are valued for their individuality. Li and Tang (2022) argue that leaders who provide such a working environment set an expectation for employees to exert more effort and achieve higher performance. As a result, individual perceptions of inclusive leadership are expected to enhance performance across all three dimensions mentioned. Additionally, inclusive leadership encourages collaboration among employees from diverse roles, levels and backgrounds, promoting better teamwork despite these differences (Xiaotao et al., 2018).

Grounded in the literature reviewed above exploring the relationship between perceptions of inclusive leadership and the dimensions of job performance, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: *Individual perceptions of inclusive leadership will positively influence individual-level performance.*

H1a: *Individual perceptions of inclusive leadership will positively influence an individual's task performance.*

H1b: *Individual perceptions of inclusive leadership will positively influence an individual's contextual performance.*

H1c: *Individual perceptions of inclusive leadership will negatively influence an individual's willingness to display counterproductive workplace behaviours.*

Psychological Safety as a Moderator

Since the publication of Edmondson (1999), there has been significant growth in the field of Psychological Safety in recent years. Due to the unpredictable and complex environment that businesses find themselves in (especially after the Coronavirus pandemic), organisations were forced to find new ways of enabling their workforce to contribute their knowledge better and effectively to support business goals and functioning (Edmondson & Bransby, 2023; Heyns, McCallaghan & Senne, 2021; Li & Tang, 2022). Contrary to the more known physical antecedents of knowledge sharing, such as competencies and personality traits, psychological safety has been viewed as a psychological asset through which team effectiveness can be harnessed (Kim, Lee & Connerton, 2020). Despite the growth of psychological safety literature, research has taken place predominantly within specific industry contexts, most notably the healthcare industry, where psychological safety was used during times of crisis (Ahmed et al., 2021; Bani-Melhem et al., 2021; Edmondson & Bransby, 2023).

According to Edmondson (1999), whose work many later researchers have based their research on, psychological safety is an individual's understanding of the interpersonal dynamics of a group/team, influencing their willingness to engage in risk-taking behaviours or behaviours that create a psychologically unsafe learning environment. According to Edmondson's definition, a psychologically safe environment can be considered one in which employees can speak their minds without fear of rejection or damaging retaliation, can maintain respect for views different to that of the group, can work constructively through conflict and lastly, can engage in decision-making strategies that may be construed as risky.

Consistent with the work of Edmondson, a widely acknowledged definition of psychological safety refers to the ability of an individual to speak freely in an environment whereby the individual is not constrained by potential damaging retaliation or disapproval from others (Edmondson & Bransby, 2023; Li & Tang, 2022). Behaviourally, psychological safety is depicted as open communication, voicing opinions and interpersonal risk-taking (Kim, Lee & Connerton, 2020; Liu & Keller, 2021; Miao et al., 2020; Pearsall & Ellis, 2011). It is essential for employees to feel psychologically protected to bring up suggestions, views and opinions with other employees or managers in decision-making processes. Psychological safety was first introduced as a key factor in organisational learning when Frazier et al. (2017) suggested that on an individual level, psychological safety can mitigate barriers related to perceived threats, change and failure without fears of retaliation, rejection or

punishment. Alternatively, at the team level, this construct was conceptualised as the shared belief by the team that members are safe for interpersonal risk-taking (Li & Tang, 2022; Miao et al., 2019). Despite this, literature has not viewed these as competing fields but as complementary views of the same construct (Frazier et al., 2017; Li & Tang, 2022). Across many disciplines, the prominent conceptualisation of psychological safety revolves around a single question: to achieve different organisational outcomes, how critical is building and fostering a workplace where interpersonal risk-taking is minimised?

Results from several empirical and qualitative research conducted in various regions have shown psychological safety as having a significant role in the reaching of organisational outcomes due to its ability to enhance learning behaviours (Edmondson & Bransby, 2023; Kim, Lee & Connerton, 2020; Liu & Keller, 2021). Table 1 highlighted significant research conducted on psychological safety and its effect on different variables – some consistent with the variables used in this study (Ahmed et al., 2021; Kim, Lee & Connerton, 2020; Li & Tang, 2022; Liu & Keller, 2021; Miao et al., 2019; Miao et al., 2020). Psychological Safety has been studied across many scholarly disciplines, especially organisational psychology. However, there has been a focus on specialised disciplines, including entrepreneurial ventures, the manufacturing industry, healthcare services and construction. Overall, research has been conducted in multiple countries, as depicted in Table 1. However, most notably, the Global North was the prominent research location. Research has focussed more on empirical findings, including a mix of cross-sectional and longitudinal data collection approaches. In addition, Edmonson's (1999) seven-item scale was the most widely used measure across studies focussed on psychological safety. According to Edmondson and Bransby (2023), psychological safety has been explored at an individual level, followed by group, organisational and multi-level approaches.

Further, Table 1 highlighted the importance of a leader as a mechanism for facilitating a psychologically safe work environment (Ahmed et al., 2021; Bani-Melhem et al., 2021; Frazier et al., 2017; Heyns, McCallaghan & Senne, 2021; Liu & Keller, 2021; Li & Tang, 2022; Miao et al., 2019). According to Edmondson and Bransby (2023), the most commonly occurring tag in their meta-analysis of psychological safety was 'leaders/leadership' due to the leader's ability to shape the beliefs and behaviours of employees. Further, Frazier et al. (2017), Heyns, McCallaghan and Senne (2021), Li and Tang (2022) and Miao et al. (2019) call for further research to be conducted on different leadership styles as an antecedent to psychological safety. Psychological safety, therefore, relies on a leader's involvement in the processes that make the working environment more conducive to the benefits of

psychological safety. The behaviours that a leader possesses and demonstrates play a critical role in promoting psychological safety within a team. According to Nembhard and Edmondson (2006), psychological safety is crucial when working with lower-status job roles (i.e., job roles positioned lower on the organisational hierarchy). Higher-status employees are typically encouraged to participate in the decision-making process and given a higher degree of freedom of self-expression and creativity (Ahmed et al., 2021; Li & Tang, 2022). In contrast, lower-status employees may hesitate to engage in psychologically safe behaviours due to the fear of negative consequences, job insecurity and organisational norms. As this study focuses on blue-collar workers who are typically considered lower-status individuals, the degree of psychological safety perceived is a variable of interest.

Literature has used the Social Exchange Theory to explain the theoretical bridge between inclusive leadership and psychological safety (Ashikali, Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2021; Li & Tang, 2022; Nguyen et al., 2019). According to this theory, leaders who exhibit key inclusive leadership behaviours (e.g., demonstrate openness, provide support, and meet the employee's desire to experience belongingness and uniqueness in a group) will develop a social exchange relationship with the employee. The employee perceives this reciprocal exchange as a means to strengthen the relationship with the leader by demonstrating positive behaviours that support the organisation. Li and Tang (2022) stated that leaders who exhibit these inclusive leadership behaviours that support employees foster higher levels of psychological safety in a team, as employees are more likely to reciprocate by engaging in group processes such as interpersonal risk-taking.

Behaviours demonstrated by inclusive leaders are aimed at authentic value and the integration of the team into core work processes, and prompt group discussions and the implementation of these ideas and suggestions (Ahmed et al., 2021; Hirak et al., 2012; Li & Tang, 2022). Li and Tang (2022) stated that inclusive leaders could break down barriers in organisations to facilitate effective communication, encourage and empower employees to engage in decision-making processes and aid in solving personal issues that may hinder the employee's ability to perform. As a result, this lowered employee concern regarding risk-taking, contributing to higher levels of perceived psychological safety. Concerning inclusive leadership, Ahmed et al. (2021) found that in the healthcare industry, leaders who were open, available and accessible were able to foster a psychologically safe environment that, in turn, reduced negative psychological behaviours, specifically psychological distress. According to Frazier et al. (2017), when employees experience high levels of psychological safety, the negative consequences of risk-taking behaviours (e.g., punishment, ridicule, demotion,

reputation damage) are minimised, allowing employees to focus on improving their performance. Additionally, employees are more likely to suggest ideas that differ from the norm, experiment with non-traditional methods of work and express disagreement during group discussions (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon & Ziv, 2010; Frazier et al., 2017; Lee & Dahinten, 2021; Li, 2022; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Randel et al., 2018). Further, inclusive leadership fosters a culture of trust and interconnectedness, demonstrating to members that belongingness and identity are valued within the group (Ahmed et al., 202l; Frazier et al., 2017). Therefore, based on the literature discussed above, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H2a: *Psychological Safety will positively strengthen the relationship between inclusive leadership and task performance.*

H2b: *Psychological Safety will positively strengthen the relationship between inclusive leadership and contextual performance.*

H2c: *Psychological Safety will strengthen the inverse relationship between inclusive leadership and counterproductive workplace behaviours.*

Table 1

Summary of Key Findings Highlighting the Relationship Between Inclusive Leadership and Psychological Safety

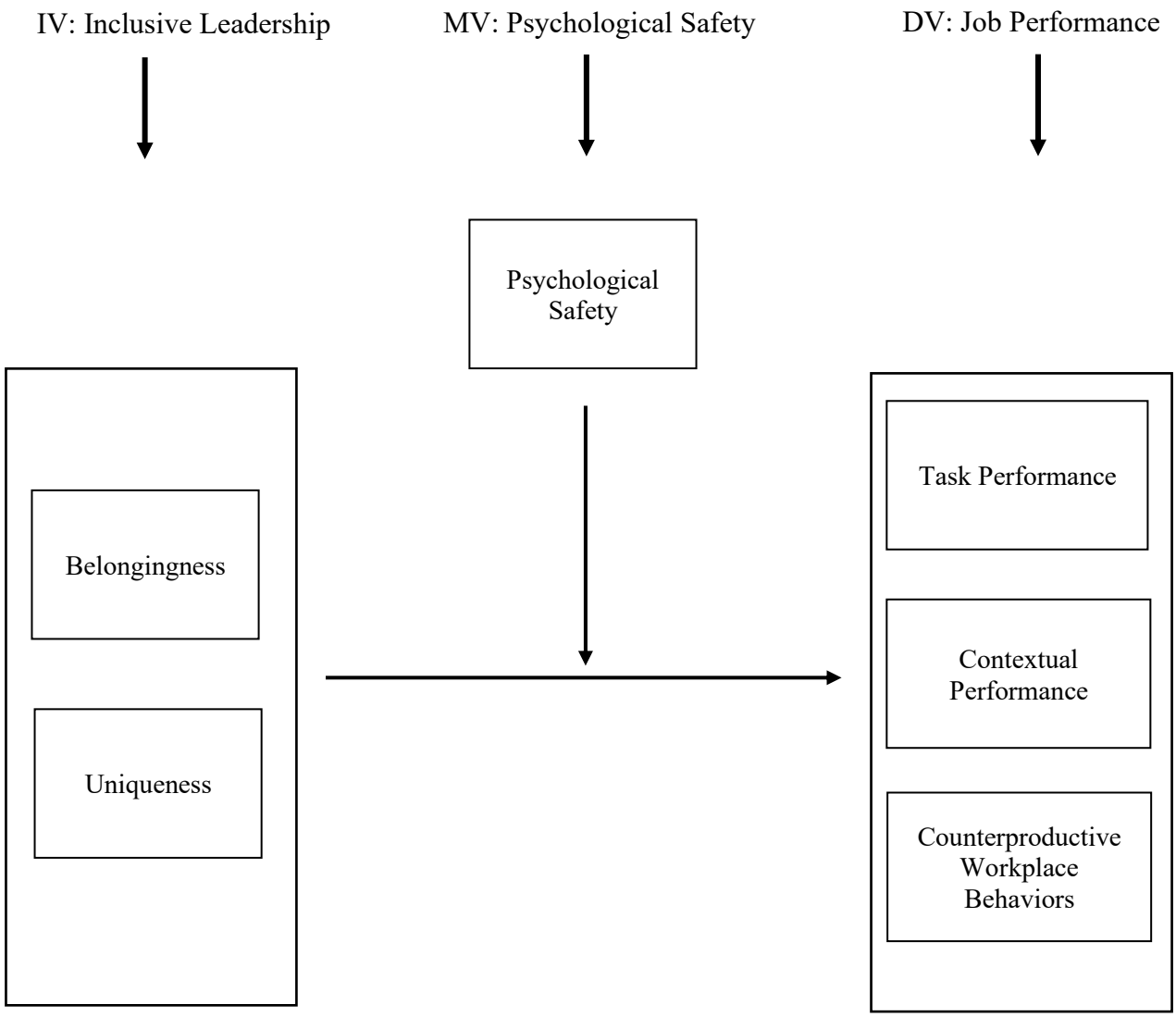
Author and Publication year	Methodology	Research Location	Sample	Findings
Bani-Melhem et al. (2021)	Longitudinal, paper-based survey	United Arab Emirates (UAE)	Frontline workers at hospitality organisations	An empathetic leader mitigated the lack of PS experienced by dark personality types by demonstrating proactive work behaviours. Empathetic leaders consider the welfare of the employees and treat them as assets to the organisation. Results highlighted the importance of an inclusive leader in facilitating group processes.
Ahmed et al. (2021)	Longitudinal, questionnaire	Wuhan, China	Nurses	The mediating effect of PS was found to be significant when examining the inverse causal relationship between IL and psychological distress. This research calls for research on IL across different cultural groups.
Liu and Keller (2021)	Survey	Taiwan	245 team members in sixty Research and Development Teams	PS indirectly affects performance through enhanced learning behaviours and knowledge sharing. Emphasises leaders' role in fostering a psychological safety climate to encourage ‘disruptive’ ideas brought forward by individuals who felt psychologically safe in a group.

Miao et al. (2019)	Cross-Sectional survey	China	Entrepreneurial ventures under the age of three	PS fully mediated the relationship between CEO entrepreneurial leadership and performance at the individual level. This finding calls for research on other leadership styles to determine each style's unique contributions.
Li and Tang (2022)	Cross-sectional, questionnaire	China	Employees working in the automobile and chemical industry	Highlighted the characteristics of a leader who was open, available and accessible, who cultivated a psychologically safe working environment. Emphasised the role a leader plays in fostering PS.
Shore and Chung (2022)	Inclusive Leadership: How Leaders Sustain or Discourage Work Group Inclusion	United States of America (USA)	Employees of marginalised social identity groups	This paper focused on the importance of displaying IL behaviours that do not exclude marginalised individuals from group processes and on the importance of creating a psychologically safe environment for these marginalised groups.

To the best of this study's knowledge, no prior research has focussed on psychological safety as a moderator of the relationship between inclusive leadership and job performance. More specifically, how these variables of interest affect the intended sample of blue-collar workers in a South African organisational context is yet to be discovered. Figure 1 depicts the conceptual model used in this study based on the literature review on the interaction of the constructs. This model aims to contribute to Human Resource Management and Organisational Psychological literature and studies in South Africa.

Figure 1

Conceptual Model of Inclusive Leadership, Job Performance and Psychological Safety



Note. IV = Independent Variable. *MV* = Moderating Variable. *DV* = Dependent Variable.

Summary of Hypotheses

Drawing on the theoretical frameworks and empirical evidence presented in the literature review, and in line with the research objective of the study, the following hypotheses are posited:

H1: *Individual perceptions of inclusive leadership will positively influence individual-level performance.*

> ***H1a:*** *Individual perceptions of inclusive leadership will positively influence an individual's task performance.*
>
> ***H1b:*** *Individual perceptions of inclusive leadership will positively influence an individual's contextual performance.*
>
> ***H1c:*** *Individual perceptions of inclusive leadership will negatively influence an individual's willingness to display counterproductive workplace behaviours.*

H2: *Psychological Safety moderates the relationship between inclusive leadership and performance at the individual level. Specifically, when an employee experiences psychological safety, the positive relationship between inclusive leadership and performance is enhanced.*

> ***H2a:*** *Psychological Safety will positively strengthen the relationship between inclusive leadership and task performance.*
>
> ***H2b:*** *Psychological Safety will positively strengthen the relationship between inclusive leadership and contextual performance.*
>
> ***H2c:*** *Psychological Safety will strengthen the inverse relationship between inclusive leadership and counterproductive workplace behaviours.*

Method

This section describes the method employed to examine the relationship between inclusive leadership and job performance in South Africa. In addition, it outlines the process of identifying the potential moderating effect of psychological safety on this relationship. By deploying a systematic and qualitative research approach, this section aims to provide a robust and rigorous evaluation of the research topic (Field, 2017; Pandey & Pandey, 2021). This section will describe the research design, sampling procedure, participants, and measures to address the research question. Statistical tests and data analysis procedures used

will be noted. A summary of the ethical considerations and research approach to collect primary data will be discussed.

Research Design

The research design enables the researcher to provide a detailed overview of how the research question was addressed, outlining the correlational approach used to test the hypotheses (Marczyk, DeMatteo & Festinger, 2010). A quantitative approach was deployed to address the study's research objectives, and a correlational design was used. This design was deemed appropriate to investigate blue-collar worker's perceived level of inclusive leadership and its effect on performance as similar research has followed this same approach (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon & Ziv, 2010; Mitchell et al., 2015; van der Vaart, 2021; Xiaotao et al., 2018). This research study used primary, quantitative data collected using Likert-scale questions. Due to time and financial constraints, data was collected at a given time (i.e., employed cross-sectionally) rather than collected at multiple points (i.e., longitudinally). This was done to observe what naturally occurs in the world without directly interfering with the environment (i.e., non-experimental) (Field, 2017). To analyse the data and the relationships between variables, descriptive and inferential statistics were calculated and evaluated.

To collect data, this study employed self-administered surveys designed to measure the variables of interest, including inclusive leadership, psychological safety and job performance. Both online and paper-based distribution methods were used to accommodate the varying characteristics of the blue-collar workforce sample, associated with lower levels of computer literacy and education (Lee & Mohamed, 2006; Setati et al., 2019). Before full-scale deployment of the survey, the final survey underwent pilot testing. Feedback from participating blue-collar workers confirmed that the questions were clear, coherent and easy to comprehend. Online methods for collecting data utilised standardised questionnaires that required mandatory fields to eliminate missing responses. Participants were allocated specific time slots, as per arrangements made with their respective supervisors, where a designated room allowed participants to utilise company laptops to access the survey. The researcher supervised all participants utilising this method, and any further questions regarding how to answer questions using the laptops were responded to.

Sampling

A non-probability, purposive sampling approach was employed. This sampling technique was used as the study relied on the researcher's judgment regarding selecting

participants and organisations that would be viable for data collection (Rai & Thapa, 2015). Furthermore, this technique was deemed appropriate given the resources available to the researcher (i.e., cost-effective and allow for targetted data collection) and the requirements of the study's aim and objectives (see inclusion criteria below) (Berndt, 2020). Data was primarily collected from two companies in South Africa involved in the transport and food manufacturing industries, where participants completed labour-intensive work wearing personal protective equipment, typical of blue-collar work. Further responses were obtained from companies operating in the Agriculture, Health and Safety and Maintenance industries. Despite the effort made to approach several companies, many companies declined or did not provide any response. For a participant to be included in the study, they were required to meet the following inclusion criteria:

- Be 18 years of age or older
- South African national
- Provide informed consent at the initial stage of the questionnaire to participate
- Currently employed in a blue-collar position

The paper-based and electronic surveys asked respondents to declare that they were aware of the inclusion criteria and asked to provide consent to participate, given these inclusion criteria, by selecting "Yes, I consent". If the respondent selected "No, I do not consent", they were then redirected to a thank you page where they could not continue with the questionnaire. The paper-based surveys did not include participants who did not tick this box. Lastly, participants were referred to as 'Service Workers' in the questionnaire to avoid discriminatory or prejudicial issues by referring to an employee as a blue-collar worker.

Participants

The participants in this study consisted of South African nationals, 18 or older, currently employed in blue-collar professions. In addition, both male and female employees participated in this survey. With permission from all companies, the survey was distributed to participants during their working hours and on company premises. A total of 145 responses were collected. In the analysis, participants who failed to complete the whole scale in the survey were removed, as well as participants who indicated that they were not South African. Lastly, participants who did not provide informed consent at the start of the questionnaire by selecting 'No, I do not consent' were excluded from the study.

After excluding all invalid cases, the final dataset comprised 122 valid responses. Among the valid responses, 35.2% of participants identified as male, while 64.8% identified

as female. The majority of participants belonged to the Black racial group (50%), followed by the Coloured racial group (47.2%) (Table 2). The transport industry participants (14.8%) opted for the pen-and-paper method, whereas the food manufacturing industry participants (73.9%) completed the survey electronically using company laptops. Data was also collected from various participants employed in blue-collar occupations scattered in the following industries: Agriculture (2.5%), Health and Safety (7.4%), and Maintenance (1.6%) (Table 2).

Table 2

Frequency of Demographic Variables of Participants in this Study

Demographic	Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Total
Gender	Female	79	64.8	122
	Male	43	35.2	
Race	Black	61	50.0	122
	Coloured	57	46.7	
	White	4	3.3	
Industry	Agriculture	3	2.5	122
	Health & Safety	9	7.4	
	Maintenance	2	1.6	
	Production	90	73.9	
	Transport	18	14.8	
Education Level	Before Grade 10	8	6.6	122
	Grade 10	28	23.0	
	Grade 12 (Matric)	59	48.4	
	Tertiary Education	26	21.3	
	Prefer Not to Say	1	.8	

Note. $N = 122$

Measures

The measures outlined below were chosen to evaluate the variables of interest (i.e., inclusive leadership, psychological safety, and performance). These measures have been used by researchers in previous work investigating similar constructs and have proven valid and reliable. Therefore, the measures below can be expected to present sound reliabilities in this study. The self-report questionnaire consists of eight sections and was designed and presented in English. The first section requested a respondent to indicate whether they consented to

participate. The following five sections consisted of scales used to measure the constructs in this study. The remaining two sections collected demographic information from the participant and whether the participant would participate in the lucky draw. Initial minor modifications of the scales were made to ensure that the questions accommodated the specific context of blue-collar workers employed in South Africa. The exact measures used in this study are detailed below.

Inclusive Leadership. The measure for this construct is from the work of Chung et al. (2020), whereby a 10-item Work Group Inclusion Measure was developed. This is an extension of the work of Shore et al. (2011), which lays the theoretical foundation for inclusion based on uniqueness and belongingness. Examples include: "I am treated as a valued member of my work group (B)" and "People in my work group listen to me even when my views are dissimilar (U)" (See Appendix C for all items). Questions were rated on a 5-point Likert scale, whereby responses ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree".

Psychological Safety. The measure for this construct is Edmondson's 7-item Psychological Safety Scale Measure. Examples of items include: "If you make a mistake on this team, it is often held against you", "It is safe to take a risk on this team", "No one on this team would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts" and "Working with members of this team, my unique skills and talents are utilised" (See Appendix C for all scale items). Items in this scale were rated on a 7-point Likert scale, whereby responses ranged from 1 = "very inaccurate" to 7 = "very accurate". This measure was utilised in the research conducted by Li and Tang (2022), where the scale demonstrated a Cronbach's alpha of .741. Similarly, Kim, Lee, and Connerton (2020) employed the Psychological Safety Scale in their study, reporting a Cronbach's alpha of .793. Additionally, Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon, and Ziv (2010) found a Cronbach's alpha of .74 when using this scale in their research.

Performance. The measure for this construct is Koopmans's (2015) 18-item Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ). Refer to Appendix C to see a complete list of items included. Participants were asked to recall how often they engaged in these behaviours in the past three months. The IWPQ measures three main dimensions of job performance: contextual performance (CP), task performance (TP), and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB). Questions in this scale were rated on a 5-point Likert scale whereby responses ranged from 0 = "Seldom" to 4 = "Always" for Task and Contextual performance, and 0 = "Never" to 5 = "Often" for Counterproductive Work Behaviour. This scale previously

demonstrated acceptable values of internal consistency in a South African organisation context (CP: α =.85; TP: α =.85) but unacceptable for CWB (α = .68*)* (van der Vaart, 2021).

In addition to the above scales, participants were asked to provide personal information, including age, gender, race, education level, tenure, industry and employment status. These demographics help in understanding who the participants are and assist the researcher in identifying the differences and similarities within the group. Only demographic questions deemed relevant and necessary to provide insight into the participant group were included, minimising the risk of response fatigue. It should be noted that these measures have been reworded slightly to ensure uniformity across units of measurement (e.g., workgroup instead of team or unit group). In addition, some terms in the questions have been highlighted (i.e., bolded) to emphasise the question being asked.

Data Collection Procedure

Ethics approval was granted by the University of Cape Town Ethics Committee (COM/00304/2023) on 11/07/2023 to proceed with the research study (Appendix D). The self-report questionnaire included in this study was developed using the Qualtrics platform. Before data collection, the researcher piloted the survey to 3 individuals employed in the blue-collar profession to identify formatting issues, complex or ambiguous wording, and errors. The three participants gave the researcher positive feedback regarding the study's understanding, interpretation and completion.

Multiple companies in South Africa were contacted via email and in person to seek permission to conduct this study at that specific company. Companies were provided a letter detailing the specifics of the study and were required to sign if permission was granted. Once permission was given and the method was selected (paper-based or online), the survey was sent to the respective companies and participants. For the online delivery method, a URL was provided containing the link to the contact person. Alternatively, the company printed the questionnaire (paper-and-pen) and distributed it. The questionnaire's landing page stipulated the study's details and requirements. The manufacturing company assisted with the data collection procedure by setting up company laptops in a designated room so that employees could have a suitable research environment to complete the survey. In addition, the researcher was on site during this period to provide an overview of the study and answer any questions the participant may have had. Participants took approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete the survey. Lastly, data was collected between July 2023 and October 2023.

Statistical Analyses

Following data collection, responses to the questionnaire were imported from Qualtrics and imported into Microsoft Excel. The data was then cleaned for statistical analysis to ensure accuracy and consistency and that incomplete data would not lead to unreliable conclusions (Chu et al., 2016). The cleaned data was imported from Microsoft Excel to the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Software (Version 28) to begin coding and analysing the data.

First, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to assess the dimensionality of the components. Following this, the researcher conducted the reliability of each scale using Cronbach's Alpha to measure internal consistency. Descriptive and frequency analyses were performed on the demographic variables (gender, race, level of education, and industry) to summarise the participants in the dataset. Correlation and regression analyses were used to test the hypotheses under investigation in this study. The researcher then used the moderation analysis to determine whether psychological safety was a potential moderator when examining the relationship between inclusive leadership and performance. Finally, the researcher ran t-tests to determine if differences were present amongst these variables across different groups (e.g., gender, race, industry, age).

Ethical Considerations

Upon obtaining ethical approval, the researcher adhered to the following ethical considerations. Firstly, a formal letter requesting permission to conduct research was sent to companies, explaining the purpose of the study, incentives, confidentiality and procedure (Appendix E). Any company that chose to participate would have received a consent form where the contact person at the respective company signed off on collecting data. Once participants accessed the survey link, an introductory paragraph outlining the research purpose and procedure for answering the survey was displayed, followed by a section where participants could provide informed consent (Appendix F). Participation in this research study was voluntary, and no participant was coerced or forced to participate in or complete the survey if they chose not to. By selecting "Yes, I consent" at the beginning of the questionnaire, participants were directed to the questionnaire. Alternatively, when the participant selected "No, I do not consent", participants were redirected to the end of the survey and were not given access to the questions. Only individuals who provided informed consent were directed to complete the questionnaire. Participants were informed that they

could withdraw from the questionnaire at any point during the process without facing any penalty or negative consequences.

Secondly, emphasis was placed on confidentiality and anonymity when completing the survey, including any demographic information. Participants were only asked to provide email addresses and phone numbers if they opted for the lucky draw. Contact details were strictly used only to contact the successful participant of the lucky draw. The lucky draw was designed to incentivise participation in this study, offering participants an opportunity to receive a reward as a token of appreciation for their involvement, thereby enhancing engagement and response rates. In addition, this information was kept on a password-protected laptop. Thirdly, participants were made aware that completing the survey posed minimal risk, as they would not be exposed to any distressing or sensitive content. They were assured that the questions were non-invasive and designed to minimise potential discomfort, ensuring their participation would not cause harm or emotional distress.

Upon completing the survey, the data was stored on a password-protected laptop accessible only by the researcher. Additionally, no copies of the study or any further identifying information were shared with external parties without the consent of the research supervisor. These measures were implemented to ensure the confidentiality of the data. Additionally, data was collected anonymously, and aside from the optional demographic information provided by participants, no personally identifiable information was gathered.

Results

This section presents the results of the gathered data after thoroughly completing the statistical analysis. Further, the moderating role of psychological safety in the relationship between inclusive leadership and job performance was assessed. Data was gathered from a total of 122 participants. Before the testing of hypotheses, a series of preliminary analyses were conducted. Firstly, a power analysis was conducted to determine the adequate sample size for the study (Kang, 2021). This was followed by exploratory factor analysis (EFA), which assessed the variability amongst the sub-scales within the utilised measurement scales. The internal consistency test (Cronbach alpha - α) was also conducted to determine the scale's reliability. Descriptive analysis was employed to test the normality of the data. This was followed by a correlational analysis, which tested the relationship among the study's variables. Lastly, a test of hypotheses, where linear regression, hierarchical multiple regression, and moderation analysis using Hayes's (2018) PROCESS macro were utilised.

Preliminary Analysis

Power Analysis

The power analysis was performed using G*Power 3.1 software to determine the most appropriate sample size required for the study. With an effect size set at .15, a significance level of .05 and a statistical power of .95, a minimum sample size of 107 was calculated (F = 3.08, df = 2.10), corresponding to an actual power of .95. To account for potential attrition, 15% of the calculated sample size (approximately 16 participants) was added. This yielded a total sample size of 123 blue-white collar workers. Following the data collection procedure, it was found that only one response was invalid due to the participant providing incomplete information.

Missing Data

When conducting research, it is typically challenging to obtain complete data from each respondent (Pallant, 2016). The reasons for missing data can vary; however, it can include the respondents not having sufficient time to respond to all questions, respondents choosing not to respond, or unintentionally missing a question (Bell, Harley & Bryman, 2022). If not addressed in the preliminary analysis, missing data could cause the result to be skewed positively or negatively (Austin et al., 2021; Pallant, 2016). Upon investigation of the data, only one respondent had missing data, and it was observed that the respondent gave scanty answers throughout the survey. Consequently, this response was removed from the dataset.

Exploratory Factor Analysis and Multicollinearity Assessment

Exploratory Factor Analysis explores the underlying factors within the items of a scale without a pre-determined structure (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2011; Field, 2017). Further, it assists in identifying the interrelationships between items within a measurement scale (Pallant, 2016). Several conditions must be met, including testing for item inter-correlation and assessing multi-collinearity. Additionally, factor loadings must be evaluated to determine whether items should be retained within the scale (Field, 2017). For the data to be accepted as valid for the study, it must yield a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test value above .50 (Field, 2017; Williams et al., 2010). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is also expected to be significant, which indicates that the items within the scale are significantly correlated with each other. Lastly, retained factors/dimensions must yield a minimum of 1 Eigenvalue to be retained as a factor, and factor loadings must be greater than .30 to be considered statistically significant

(Field, 2017; Pallant, 2016). In this study, all these conditions were met for each utilised scale.

A multicollinearity test was conducted for all the scales utilised in this study. The study's independent variable, inclusive leadership, initially had 10 items. The two dimensions of inclusive leadership (uniqueness and belongingness) were run separately on the first run. Upon inspection, it was noted that these two dimensions were highly correlated at .95 (Table 3). Field (2017) stated that values above .80 or .90 indicate multicollinearity.

Table 3

Table Indicating the Presence of Multi-Collinearity Between Uniqueness and Belongingness

	Uniqueness	Belongingness
Pearson Correlation		.953**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
N	122	122
Pearson Correlation	.953**	
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
N	122	122

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

A re-test was conducted without consideration for dimensions; hence, it was tested as a unidimensional scale. To the best of this study's knowledge, no prior research has tested the scale as a unidimensional scale, as multicollinearity did not exceed the general threshold and sample sizes were more significant than 122. Although the initial factor analysis test for inclusive leadership showed an adequate KMO above .50 (KMO = .81) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity, two items (Items IL_B4 and IL_U7) were found to have inadequate factor loadings of .21 and .49 respectively (Table G1). As expected, after the removal of these two items, the KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity for the inclusive leadership scale was justified (KMO = .78, X^2 = 296.36, p < .01) (Table G2). All the items had adequate factor loading above 0.50 and an Eigenvalue above 1 (Table G3), accounting for a cumulative 60.24 variance.

The psychological safety scale had an initial seven items subjected to inter-item correlation to test the presence of multicollinearity (Table H1). Four items (PS_1, PS_3, PS_4, and PS_5) were deleted as they did not meet the specified requirements to be retained as a valid measure of psychological safety among the sample population (Table H2). Further,

Psychological safety (Table H3) also yielded an adequate KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity for the scale (KMO = .62, X^2 = 28.85, p < .01) (Table H3). The scale was tested as a single factor, explaining a total variance of 53.19%, with an Eigenvalue above 1 (Table H4).

The inter-correlation among task performance items yielded adequate values and showed that all the items were valid measures (Table I1), as none of the coefficients indicated multicollinearity. The items for task performance yielded an adequate KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity for the scale (KMO = .79, X^2 = 130.59, p < .01) (Table I2), implying the sufficiency of the items and sample. All items had factor loadings above 0.60 and yielded a single factor, accounting for a cumulative total variance of factor loading for the scale, which yielded 51.04% (Table I3).

Factor analysis was done on contextual performance consisting of eight items (Table J1). Notably, all items demonstrated adequate factor loadings above .30, although cutting across two factors. While these coefficients were adequate across both factors, a strong relationship existed between these two factors, which was expected. The determinant score was .49, above 0.00001, confirming the absence of multicollinearity among the items (Table J2) (Field, 2017). Additionally, the items yielded an adequate KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity for the scale (KMO = .68, X^2 = 84.80, p < .01) (Table J3), implying the sufficiency of the items and sample. All items had factor loadings above .30 and yielded a single factor. Five items for contextual performance yielded adequate coefficient values, which indicated that all the items were valid measures, as none of the coefficients showed multicollinearity.

Finally, one item was deleted from job performance's counterproductive work behaviour dimension after initially conducting the analysis on all five items (Table K1). Hence, after removing P_CWB14 (Table K2), the remaining four items yielded adequate coefficient values (Table K3), illustrating that all the items were valid measures as none of the coefficients indicated multicollinearity. The determinant score for counterproductive work behaviour was .61, above 0.00001, confirming the absence of multicollinearity among the items (Field, 2017). Additionally, the items yielded an adequate KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity for the scale (KMO = .63, X^2 = 57.97, p < .01) (Table K4), implying the sufficiency of the items and sample. All the items had factor loadings above .30 and yielded a single factor.

Reliability test

Having determined the items that best measure each of the study scales, the next step was determining the reliability, item-total correlation, and internal consistency (Cronbach alpha - α). Reliability is the consistency of a scale in measuring the construct it was designed to measure (Field, 2017). Alongside the reliability test is the corrected item-total correlation, which is expected to be above .30 (Field, 2017). The reliability test showed that all the items had above the required .30 item-total correlation coefficient, which is considered adequate for this study (Table 4). All the scales had adequate internal consistency (Cronbach alpha - α), ranging from approximately .60 to .80, which is also confirmed to be adequate values (Raharjanti et al., 2022).

Table 4

Internal Consistency (Cronbach's α of the Scales)

Scale	Items	Corrected Inter-Item correlations	α
Inclusive leadership	1	.54	.80
	2	.54	
	3	.55	
	5	.51	
	6	.47	
	8	.59	
	9	.49	
	10	.42	
Psychological safety	2	.37	.56
	6	.35	
	7	.39	
Performance			
Task performance	1	.60	.76
	2	.54	
	3	.52	
	4	.54	
	5	.44	
Contextual performance	6	.37	.65
	9	.33	
	11	.45	
	12	.57	
	13	.32	

CWB	15	.34	.60
	16	.45	
	17	.34	
	18	.54	

Note. α = Cronbach's Alpha. *CWB* = Counterproductive Work Behaviours.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics provide a more comprehensive description of the gathered data, illustrating how distributed and dispersed the dataset is (Field, 2017). This study's descriptive statistics include minimum score, maximum score, mean, standard deviation, variance, standard error, skewness, and kurtosis. These were conducted for each scale used to measure the study variables. The result summary is presented in Table 5.

As shown in Table 5, the mean score for inclusive leadership is identified to be positive (M = 3.73, SD = 0.62). This is because the mean score is greater than the midpoint of the maximum score of 5 (2.5). This indicates that the participants positively perceive inclusive leadership at their workplace. According to Field (2017), Kurtosis measures the tails of the data distribution and how it relates to the overall shape. A kurtosis value above the value of 3 indicates a peaked dataset, while it was considered too flat if less than -3.0 (Hair et al., 2003). The kurtosis value for inclusive leadership in this study is 3.24, indicating that the distribution is peaked. However, the kurtosis values for the other variables were less than -3.0 and not up to 3.0, indicating that psychological safety, task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour were in the normal range for this.

On the other hand, skewness measures the extent to which a dataset distribution leans to one side of the mean (Kaliyadan & Kulkarni, 2019). It can, therefore, yield positive, negative, or zero skewness (Kaliyadan & Kulkarni, 2019). The skewness value ranges between -0.5 and +0.5 for a normal distribution, implying that any value beyond -0.5 and +0.5 indicates negative and positive skewness, respectively. The datasets for inclusive leadership, task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour were skewed, with values beyond -0.5 and +0.5. Psychological safety was found to be normally distributed, with a value less than -0.5. According to Pek et al. (2018), the rules of normality can be flexible due to the distribution of error in linear regression, where it will automatically tilt towards normality when the sample size is more significant than 30. In this

case, the sample size is one hundred and twenty-two (n = 122), which depicts that parametric statistics can be utilised.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Each Variable Scale

Variables	M	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
Inclusive leadership	3.73	0.62	1.13	5.00	-1.07	3.24
Psychological safety	4.50	1.45	1.00	7.00	-0.14	-0.50
Job performance						
Task performance	2.60	0.55	0.40	3.00	-1.70	2.84
Contextual performance	2.30	0.61	0.40	3.00	-0.77	0.14
Counterproductive work behaviour	0.84	0.71	0.00	3.00	0.68	0.29

Note. N = 122. M = Mean. SD = Standard Deviation. *Min* = Minimum. *Max* = Maximum.

As shown in Table 6, four of the five variables were less than the required .05 p-value, which implies that the null hypothesis has been rejected. By implication, inclusive leadership, task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour were not normally distributed. However, the data on psychological safety was not significant, implying a normal distribution.

Table 6

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		IL	PSS	TP	CP	CWB
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.14	.09	.22	.13	.15
	Positive	.10	.05	.22	.12	.15
	Negative	-.14	-.09	-.22	-.13	-.12
Test Statistic		.14	.01	.22	.13	.15
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.000[c]	.121[a]	.000[c]	.000[c]	.000[c]

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

Note: IL = Inclusive Leadership. *PSS* = Psychological Safety. *TP* = Task Performance. *CP* = Contextual Performance. *CWB* = Counterproductive Work Behaviour.

P-P Plot and Q-Q Plot (Normality of Data)

As shown on the P-P plot (Appendix G), it could be inferred that the data distribution for psychological safety appears to be normal, with a slight deviation (Figure G1). This is due to the distribution being closely aligned on the line. However, data distribution for the remaining variables, such as inclusive leadership (Figure G2), task performance (Figure G3), contextual performance (Figure G4) and counterproductive work behaviour (Figure G5), appear to have outliers as there were deviations from the line, indicative of non-normality of data distribution. A similar normality distribution was observed for the Q-Q plot for psychological safety (Figure H1), inclusive leadership (Figure H2), task performance (Figure H3), contextual performance (Figure H4) and counterproductive work behaviour (Figure H4)

Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was carried out using the Pearson Product Correlation Coefficient. Pearson *r* correlation tests the relationship between and among two or more variables (Field, 2017). The analysis was conducted on two significant levels: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < .01$. The strength of the relationship was assessed on three levels: weak ($.10 < r < .29$), moderate ($.30 < r < .49$), and strong relationship ($r > .50$) (Cohen, 1988; Field, 2017).

Table 7 illustrates that there exists a significant relationship between inclusive leadership and psychological safety ($r = .38$, $p < .01$). The relationship, as shown, depicts a positive direction, implying that employees who perceive a high level of inclusive leadership at their workplace experience higher levels of psychological safety (and vice versa). The strength of the relationship is classified at a moderate level. The same direction was observed in the relationship between inclusive leadership and contextual performance ($r = .26$, $p < .01$). By implication, the higher the perception of inclusive leadership at work, the higher the contextual performance of employees. The strength of the relationship is, however, weak. In addition, a weak, negative relationship was observed between inclusive leadership and counterproductive work behaviour among employees ($r = -.30$, $p < .01$). The direction of the correlation suggests that the higher the inclusive leadership in the organisation, the lower the exhibition of counterproductive work behaviour by employees. The strength of the

relationship is weak. Last, no significant relationship was observed between inclusive leadership and task performance ($r = .07$, $p < .01$).

As shown in Table 7, there is a significant correlation between psychological safety and task performance ($r = .32$, $p < .01$). The direction of the relationship is positive, meaning the higher the perceived psychological safety of employees, the higher their task performance. The strength of the relationship is moderate. The same direction and strength of the relationship was observed between perceived psychological safety and contextual performance ($r = .32$, $p < .01$). Meaning the higher the perceived psychological safety, the higher their contextual performance. The relationship between perceived psychological safety and counterproductive work behaviour was insignificant ($r = -.11$, $p > .05$).

Table 7

Zero-Order Correlation (α) Summary Table on the Inter-Correlation Among Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Inclusive leadership	-				
Psychological safety	.38**	-			
Performance					
Task performance	0.07	.32**	-		
Contextual performance	.26**	.32**	.41**	-	
Counterproductive work behaviour	-.30**	-.11	-.14	-.15	-

Note. $N = 122$. **Significant at 0.01. * Significant at 0.05. α = Cronbach's Alpha

Regression Analysis

Linear Regression

Linear regression analysis was utilised to test the first hypothesis on the predictive influence of inclusive leadership on task performance (H1a), contextual performance (H1b), and counterproductive work behaviour (H1c) among employees. By implication, the independent variable is inclusive leadership, while the dependent variables were task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work behaviour. Before running the regression analysis, some basic assumptions were made. The test of multicollinearity was conducted to ensure that all the variables discriminated from each other, as put forward by Wang et al. (2024). The VIF score, according to Field (2017), is expected to be less than 10

to ascertain no multicollinearity. All the VIF scores from the test were less than 2.00, indicating the absence of multicollinearity.

As depicted in Table 8, inclusive leadership was found to have no significant influence on task performance (β = .07, $t(119)$ = .78, p > .05). However, it was shown that inclusive leadership had a significant influence on contextual performance, accounting for about 26% variance in the dependent variable. This depicts a weak relationship, but still significant. The direction of the beta value (β = .26, $t(119)$ = 2.95, p < .05) indicates that as employees report a high level of perceived inclusive leadership, contextual performance also increases.

Regarding counterproductive work behaviour, inclusive leadership was a significant predictor, accounting for about 29.5% variance in counterproductive work behaviour among the employees. However, the direction of the beta value (β = -.30, $t(119)$ = -.28, p < .01) implies that employees who experience inclusive leadership at work are more likely to lower their exhibition of counterproductive work behaviours. This confirms the H1b and H1c, while the H1a can be rejected.

Table 8

Summary of Linear Regression Analysis: Inclusive Leadership and Job Performance

					95% CI	
IV	DV	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Inclusive leadership	Task Performance	.07	.08	0.78	-.10	.23
	R^2 = .005					
Inclusive leadership	Contextual Performance	.26**	.09	2.95	.09	.44
	R^2 = .260**					
Inclusive leadership	Counterproductive Work Behaviour	-.30**	.10	-3.38	-.51	-.13
R^2 = .30**						

Note. N = 122. *IV* = Independent Variable. *DV* = Dependent Variable. *CI* = Confidence Interval. β = Standardised Betas. *SE* = Standardised Error. t = t-statistic. *LL* = Lower Limit. *UL* = Upper Limit. ** Significant at 0.01.

Hierarchical Regression

A hierarchical regression was conducted to gain further insight into the gathered data. As presented in Table 9, the incremental influence of inclusive leadership and psychological safety was tested on task performance while controlling for gender, age and race. Gender was dummy-coded (0 = female, 1 = male), race (black = 0, coloured = 1), and age was measured on a continuous scale. The first model comprised demographic variables (gender, age, and race). In addition, inclusive leadership was added in the second model, while psychological safety was added in the third model.

In model 1, it is shown that although the demographic variables accounted for about 5,1% variance in task performance, they do not have a significant combined influence. However, participants from the coloured race group contributed positively to task performance among the participants (β = .21, $t(119)$ = 2.22, $p < .05$). In model 2, inclusive leadership was introduced and was found to have a significant and combined influence on task performance, accounting for about 5,3% variance. However, participants from the coloured race group contributed positively to task performance among the participants (β = .21, $t(119)$ = 2.18, $p < .05$). The addition of inclusive leadership did not significantly influence task performance. In the third model, psychological safety was added. It was shown that psychological safety, inclusive leadership, and demographic variables accounted for about 14.3% of the variance in employee task performance. However, only race group (β = .18, $t(119)$ = 2.01, $p<.05$) and psychological safety (β= .33, $t(119)$ = 3.44, $p < .01$) had significant independent influence on task performance. The addition of psychological safety was significant and accounted for 9% of the change in task performance. Further analysis of the test of differences showed that individuals from coloured race reported the highest on task performance (M = 2.69, SD = 0.56) compared to workers from black race (M = 2.49, SD = 0.62) (Appendix N).

Table 9

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Task Performance

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			95% CI	
	B	*β*	*t*	*B*	*β*	*t*	*B*	*β*	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Age	-.00	-.05	-0.49	-.00	-.05	-0.52	-.01	-.09	-0.99	-.02	.01
Gender	-.15	-.13	-1.35	-.14	-.12	-1.24	-.08	-.07	-0.68	-.30	.15
Race	.23	.21	2.22*	.23	.21	2.18*	.20	.18	2.01*	.01	.40
Inclusive leadership				.03	.03	0.36	-.06	-.07	-0.71	-.24	.11
Psychological safety							.13	.33	3.44**	.05	.20
R^2		.051			.053			.143*			
Change in R^2					.001			.090**			

Note. N = 122. *IV* = Independent Variable. *DV* = Dependent Variable. *CI* = Confidence Interval. *B* = Unstandardised Beta. *β* = Standardised Beta. *SE* = Standardised Error. *t* = t-statistic. *LL* = Lower Limit. *UL* = Upper Limit. ** Significant at 0.01. * Significant at 0.05.

As presented in Table 10, the incremental influence of inclusive leadership and psychological safety was tested on contextual performance while controlling for gender, age, and race. In model 1, it is shown that although the demographic variables accounted for about 5.8% variance in contextual performance, they had no significant combined influence. However, gender significantly and negatively influenced contextual performance (β = -.20, $t(119)$ = -2.07, p< .05), implying that females (M = 2.37, SD = 0.53) have better contextual performance than males (M = 2.19, SD = 0.72). Also, race significantly and positively influenced contextual performance (β = .20, $t(119)$ = 2.08, p < .05), implying that coloured respondents reported higher contextual performance.

In model 2, inclusive leadership was introduced and was found to have a significant and combined influence on contextual performance, accounting for about 9.7% variance. However, race positively influenced contextual performance (β = .18, $t(119)$ = 1.95, p < .05),

implying that coloured respondents reported the highest contextual performance. Also, inclusive leadership contributed positively to contextual performance among the participants (β = .20, *t(119)* = 2.22, $p < .05$). The addition of inclusive leadership contributed about 3.9% change in contextual performance (R^2 change = .039, $p < .05$).

In the third model, psychological safety was added. It is shown that psychological safety, inclusive leadership, and demographic variables significantly accounted for about 13.9% of the variance in contextual performance among employees. However, only psychological safety (β = .22, *t(119)* = 2.35, $p < .05$) significantly influenced contextual performance. The addition of psychological safety was significant and accounted for a 4.2% change in contextual performance.

Table 10

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Contextual Performance

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			95% CI	
	B	*β*	*t*	*B*	*β*	*t*	*B*	*β*	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Age	.00	.04	0.40	.00	.02	0.19	-.00	-.01	-0.12	-.01	.01
Gender	-.25	-.20	-	-.19	-.15	-1.59	-.14	-.11	-1.19	-.39	.10
Race	.24	.20	2.07*	.22	.18	1.95*	.20	.16	1.81	-.02	.42
			2.08*								
Inclusive leadership				.21	.20	2.22*	.14	.13	1.42	-.05	.33
Psychological safety							.10	.22	2.35*	.02	.18
R^2		.058			.097*			.139*			
Change in R^2					.039*			.042*			

Note. N = 122. *IV* = Independent Variable. *DV* = Dependent Variable. *CI* = Confidence Interval. *B* = Unstandardised Beta. β = Standardised Beta. *SE* = Standardised Error. *t* = t-statistic. *LL* = Lower Limit. *UL* = Upper Limit. ** Significant at 0.01. * Significant at 0.05.

As presented in Table 11, the incremental influence of inclusive leadership and psychological safety was tested on counterproductive work behaviour while controlling for gender, age, and race. In model 1, it is shown that although the demographic variables accounted for about 1.3% variance in counterproductive work behaviour, they have neither combined nor independent significant influence on counterproductive work behaviour. In model 2, inclusive leadership was introduced and was found to have a significant and

combined influence on counterproductive work behaviour, accounting for about 9.8% variance. Only inclusive leadership negatively predicted counterproductive work behaviour among the participants (β = -.31, $t(119)$ = -3.26, p < .01). The addition of inclusive leadership contributed about 8.5% change in counterproductive work behaviour (R^2 change = .09, p < .05). In the third model, psychological safety was added. It is shown that psychological safety, inclusive leadership, and demographic variables significantly accounted for about 9.9% of the variance in counterproductive work behaviour among employees. Inclusive leadership negatively predicted counterproductive work behaviour among the participants (β = -.31, $t(119)$ = -3.19, p < .01).

Table 11

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Counterproductive Work Behaviour

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			95% CI	
	B	*β*	*t*	*B*	*β*	*t*	*B*	*β*	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Age	-	-	-	-	-	-0.70	-	-	-0.74	-	.01
Gender	.01	.09	0.97	.00	.06	-0.58	.01	.07	-0.51	.02	.19
Race	.02	.01	0.12	-	-	1.00	-	-	0.97	-	.35
	.09	.07	0.74	.07	.06		.07	.05		.33	
				.12	.09		.12	.09		-	
										.12	
Inclusive				-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
leadership				.32	.30	3.26**	.33	.31	3.19**	.54	.13
Psychological							.02	.03	0.74	-	.10
safety										.07	
R^2		.013			.098*			.099*			
Change in R^2					.085*			.001			

Note. N = 122. *IV* = Independent Variable. *DV* = Dependent Variable. *CI* = Confidence Interval. *B* = Unstandardised Beta. β = Standardised Beta. *SE* = Standardised Error. t = t-statistic. *LL* = Lower Limit. *UL* = Upper Limit. *B* = Unstandardised Beta. ** Significant at 0.01. * Significant at 0.05.

Moderation Analysis

This section presents results on the moderating role of psychological safety in the relationship between inclusive leadership and the dimensions of performance: task performance (Table O1), contextual performance (Table O2), and counterproductive work

behaviour Table O3)). First, Hayes (2018) PROCESS v4.2 was used in SPSS to conduct this moderation analysis. According to Field (2018), the most suitable model for simple moderation is model 1, which was used for this analysis. Field (2018) states that a moderator variable can influence the strength and direction of the relationship between two other variables. Appendix L presents the results on the moderating role of psychological safety in the relationship between inclusive leadership and the different dimensions of performance among employees. Inclusive leadership and psychological safety had no significant interaction influence on task performance (b = -.10, CI [-0.19, 0.01], t = -1.97, p < .05) (Table O1), contextual performance (b = -.08, CI [-.18, 0.03], t = -1.47, p< .05) (Table O2) nor counterproductive work behaviour (b = .06, CI [- 0.06, 0.18], t= -1.05, p < .05) (Table O3).

Hayes (2012) stated that confidence intervals that do not overlap the value of zero should be considered statistically significant (and vice versa). Therefore, it can be confirmed that there is no significant moderation effect, as there was no overlap of zero in the confidence interval in either of the performance dimensions. This indicates that psychological safety is not a significant moderator of the relationship between inclusive leadership and task performance, contextual performance, or counterproductive work behaviour.

Discussion

The objective of this study was twofold. First, this study sought to explore the influence of inclusive leadership on three dimensions of job performance, namely task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work behaviours, among blue-collar workers in South Africa. Second, psychological safety was considered a moderating variable in this relationship. This study aimed to contribute to existing literature on inclusive leadership, focusing on a largely under-researched demographic. Further, it aimed to assess a large segment of South Africa's labour force using blue-collar workers as the targeted sample. This section aimed to interpret and detail the main findings and outline the contributions and practical implications. Further, the study's limitations will be presented, and the related recommendations for future research will be discussed. Finally, the study will summarise the research, highlighting key insights for future research.

Analysis of the Psychometric Properties of the Scales

As this study utilised internationally developed and adapted scales to measure these three different constructs in a South African context, the factorial validity and reliability were evaluated. First, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted, and it was found that

only one scale was consistent with previous literature. For the inclusive leadership scale, it was found that multicollinearity exists between the two factors of this scale (uniqueness and belongingness) at a value of .95, which exceeds the threshold for multicollinearity stated by Field (2018) of .80 or .90. As a result, this scale was run as a unidimensional scale, which is inconsistent with the original scale developed by Chung et al. (2020). The psychological safety scale was consistent with the original scale developed by Edmonson (1999), which had only one underlying factor after rotation. The workplace performance questionnaire measured three dimensions of job performance: task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work behaviours. EFA was done separately for each dimension of performance due to high multicollinearity between factors that exceeded the threshold set out by Field (2018). Additionally, this study evaluated the relationship between inclusive leadership and the dimensions of job performance separately, providing greater clarity and a clearer understanding of how these dimensions interact with the remaining constructs.

Finally, the reliability of each scale was assessed by determining the internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha). Field (2018) stated that a Cronbach alpha value of .70 is acceptable, while values below this threshold indicate an unreliable scale. The values for all three scales and their dimensions ranged from .60 to .80. According to this, the Cronbach value for the psychological safety, contextual and counterproductive work behaviour scale are insufficient. However, according to Field (2018), it can be expected that scales with fewer items typically yield a lower Cronbach value but can still be considered reliable. Given that the number of items in each scale was three, five and four (respectively), the Cronbach alpha values were expected to be below the desired threshold. Although the scales yielded a less acceptable Cronbach value, it was likely attributable to the number of items in each scale. Additionally, the theoretical relevance and the use of these measurements in prior literature supported the use of the scales when measuring the constructs in this study.

Inclusive Leadership and Job Performance (H1a, H1b and H1c)

The core focus of this study was the relationship between perceived inclusive leadership and performance among blue-collar workers. Before testing hypotheses, the Pearson r correlation was assessed, illustrating a significant positive relationship between inclusive leadership and contextual performance. In addition, a significant negative relationship between inclusive leadership and counterproductive work behaviour was observed. In other words, the higher the perceived inclusion of employees in group processes through the display of inclusive leadership behaviours, the higher the contextual performance

of employees and the less likely these employees are to display counterproductive work behaviour. Further, it was hypothesised that individual perceptions of inclusive leadership positively influence the task performance of blue-collar workers. This was tested using linear regression, and the results indicated that, in contrast to prior literature, inclusive leadership had no significant influence on task performance among blue-collar workers. Given the nature of blue-collar jobs, tasks are typically structured and routine with clear daily and monthly objectives (Kekana, Koekemoer & O'Neil, 2023). As a result, blue-collar workers have lower flexibility in their duties and minimal autonomy, suggesting that the influence of inclusive leadership on individual task performance is less, as indicated by the results of this study. Additionally, blue-collar workers in South Africa typically face harsh socio-economic conditions (Koekemoer & Masenge, 2024) that may negate the influence of leadership styles on performance, meaning that these employees do not prioritise inclusive leadership behaviours as a meaningful factor in driving job performance. However, inclusive leadership had a significant and positive influence on contextual performance and a significant influence on counterproductive work behaviour. This indicated that when a blue-collar worker perceived their leader as displaying higher levels of inclusive leadership behaviours, employees exhibited higher contextual performance and lower counterproductive work behaviour. This confirmed the study's proposed hypotheses (H1b and H1c); however, the findings were dissimilar to prior research on the relationship between inclusive leadership and task performance (H1a), as it presented a non-significant result.

Li and Tang (2022) stated that a leader who provided a working environment where both needs for uniqueness and belonging were satisfied created an expectation of a trade-off. By satisfying this need, employees were said to display more effort and pursue higher job performance. Further, Xiaotao et al. (2018) stated that inclusive leadership has the potential to encourage employees working in a group to better collaborate despite differences across roles, occupational levels and demographic barriers. More recently, Atiku et al. (2024) reported in their study that inclusive leadership positively influenced the desired behaviours of employees, contributing to the organisation's sustainability. Similarly, Groenewald et al. (2024) reported a significant positive relationship between inclusive leadership and job performance. In another study, Umrani et al. (2024) examined the impact of inclusive leadership on job performance. Their quantitative methodology found that inclusive leadership positively influenced job performance. This further emphasised the findings of this study regarding the positive influence of inclusive leadership on contextual performance and counterproductive work behaviour. Thus, it can be inferred that when blue-collar workers

perceive themselves as included in the decision-making process through the leader's demonstration of inclusive behaviours, employee's commitment to contributing their best efforts will likely increase.

Moderation Effect of Psychological Safety (H2)

The study further explored the moderating role of psychological safety on the relationship between inclusive leadership and job performance among blue-collar workers. It was hypothesised that psychological safety significantly moderates this relationship, specifically focusing on each dimension of performance: task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour. Wang et al. (2021) reported that psychological safety had a positive influence on job performance among service workers in China. In addition, Chao et al. (2021) examined the relationship between psychological safety and job performance in selected organisations in the insurance industry in Taiwan, where it was found that psychological safety positively influenced job performance. Further, Jindal et al. (2024) and Quansah et al. (2023) reported a positive link between psychological safety and job performance. Based on the findings of previous studies, a similar result was anticipated to be replicated. However, this study's findings suggest that, although psychological safety had a significant and positive influence on task and contextual performance, it did not significantly moderate the relationship between inclusive leadership and these three dimensions of job performance among blue-collar workers. Therefore, these findings did not support the work of previous research, as psychological safety was not an effective moderator in this context.

Further, contradicting the results of this study, Li and Tang (2022) stated that inclusive leaders were able to break down barriers in organisations to facilitate effective communication, encourage and empower employees to engage in decision-making processes and aid in solving personal issues that may hinder the employee's ability to perform. As a result, inclusive leadership decreased employee concern about risk-taking behaviours, contributing to higher levels of perceived psychological safety. With respect to inclusive leadership, Ahmed et al. (2021) found that in the healthcare industry, leaders who were open, available and accessible could foster a psychologically safe environment that, in turn, reduced negative psychological behaviours, specifically psychological distress. According to Frazier et al. (2017), when employees operate within high levels of psychological safety, the negative consequences of risk-taking behaviours (e.g., punishment, ridicule, demotion, reputation damage) are minimised, allowing employees to focus on improving their performance. In

addition, employees are more likely to suggest ideas that differ from the norm, experiment with non-traditional ways of work and express their disapproval during group discussions (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon & Ziv, 2010; Frazier et al., 2017; Lee & Dahinten, 2021; Li, 2022; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Randel et al., 2018).

Therefore, the findings of this study suggest that psychological safety did not moderate the relationship between inclusive leadership and job performance among blue-collar workers in South Africa. Although these findings contradict previous literature highlighting the key role of this construct in the relationship between inclusive leadership and performance, there are several explanations as to why this construct was ineffective, given the uniqueness of the context researched. This result could be explained by the idea that psychological safety would not be as impactful in blue-collar environments, whereby interpersonal risk-taking encouraged by psychological safety is not a key criterion for effective job performance (Brand-Labuschagne, Mostert & Rothmann, 2012; Singh, Winkel, & Selvarajan, 2013; Zeng, Zhao & Zhao, 2020). In addition, given South Africa's hierarchical structure, in combination with the power dynamics associated with the power attributed to the role of a blue-collar worker, psychological safety may not be prioritised, reducing its ability to impact job performance.

Theoretical Contributions

Although the results in this study deviated from previous studies using similar constructs, this study aimed to advance previous research in several ways. This study found that inclusive leadership did not significantly predict employee task performance. This supported the notion that a leader who demonstrated inclusive behaviours positively influenced performance dimensions by creating an environment where blue-collar employees perceived their needs of uniqueness and belongingness were met. Additionally, there was no significant relationship between psychological safety and counterproductive work behaviour.

First, this research focussed on a group underrepresented in prior inclusive leadership research (i.e., blue-collar workers) and their unique organisational experiences. Blue-collar workers have received less attention in both international and South African research. Therefore, this study provided valuable insights into inclusive leadership-performance dynamics of blue-collar workers, moving beyond the more traditionally studied white-collar environment. Further, it highlighted the influence of socioeconomic factors and the nature of job roles on the ability to influence the effectiveness of inclusive leadership.

Second, this study aimed to provide empirical evidence that further supported previous findings on the positive effect of inclusive leadership behaviours on performance dimensions while highlighting the effect of a moderating variable- psychological safety. As discovered from this study, psychological safety was found to have no significant moderating effect on the relationship between inclusive leadership and the performance of blue-collar employees. These findings suggest that the construct's moderating potential depends on the organisational context, nature of the job and underlying team dynamics (Singh, Winkel, & Selvarajan, 2013). Furthermore, these results invite further exploration into why psychological safety should not be considered a strong moderator, explicitly focusing on blue-collar workers in South Africa. Therefore, subsequent studies are strongly encouraged to consider psychological safety as a mediating variable, which tests the direct and indirect effect of inclusive leadership on performance. Marri et al. (2021) investigated the mediating role of psychological safety in the relationship between inclusive leadership and employee contribution to project success. It was found that psychological safety was a strong mediator of inclusive leadership and the performance of employees towards project success. In addition, Qasim et al. (2022) reported similar findings when assessing employee helping behaviour and its impact on achieving organisational goals. Additionally, in a study conducted by Li and Tang (2022), individual perceptions of psychological safety mediated the relationship between inclusive leadership and innovative performance. Although this study conceptualised psychological safety as a moderator, these findings suggest that this construct has a more significant role as a mediator variable when assessing the dynamics associated with inclusive leadership and performance.

After addressing the study’s limitations and refining existing assumptions from moderating and mediating perspectives, these findings highlight the need for further exploration.

Practical Implications

In addition to the theoretical contributions, this study aimed to provide several practical implications. First, this study provided valuable insights into previously limited knowledge regarding blue-collar workers' organisational experiences in South Africa. Understanding the propensity for leadership of a large segment of South Africa’s workforce provides invaluable insight into the driving mechanisms for performance and employee motivation. Further, this research has shown that those who hold leadership positions in organisations should be made aware of the importance of displaying inclusive leadership

behaviours and their positive influence to drive individual performance. In addition, leaders should receive sufficient, in-depth training in managing a diverse workforce and fostering an environment where diverse individuals experience inclusion through demonstrated inclusive leadership behaviours. Thus, organisations must prioritise training programs wherein leaders can learn and adopt these behaviours (Li & Tang, 2022; Shore & Chung, 2022). Third, organisations have sought to achieve inclusion goals through traditional approaches where employees of diverse backgrounds are recruited (Ashikali, Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2021; Edmondson & Bransby, 2023). However, contemporary research highlighted the importance of ensuring internal organisational processes work towards fostering an environment that promotes the inclusion of employees rather than merely ensuring numerical representation (Ferdman, Prime & Riggio, 2020; Korkmaz et al., 2022; Li & Tang, 2022; Shore & Chung, 2022).

Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research

Despite this research having both theoretical and practical contributions, several limitations of this study should be addressed to provide scope for future research. First, this study made use of a cross-sectional design, which involved the collection of data at a specific point in time. Therefore, the data collected was a representation of this period. Although this design is more practical as it is cost-effective, less time-consuming and allows for greater access to the population targeted, a longitudinal approach would have been more insightful (Ahmed et al.,2021; Miao et al., 2020). A longitudinal research design provides a stronger, more accurate theoretical foundation when assessing relationships (Kim, Lee & Connerton, 2020). In addition, a cross-sectional design may not have highlighted the hidden structural relationships between the constructs and did not allow for causal inferences. Future research should attempt to collect data at various times to better measure changes in performance resulting from inclusive leadership.

Second, this study made use of self-reporting measures for data collection. As a result, the study is more likely to incur problems associated with common method bias (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). Therefore, findings may be skewed by shared method variance whereby relationships between variables may be inflated. For example, employees may have inflated their survey performance (Fernández-Del-Río, Koopmans & Ramos-Villagrasa, 2019; Sabharwal, 2014). Other methods of collecting data should be utilised as an alternative or in addition to self-report measures (e.g., multiple-rater assessments, supervisor

observations or performance management scores) to improve the validity of the findings (Obrenovic et al., 2020).

Third, convenience method sampling was employed to include a more representative sample to ensure a robust research design for this study. Despite this sampling method having significant practical benefits relating to time, ease at which participants can be accessed and financial constraints (Golzar, Noor & Tajik, 2022), there are several drawbacks. This sampling method increased the likelihood of sampling bias and had the potential for systematic errors. Further, as the sample selected was done based on the ease at which participants were accessible, results cannot be generalised beyond the sample (Golzar, Noor & Tajik, 2022). Therefore, it is recommended that future research expand to include a greater sample size that is representative of the general population of South Africa while using a random sample, if feasible.

Fourth, the sample size of this study was 122 usable responses, which may be considered considerably smaller than similar studies utilising these constructs. In a study by Qi and Liu (2017) where the effect of inclusive leadership on team performance was explored, 329 responses were considered a small sample size for the nature and scope of the study. As with most research, the primary justification for the restricted sample size is limitations regarding time, access and money (Ashikali, Groeneveld & Kuipers, 2021; Lakens, 2022). Due to the small sample size of this study, it was increasingly difficult to generalise the findings to the South African population. Therefore, future research should increase the sample size and collect data across various provinces within South Africa.

Last, future research should continue to explore the outcomes of inclusive leadership in the South African context, which is rich in employee diversity (Daya, 2014; Mazibuko & Govender, 2017; Setati et al., 2019). As noted earlier, the results obtained in this study yielded insignificant findings that were dissimilar to those of prior research. This includes inclusive leadership not being a significant predictor of task performance, psychological safety not being a significant predictor of counterproductive work behaviour and, lastly, psychological safety not being a significant moderator of the relationship between inclusive leader and the dimensions of job performance. A potential explanation for the inconsistent result is that the measures employed in this study were developed outside of South Africa and were not designed explicitly for blue-collar workers. As a result, participants may not have understood the questionnaire as intended, and the measurements employed did not incorporate the unique contextual experiences of this demographic, potentially resulting in inconsistent findings as per prior research (Brand-Labuschagne, Mostert & Rothmann, 2012).

Consequently, the survey may not apply to this demographic and, therefore, cannot effectively capture the perceptions of blue-collar workers in the organisation. Therefore, it is recommended that the sample's low literacy levels and unique contextual factors be considered when designing the measurement tools and when collecting data. Additionally, careful consideration should be given to the restructuring and rewording the questions to accommodate the intended sample.

Conclusion

This study sought to explore the relationship between inclusive leadership and job performance, specifically among blue-collar workers in South Africa. To understand the relationship further, it investigated the moderating effect of psychological safety on this relationship. This study utilised a self-report questionnaire to obtain data on these three constructs (i.e., inclusive leadership, job performance, and psychological safety). The study utilised various statistical analyses to assess the data and draw meaningful insights.

Notably, the findings of this study differed from those of previous international studies. Despite this, this study made valuable contributions in various ways. Firstly, this study concluded that a leader who demonstrated inclusive leadership behaviours that satisfied an employee’s desire for uniqueness and belonging was likelier to positively influence the employee to have higher contextual performance and exhibit less counterproductive work behaviours. The results indicated that inclusive leadership did not significantly predict task performance among blue-collar employees in South Africa. A potential explanation was the limited flexibility and autonomy within blue-collar positions. Additionally, it was concluded that psychological safety significantly correlates with task and contextual performance among blue-collar workers. Therefore, when employees perceive their environment as psychologically safe, they are likelier to exhibit higher task and contextual performance. However, the counter-productive work behaviour dimension of performance had no significant relationship with psychological safety. Finally, it was concluded from this study that psychological safety, despite having a significant influence on task and contextual performance, did not moderate the relationship between inclusive leadership and these three dimensions of performance. This study has provided insights into blue-collar worker perceptions in South Africa that directly and positively influenced dimensions of job performance.

This study's findings deviated from prior international research conducted. However, by identifying and acknowledging the study's limitations, this study strongly encourages future research to re-evaluate existing literature on inclusive leadership in South Africa due to its positive influence on performance. As a result, future researchers should continue to explore these relationships to understand the scope and implications of these findings. Given South Africa's unique context, exploring inclusive leadership among blue-collar workers is meaningful and central to future discourse.

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Appendix A

Table Summarising South African Literature Relevant to this Study

Table A1

Summary of Findings from a South African Perspective

Author and publication year	Methodology	Sample	Findings
Lee & Mohamed (2006)	University Research Paper	Blue-Collar Employees	This article shifts the focus from the workplace attitudes of white-collar employees to those of blue-collar workers. It identifies the substantial gap in understanding a vital piece of the South African workforce. It uses a South African perspective to elaborate on the overwhelming demographic realities of this segment.
Heyns, McCallaghan & Senne (2021)	Journal Article	Mining Employees	The results of self-reports showed that supervisor support improves employees' psychological safety and work engagement. This highlights the importance of psychological safety as a mediator of this relationship and provides insight into an understudied industry sector with many unskilled/semi-skilled workers.

Daya (2014)	Mixed-Methods	Managers in Global Multinational	This paper aims to provide organisations in South Africa with key insights into how to drive diversity transformation in a demographically misrepresented country. It highlights the role leaders of diverse employees have in developing an inclusive work climate by displaying inclusive behaviours and aligned business processes, including recruitment, development training, and performance reviews.
Nkomo & Kriek (2011)	Journal Article	Leaders of Change in 14 South African Organisations	This article examined how leaders in South Africa drove change by acknowledging the socio-economic context within South Africa. It highlighted four significant behaviours that leaders were required to demonstrate: embracing change, providing hope, connecting change to African values and culture, and championing diversity.
Human (1996)	Journal Article	N/A	This paper states that issues are often rife in group contexts when there is a dividing factor, such as race, power, language, race, ethnicities, or status. Further, it highlights the need for meaningful diversity efforts to manage these differences. It calls on managers to examine their attitudes and behaviours to manage diversity.
Setati et al. (2019)	Journal Article	Employees in higher education sectors	This quantitative study revealed that diversity based on gender and ethnicity positively affected the performance of employees in the higher education sector. It noted that organisations implementing diversity management strategies at all levels will minimise negative consequences from the in-group and out-group mentality.

Appendix B

Table Summarising Literature Linking Inclusive Leadership and Dimensions of Performance

Table B1

Summary of Findings Highlighting the Relationship Between Inclusive Leadership and Performance

Author and Publication year	Methodology	Research Location	Sample	Findings
Korkmaz et al. (2022)	Systematic literature review	N/A	N/A	This review calls for developing context-specific theories outside the Global North and its cultures. It raises the concern that different cultural factors can influence IL and that these behaviours may look different in a non-Western context.
Kuknor & Bhattacharya (2022)	Systematic Literature Review	N/A	N/A	Highlighted the need for leaders to adapt to the rise of heterogeneous workforces by adopting behaviours/traits that encourage and appreciate diversities within a group. Leaders who value uniqueness and belonging create more inclusive workplaces, leading to organisational success.
Randel et al. (2018)	Research article	N/A	N/A	The study argued that IL, as opposed to other leadership styles (e.g., servant or transformational leadership), enhanced an employee's commitment to displaying innovative behaviours, sequentially positively impacting job performance. This study highlighted that leadership outcomes are culture-dependent. It calls for further

				research on other potential moderating/mediating factors of IL and job performance.
Li & Tang (2022)	Paired-questionnaire design	Northern and Southern China	Employees working in the automobile and chemical industry	This article emphasised that having employees of diverse backgrounds in a team does not necessarily mean an inclusive climate. IL was stated to be a prerequisite for diverse teams to build an inclusive climate.
Nguyen et al. (2019).	Questionnaire	Vietnam	Employees working in interior design and construction companies	Using social exchange theory, this paper concluded that IL directly and significantly affects adaptive performance. At an individual level, leaders should acknowledge their team members and display openness, accessibility, and availability to foster adaptive performance. This article calls for future research to examine possible additional mediating variables that may affect this relationship.
Ashikali, Groeneveld & Kuipers (2021)	Quantitative survey design	Netherlands	Public sector employees in Dutch ministries and municipalities	Using social exchange theory at an individual level, this study identified that IL was positively correlated with team performance. In addition, it was found that a caring, ethical climate mediated this relationship. Identified the need for cross-cultural studies of IL where IL can be used to drive positive workplace outcomes.
Bataineh et al. (2022)	Quantitative survey design	Jordan	Hospital nurses in Jordan	Highlighted the role of IL and workplace spirality in enhancing job performance. Leaders who provided their employees with new opportunities to enhance work processes, encouraged difficult

				discussions and valued an employee's uniqueness were said to positively contribute to forming inclusive leaders.
Qi & Liu (2017)	Quantitative survey design	China	Team members in the banking, retail, law, oil, estate and IT industry	Using the U-shaped curvilinear methodology, it was found that IL and task performance were best represented using a U shape. This indicated that "too much" inclusive leadership brought about lower levels of task performance. As a result, further research is needed to investigate possible adverse effects caused by too much inclusion in the workplace.
Ke, Zhang & Zheng (2022)	Quantitative survey design	China	Civil servants	Described how leaders who displayed IL traits- encouraging to take on challenging projects while appreciating the employee's unique contributions- positively affected project success. In addition, this research supported previous findings where the mediating role of PS on IL and project success was found.

Appendix C

Complete Questionnaire Administered in this Study

1. Work Group Inclusion Measure (WGIM) Items (Chung et al., 2020)

Response Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree

Indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your team (not including your supervisor or manager):

1. I am treated as a valued member of my work group. (B)
2. I belong in my work group. (B)
3. I am connected to my work group. (B)
4. I believe that my work group is where I am meant to be. (B)
5. I feel that people really care about me in my work group. (B)
6. I can bring aspects of myself to this work group that others in the group don't have in common with me. (U)
7. People in my work group listen to me even when my views are dissimilar. (U)
8. While I am at work, I am comfortable expressing opinions that diverge from my group. (U)
9. I can share a perspective on work issues that is different from my group members. (U)
10. When my group's perspective becomes too narrow, I am able to bring up a new point of view. (U)

* B = Belongingness; U = Uniqueness

2. Psychological Safety Scale (PSS) Items (Edmondson, 1999)

Response Scale: 1 = Very Inaccurate to 7 = Very Accurate

Indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

1. If you make a mistake on this team, it is often held against you. (neg worded)
2. Members of this team are able to bring up problems and tough issues.
3. People on this team sometimes reject others for being different (neg worded)
4. It is safe to take a risk on this team
5. It is difficult to ask other members of this team for help (neg worded)
6. No one on this team would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts
7. Working with members of this team, my unique skills and talents are valued and utilized

3. **Individual Workplace Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) (Fernández-Del-Río, Koopmans & Ramos-Villagrasa, 2019; Koopmans et al., 2013)**

Response Scale: Task and Contextual Performance: 0 = Seldom to 4 = Always
Counterproductive Work Behaviour: 0 = Never to 5 = Often

Over the past 3 months, how often have you engaged in the following behaviours:

1. I managed to plan my work so that I finished it on time. (T)
2. I kept in mind the work result I needed to achieve. (T)
3. I was able to set priorities. (T)
4. I was able to carry out my work efficiently. (T)
5. I managed my time well. (T)
6. On my own initiative, I started new tasks when my old tasks were completed. (C)
7. I took on challenging tasks when they were available. (C)
8. I worked on keeping my job-related knowledge up to date. (C)
9. I worked on keeping my work skills up to date. (C)
10. I came up with creative solutions for new problems. (C)
11. I took on extra responsibilities. (C)
12. I continually sought new challenges in my work. (C)
13. I actively participated in meetings and/or consultations. (C)
14. I complained about minor work-related issues at work. (CWB)
15. I made problems at work bigger than they were. (CWB)
16. I focused on the negative aspects of the situation at work instead of the positive aspects. (CWB)
17. I talked to colleagues about the negative aspects of my work. (CWB)
18. I talked to people outside the organisation about negative aspects of my work. (CWB)

Note. *T* = Task Performance. *C* = Contextual Performance. *CWB* = Counterproductive Work Behaviours.

Appendix D

Ethical Approval Letter from the University of Cape Town

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
IYUNIVESITHI YASEKAPA · UNIVERSITEIT VAN KAAPSTAD

2023/07/11

COM/00304/2023

RE: Research Ethics Committee Project Approval Letter

Dear Ammaarah Larney,

Your application for ethics review of your project titled

Does inclusive leadership help and explain workplace performance of blue-collar workers?

has been reviewed and evaluated by the

Commerce Research Ethics Committee.

You may proceed with your research project titled:

Does inclusive leadership help and explain workplace performance of blue-collar workers?

Please note that should:

(i) any serious or adverse effects to participants occur and/or,

(ii) aspect(s) of your current project change and/or

(iii) any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project occur then you should immediately report this to the approving REC. You may be required to submit an amendment to this application, in order to determine whether the changed aspects increase the ethical risks of your project.

Based on the information supplied your application has been successful and is approved.

Please note the following additional conditions associated with this approval:

(i) Gatekeeper approval must be obtained from the target entities before the study can commence.

Regards,

Commerce Research Ethics Committee.

Appendix E

Letter to Organisations Requesting Permission to Conduct Research

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
IYUNIVESITHI YASEKAPA · UNIVERSITEIT VAN KAAPSTAD

School of Management Studies
University of Cape Town

RE: Permission to Conduct Research at [Organisation Name]

Dear Sir/Madam

I hope this letter finds you well.

My name is Ammaarah Larney, and I am an Organisational Psychology Master's student at the University of Cape Town undertaking my research project on the topic of "Assessing whether performance is dependent on leader inclusivity amongst blue-collar workers in a South African Context". I am under the supervision of UCT Professor Jeffrey Bagraim (jeffrey.bagraim@uct.ac.za). I am writing to seek your permission to conduct research within your organisation specifically looking at your blue-collar workers.

The purpose of my research is to explore and explain how inclusive leadership affects performance of blue-collar workers and whether this relationship is mediated by an external factor- psychological safety. Specific focus will look at inclusive leadership, psychological safety and performance measures. I firmly believe that conducting this research would add value to the Diversity and Inclusion mission and values of the organisation. In addition, this study aims to the existing body of knowledge on organisational leadership practices.

I am looking to access both male and female blue-collar employees, over the age of 18, who are willing to complete an anonymous online questionnaire. This should take no longer than 30 minutes to complete. Participation by employees is voluntary and participants will be able to withdraw from the questionnaire at any time. In addition to this, responses will be kept confidential where there will be no way in which to link responses to an individual. If permission is granted, targeted participants will be sent an email containing a link in which they can complete the questionnaire. A brief explanation of the research will be provided. The instruments selected aim to measure inclusive leadership, psychological safety, organisational citizenship behaviours and performance.

As a token of appreciation to employees who completed the questionnaire, I will be running a lucky draw whereby one individual will win a R400 cash prize. This process will be conducted separately to not link personal information to responses.

I am prepared to adhere to any necessary ethical guidelines, confidentiality and research protocols proposed by your organisation and stipulated by the Commerce Ethics at the University of Cape Town. A summary report will be sent to your organisation upon completion. However, no identifiable information will be made available to the organisation to protect participants. Furthermore, data analysis will solely be used for the purpose of this study.

If you have any questions or concerns related to the research study, please feel free to contact me directly (ammaarah.larney@gmail.com).

Yours sincerely,
Ammaarah Larney

INFORMED CONSENT

By signing this consent form, I hereby confirm that I have read and understood the information presented above. I am aware that participation of my company and its employees are completely voluntary and that participants are free to withdraw at any time without facing any negative repercussions. In addition, I understand that this is a Masters-level research project whose purpose is not to benefit me directly. Lastly, I understand that my participation will remain confidential.

Name and Surname: _____

Company Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix F

Informed Consent Paragraph for Participants

Dear Participant,

Thank you for participating in this study, which explores how leadership affects service workers. Your responses are important, voluntary, anonymous, confidential, and risk-free.

You should take less than 15 minutes to complete all questions in the survey.

This study has been approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics Committee at UCT. In addition, your organisation has consented to take part in this study. Please note that your organisation will not have access to your individual responses. This survey is for research purposes only. If you have any questions throughout the process, please do not hesitate to contact me (ammaarah.larney@gmail.com).

By clicking on the "Yes" button below, you acknowledge the following information:

- **You are over the age of 18**
- **You are aware that you may withdraw from the study at any time**
- **Your participation is voluntary**

◯ Yes, I consent

◯ No, I do not consent

Appendix G

Factor Analysis for Inclusive Leadership Scale

Table G1

Rotated Factor Matrix – Inclusive Leadership (Initial)

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
IL_U6	.61	.28	-.07
IL_U7	.49	.35	.14
IL_U8	.69	.23	.19
IL_U9	.74	.05	.15
IL_U10	.53	.03	.36
IL_B1	.21	.56	.29
IL_B2	.16	.40	.70
IL_B3	.11	.57	.45
IL_B4	.15	.21	.67
IL_B5	.17	.75	.15

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table G2

KMO and Bartlett's Test – After Removal of Items IL_B4 and IL_U7

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.78
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	296.36
	df	28
	Sig.	<.001

Table G3

Rotated Factor Matrix – Inclusive Leadership (After Removal of Items IL_B4 and IL_U7)

Item	Factor	
	1	2
IL_U6	.19	.57
IL_U8	.29	.68
IL_U9	.08	.81
IL_U10	.16	.52
IL_B1	.64	.21
IL_B2	.65	.21
IL_B3	.77	.13
IL_B5	.65	.17

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Appendix H

Factor Analysis for Psychological Safety Scale

Table H1

Rotated Factor Matrix – Psychological Safety Scale (Initial)

Item	Factor	
	1	2
PS_1	.17	.37
PS_2	.50	.22
PS_3	.21	.50
PS_4	.03	.32
PS_5	-.10	.58
PS_6	.56	-.08
PS_7	.58	.13

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Table H2

Factor Matrix – Psychological Safety (After Removal of Items PS_1, PS_3, PS_4 and PS_5)

Item	Factor
	1
PS_2	.54
PS_6	.50
PS_7	.60

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table H3

KMO and Bartlett's Test (After Removal of Items PS_1, PS_3, PS_4 and PS_5)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.62
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	28.85
	df	3
	Sig.	<.001

Table H4

Total Variance Explained (After Removal of Items PS_1, PS_3, PS_4 and PS_5)

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.60	53.19	53.19	.90	30.02	30.02
2	.74	24.50	77.70			
3	.67	22.31	100.00			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix I

Factor Analysis for Task Performance Scale

Table I1

Correlation Matrix for Task Performance

		P_TP1	P_TP2	P_TP3	P_TP4	P_TP5
Correlation	P_TP1	1.00	.47	.43	.45	.39
	P_TP2	.47	1.00	.42	.44	.22
	P_TP3	.43	.42	1.00	.35	.34
	P_TP4	.45	.44	.35	1.00	.34
	P_TP5	.39	.22	.34	.34	1.00

a. Determinant = ,332

Table I2

KMO and Bartlett's Test for Task Performance

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.79
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	130.59
	df	10
	Sig.	<.001

Table I3

Total Variance Explained for Task Performance

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.55	51.04	51.04	1.96	39.24	39.24
2	.79	15.75	66.79			
3	.65	13.06	79.84			
4	.53	10.60	90.44			
5	.48	9.56	100.00			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix J

Factor Analysis for Contextual Performance Scale

Table J1

Rotated Factor Matrix – Contextual Performance (Initial)

Item	Factor	
	1	2
P_CP6	.43	.25
P_CP7	.32	.42
P_CP8	.09	.72
P_CP9	.25	.48
P_CP10	.43	.33
P_CP11	.62	.16
P_CP12	.72	.20
P_CP13	.38	.12

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Table J2

Correlation Matrix – After the Removal of Items P_CP7, P_CP8 and P_CP10

		P_CP6	P_CP9	P_CP11	P_CP12	P_CP13
Correlation	P_CP6	1.00	.259	.26	.39	.12
	P_CP9	.26	1.00	.12	.29	.25
	P_CP11	.26	.12	1.00	.50	.26
	P_CP12	.39	.29	.50	1.00	.28
	P_CP13	.12	.25	.26	.28	1.00
Sig. (1-tailed)	P_CP6		.00	.00	<.001	.09
	P_CP9	.00		.09	.00	.00
	P_CP11	.00	.09		.00	.00
	P_CP12	.00	.00	.00		.00
	P_CP13	.09	.00	.00	.00	

a. Determinant = ,489

Table J3

KMO and Bartlett's Test (After the Removal of Items P_CP7, P_CP8 and P_CP10)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.68
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	84.80
	df	10
	Sig.	<.001

Appendix K

Factor Analysis for Counterproductive Work Behaviour Scale

Table K1

Factor Matrix – CWB (Initial)

Item	Factor
	1
P_CWB14	.25
P_CWB15	.29
P_CWB16	.61
P_CWB17	.45
P_CWB18	.78

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table K2

Factor Matrix – After the Removal of Item P_CWB14

Item	Factor
	1
P_CWB15	.29
P_CWB16	.60
P_CWB17	.41
P_CWB18	.82

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table K3

Correlation Matrix– After the Removal of Item P_CWB14

		P_CWB15	P_CWB16	P_CWB17	P_CWB18
Correlation	P_CWB15	1,00	.21	.13	.21
	P_CWB16	.21	1.00	.22	.50
	P_CWB17	.13	.22	1.00	.36
	P_CWB18	.21	.50	.36	1.00
Sig. (1-tailed)	P_CWB15		.010	.09	.011
	P_CWB16	.010		.01	.00
	P_CWB17	.085	.01		.00
	P_CWB18	.011	.00	,00	

a. Determinant = ,614

Table K4

KMO and Bartlett's Test – After the Removal of Item P_CWB14

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.631
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	57.97
	df	6
	Sig.	<.001

Appendix L

P-P Plots for Normality of Variables

Figure L1

P-P Plot of Residuals Showing the Normality of the Psychological Safety Data Distribution

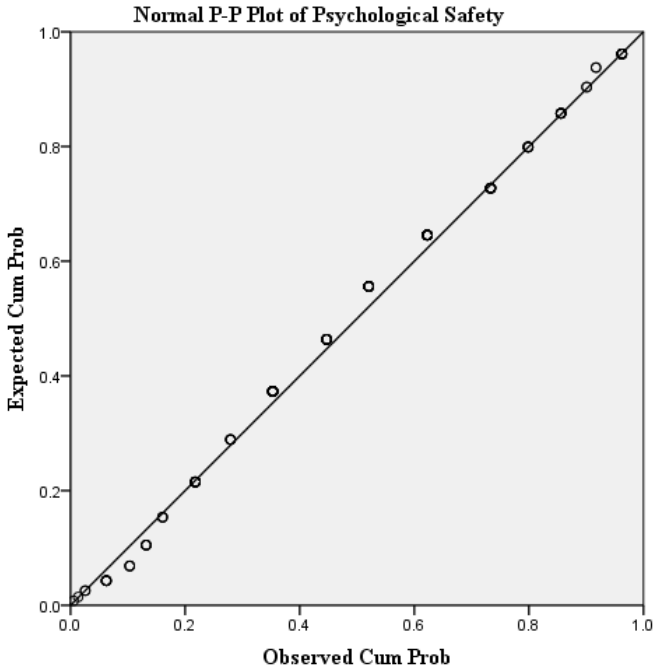


Figure L2

P-P Plot of Residuals Showing the Normality of the Inclusive Leadership Data Distribution

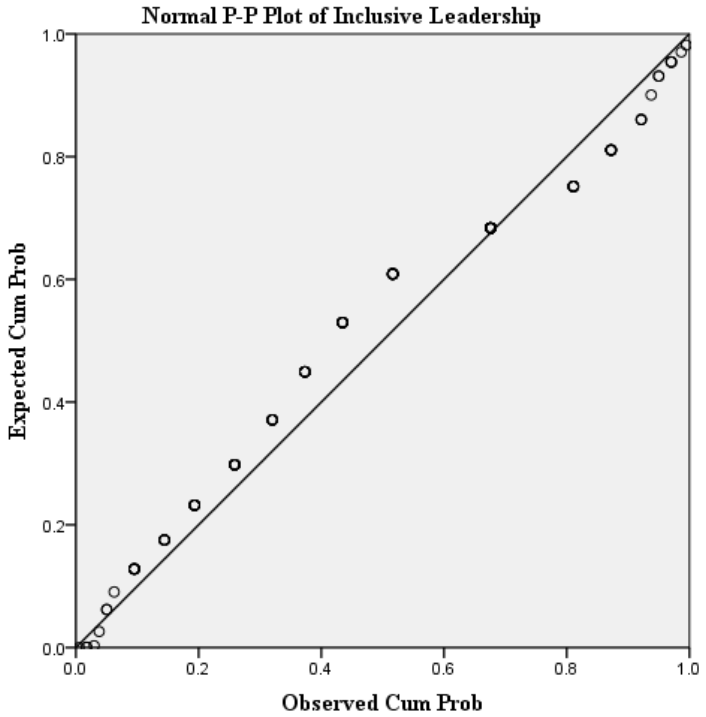


Figure L3

P-P Plot of Residuals Showing the Normality of the Task Performance Data Distribution

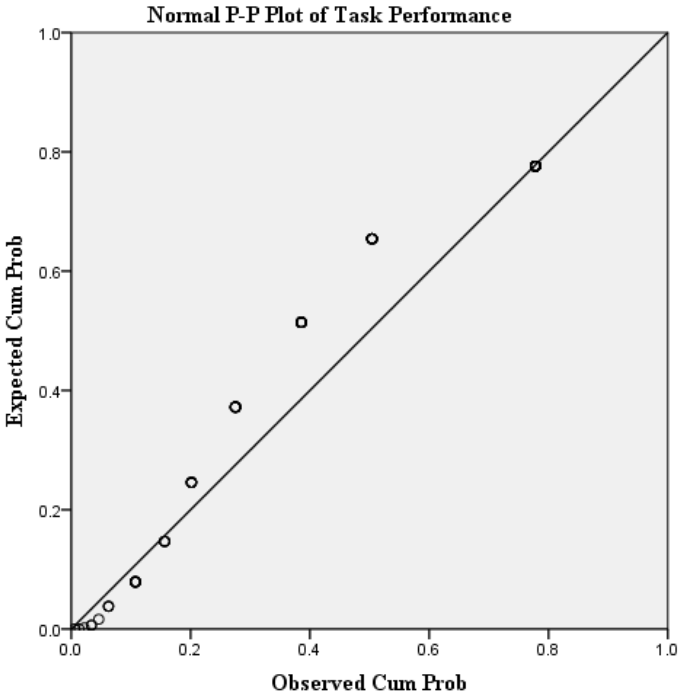


Figure L4

P-P Plot of Residuals Showing the Normality of the Contextual Performance Data Distribution

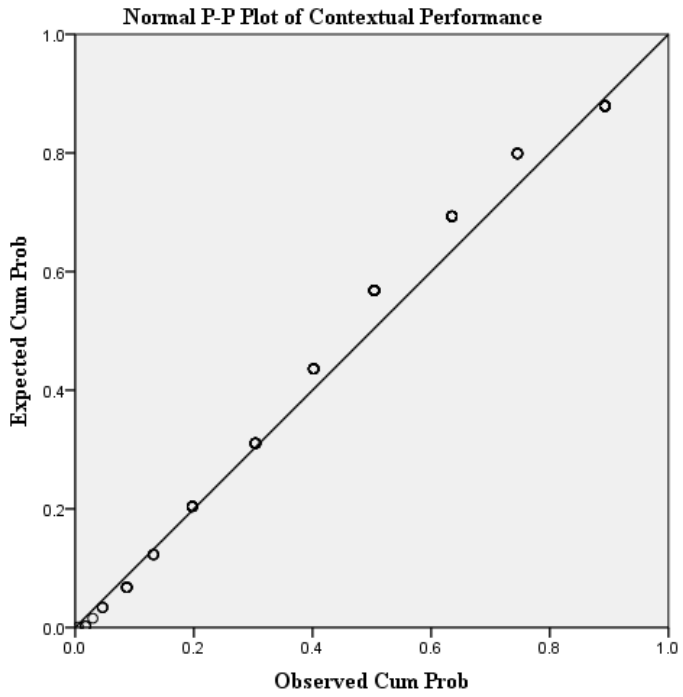
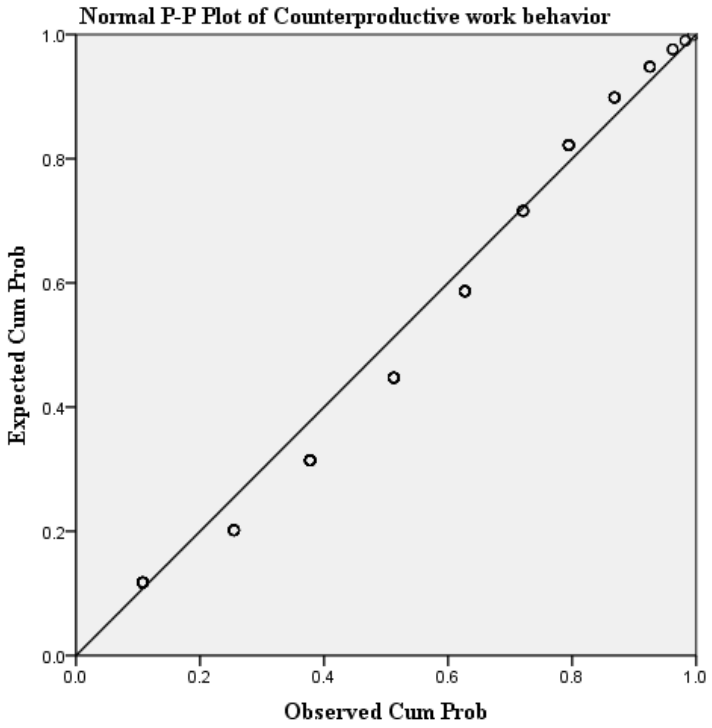


Figure L5

P-P Plot of Residuals Showing the Normality of the Contextual Performance Data Distribution



Appendix M

Q-Q Plots of Residuals Showing the Normality of Variables

Figure M1

Q-Q Plot of Residuals Showing the Normality of the Psychological Safety Data Distribution

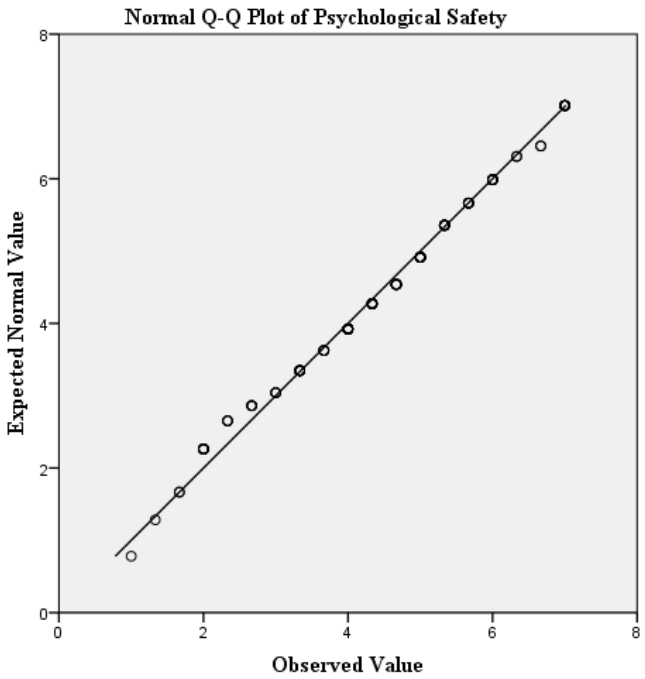


Figure M2

Q-Q Plot of Residuals Showing the Normality of the Inclusive Leadership Data Distribution

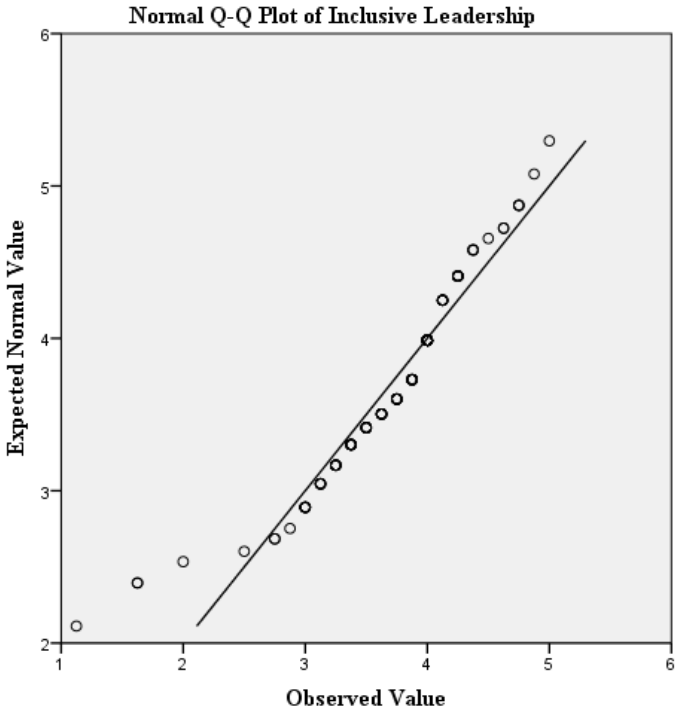


Figure M3

Q-Q Plot of Residuals Showing the Normality of the Task Performance Data Distribution

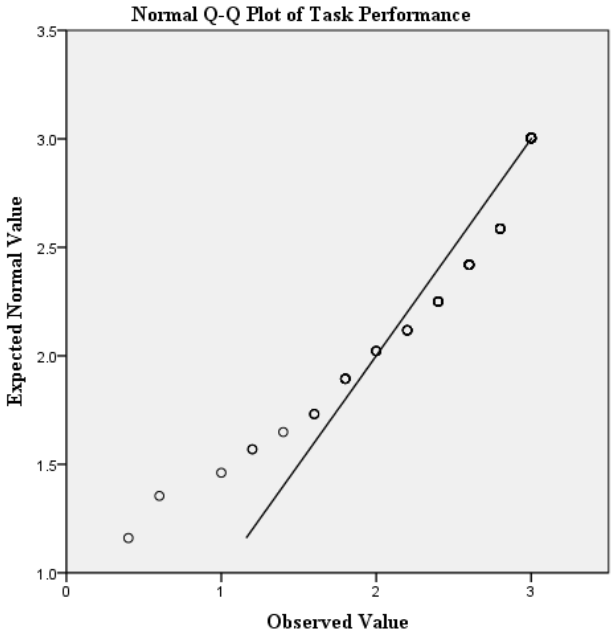


Figure M4

Q-Q Plot of Residuals Showing the Normality of the Contextual Performance Data Distribution

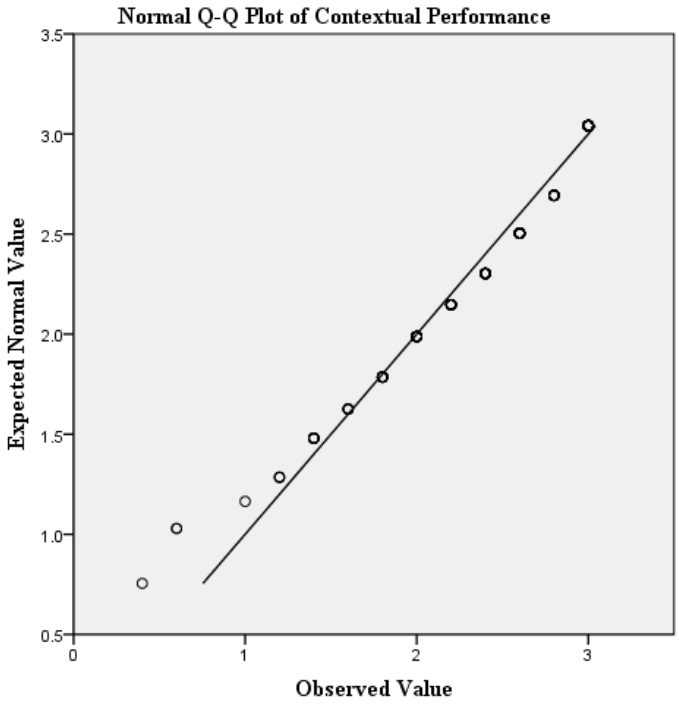
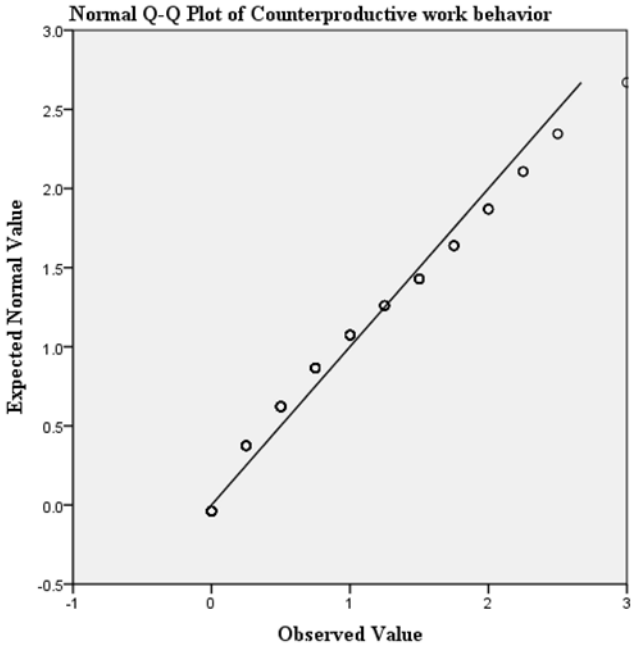


Figure M5

Q-Q Plot of Residuals Showing the Normality of the Contextual Performance Data Distribution



Appendix N

Post Hoc Analysis on Race on Job Performance

Table Showing the Descriptive Statistics for the Dimensions of Job Performance by Race

						95% CI			
		N	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*	*Min*	*Max*
Ave_TP	Black	61	2.49	.62	.08	2.33	2.65	.40	3.00
	Coloured	57	2.69	.47	.06	2.56	2.81	1.20	3.00
	Total	118	2.59	.56	.05	2.48	2.69	.40	3.00
Ave_CP	Black	61	2.22	.60	.08	2.06	2.37	.40	3.00
	Coloured	57	2.40	.62	.08	2.23	2.56	.60	3.00
	Total	118	2.30	.61	.06	2.19	2.41	.40	3.00
Ave_CWB	Black	61	.89	.66	.08	.72	1.06	.00	3.00
	Coloured	57	.98	.63	.08	.82	1.15	.00	2.20
	Total	118	.94	.64	.06	.82	1.05	.00	3.00

Note. *N* = 118. *M* = Mean. *SD* = Standard Deviation. *SE* = Standard Error. *CI* = Confidence Interval. *LL* = Lower Limit. *UL* = Upper Limit. *TP* = Task Performance. *CP* = Contextual Performance. *CWB* = Counterproductive Work Behaviour. *Min* = Minimum. *Max* = Maximum.

Appendix O

Moderation Analysis to Test the Moderating Potential of Psychological Safety

Table O1:

Moderation Analysis: Psychological Safety Moderating the Relationship Between Inclusive Leadership and Task Performance

Variables	*b*	*SE (B)*	*t*	*p*	95% CI	
					LL	*UL*
Inclusive leadership	.38	.24	1.61	> .05	-.09	.85
Psychological safety	.48	.18	2.66	< .05	.12	.85
IL * PS	-.10	.05	-1.97	< .05	-.19	.00
R^2 = .136						
R^2 Change = .028						

Note. CI = Confidence Interval. *LL* = Lower Limit. *UL* = Upper Limit. *IL* = Inclusive Leadership. *PSS* = Psychological Safety. * Significant at 0.05.

Table O2:

Moderation Analysis: Psychological Safety Moderating the Relationship Between Inclusive Leadership and Contextual Performance

Variables	*b*	*SE (B)*	*t*	*p*	95% CI	
					LL	*UL*
Inclusive leadership	.52	.26	2.00	< .05	-.01	1.03
Psychological safety	.40	.20	1.99	< .05	.00	.80
IL * PS	-.08	.05	-1.47	< .05	-.18	.03
R^2 = .140						
R^2 Change = .016						

Note. CI = Confidence Interval. *LL* = Lower Limit. *UL* = Upper Limit. *IL* = Inclusive Leadership. *PSS* = Psychological Safety. * Significant at 0.05.

Table O3:

Moderation Analysis: Psychological Safety Moderating the Relationship Between Inclusive Leadership and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

Variables	*b*	*SE (B)*	*t*	*p*	95% CI	
					LL	*UL*
Inclusive leadership	-.62	.29	-2.15	< .05	-1.19	-.05
Psychological safety	-.21	.22	-.95	> .05	-.65	.23
IL * PS	.06	.06	1.04	> .05	-.06	.18
R^2 = .097						
R^2 Change = .008						

Note. CI = Confidence Interval. *LL* = Lower Limit. *UL* = Upper Limit. *IL* = Inclusive Leadership. *PSS* = Psychological Safety. * Significant at 0.05.