Normative Multiculturalism in Organisations: Scale Development,

Validation, and Organisational Outcomes

By

Kai B. O'Donnell

A thesis

submitted to the Victoria University of Wellington

in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science

Victoria University of Wellington

2023

Abstract

Due to rising ethnic diversity in modern workplaces, the importance of understanding the influence of multiculturalism on employee experiences and organisational outcomes is increasingly recognised. A 3-factor model for measuring Normative Multiculturalism (NMC)—comprised of multicultural contact (MC), multicultural ideology (MI), and multicultural policy and practice (MPP)—has been used at the national-level to describe the relationship between multiculturalism and trust, threat and national identification, and social cohesion. However, this model has not yet been validated in finer scales of social organisation. In this thesis I develop a new scale for measuring NMC for application in organisations or workplaces. Drawing on a community sample from New Zealand (n = 202 participants), the first study used psychometric testing and Exploratory Factor Analysis to develop a consolidated Normative Multiculturalism Scale for Organisations (NMS-O). The 3-factor solution comprised of MC, MI and MPP best fit the data over alternative models. Evidence of criterion validity was supported by correlations between the new scale and established workplace criterion measures (e.g., valuing pluralism, organisational fairness). In Study Two a community sample from the United States (n = 316) participated in the new NMS-O. Confirmatory Factor Analysis provided additional support for the 3-factor model of NMC. Subsequent path analyses tested a hypothesised model of relationships between NMC and employee outcomes (organisational citizenship behaviours [OCB] and turnover intentions) as partially mediated by trust, perceived threat and organisational identification. A modified model demonstrated acceptable fit to the data with perceived threat mediating the relationships between MI and MPP and both OCB and turnovers intentions; trust mediating the effects of MI and MPP on OCB; and organisational identification mediating the effects of MPP on both OCB and turnover intentions. Multigroup comparisons demonstrated that the path model was invariant for ethnic majority and minority group members in the United States. The present research provides support for the normative interpretation of multiculturalism in the organisational context, linking NMC with outcomes that are important for both employees and organisational decision-makers. Further, the

NMS-O offers a diagnostic capability for workplace practitioners who want to positively influence employee outcomes and consequent organisational performance.

Acknowledgements

To everyone who supported me, thank-you does not describe the depth of my appreciation. With thanks to my supervisor, Dr. Colleen Ward, who supported, taught and coached me. I can say also that after a tumultuous 2020-2021, without the enduring support of Zayana, my wife, my family, and the advice of my fellow MSc students, this thesis might have taken unconscionable years to complete. As always, any mistakes are my own.

Thesis Structure

I have structured this thesis as follows: In the first chapter, the context and objectives for the thesis are set up by introducing and discussing the relevant theoretical background. Following this, Studies One and Two are comprised of their respective introductions, methods, results and discussion sections. In Study One, the focus is on scale development, determining factor structure among the data, and determining criterion validity using a sample of participants from New Zealand organisations. In Study Two, the focus is on reconfirming factor structure using a different national sample group (from the United States), then path analysis to determine how Normative Multiculturalism (NMC) and relevant organisational and experiential variables interrelate. Finally, the General Discussion summarises the salient findings, limitations and potential future research. I have used standard abbreviations throughout the text, these are described in the Table of Abbreviations.

Table of Contents

Table of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Factor, construct, variable	Explanation
MC	Multicultural Contact	Referring to both the heterogeneity of a community, and normative contact between ethnocultural groups.
MI	Multicultural Ideology	Normative ideology characterised by diversity-valuing and a willingness to integrate.
MPP	Multicultural Policy and Practice	Normative presence of policies and practices that support cultural maintenance and participation.
NMC	Normative Multiculturalism	Three-factor interpretation of multiculturalism comprised of MC, MI and MPP.
NMS	Normative Multiculturalism Scale	Measurement tool for assessing NMC.
NMS-O	Normative Multiculturalism Scale for Organisations	Measurement tool for assessing NMC in organisations or workplaces.
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	Employees' discretionary, prosocial behaviours which benefit peers and the organisation.
OID	Organisational Identification	The extent we define ourselves in reference to an associated organisation or social group.
Pt	Perceived Threat	Belief that ethnic diversity is likely to cause social friction/ conflict with others' values and symbols.
Ti	Turnover Intention	Employee's planned intentions to quit the organisation they currently work for.
Tr	Interpersonal Trust	Affective and cognitive trust in others' honesty, consistent actions, and reliability.

Table of Figures

Table of Tables

Introduction

Work in government, not-for-profit or commercial organisations represents a substantial portion of our lived experience. Forty percent of our waking week, for more than forty years of our life may be spent working (Statistics New Zealand, 2013). Due to persistent exposure to work environments, variable organisational cultures and climates then are substantial factors in our life experience (Ng & Ng, 2014; Olson, 2003; Schneider et al., 2013). However, these work environments are becoming increasingly diverse ethnically as a result of globalisation and migration (Billot, 2008; O'Brien et al., 2015; Parker et al., 2017). This rising ethnic diversity in our organisations has been linked to both positive and negative outcomes. Positive outcomes include more frequent innovation in work generally (Korzilius et al., 2017; Mohhamadi et al., 2017), and greater migrant diversity in management has been associated with greater product and process innovation (Lee, 2015). Further, ethnic diversity is associated with increased interethnic trust, better company reputation, higher company profitability and heightened productivity (Allen et al., 2007; Jackson & Van De Vijver, 2018). Negative outcomes that have been observed include a propensity for increased relationship conflict and lower team identification (Basset-Jones, 2005; Hentschel et al., 2013). Moreover, workplace discrimination of minorities is associated with decrements in health and wellbeing among minorities (Combs & Milosevic, 2016; Triana et al, 2015). Notably, although there is a positive relationship between ethnic diversity and job performance, outcomes may be negative depending on the nature of group processes, such as communication, extant conflict or team cohesion (Kochan et al., 2003).

Ethnic diversity can have mixed outcomes in the workplace, and outcomes can vary according to group dynamics. But organisational culture and bias are also implicated, for example, in resistance to changing workforce diversity (O'Brien et al., 2015). Therefore, it is important to actively manage organisational diversity—specifically ethnic diversity—so that its outcomes may be positive for workers in general, for ethnic minority workers, and for our organisations as a whole. In this research, a model of Normative Multiculturalism (NMC),

which has found support when interpreting national-level phenomena, is described alongside a theoretical basis for its interpretation in the workplace context. NMC refers to the extent communities are ethnically diverse and contact between ethnocultural groups is common; socio-organisational norms are characterised by diversity-valuing and a willingness to integrate; and policies and practices that support cultural maintenance and participation are common. Finally, across two Studies a new tool for measuring NMC in the workplace is (1) developed and validated, then (2) tested in relation to several experiential and organisational outcomes that are important for both employees and organisational decision-makers.

Theoretical Background

Multiculturalism

As a social strategy for managing ethnic diversity, multiculturalism emphasises a positive ideology, or a mutual respect for ethnocultural differences (Plaut, 2002). This strategy has been linked to a range of positive outcomes, such that endorsement of multiculturalism tends to result in less negative affect toward minorities (Yitmen & Verkuyten, 2018) and greater innovation at work (Korzilius et al., 2017), for example. Increased intercultural contact then leads to decrements in intergroup anxiety and lower perceived inter-group threat (Ward & Masgoret, 2006) and higher interethnic trust (Jackson & Van De Vijver, 2018). However, there is some controversy regarding both perceived and observed negative effects—multiculturalism has been associated with unfair advantages for minorities (Jackson & Van de Vijver, 2018) and increased inter-group bias among non-minorities, which may result in greater discrimination of minorities (Morrison et al., 2010). Further, multiculturalism has been associated with societal breakdown in the socio-political sphere. Despite these observations other studies suggest the opposite, such that multiculturalism can result in greater overall social cohesion (Gozdecka et al., 2014; Hooghe et al., 2007; Watters et al., 2020). Indeed, although there has been concern that multiculturalism might lead to diminished loyalty or attachment among migrant minorities to their host nation, the opposite has been observed—loyalty instead depends on certain

positive conditions, particularly the extent of inclusion and acceptance that people from ethnic minorities experience (Otten et al., 2014).

Arguably, part of the reason multiculturalism is controversial is because there has been little consensus as to its definition. Its perceived meaning varies geographically and across societies (Berry & Ward, 2016; Kymlicka, 2012; Sadashiva, 2005). For some it is an overtly political concept which is more about intergroup power. It may be conceived of simplistically, instead emphasising cultural diversity only in terms of demographics or overt celebrations of diversity which do not represent a deeper valuing in society (e.g., 'saris, samosas and steeldrums'; Kymlicka, 2012) (Stuart & Ward, 2019). In combination with negative views on the effects of multiculturalism, positive benefits may not be well understood outside of some political and academic spaces, therefore the common conception of multiculturalism may be limited. Seemingly, multiculturalism may be threatening to existing societal identities, or become negatively politicised as a result of populist politics (Goodman & Alarian, 2021; Wright et al., 2017). As a result, in the socio-political sphere multiculturalism has mixed support.

A more fully developed conceptualisation of multiculturalism offers the prospect of better understanding the correlates and consequences of multiculturalism in practice. In contrast to an elementary view, a multifaceted interpretation refers to both the presence of people from distinct ethnocultural groups, and support for that presence within communities (Jackson & Van der Vijver, 2018). Indeed, Berry (1984) has long argued that the necessary conditions for multiculturalism, in fact, are extant positive ideologies toward ethnic diversity and 'pluralism'—whereby groups' identities are maintained and respective groups are integral to society as a whole. Thus, the complex interpretation of multiculturalism describes mutual accommodation and respect among differing ethnocultural groups, in addition to ethnic or racial demographics and interpersonal contact between diverse ethnic groups. Characteristically, in contrast to prior interpretations of pluralism which featured elements of assimilation (Van de Vijver et al., 2008), the modern interpretation of multiculturalism describes a strong desire for parties to maintain their

heritage cultures and identities, coupled with a societal preference for high relational contact between differing groups (Berry & Sam, 2016); it is the opposite of exclusion, marginalisation or avoidance, instead expressions of ethnic differences are welcome.

Normative Multiculturalism

Stuart and Ward (2019) have described a 3-factor model of Normative Multiculturalism (NMC) comprised of multicultural contact (MC), multicultural ideology (MI) and multicultural policy and practice (MPP). According to Stuart and Ward, demographic diversity and diversity-valuing (or positive ideology) alone do not adequately explain the effects of multiculturalism. For example, Berry and Sam's (2016) model of acculturation strategies describes societies that may be ethnically diverse but can also be segregated or separated, and characterised by low contact between diverse groups. Stuart and Ward instead provide evidence for an expanded interpretation of multiculturalism that more effectively describes multiculturalism in practice. In this three-factor interpretation MC refers to both the demographic features, or heterogeneity of a community, and extant contact between ethnocultural groups. In turn, MI is characterised by diversity-valuing and a willingness to integrate among disparate ethnic groups. Thirdly, MPP refers to the presence of policies and practices that support cultural maintenance and participation. Subsequently, high multiculturalism should see respective ethnic groups able to participate in wider society fairly and equitably.

Critically, Stuart and Ward (2019) also posited a normative aspect to multiculturalism, or an emphasis on how individuals' perspectives on group norms influence individuals' behaviours. This is to say, individuals' perceptions of the extent to which interaction between ethnoculturally diverse groups is common in their society (e.g., 'most children go to school with other children from different cultures'); that diversity-valuing ideology is common (e.g., 'most people think that it would be better if everyone living here had the same customs and traditions' [reverse coded]); and multicultural policies and practices are common at the national-level (e.g., 'institutional practices are often adapted to the specific needs of ethnic minorities').

Several studies have used the 3-factor interpretation of NMC to uncover evidence of greater social cohesion (Stuart & Ward, 2019; Watters et al., 2020), and improved social wellbeing generally (Ward et al., 2019), in environments with higher levels of multiculturalism. NMC, therefore, stands in counterpoint to the socio-political fear that ethnic diversity will lead to social disruption. Stuart and Ward (2019) themselves observed a positive relationship between NMC and intergroup trust and individuals' sense of national identification, and a negative relationship between NMC and perceived intergroup threat. Developed in reference to cross-cultural samples derived from New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States, Stuart and Ward's derived scale of NMC showed good cross-cultural validity and stability.

Importance of Social Norms

The inclusion of a normative lens on multiculturalism is particularly important as multicultural views are shared by social groups—they are socially constructed and not only located within individuals (Guimond et al., 2014). Instead, these socially constructed rules, pressures and expectations present in a group act as guides—they influence, indeed predict behaviour and attitudes among individuals (Jackson & Van der Vijver, 2018; Stuart & Ward, 2019; van Kleef et al., 2019). In turn, norm-violation can result in punishment for individuals who may have acted out their own preferences in the face of a competing social norm (van Kleef et al., 2019).

The special character of the workplace means that the effects of social norms are likely to be more acute. Firstly, interpersonal feedback is relatively immediate, and there is a relative lack of individual choice regarding interpersonal association (Jackson & van de Vijver, 2018; Reich & Herscovis, 2011). Individuals may find themselves working among people whose views they do not align with, and face a choice between sustained interpersonal friction or compliance with prevailing social norms. Meanwhile, policies can have a subtle priming effect that influences individuals' attitudes toward multiculturalism (Guimond et al., 2013), whereas intergroup ideologies may be effectively institutionalised as policies with an enduring effect (Guimond et al., 2014). There is a coercive nature to the

workplace wherein individuals are expected to comply with organisational policy and practices, and follow managerial instructions (Orlitzky & Frenkel, 2005; Schieman & Reid, 2008). Thus, individuals face not only the possibility of behavioural correction via a social mechanism should they violate social norms, but also correction through the hierarchical authority of their managers and seniors. Social norms are likely to have an outsized effect on individual behaviour in the workplace than compared to other contexts.

NMC and the Organisational Context

The relevance of the 3-factor interpretation of NMC in the organisational context is supported by the industrial/organisational psychology (I/O) and related literature. Firstly, MC describes individuals' perceptions regarding the extent to which interaction between ethnically diverse groups is common in their organisation. The 'contact hypothesis' stipulates that greater intergroup contact is likely to lead to greater tolerance and acceptance among ethnically diverse people, and reduced prejudice generally (Wang et al., 2003). Indeed, the widely cited meta-analysis by Pettrigrew and Tropp (2006) supports the view that intergroup contact tends to reduce intergroup prejudice. More recently, Lauring and Selmer (2011) observed that frequency of communication had a strong positive relationship with positive attitudes toward diversity, including visible differences and language differences. Finally, Byrd (2017) described positive intergroup interactions as multifaceted in educational institutions, including individuals' multicriteria assessment of interaction between diverse people. Despite some findings that highlight the potential importance of contact-valence, or the effects of positive and negative contact (Laurence et al., 2018), nonetheless, contact frequency remains salient, and a necessary first condition for intercultural communication is that contact must occur between people from diverse ethnicities.

Secondly, MI describes an ethnic diversity valuing ideology that is normative. Several constructs from the I/O psychology literature are relevant to diversity-valuing. The 'colour-blind' perspective is an alternative strategy to multiculturalism for managing ethnic diversity (Rattan & Ambady, 2013). Colour-blind ideology deemphasises or ignores cultural differences and preferentially embraces similarities (Gnanakumaran, 2012; Rattan &

Ambady, 2013). Although overtly a perspective that idealises equality, paradoxically, colour-blind perspectives predict greater ethnic bias (Richeson & Nussbaum, 2004), with negative consequences for organisations and for ethnic minorities (respectively, reduced engagement, consequently reduced work performance; worsening discrimination and greater hostility) (Byrd, 2017; Rattan & Ambady, 2013). In contrast, valuing of diversity as a characteristic of a positive, organisational 'diversity climate' predicts greater group satisfaction regardless of ethnic group, greater perceived group work performance, and greater organisational performance overall (Lauring & Selmer, 2011). Further, as previously discussed, intergroup ideologies may be effectively institutionalised as organisational policy (Guimond et al., 2014). Ethnic diversity-related beliefs in the organisational context have real effects on employees, consequently organisational outcomes—not only interpersonal outcomes.

Thirdly, MPP refers to institutional policies and practices that support integration and positive valuing of diversity, and the extent to which these are common. In the workplace, diversity initiatives tend to have a dual aim; firstly to improve inter-group fairness or to reduce discrimination, and secondly to capitalise on diversity-related synergies (Dover et al., 2020; Garg & Sangwan, 2021). Evidently, fair, free-from-prejudice work performance appraisal can lead to greater satisfaction and trust among employees from ethnic minorities, and greater perceived work group performance overall (Rubin, 2007). The presence of 'diversity' policies in workplaces are associated with greater perceived work group performance (Jin et al., 2017). Emerson & Murphy (2014) observed how organisational structures and policy cues can signal positive or negative attitudes toward minorities groups, consequently impacting hiring practices, work evaluation, and workplace segregation. Employees' perceptions of workplace policies determine their workplace attitudes and behaviours, which determine the outcomes of management policy (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015). Notably, fair treatment at work mediates the relationship between intercultural relationships in the workplace and subsequent organisational commitment (Vassou et al., 2017). Although diversity management has seen mixed results in the past (Jin

et al., 2017), the importance of diversity related policy and consequent practice has been established in the literature.

The 3-factor model evident in the national-level context appears to be important also in an organisational context. Besides the empirical links, from a practical standpoint management and leadership may overtly support multiculturalism by implementing MPP but outcomes also depend on the extent of MC and MI within the organisation as a whole. Indeed, Bowman and Cox (2020) observed a substantive gap insofar as people may espouse support for ethnic diversity from an ideological perspective but withhold support for diversity valuing policies. Depending on the configuration of MC, MI and MPP, outcomes could vary substantively in terms of workers' experiences and organisational outcomes.

Alternative Frameworks in I/O Psychology

There are parallels between NMC, several organisational Diversity Climate models as described by Goyal and Shrivastava (2013), and a model of Workplace Multiculturalism described by Jackson and van de Vijver (2018). Common components of Diversity Climate models include identity-group prejudice, stereotyping, and ethnocentrism as individual-level variables. At the group-level, cultural differences form a sort of demographic catalogue. People management practices and policies, and intergroup communication also appear as integral elements. In turn, norms, values and beliefs are categorised as group and organisational level components, one among multiple variables which make up the Diversity Climate. Cachat-Rosset et al. (2019) criticised past Diversity Climate models as placing too much emphasis on the measurement of diversity variables through the lens of individual experiences rather than the individual's perception of collective views—observing that the implementation of workplace policies and practices are normative in nature. Thus, Diversity Climate models differ from NMC to the extent that social norms appear to be just one among many salient variables in the former as opposed to being a pervasive, underlying factor in the later. Further, Diversity Climate models do not uniformly treat with organisational norms, for example, sometimes assessing ideology from an individual perspective (e.g., Cox 1994; Cox & Beale, 1997), other times from a normative perspective (e.g., Hubbard, 2004; Yeo,

2006). The 3-factor model of NMC treats with ideology consistently from the normative perspective. Additionally, the measurement of contact between unlike ethnic groups seems limited in the Diversity Climate models. In Cox (1994) and Bell (2011) (as cited by Goyal & Shrivasrtava, 2013), for example, intergroup conflict appears to be the sole measure of the nature of contact between unlike people, and the frequency of contact between unlike people seems to be inferred instead on the basis of organisational demographics. As observed previously, societies may be ethnically diverse but also segregated, with minimal contact between diverse people—it follows that this pattern replicates at the organisational-level.

Superficially, NMC and Workplace Multiculturalism appear to have much in common, however, they differ substantively. Jackson and Van de Vijver (2018) posit a model whereby multiculturalism is treated as an antecedent, or diversity enhancing condition. In this model, the multicultural climate is comprised of firstly (i) 'multicultural norms' or normative practices which describe social rules or social codes of conduct that are characterised by positive valuing of ethnic diversity; (ii) perceived 'mainstream tolerance' describes the extent people are comfortable with others' ethnic differences, and acceptance for cultural diversity and ethnic groups' activities; and (iii) 'multicultural practices' describe the occurrence of said practices among the majority of co-workers (not necessarily among minority co-workers). Jackson and Van de Vijver's questionnaires are overtly normative, querying individual's perception of group norms—an approach in common with NMC. In contrast to NMC, Jackson and Van de Vijver's model does not overtly measure the extent, nature or frequency of contact between diverse ethnic groups. In their model, the multicultural climate may be framed positively, as characterised by high welcoming, respect and valuing of ethnic diversity, but not necessarily feature much ethnic diversity in a demographic sense. A further point of difference between NMC and Workplace Multiculturalism is the treatment of MPP. In NMC, MPP is an integral part. From a normative perspective, the relationship between organisational policy and practice is non-recursive. Both policy and policy-making in the organisational context are potent symbols of and drivers behind organisational social norms—particularly due to the coercive nature of

organisational policies which require individual's adherence. Instead, in Workplace Multiculturalism, 'policy' seems to be treated as a social phenomenon driven by individual-level preferences—for example, for interacting with people from other ethnicities—not official policy-making as expressed in written rules and regulations which are common in the workplace. The importance of official policy is evident due to the extensive legal frameworks which effect labour markets at a high level, and organisational practices at operational levels. The policy element within MPP and NMC, as a whole, closes a gap present in Workplace Multiculturalism.

Normative Multiculturalism's main points of difference with the reviewed Diversity Climate models and the Workplace Multiculturalism model lay firstly in their treatments of contact between ethnically diversity people—specifically, NMC measures normative contact directly, instead of inferring contact based only on demographic variables. Secondly, NMC differs from Diversity Climate models by the consistent application of the normative perspective—individuals' interpretation of group norms is integral to NMC. Thirdly, both organisational policies and practices are deemed important in NMC, in counterpoint to the apparent exclusion of official policy-making from the model of Workplace Multiculturalism. The 3-factor model of NMC therefore presents a more complete model than these alternatives.

Research Overview and Objectives

There are adequate grounds in theory to predict a 3-factor model of NMC in the organisational or workplace context. However, there is a degree of uncertainty as to the extent the national-level findings on NMC may generalise to the organisational scale. For example, Gerhart (2009) observed that most variation in organisational cultures is not explained by country or national group. Organisational-level phenomena may differ to those observed at the national or societal level. Nonetheless, I hypothesise that the 3-factor interpretation of NMC (comprised of MC, MI and MPP) will generalise to the organisational scale. To explore this overarching hypothesis, and several additional hypotheses outlined later, a new instrument for measuring NMC will be constructed and tested in two phases.

In the first phase (Study One), the aim is to generate an adequate item pool for measuring NMC, followed by selection of appropriate measures with which to assess criterion validity. A list of NMC items and criterion items that have been hypothesised to influence NMC will be presented to a sample of people through an online survey conducted in New Zealand. Response scores will then be subject to Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and other analyses intended to determine whether there is evidence of a 3-factor structure in the data—or an alternative more optimal factor structure—and an optimal item content.

The second phase (Study Two) involves a separate but comparable sample of people from the United States who will be given the reduced-item Normative Multiculturalism Scale for Organisations (NMS-O) derived from Study One. The results will be analysed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to determine whether the factor structures and item content identified in Study One are invariant. Participants will answer a further set of items that measure specific experiential and organisational variables. Path analyses will be used to determine the extent NMC and the NMS-O relate to or predict meaningful experiences and organisational outcomes.

Study One: Developing a scale of Organisational NMC

Introduction

In this first study, a new instrument for measuring NMC will be constructed and tested to determine an optimal factor structure among the response data from both theoretical and empirical perspectives. As previously posited, a 3-factor solution made up of MC, MI and MPP is expected, however the data may reveal otherwise. In terms of process, effective scale development using participatory surveys occurs in three phases; firstly, the creation of a list of potential survey items and assessment of face validity; secondly, scale construction includes pre-testing before finally administering a survey; and thirdly, the data are interpreted, item reduction occurs, and potential factor structures are assessed in terms of their reliability and construct validity (Boateng et al, 2018; Carbrera-Nguyen, 2010; Kline, 2015). To achieve the later, select criterion measures are required that have support in the

relevant literature, that also plausibly explain the three hypothesised factors of NMC as interpreted for the organisational context.

Criterion Measures

I identified ten scales and associated constructs from relevant literature on multiculturalism and I/O psychology that plausibly explain the elements of NMC (Table 3).

Table 3

NMS-O Constructs and Criterion Measures (NZ)

Abbreviation	Construct	Criterion measure	Author	α
MC	Multicultural Contact	Frequency of Interaction	Byrd (2017)	.83
		Quality of Interaction	Byrd (2017)	.80
MI	Multicultural Ideology	Appreciate Pluralism	Stanley (1996)	.73
		Value Pluralism	Stanley (1996)	.85
		Empathic Acceptance	Wang et al. (2003)	.71
		Stereotyping	Byrd (2017)	.83
		Colour-blind Socialisation	Byrd (2017)	.70
MPP	Multicultural Policy and Practice	Empathic Awareness	Wang et al. (2003)	.74
		Organisational Fairness	Mor Barak et al. (1998)	.83[1]
		Diversity Management	Pitts (2009)	.85

Multicultural Contact

For MC, the criterion measures were derived from Byrd (2017) who assessed racial climate relative to perceptions of interracial interactions and racial socialisation in schools. The items have a normative focus, assessing 'frequency-' and 'quality of interaction' with ethnically diverse people (α = .83 and .80, respectively). For example, they query individuals' views on the extent *'[people] of different races/ethnicities trust each other'*. Byrd observed that a normative approach formed an important distinction from individual frames, as individuals' recognise their own personal experience may differ to others, and individual

---

[1] Cronbach's alpha was originally reported for the whole Diversity Perceptions Scale. Buttner et al. (2012) reported alpha for the original Organisational Fairness subscale itself as .92.

experiences may not be representative. Secondly, Byrd observed a distinction between ideological support for ethnic diversity generally, and support which is evident in the form of discretionary interactions between ethnically diverse people. These considerations are important due to the power of social norms—to influence individuals' behaviour—and due to the proposed structure of NMC, specifically, the distinction between MC and MI (or contact versus ideology). Although a positive valuing of ethnic differences may be normative, an organisation might still see relatively little socialisation between ethnic groups.

Multicultural Ideology

MI represents a relatively more complex construct than contact such that five criterion measures were selected. The first of these were derived from Stanley's (1996) Pluralism and Diversity Attitude Assessment which measures attitudes toward ethnic minorities, valuing of cultural differences, and discomfort with or belief that ethnic diversity is a negative force. Used in this study are the 'appreciate-' and 'value pluralism' subscales (respectively, α = .73 and .85), which measure individual attitudes towards the maintenance of ethnic group identities and the extent to which other ethnic groups are integral to society as a whole. Stanley's research has since been incorporated into the more widely cited Multicultural Attitude Scale (MAS; Van de Vijver et al., 2008), lending credence to its utility in context of measuring multiculturalism.

The third criterion measure for MI was derived from Wang et al.'s (2003) 'acceptance of cultural differences' subscale, itself part of an assessment of ethnocultural empathy. Wang et al. described ethnocultural empathy as an ability to understand the thinking or feeling of people from other ethnicities—derived from an ability to perceive the world as they do, to attend to their emotions, followed by a tendency to empathise with their experiences and emotions. The ability to empathise and interpret others' expressions of culture positively are necessary preconditions for MI. In contrast, the subscale 'acceptance of cultural differences' (α = .71) measures negative affect toward others' expressions of culture, including language and traditions. A negative correlation is expected between negative affect toward such expressions and MI, which itself is positively framed.

The final criterion measures for MI were derived from Byrd's (2017) 'ethnic stereotyping' and 'colour-blind socialisation' subscales (respectively, α = .83 and .70). Stereotyping appears to be an important factor in intercultural outcomes, such that a single ethnocultural group can be labelled variously more competent, or less warm, and less dominant than others, with mixed results in the workplace (Berdahl & Ji-A Min, 2012). Byrd (2017) further argued that both positive and negative stereotypes (therefore all stereotyping) can be harmful, to the extent they impact how people are seen as individuals or perceived simplistically according only to group identifiers. The items derived from Byrd's Racial Climate Assessment offer a normative view on authority figures' propensity for negative stereotyping and ethnic prejudice. Given the hierarchical nature of our organisations, perceptions of ideologies among authorities and decision-makers are likely to be important. Finally, as previously discussed, colour-blind perspectives are associated with more negative outcomes—for instance, colour-blind ideologies can lead adherents to feel dislike for ethnic minorities who are not complying with their world view and to display more prejudice in situations where cultural differences are overt (Apfelbaum et al., 2008; Gutierrez & Unzueta, 2010). Colour-blind socialisation itself refers to the extent associated views and practices are normative. Like Wang et al's (2003) subscale, Byrd's subscales provide a degree of triangulation with the expectation of a negative correlation with MI.

The criterion measures for MI assess a mixture of personal attitudes and normative perceptions, on the basis that norms and personal attitudes are interrelated. The socially constructed rules present in a group act as guides, influencing behaviour and attitudes among individuals (Jackson & Van der Vijver, 2018; Stuart & Ward, 2019; van Kleef et al., 2019). In turn, group norms emerge from individual behaviours and coalesce during the course of repeated interpersonal interactions (Hawkins et al., 2019).

Multicultural Policy and Practice

For MPP, three criterion measures were selected. The first of these measures was derived from Wang et al. (2006), this time assessing individuals' awareness of how people from other ethnic groups are treated differently, or face systemic or institutional barriers

(i.e., organisational policies and practices) ('empathic awareness', α = .74). Wang observed that empathy is expressed through words or actions, ergo, greater intercultural empathy should predict fewer systemic or institutional barriers as embodied by MPP. This scale was previously used by Stuart and Ward (2019) to validate MPP in the national-level NMC scale.

Secondly, Mor Barak et al. (1998) derived a larger 'diversity perceptions scale' in which 'organisational fairness' formed an important factor (α = .92; as cited by Buttner et al., 2012). Elements of 'fairness' included individuals' judgements of the extent to which managers or leaders hire or promote objectively—regardless of applicants' diverse characteristics—and fair interpretation of human resource policies, among others practices. The authors suggest that past diversity management approaches which focused only on legal protections for people from minorities haven't resulted in widespread satisfaction—organisational cultures (or norms), and both organisational policy and the practical application of policy appear to be more impactful on employee's day-to-day experiences.

Finally, Pitts (2009) derived a measure of 'diversity management' (α = .85) that queries individuals' views on the extent of managerial commitment to workforce diversity, the ability of managers or team leaders to work well with diverse people, and also whether work policies and programmes indeed promote ethnic diversity (e.g., recruitment policies, diversity awareness training). Pitts advocated for greater attention to management issues as they pertain to ethnic diversity in workplaces, to ensure organisational functions and processes serve all ethnic groups. Pitts noted that inadequate diversity management practices were a cause of dissatisfaction among people of colour, meanwhile effective diversity management had a strong positive relationship with perceived organisational performance.

Determining Criterion Validity

In case the three theorised factors (MC, MI, MPP) are replicated, validity will be demonstrated where; (1) moderate to strong positive correlations between MC and Byrd's (2017) 'quality of interaction' and 'frequency of interaction' subscales demonstrate convergent validity. Likewise (2) moderate to strong positive correlations between MI and

Stanley's (1996) 'appreciate pluralism' and 'value pluralism' subscales, and Wang et al.'s (2003) 'acceptance of cultural differences' subscale. Conversely, to the extent that MI measures positive valuing of ethnic diversity, I expect moderate to strong negative correlations between MI and Byrd's (2017) 'stereotyping' and 'colour-blind socialisation' subscales. For (3) MPP convergent validity will be demonstrated by moderate to strong positive correlations with Wang et al.'s (2003) 'empathic awareness' subscale, Mor Barak et al.'s (1998) 'organisational fairness' subscale and Pitts' (2009) Diversity Management Scale.

Methods

Participants and Procedure

Research approval was obtained from the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee (HEC ethics application number 28223). Invitations to complete an anonymous survey were distributed through selected social media platforms (Facebook, LinkedIn), individual contacts and snow-balling. The survey was maintained online using the Qualtrics survey platform. Data collection began February 2020 and was extended into July due to low participation at the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. The aim was to recruit a national sample of 'working adults' in New Zealand. The inclusion criteria were minimum age (18 years) and work status (either current employment or employment within the previous six-months). To maintain participant anonymity no direct incentive was provided, and participants were asked not to record any identifiable information in their open-ended responses. An indirect incentive saw participants 'vote' for a preferred charity (environment, children, or animal welfare themed) to receive the largest financial donation from a pool of NZD500.

Originally 288 working adults in New Zealand responded to the survey. Eighty-six were excluded mainly due to non-completion (i.e., completing only the demographic section, or clicking through the survey without responding). A minority of responses were excluded due to failed attention checks. More rigorous quality assessments did not justify further exclusions (e.g., Longstring and Averagestring indices, Intra-individual Response Variability, Inter-item Standard Deviation; Costa & McCrae, 2008; Dunn et al., 2018; Marjanovic et al.,

2015; Trauzettel-Klosinksi & Dietz, 2012; Yentes & Wilhelm, 2018), nor did assessment for duplicate IP addresses and repetitious qualitative responses.

There were n = 202 participants retained for the survey; of these 51.5% identified as female, 48.0% as male, finally 0.5% identified as gender diverse. The average age among the participants was 35.86 years (SD = 11.34, range = 18-69 years). The majority came from professional or managerial job-roles (62.2%). The ethnic majority were New Zealand European/Pākehā or Other European (76.2%), while 23.8% identified as an ethnic minority. Participants were asked whether they identified as belonging to the ethnic majority or minority in their organisation (i.e., '*most people here are like me*' or '*most people here are different to me*'). Those who identified as being among the ethnic minority in their organisation accounted for one third (33.7%) of participants.

Materials

The survey was prefaced by an information sheet and consent form (Appendix A). It contained demographic variables (Appendix B), a list of NMS-O test items (Appendix C), and criterion measures (Appendix D). To minimise the negative effects of attrition, the demographic section was placed at the beginning of the survey, followed by four randomised blocks comprised of the NMS-O first then the criterion measures, finally the participant debrief (Appendix F). Block randomisation minimised the extent any one section might be over or under exposed as a result of attrition. The survey was delivered in English text only.

The demographic items of interest were age, gender, ethnicity, and job-role, and they were structured in accordance with standards developed by Statistics New Zealand (2018; 2015; 2005; age, gender, ethnicity, respectively), both the Australian and New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (ANZSCO, 2018), and the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ILO, 2012).

NMS-O Item Pool. A long-list of NMS-O items were developed using (i) the national-level NMS developed by Stuart and Ward (2019), (ii) an unpublished NMS currently in development for educational contexts, and (iii) contemporary industrial/organisational (I/O) psychology literature. The national-level NMS used a 5-point

Likert scale, as does the NMS-O. As informants about their organisation, participants therefore were asked to rate their agreement with a statement about their organisation—for example '*in my organisation…*' '*it is likely we will work daily with people from several different ethnicities/cultures*' (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Items from previous studies which demonstrated reasonable factor loadings were adapted for the organisational context (e.g., from the unpublished education-context NMS *'all students are encouraged to maintain and share their cultures*' becomes *'all staff are encouraged to share their cultures and traditional activities*').

The final pool of 48-test items was designed to describe the three NMC constructs (e.g., MC, '*our teams tend to be culturally diverse*'; MI, '*cultural diversity is one of our defining characteristics*'; MPP, '*managers are trained to lead multicultural teams*') (Appendix C). Theoretically, higher scores indicate greater contact with ethnic diversity (MC), more positive diversity valuing (MI) and greater incidence of diversity supporting policies and practices (MPP). Content validity was reviewed by several experts from Victoria University of Wellington who had experience of both scale development and NMC. The survey was piloted with several lay people to ensure the text was clear and easily understood.

Criterion Measures. The construct validity of the new scale was determined in reference to participant's responses on a set of reference scales. Minor adaptation of scale items ensured consistency and the use of neutral language regarding organisation type. For example, leaders and authority figures in the organisational context are referred throughout as *managers/team leaders*. Some items required reverse coding for analysis.

Multicultural Contact. For MC, the criterion measures were derived from Byrd (2017). Three items each assess 'frequency of interaction' and 'quality of interaction' with ethnically diverse people. For example, participants were asked to '*indicate how often people of difference ethnicities/cultures in your organisation…*' '*spend social time together*'. Used was a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always)*. Higher scores indicate more frequent or more positive interactions between people from different ethnicities.

Multicultural Ideology. For MI, five criterion measures were used. Firstly, from Stanley (1996) seven items were drawn from the 'appreciate pluralism' and 'value pluralism' subscales. Participants were asked to '*indicate your level of agreement with the following statements…*', for example; '*employees should give up their cultural beliefs and practices to fit in with other employees*'. Used was a 6-point Likert scale, reversed for this study to ensure consistency among the remaining scales (1 = *strongly agree* to 6 = *strongly disagree*). Higher scores indicate greater diversity valuing. Third, Wang et al. (2003) provide five items from their 'empathic acceptance' subscale. Participants were asked to '*indicate how well the following statements describe you…*', for example; '*I feel irritated when people of different cultural/ethnic backgrounds speak their language around me*'. Used was 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always)*, with higher scores indicating adverse feeling toward ethnocultural diversity. Fourth, Byrd's (2017) 'stereotyping' subscale yielded five items—participants were asked to '*indicate your level of agreement with the following statements*', for example; '*managers/team leaders believe negative stereotypes about your cultural/ethnic group*'. Used was a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always)*, with higher scores indicating greater incidence of racial stereotyping. Finally, Byrd's (2017) 'colour-blind socialisation' subscale yielded three items. Participants were asked to '*indicate how often the following occur…*', for example; '*people think it's better not to pay attention to ethnicity/culture*'. Used was a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always)*, with higher scores indicating a prevalence for colour-blind ideology.

   Multicultural Policy and Practice. For MPP three criterion measures were used. Wang et al.'s (2003) assessment of ethnocultural empathy yielded four items (e.g., '*I recognise that management/internal communications often portray people based on ethnic/cultural stereotypes*'). Used was a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always)*. Higher scores indicate more barriers and greater ethnic discrimination. Second, Mor Barak et al.'s (1998) 'organisational fairness' subscale used three items to assess bias in leadership decision-making, policy interpretation and organisational hiring practices (e.g., '*managers/team leaders have a track record of hiring and promoting employees*

objectively, regardless of their ethnicity/culture). Used was a 6-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree)*. Scale order was reversed for this study to ensure consistency among the remaining scales, therefore higher scores indicate greater perceived fairness. Finally, Pitt's (2009) Diversity Management Scale yielded three items to gauge participants' perceptions of how authorities differentially treat people and how they commit to workforce diversity (e.g., '*policies and programs promote ethnic/cultural diversity in the workplace*'). Used was a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree)*. Higher scores indicate a prevalence of diversity supporting policies.

Planned Analyses

Three phases of analyses were planned for Study One: (1) a preliminary analysis including missingness assessment and data imputation, if justified, then examination of the psychometric properties of the data; (2) exploratory factor analysis (EFA), including item reduction and any multi-solution assessments; finally, (3) criterion validity assessment. The planned phases are described below.

(1) In the preliminary analysis, missingness among participant's responses will be assessed using Little's Chi-square test in IBM SPSS. The method of imputation will be determined according to the nature and extent of missingness observed in the data. The psychometric properties and factorability of the data will be assessed, beginning with a correlation matrix, interpretation of skew, kurtosis and Shapiro Wilk tests, then means, standard deviations and Cronbach's alpha should be calculated. Finally, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. A strictly normal distribution is not required.

(2) Prior to the EFA, the (i) Kaiser criterion, (ii) Cattell's scree test (iii) Horn's parallel analysis (PA). (v) Velicer's Minimum Average Partial (MAP), finally, Very Simple Structures (VSS) will be calculated—a concordance of results determining a likely factor structure for more in-depth analysis. Item reduction will be done initially on the basis of mean inter-item correlations, corrected item-total correlations, finally, Cronbach's alpha. The remaining factor-item structure will be determined according to the '.40-.30-.20' rule

(primary loading, cross loading, difference between any cross-loading and primary loadings) (Howard, 2016) and an assessment of the cumulative percentage of total variance extracted. Greater variance is preferred when assessing competing factor structures. Viable factors are required to have a minimum three items or parcels (Matsunga, 2008; Raubenheimer, 2004).

(3) For criterion validity Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients compare the results on the NMS-O to those on the criterion measures. According to Cohen's widely cited guideline, r values of .10, .30 and .50 correspond to small, medium and large effect sizes (Cohen, 1992). However, normative guidelines proposed by Gignac and Szodora (2016), are instead .15, .25 and .35, respectively, with correlations of .50 being rare in psychological research. For these studies, effect sizes are interpreted as weak, $r \leq .19$; moderate, $r = .20$ to .34; strong, $r = .35$ to .49; and very strong, $r \geq .50$.

Analytical Tools

R Studio version 1.3 was used for the EFA and other complex analyses, IBM SPSS version 26 for descriptive analyses, and R, IBM SPSS and MS Excel version 16.4 for basic data manipulation and data cleaning. R packages used were PsychTools version 2.0.8 (Revelle, 2020)) for importing data, Careless version 1.1.3 for data quality assessment, Psych version 1.8.12 and GPArotation version 2014.1.1 for factor analysis, and sjPlot version 2.8.4 for data visualisation.

Results

Missingness Analysis

An item-level assessment of missingness was conducted across both the Normative Multiculturalism scale (NMS) and the criterion measures. All (100%) variables had missing entries, 25.3% of cases had at least one missing entry, and overall, there was 12.4% missingness at the item by subject-level. For the NMS only, missingness at the item by subject-level fell to 6.5%. The most common pattern was complete data for all items. The next most common patterns of missingness were attrition-related. 'Attrition' participants mainly exited the survey early, leaving incomplete blocks as opposed to skipping individual questions. Standardised bias, calculated as a percentage of standard error, was used to assess

whether results differed among 'attrition' participants (Collins et al., 2001). Standardised

bias was 7.6%, indicating that there was no substantial bias as a result of attrition.

Using Little's MCAR tests, missingness was assessed relative to the five participant

characteristics. The MCAR test result was significant overall (χ^2 [839, N = 202] = 960.963, p

<.05). When treated separately, individual characteristics were also significant (p <.05). An

assessment of bias and missingness suggests the data are MAR. On this basis EM imputation

was used to complete the missing data (Dong & Peng, 2013; Graham, 2009), with any out of

range results rounded to the nearest valid response.

Psychometric Properties

The psychometric properties of the item-set for the NMS-O measure were assessed

using a variety of statistical methods. Firstly, a correlation matrix was assessed using

Pearson's r. Corrected item-total correlations were ≥.30 (p ≤.05); evidence of sufficiently

strong relationships (De Vaus, 2002). There was no evidence of item redundancy—individual

inter-item correlations were moderate to strong (.20 to .40; M = 0.27) but none exceeded

.70. Items were sufficiently related, but not excessively (Briggs and Cheek, 1986; DeVon et

al., 2007). Secondly, Skew, Kurtosis and Shapiro-Wilk tests were run on the entire item set

(Appendix G), and histograms generated to assess floor and ceiling effects. Shapiro-Wilks

tests were all significant (p <.01) on an item by item basis, indicating the data were not

normally distributed (Mishra et al., 2019). However, there was no evidence of excessive skew

or Kurtosis (i.e., ≈3.00, ≈21.00, respectively; Gao, Mokhtarian & Johnston, 2008). The

majority of items were normal (between -1.00 and +1.00), ten items were moderately skewed

(<1.50). Although the distributions were not normal overall, skew was acceptable. Finally,

the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .88 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was

significant (χ^2 [1081] = 5886.69, p <.01). Sampling was adequate and there was sufficient

correlation in the data to justify an EFA (Howard, 2016; Hair et al., 2014).

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Several criteria were used to assess factor structures within the data. The Kaiser

criterion and Cattell scree test are widely cited but were discounted due to lack of support in

the literature. Applying the Cattell scree test to the results of a Principal Components

Analysis run in R yielded an estimate of six factors (at the 'elbow'; '*PC actual data*' in Figure

1). Applying Horn's method of resampling to the results of a Principal Components Analysis,

however, suggested the presence of just four factors ('*PC resampled data*' in Figure 1).

Parallel analysis, which is superior and is not vulnerable to overestimating factors when

using the eigenvalue method (Çokluk & Koçak, 2016; Dinno, 2009), also suggested six

factors ('*FA resampled data*' in Figure 1). Likewise, Velicer's MAP achieved a minimum of

0.01 with six factors, providing additional support for a 6-factor solution (Carpenter, 2018).

In contrast, VSS achieved a maximum score of .87 with three factors (Figure 2). However,

the 4-factor solution was only marginally worse at .84 (Revelle, 2020b; Revelle & Rocklin,

1979). Although several criteria point toward four- or 6-factor solutions they diverge from

the 3-factor solution suggested by prior research on NMC.

Figure 1   *Figure 2*

Factor Estimation: PC and PA ('FA')   *Factor Estimation: VSS Plot*
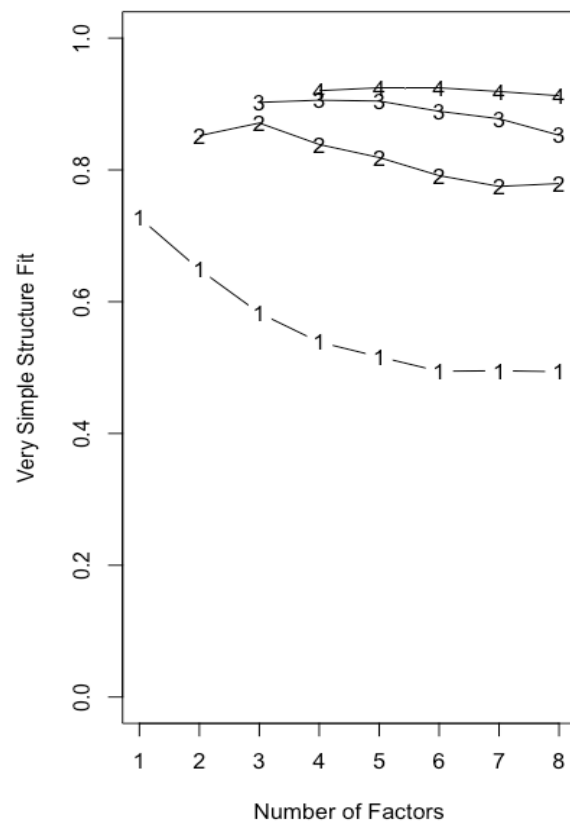
As a result of uncertainty during factor estimation, a series of parallel EFA were performed. These assessed 3-, 4-, 5- and 6-factor solutions, with item reduction done separately in order to find the solution of best-fit according to; (i) the proportion of variance explained; (ii) the number of items retained (from a practical standpoint); a (iii) comparative assessment of Cronbach's alpha; and (iv) a qualitative assessment of the factor item content. Using R, Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) and a Promax rotation were used—due to being more suitable than alternatives for relatively small sample sizes in which normality is violated (Carpenter, 2018). Further, the three theorised NMC factors are related and expected to correlate if found—Promax provides an enhanced level of differentiation among associated items while allowing factors to correlate (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Russell, 2002).

Initial Item-reduction

The psychometric properties of the entire item set were subject to an initial analysis and item reduction as appropriate. In addition to factor loading, inter-item correlations were reassessed, flagging items which featured multiple moderate to strong correlations (≥ 0.60) that may indicate repetitive or duplicate items. In case of duplication, the best item was retained according factor and cross-loadings, and a qualitative interpretation of the item content itself. Mean inter-item correlation was acceptable (.279; within the range of .20 - .40 recommended by Briggs and Cheek, 1986).

Corrected item-total correlations between individual items and the sum score of the remaining items were calculated for the whole scale. Only items with scores ≥ 0.30 were retained (De Vaus, 2002; Hair et al., 2014). Four items[2] were excluded on the following bases: An assessment of multicultural leadership was not anticipated for this study and participants may not have sufficient knowledge to determine ethnic representation among special projects they are not a part of. Finally, the reference to 'people' was ill-defined, and could be interpreted as either 'people in general' or people whose ethnicity differs from the

---

[2] *'Leadership positions are rarely held by people from cultural/ethnic minorities', 'ethnic minorities are under-represented in special project workgroups', 'employees are more likely to socialise in their own cultural/ethnic group', 'people from different cultural/ethnic groups are favoured'.*

participant. After initial reduction, iteration of the 3-, 4-, 5- and 6-factor options proceeded according to the '.40-.30-.20' item-retention rule (Howard, 2016). Cronbach's alpha was .943; acceptable (De Vaus, 2002; Hair, et al., 2014; Kline, 2015).

As will be seen later, none of the reverse scored items from the larger item-pool were retained after successive item reductions. Several authors have observed that the common logic of using reverse scored items to improve care among survey participants, and to improve quality, in practice leads to reduced scale reliability. Further, there is evidence that positively and negatively worded items may measure subtly different underlying concepts and constructs despite face similarity (Weems & Onwuegbuzie, 2001; Wymer & Alves, 2012).

Multi-solution Assessments

The 3-factor solution was reduced to 14-items (Table 1) accounting for a total of 52.82% of the total variance—eigenvalues: 4.72, 2.16, 1.81. To ensure a scale of practical length, the primary loading criterion was tightened to ≥.50. Three items showed evidence of repetition ('*our teams tend to be culturally/ethnically diverse*', '*most of our departments or working groups have multi-cultural/multi-ethnic staff*' and '*staff come from many different cultural/ethnic backgrounds*') (r = .61 to .62). On closer inspection, they measure distinct work group scales and they differentiate between a generally diverse organisation or one which has only pockets of ethnocultural diversity. Additionally, two items appeared to be thematically similar; however, they distinguish scenarios where contact takes place but may not occur frequently, versus those where contact is common ('*most people work with colleagues from different ethnic/cultural backgrounds*' and '*it is likely we will work daily with people from several different ethnicities/cultures*') (r = .55).

The 5-factor solution showed some merit on relaxing the loading criterion to .40 and subsequently reduced to 25-items, accounting for a total of 56.57% of the variance—eigenvalues; 7.12, 3.64, 2.39, 1.58, 1.46. A qualitative assessment of the factor-item clusters suggested additional factors named 'multicultural leadership' and 'multicultural socialising' (respectively, 8.01% and 7.52% of the variance). However, the current study lacked criterion measures for 'leadership' and it is not strictly speaking possible to validate this factor.

Moreover, on the 3-item 'leadership' factor, the item '*people from many ethnicities/cultures participate in the important decision-making'* remained vulnerable after relaxing the loading criterion. For most employees organisational decision-making may be a relatively opaque process. On consideration of these limitations the 5-factor solution was rejected from further analyses. Comparatively, the 3-factor solution offers a superior solution in terms of usability, being comprised of 14-items, and it achieved a stricter loading criterion.

The 4- and 6-factor solutions did not to meet the required loading criteria and the 'minimum number of three items per factor' criterion (Matsunga, 2008; Raubenheimer, 2004), and were excluded from further analyses. In particular, the item '*people from many ethnicities/cultures participate in the important decision-making'* was vulnerable. Temporarily relaxing the loading criterion in all solutions from .50 to .40 (which is adequate) extended the respective analyses. On relaxing this requirement subsequent iterations resulted in excessive cross-loading among items, then failure as a result of dropping below the minimum required items per factor.

Analysis of the item-factor clusters revealed themes in common with the national-level NMS. The first factor, named 'multicultural contact' (MC), consisted of 5 items describing contact with people from different cultural backgrounds in terms of team, department and organisational demographic composition, and frequency of contact. The second factor, named 'multicultural ideology' (MI), consisted of 4 items reflecting perceived normative endorsement of working with people from diverse cultural backgrounds, social harmony among people from diverse ethnicities, and fair treatment by managers/team leaders. The third factor, 'multicultural policy and practice' (MPP), consisted of 5 items describing the perceived extent to which organisational policies and resources are directed toward supporting or valuing ethnic diversity, and whether organisational practices are adapted to the specific needs of ethnic minorities. Cronbach's alpha for MC, MI and MPP indicated good internal reliability, and the item sets were not overly inclusive (α = .88, .77 and .81, respectively) (Carpenter, 2018; De Vaus, 2002; Hair, et al., 2014; Kline, 1999).

Table 1

NMS-O Factor Loadings and Descriptive Statistics (NZ)

Item	Content	MC	MI	MPP	*M*	*SD*
NMS07	Most people work with colleagues from different races/ethnicities	.81			3.98	1.06
NMS25	Staff come from many different racial/ethnic backgrounds	.81			4.09	1.09
NMS22	Most of our departments or working groups have multi-racial/multi-ethnic staff	.76			3.80	1.14
NMS19	Our teams tend to be racially/ethnically diverse	.75			3.71	1.20
NMS04	It is likely we will work daily with people from several different races/ethnicities	.73			4.09	1.10
NMS37	Most people believe it is good to be exposed to racially/ethnically diverse perspectives		.91		3.87	1.03
NMS11	Most people think working with other people from different racial/ethnic backgrounds is a good thing		.71		3.84	0.99
NMS14	Most people think it is important for people from different racial/ethnic backgrounds to get along with each other		.61		4.14	0.97
NMS40	Managers/team leaders treat employees of all races/ethnicities fairly		.50		4.16	1.06
NMS35	We sometimes have policy campaigns focused on racial/ethnic diversity and inclusion			.83	2.95	1.37
NMS32	We have events to showcase our multi-racial/multi-ethnic workforce			.68	2.83	1.41
NMS03	Workplace practices are often adapted to the specific needs of racial/ethnic minorities			.67	2.78	1.25
NMS46	We can easily access multi-racial/multi-cultural skills training or ethnic diversity training			.62	2.74	1.32
NMS38	We make provisions for racial/ethnic minorities' needs and traditional activities			.54	3.33	1.20

Note. MC, Multicultural Contact; MI, Multicultural Ideology; MPP, Multicultural Policy and Practice. Mc α = .88, MI α = .77, Mpp α = .81. Proportion of explained variances are 41%, 27% and 32% for MC, MI and MPP respectively. Cross-loadings smaller than .30 are suppressed.

Criterion Validity

On determining the optimal factor structure in the data the respective factors must be validated. Bivariate correlations between the three factors comprising NMC (MC, MI, MPP) and the criterion measures were calculated. Table 2 describes the predicted factor/criterion measure relationships. Relationships between the three factors were all statistically significant—from weak (MC and MI) ($r = .18$, $p < .01$) to moderate (MI and MPP) ($r = .25$, $p < .01$) then strong (MC and MPP) ($.40$, $p < .01$) (Table 3). On all counts, including the criterion measures, the relevant correlations were statistically significant ($p < .01$). As predicted, there were negative correlations between MI and Byrd's (2017) 'stereotyping-' and 'colour-blind socialisation' subscales. As the remaining a priori predictions were supported by the data, and correlations were of sufficient strength, convergent validity was judged acceptable on the relevant comparisons. Notably, not all of the predicted relationships were distinct. 'Quality of interaction' and 'frequency of interaction' more strongly correlated with MI than MC ($r = .53$ and $.52$, respectively, $p < .01$) ($r = .20$ and $r = .29$, respectively, $p < .01$). As anticipated, there was a strong negative correlation between colour-blind socialisation (CB) and MI ($r = -.37$, $p < .01$), but also a strong negative correlation between CB and MPP ($r = -.30$, $p < .01$). Finally, the 'empathic awareness' and 'organisational fairness' criterion measures for MPP were not distinct; they demonstrated stronger (moderate to very strong positive) correlations with MI, more so than with MPP ($r = .33$ and $.62$, respectively, $p < .05$) ($r = .24$ and $r = .20$, $p < .01$). Some degree of 'cross loading' is to be expected given the interrelatedness of contact and ideology, and ideology and policy and practice. In contrast, Diversity Management was indeed more strongly related to MPP than MI ($r = .67$ versus $.46$, respectively, $p < .01$).

Table 2

A Priori Predictions, Correlations and Overall Assessment (NZ)

Factor	Prediction	r	Distinctiveness	Assessment
MC	Moderate to strong positive correlations between MC and Byrd's (2017) 'quality of interaction' and 'frequency of interaction' subscales.	Moderate (.20 to .29)	No; strong correlation between criterion measures and MI.	Acceptable
MI	Moderate to strong positive correlations between MI and Stanley's (1996) 'appreciate pluralism' and 'value pluralism' subscales, and Wang et al.'s (2003) 'empathic acceptance' subscale.	Very strong (.54 to .57)	Yes.	Acceptable
	Moderate to strong negative correlations between MI and Byrd's (2017) 'stereotyping' and 'colour-blind socialisation' subscales.	Strong (-.37 to -.46)	Partial; similar strength correlation between Colour-blind Socialisation and both MI and MPP.	Acceptable
MPP	Moderate to strong positive correlations with Wang et al.'s (2003) 'empathic awareness' subscale, Mor Barak et al.'s (1998) 'organisational fairness' subscale and Pitts' (2009) Diversity Management Scale.	Moderate to Very strong (.20 to .67)	No; stronger correlations with MI, very strong correlation between Organisational Fairness and MI.	Acceptable

Note. Per **Planned Analyses**, Effect sizes used in these Studies are: weak, $r \leq .19$; moderate, $r = .20$ to $.34$; strong, $r = .35$ to $.49$; very strong, $r \geq .50$.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among NMC Subscales and Criterion Measures (NZ) (n =202)

Factor, construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	M	SD	α
1. Multicultural Contact	-													3.94	.92	.88
2. Multicultural Ideology	.18**	-												4.00	.78	.77
3. Multicultural Policy and Practice	.40**	.25**	-											2.93	.99	.81
4. Quality of interaction	.20**	.53**	.13	-										3.93	.64	.84
5. Frequency of interaction	.29**	.52**	.10	.85**	-									3.83	.67	.80
6. Appreciate pluralism	.00	.54**	.13	.37**	.30**	-								5.28	.90	.66
7. Value pluralism	-.01	.57**	.03	.32**	.23**	.74**	-							4.99	1.07	.88
8. Empathic acceptance	-.02	.39**	.07	.34**	.26**	.61**	.66**	-						5.11	.93	.84
9. Stereotyping	-.03	-.46**	-.17*	.46**	.40**	.26**	.24**	.17*	-					3.87	.84	.84
10. Colour-blind socialisation	-.03	-.37**	-.30**	.15*	.09	.28**	.33**	.27**	.24**	-				3.28	.91	.70
11. Empathic awareness	.15*	.33**	.24**	.36**	.31**	.05	.00	.07	.49**	.14*	-			4.53	1.00	.67
12. Organisational fairness	.15*	.62**	.20**	.50**	.52**	.39**	.30**	.26**	.51**	.25**	.48**	-		4.91	.96	.86
13. Diversity management	.27**	.46**	.67**	.30**	.23**	.33**	.29**	.17*	.29**	.36**	.35**	.36**	-	3.63	.92	.69

Note. * p < .05, ** p < .01.

Factor and associated criterion measures shaded.

Respective factor/criterion measure associations are highlighted.

Discussion

In Study One, the aims were to (i) construct a new scale for measuring NMC in the organisational context, to (ii) explore the scale's psychometric properties, then (iii) validate it according to criterion measures sourced from relevant literature on I/O psychology and multiculturalism. This construction formed a first phase of research before exploring the dimensions of NMC, a predicted structural model of NMC, and important organisational outcomes, including experiential variables relevant to employees.

On investigation, the psychometric properties of the data were acceptable to proceed with Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)—although skew was evident, it was not excessive. Initial determination of factor structures within the data was equivocal, however—between 3- and 6-factors according to a battery of tests. After applying an increasingly stringent item retention criterion, the scale reduced to 14-items, comprising 3-factors, with acceptable reliability. Interpretation of factor-item contents revealed the respective factors' meanings and dimensional boundaries mirrored those reported in the international studies (e.g., Stuart & Ward, 2019; Watters et al., 2020) (i.e., multicultural contact [MC], multicultural ideology [MI], and multicultural policy and practice [MPP]). For example, Diversity Management—e.g., characterised by *'managers/team leaders [who] work well with employees of different backgrounds'*—was more strongly related to MPP than MI—as observed by Stuart and Ward (2019). Further, the factors covary and the configuration mirrored that found at the national-level (Stuart and Ward, 2019). Therefore, the overall hypothesis that NMC is a relevant construct in the organisational context, and constructed of the same three factors observed by Stuart and Ward at the national-scale, was supported.

From a scale construction perspective, noteworthy item exclusions may be ascribed to interpretative differences in participants' personal concept of time relative to organisational tempo (e.g., what constitutes *'often'* when asked about the content of visual media), and also participants' access to organisational knowledge (e.g., when asked whether managers in fact receive relevant training to lead multi-ethnic teams). Evidently, not all organisational practices will be visible in a normative assessment, therefore their

contribution to organisational social norms may occur only infrequently or indirectly. In another example the item *'most people want to learn about the customs and heritage of different ethnic/cultural groups'* cross-loaded on both MC and MI. It may be difficult for people to differentiate between positive diversity valuing, as evidenced by consistent prosocial behaviours, and simple social niceties that accompany contact with others from diverse backgrounds.

During assessment of the criterion measures, the nature of the three factors were supported by evidence of convergent validity as predicted; however, several criterion measures did not correlate solely with the anticipated factor. First, 'frequency-' and 'quality of interaction' more strongly correlated with MI than MC. Research elsewhere shows that greater contact with diversity improves perceptions of diversity, due to reduced prejudice, among other mechanisms. (Gaertner et al., 1994; Schmid et al., 2014). In practice, 'mingling' between unlike people is at least in part driven by positive or negative views of others as embodied by MI. Both the distinction between and the relatedness of MC and MI are supported by the current study.

Secondly, among the MI associated criterion measures 'colour-blind socialisation' (CB) demonstrated a strong negative correlation with MI as predicted—but there was also a similar, strong negative correlation between CB and MPP. This result is in line with the wider literature. CB is fundamentally both an ideology and a practice whereby adherents believe that others should not be treated as unique according to their ethnic differences (Rattan & Ambady, 2013). Organisational policies and practices that value ethnic differences (i.e., MPP), therefore, are fundamentally opposed to CB as a means for managing ethnic diversity. MI and MPP measure distinct constructs which nonetheless interrelate.

Finally, although they provided evidence of criterion validity, Wang et al.'s (2003) 'empathic awareness' and Mor Barak et al.'s (1998) Organisational Fairness Scales were more strongly correlated with MI than MPP. Particularly for Organisational Fairness, the association with MPP was only moderate, whereas with MI the association was very strong. Wang et al.'s subscale assesses individual's awareness of systemic or institutional barriers

faced by ethnic minorities, while Mor Barak et al.'s scale assesses bias in leadership decision-making, policy interpretation and organisational hiring practices. Manager's and team leader's propensity to treat staff fairly regardless of ethnicity appears to be associated more so with managers' ideology than with organisational policy and practice. Further, whether MPP are judged 'fair' from a normative perspective should depend on the state of MI within the organisation.

The aims of the study were achieved, resulting in a robust Normative Multiculturalism Scale for Organisations (NMS-O) that nonetheless still requires testing in an alternative sample. Any patterns or conclusions inferred from the correlational matrices, being derived from a single-sample study are only indicative and thus, their generalisability may be limited without further validation. Even so, early indications suggest the 3-factor interpretation of NMC for organisations is valid, and the NMS-O may provide tools for both future research and a diagnostic capability to workplace practitioners.

Study Two: NMC and Organisational Outcomes

Introduction

In Study One, I developed a new Normative Multiculturalism Scale for Organisations (NMS-O)—the scale was validated using a selection of contemporary measures and demonstrated good reliability. Following these findings, two purposes are served by the second study. Firstly, to confirm whether the factor structure observed in Study One replicates in an independent sample (in this case from the United States) when using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA); therefore lending credence to the existence of the 3-factor model of NMC in the organisational context. Coupled with CFA, invariance testing may also indicate the extent to which the observed factor structure and response patterns hold across both ethnic majority and minority groups.

The second purpose of Study Two is to explore what NMC means for peoples' workplace experiences and outcomes relevant to organisational leaders. In addition to personal characteristics (age, gender, ethnicity, and ethnic majority/minority group status, and job-role), the survey includes the new 14-item NMS-O developed in Study One, and scales for measuring specific experiential and organisational variables (Table 4). Among these variables a causal model is proposed—such that the effects of NMC on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and turnover intention (Ti) (the outcome variables) are mediated by interpersonal trust (Tr), perceived threat (Pt) and organisational identification (OID) (Figure 3). The relationships between NMC, and the mediating and outcome variables will be tested using path analysis. The relevance of these variables in relation to both NMC, and organisational experiences and outcomes are described below.

Table 4

Constructs, Variables and Associated Authors (US)

Abbreviation	Role	Construct	Author	α
Tr	Mediating	Interpersonal Trust[3]	Spreitzer & Mishra (1999)	.93
Pt	Mediating	Perceived Threat[4]	Hofuis et al. (2015)	.77
OID	Mediating	Organisational Identification	Mael & Ashforth (1992)	.87
OCB	Outcome	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Lee & Allen (2002)	.83
Ti	Outcome	Turnover Intention	Mobley et al. (1978)	.94[5]

Figure 3

Hypothesised Path Model (Model A)

---
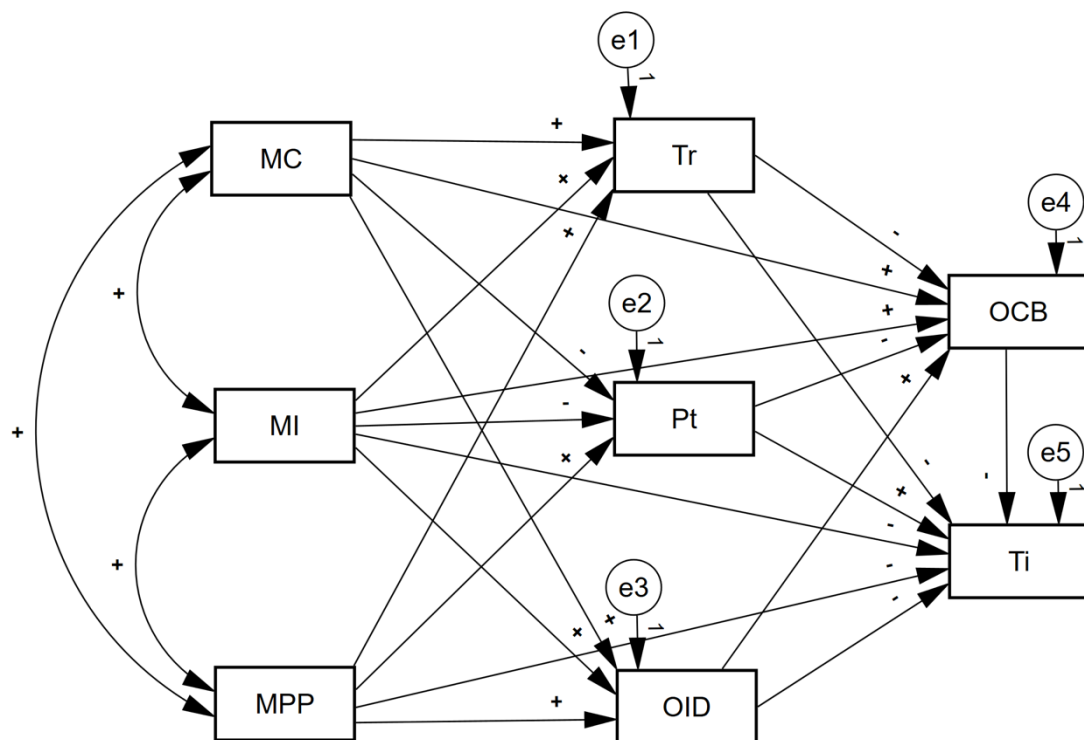
[3] Trust in others' openness and reliability in the workplace.
[4] Symbolic threat subscale.
[5] As validated by A'yuninnisa and Saptoto (2015).

Mediating Variables

Trust (Tr)

Among the national-level studies (e.g., Stuart and Ward, 2019) MI predicted greater generalised trust in others. In the organisational context, interpersonal trust (Tr) has both belief (affective and cognitive) and behavioural dimensions. It represents belief in others' good-faith efforts to behave in accordance with the commitments they make, to negotiate fairly, and not to take excessive advantage of opportunities to the detriment of others (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996). Borum (2010) reported that trust exists on a continuum, from distrust to complete trust, development of which depends on both specific evidence (e.g., observations) and also individual factors (such as a propensity to trust). Insofar as trust building depends in part on the opportunity to observe, the literature therefore suggests that MC is a necessary prerequisite condition for trust building among people from unlike ethnicities. Further, trust is characterised by parties' willingness to be vulnerable to others and this willingness is based on the belief they are; competent in their work; open to ideas; concerned with the needs of the others; and reliable insofar as they are consistent (Mishra, 1996). The relationship between MI and Tr is likely to be non-recursive, on the basis that trust is a necessary prerequisite for MI to grow, but this valuing of ethnic diversity and willingness to integrate is likely to engender greater Tr in turn—by virtue of greater contact between unlike people.

Trust is important when it comes to organisational outcomes: trust predicts lower interpersonal communication transaction costs (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996); better quality information sharing in general (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001); more frequent Organisational Citizenship (or prosocial) Behaviours (Colquitt, Scott & LePine, 2007); better task performance (Colquitt, Scott & LePine, 2007; Spreitzer & Mishra, 1999); and greater job satisfaction (Shockley-Zalaback, Ellis & Winograd, 2000). Spreitzer and Mishra (1999) point to trust as having a mediating role in interpersonal outcomes, with both a direct effect but also stronger indirect effects. For example, when greater trust leads to lower control by managers, and consequently greater decision latitude for employees, employee performance

and employee satisfaction tends to rise. Finally, Schaubroeck et al., 2013) observed a positive relationship between trust in peers and trust in leaders, and subsequent organisational identification (OID).

Trust, evidently, is inextricably interwoven with the three-factor interpretation of NMC, such that; (MC) contact and familiarity should engender greater trust, and (MI) positive valuing should also predict greater trust by virtue of positive valence in interpersonal relationships. However, the relationship between MPP and Tr is less certain. For diverse minority-groups, the presence of support in the form of MPP may be a limited blessing. An organisational environment marked by fair treatment of all employees regardless of ethnicity is likely to benefit all employees, not only employees from ethnic minorities—as ideals of fairness subsequently permeate organisational culture. Alternatively, the presence of MPP may stoke perceptions of threat among employees who consciously or unconsciously benefit from a status quo where MPP are not prevalent. Interaction effects involving MC, Tr and perceived threat (Pt) are, therefore, likely.

Perceived Threat (Pt)

Stuart and Ward (2019) observed that a positive association between MPP and Pt was dampened by MC and MI in the national-level studies. Perceived threats posed by 'others' in the societal context vary in nature—they may be linked to larger fears of personal death or physical collective annihilation, or rooted in more symbolic terms; fear of symbolic collective annihilation; fear due to past history of victimisation—according to the Multidimensional Existential Threat Model (Hirschberger et al., 2016). Threats may be realistic (physical, economic, status loss by in-groups) or symbolic (posed by diverse out-groups' beliefs, values or symbols) (per revised Integrated Threat Theory, Stephan et al., 2015). In turn, the factors that influence the extent threat might be primed among groups or individuals include; pre-existing intergroup conflict, strength of in-group identification, knowledge of out-groups and intergroup contact, and extant inequality between respective groups (Croucher, 2017). MPP may be perceived of as more threatening, particularly by ethnic majorities who stand to lose, or perceive loss of advantages and benefits, in turn generating prejudice. Indeed, Aquino and

Douglas (2003) observed that identity threats predicted more instances of antisocial behaviour in organisational settings.

Hirschberger et al. (2016) while investigating threat in political settings observed that existential threat is a perceptual phenomenon—threats need not be objectively present for people to perceive them. The normative perspective of Multiculturalism becomes doubly relevant, therefore, when individuals' subjective judgements of norms, and the social construction of norms by groups, may result in the perception of threats that are not verifiably real, but are impactful nonetheless. Notably, perceived 'realistic' threat according to the Integrated Threat Theory definition has not consistently predicted prejudice against ethnic or other minorities in international studies (Croucher, 2017). Instead, symbolic threat—or the perceived extent out-groups' beliefs, values or symbols appear to conflict with those of the in-group, or the status quo—better predicted prejudice and conflict.

In the organisational setting, the effects of heightened perceived threat are likely to exacerbate inter-group frictions, create inter-group conflict, and to prime protective in-group behaviours that are likely to result in the exclusion of 'others' (Hirschberger at al., 2016). Flow on effects then may result in greater turnover intention (Ti) among out-group members and reduced OCB between-groups, with negative implications for organisational performance. Perceived threat, specifically 'symbolic threat', is likely to impact both norms and individuals' views, but differently for people from ethnocultural majority and minority groups, for whom threats and benefits flow differently according to variation in MC, MI and MPP.

Organisational Identification (OID)

In the national-level studies on NMC (e.g., Stuart and Ward, 2019), a positive relationship between NMC and national attachment was observed, specifically between MI and MPP, and national attachment. National attachment refers to individuals' sense of national identity-alignment and belongness. In the organisational setting, Ashforth et al.'s (2008) model of OID refers to individuals' identification with collectives. In this model identification with the organisation results from a negotiation between individuals' sense of

core identity, and their values and feelings relative to cues (or norms) available in the organisational setting. This interpretation of social identity theory in OID is vital, as it reflects the extent we define ourselves as individuals not only internally, but also in reference to the organisations or social groups of which we are a part (Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

Ashforth et al. (2008) observed connections between OID and salient workplace outcomes, including lower turnover intentions and lower actual employee turnover, and greater cooperation and helping behaviours among employees. Likewise, Schuh et al. (2015) observed a relationship between high OID and greater incidence of OCB. Although high OID has been associated with positive outcomes, some negatives have been reported, such that high OID also predicts resistance to organisational change (Bouchikhi & Kimberly, 2003). Overidentification can result in automatic, sometimes misplaced trust in same- group members, therefore suppressing dissent (Dukerich et al., 1998). The implications for NMC are multiple and may differ for ethnic majority and minority groups. OID involves both assessments of alignment of values, and judgements about perceived outcomes (or perceived value to the individual) based on organisational cues. As a result, depending on variation in MC, MI and MPP, group status is likely to predict different potential outcomes, therefore different perceived value judgements among the respective groups. For example, in case OID is high, subsequently changing MPP may negatively affect OID if MPP cues differ to those among organisational norms. Conversely, previously disenfranchised ethnic groups' OID may rise in response to greater diversity valuing in the form of MI, or more positive MPP. The relationship between Tr, Threat and OID, therefore, is likely to be complex.

Notably, Organisational Commitment (OC) offers a common alternative to OID when interpreting employees' feelings of attachment. However, Edwards' (2005) attempted to draw a clearer distinction between OID and OC than has been present in past literature. In Edwards' interpretation, OC is best regarded as a composite of related variables, of which OID is one part, along with elements of OCB and turnover intention (Ti). Critically, Ashforth et al. (2008) observed that OID is organisation-specific, whereas 'commitment' is more easily generalised to other organisations. Separation of the respective variables provides the

ability to interpret them distinctly among the multifaceted relational model proposed for the NMS-O (Figure 3).

Organisational Outcomes

Evidence from the I/O psychology literature suggested causal paths between Tr, Pt and OID, and subsequent organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) and turnover intentions (Ti), further, evidence they substantively impact working experiences. To an extent they act as a gauge of organisational 'health', with financial and productivity implications, and consequent human capital costs for organisations (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; O'Connell et al., 2007).

Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB)

Organisational citizenship behaviour refers to employees' discretionary, prosocial behaviours which benefit peers and the organisation. Expressions of OCB include altruism (helping behaviour), contentiousness (or striving), civic virtue, fair play and courtesy (LePine at al., 2002). OCB is negatively correlated with anti-social behaviours such as organisational sabotage and interpersonal aggression (Spector & Fox, 2002). An environment characterised by OCB is high in trust and helping, and sees minimal gossip (e.g., Colquitt, Scott & LePine, 2007; McAllister, 1995). OCB in effect describes certain normative behaviours which in turn characterise healthy, effective work environments that benefit both employees and the organisation as a whole.

Further, insofar as OCB is predicted by perceptions of organisational justice (Organ & Ryan, 1995), work environments perceived of as fair are likely to see more OCB which benefit the organisation as a whole, not only OCB which benefit work colleagues—but when selecting prosocial behaviours individuals differentiate the recipients of their beneficial behaviours (Spector & Fox, 2002). Firstly, this means that depending on individual values versus organisational norms, OCB may flow unevenly depending on colleagues' ethnic majority or minority status—that is, although MI or Mpp may be low, individual valuing of diversity may result in OCB behaviours nonetheless flowing to ethnic 'others'. In contrast, high MI and MPP may result in low perceived justice in case of an individual-organisational mismatch in

values. The flow on effect is that, conceivably, higher Tr and OID, and higher OCB (which ostensibly should only result in positive outcomes) nonetheless may result in higher Ti among some employees. Patently, the relationships proposed in Figure 3 are complex, and further investigation is warranted.

Turnover Intention (Ti)

Salient causes and correlates of Ti are multiple. First, the literature has consistently observed a relationship between Ti and OCB, to the extent that employees withdrawal of discretionary behaviours signal a greater likelihood of turnover (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010; Tsai & Wu, 2010). Three further factors that lead to Ti are: Individuals' assessment of identity threats, and possible coping responses versus available social support (which may be provided by MPP) (per Petriglieri's, 2011, Theory of Identity Threat Response); and positive and negative perceptions of organisational culture (Jacobs, 2005). The association of perceived job threats and rising Ti has arisen consistently in the literature (e.g., Brougham & Haar, 2020). Thirdly, in a meta-analysis of the antecedents and correlates of employee turnover Griffeth et al. (2000) observed work-group cohesion as a distal determinant.

The common interpretation of Ti has high reliability, predicting actual turnover in follow-up studies around twelve months later, even in cross-cultural contexts (Kim et al., 2017; Mahdi et al., 2012; Sikora et al., 2015; Tsai & Wu, 2010). This common model of Ti is made up of three parts; dissatisfaction and intention to turnover, active searching for alternatives, and a short anticipated duration before exit. Insofar as NMC describes a workplace culture in terms of MC, MI and MPP, individual perceptions of the embodied organisational culture, and perceived individual-organisational match/mismatch are likely to determine Ti. Indeed, given the positive relationship between multiculturalism and social cohesion (e.g., Gozdecka et al., 2014; Hooghe et al., 2007; Watters et al., 2020), the relationship between group cohesion and Ti suggests likewise a causal relationship between NMC and Ti in the workplace. Nonetheless, as a wide range of individual and organisational variables are involved in individuals' turnover intentions (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et

al, 2000), the limited number of variables in the current study therefore can only explain partial variance in subsequent Ti.

Finally, the relationship between NMC and Ti is especially important when despite increasing ethnic diversity nationally, organisational diversity may instead decrease. In the United States, according to Blancero et al (2018) racial segregation appears to be increasing, less so due to organisational hiring choices and more so due to disparate turnover along ethnic grounds. Implicitly, hiring policies and practices intended to increase ethnic diversity may fail in the face of negative ethnocultural views (or negative MI), resulting in greater turnover despite the best of intentions among leadership cadres.

Methods

Participants and Procedure

Research approval was obtained from the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee (HEC ethics application number 28223). A sample of working adults (minimum age 18 years or older, working or working within the previous twelve-months) in the United States was sought via the Mechanical Turk (MTurk) crowdsourcing platform. Participants were required to have a track record of at least fifty successfully approved MTurk tasks. Eligible participants self-selected and were then screened by MTurk. Subsequently they were linked to an online survey maintained using the Qualtrics survey platform. The survey ran in August, 2020, and was open for two days until the required number of participants were recorded. Compared to Study One, the employment requirement was relaxed to twelve-months due to the survey taking place when the negative effects of the Covid-19 pandemic on employment were more severe in the United States. Participants were paid USD1 per survey, equivalent to USD4-6 per hour depending on completion time. Remuneration for this study was set at approximately twice the median rate of reward among MTurk tasks (Hara et al., 2018).

Of the original $n = 626$ responses, $n = 316$ (50.5%) participants were retained for the survey. On a conservative basis, one hundred and twenty one were excluded either due to failed attention checks or non-completion (i.e., answering only the demographic section or

wholly clicking through without responding). A further 189 were excluded as a result of

failing more rigorous quality assessment (indicated by Longstring and Averagestring indices,

Intra-individual Response Variability, Inter-item Standard Deviation; evidence of 'speeding'

or random answering; Costa & McCrae, 2008; Dunn et al., 2018; Marjanovic et al., 2015;

Trauzettel-Klosinksi & Dietz, 2012; Yentes & Wilhelm, 2018), or an assessment of duplicate

IP addresses, MTurk worker IDs and repetitious qualitative responses. Among the 316

participants retained for the survey, 43.7% identified as female, 55.7% as male, finally 0.6%

as gender diverse. The average age was 35.45 years (*SD* = 10.29) (range = 20-69 years). The

majority came from professional or managerial job-roles (64.2%). The majority were of

White or European descent (64.2%), while 35.8% identified as an ethnic minority.

Approximately one quarter (26.9%) of participants identified as belonging to an ethnic

minority in their organisation (i.e., '*most people here are different to me*').

Materials

The purpose of Study Two was to conduct theory-driven research, as opposed to

being a psychometric study. Accordingly, the materials differed substantively from those

used in Study One. In addition to collecting essential demographic information on the survey

participants, the survey contained the new NMS-O (Appendix H), along with measures

selected for the chosen mediating variables and outcome variables (Tr, Pt and OID, and OCB

and Ti, respectively) (Appendix E). As in Study One, block randomisation of the survey items

was used to minimise the effects of participant attrition on the results. Changes were made

to the introduction and debrief to reflect the revised study purpose and inclusion of

participants from the United States (Appendix A and Appendix F). Finally, how specific

ethnic groups were referred to in the demographic section was aligned with the improved

United States census design advocated by, among others, the United States Census Bureau

(Humes et al., 2015; Matthews et al., 2017) (Appendix B)

NMS-O. Comprised of 14-items, the NMS-O (Appendix H) was scored according to a

5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. Higher scores

indicate greater contact with diversity (MC), more positive diversity valuing (MI) and greater

incidence of diversity supporting policies and practices (MPP). For example, for MC, MI and MPP respectively; *'in my organisation...' 'it is likely we will work daily with people from several different races/ethnicities', 'most people believe it is good to be exposed to racially/ethnically diverse perspectives',* and *'we can easily access multi-racial/multi-cultural skills training or ethnic diversity training'.* Minor changes were made to the NMS-O as a United States-centric usage refers to *'race'* more so than *'ethnicity'* (e.g., Buchanan et al., 2016).

Mediating Variables. Three (experiential) variables were proposed for the path model. As appropriate, some items were reverse coded for analysis or rephrased (e.g., *'diversity causes friction between colleagues with different norms and values'* became *'racial/ethnic diversity causes friction between colleagues with different norms and values').*

Interpersonal Trust (Tr). Trust in others' openness and reliability were assessed using eight items by Spreitzer and Mishra (1999). The questions were retargeted from manager's subordinates to 'colleagues' in general (e.g., *'I trust that my colleagues...' 'are completely honest with me'*). Responses are given on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree;* higher scores indicate greater interpersonal trust).

Perceived Threat (Pt). Pt was assessed using three items derived from Hofhuis et al.'s (2015) Benefits and Threats of Diversity Scale. In their study 'symbolic threat' refers to one of several diversity-related threats in the workplace that are likely to induce fear. For this study the symbolic threat items from the larger Scale are reframed as 'perceived threat'. Participants were asked to *'indicate your level of agreement with the following statements',* for example, *'racial/ethnic diversity...' 'causes friction between colleagues with different norms and values'*) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *completely disagree* to 5 = *completely agree*; that higher scores indicate greater perceived threat).

Organisational Identification (OID). OID was assessed using Mael and Ashforth's (1992) reformulated model of OID. Six items were used, for example: *'When someone criticises my organisation, it feels like a personal insult'.* Responses are given on a

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*; higher scores indicate greater organisational identification).

Outcome Variables. Two outcome variables were proposed for the path model. As appropriate, some items were reverse coded for analysis or modified—for example, Mobley et al.'s (1978) scale was only slightly modified in keeping with changes evident among subsequent citations (e.g., '*I often think about quitting my present job*' becomes '*I often think about quitting my present organisation*', which precludes within-organisation shifts).

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). OCB was measured using five items derived from Lee and Allen's (2002) research. Participants were asked to '*indicate how well the following statements describe your behaviour at work…*', for example, '*I willingly give time to help others who have work related problems*' using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = never to 7 = always; higher scores indicate more frequent organisational citizenship behaviour).

Turnover Intention (Ti). Ti was measured using Mobley et al's (1978) widely cited scale. Participants were asked '*when thinking about your current workplace, please tell us about your intention to stay*', for example; '*I often thinking about quitting my present organisation*' (5-point Likert scale, from 1 = never to 5 = constantly) and '*as soon as possible, I will leave this organisation*' (5-point Likert scale; 1 = very unlikely to 5 = certain). Higher scores indicate participants are more likely to leave their current employer.

Planned Analyses

The overarching aims of the analyses are to (i) reconfirm model factor structure using an alternative test sample, (ii) conduct invariance testing (with specific interest in stability across research samples, and stability across ethnic majority and minority groups), and (iii) to test a theory-derived path model posited to describe the relationship between NMC and variables relevant in the organisational context.

Four phases of analyses were planned for Study Two: (1) a preliminary analysis including missingness assessment and data imputation, if justified; (2) CFA and goodness-of-fit testing, and invariance testing as appropriate; (3) assessment of bivariate correlations,

followed by (4) structural model testing. The first phase followed an identical procedure to that used in Study One. The remaining phases are described below.

(2) For CFA the factor and item structures will be specified, and the data transformed according to the Maximum Likelihood method. Goodness-of-fit is determined according to a consensus of results among; the Bentler Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), and a Steiger-Lind Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA) with a 90% confidence interval. The Chi-square (χ^2) goodness-of-fit test is discounted due to being vulnerable to false rejection where data are not normally distributed (Gao et al., 2008; Hooper et al., 2008). Successive hierarchical models are assessed according to scaled Chi-square difference tests (Satorra-Bentler, 2001, mean difference correction[6]). Configural, metric and scalar equivalence (or invariance) among the relevant comparisons should be determined according to a consensus of results among CFI, SRMR, RMSEA, and scaled Chi-square difference tests.

(3) Assessment of bivariate correlations, including mediating and outcome variables (Tr, Pt and OID, and OCB and Ti, respectively) and NMC factors, will be done according the results of a correlational matrix. As in Study One, the standard for assessing the relative strength of Pearson's r correlations is; weak, $r \leq .19$; moderate, $r = .20$ to $.34$; strong, $r = .35$ to $.49$; very strong, $r \geq .50$.

(4) During Path Analysis the theory driven structural model (Model A) will be tested in IBM AMOS, then using alternate pathways as indicated by a combination of modification indices and alternative interpretations of I/O theory should Model A prove unacceptable. Of interest are; (i) model fit according to the goodness-of-fit indices described previously, (ii) presence of statistically significant path relationships ($p = \leq .05$), (iii) evidence of direct and indirect effects, and total effects, finally, (iv) the percentage of variance which is explained by

---

[6] A Satorra-Bentler (2001) 'mean difference correction' addresses the propensity for uncorrected Chi-square difference tests to over-reject models when the data distribution is not normal (as they are in these Studies) (Pavlov, Shi & Maydeu-Olivares, 2020).

the respective pathways and associated variables. As the organisational context is complex, the percentages of explained variance are expected to be modest.

Analytical Tools

R Studio version 1.3 was used for the CFA and other complex analyses, IBM SPSS version 26 for descriptive analyses, R, IBM SPSS and MS Excel version 16.4 for basic data manipulation and cleaning, and IBM Amos version 26 for the Path Analysis. R packages used were: psychTools version 2.0.8 for importing data; Careless version 1.1.3 for data quality assessment; Lavaan version 0.6-4 for factor analysis; SBSDiff 0.1.0 for computing the Satorra-Bentler scaled Chi-squared difference test; and Knitr version 1.23 for generating reports. G*Power version 3.1.9.6 was used to calculate post hoc power based on sample size.

Results

Missingness Analysis

Of n = 316 participants, the majority (98.9%) completed the survey in full. As there was no substantial evidence of attrition among participants (≤ 1.1%), standardised bias was not tested. Most variables (72.9%) had missing entries; 6.9% of cases had at least one missing entry, and overall there was 1.1% missingness at the item by subject-level. The most common pattern was complete data for all items. The second most common was missingness due to attrition as n = 3 participants exited after completing only the NMS-O items.

Using Little's MCAR tests, missingness was assessed relative to the five participant characteristics. Taken together, Little's test was not statistically significant (χ^2 [1146, N = 316] = 1107.262, p = .789), nor were statistically significant results obtained when treating participant characteristics separately (p >.05). Missingness was MCAR. There was no observable relationship between missingness and either observed or unobserved covariates. On this basis EM imputation was used to complete the data (Dong & Peng, 2013; Graham, 2009). Any out of range results were rounded to the nearest valid response.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFA was run in R using a Promax rotation. Per the results of Study One, three factors featuring fourteen items altogether were specified. A single-factor item-level test model

exhibited poor model fit according to the battery of goodness-of-fit indices (Model 1; Table 5). Fit indices for the 3-factor solution (Model 2) were acceptable: χ^2/df ratio was acceptable (2.63), as were CFI (.97), SRMR (.05), RMSEA (.05, 90% CI [.04-.06]) (Hooper et al., 2008). The results of the corrected Chi-square difference test (Model 1 to Model 2) were also significant. As in Study One, all three factors demonstrated acceptable internal reliability (MC, α = 87; MI, α = 74; MPP, α = 82) (De Vaus, 2002; Hair, et al., 2014; Kline, 1999). Among the US sample, 50.98% of the total variance was explained by the 3-factor solution. The structural model, standardised item loadings and factor covariances resulting from the CFA are illustrated in Figure 4. The 3-factor model of Normative Multiculturalism in organisations evident in the New Zealand-based EFA was likewise observed in the United States-derived sample.

Figure 4

Final NMS-O Structural Model, Standardised Item Loadings and Covariances
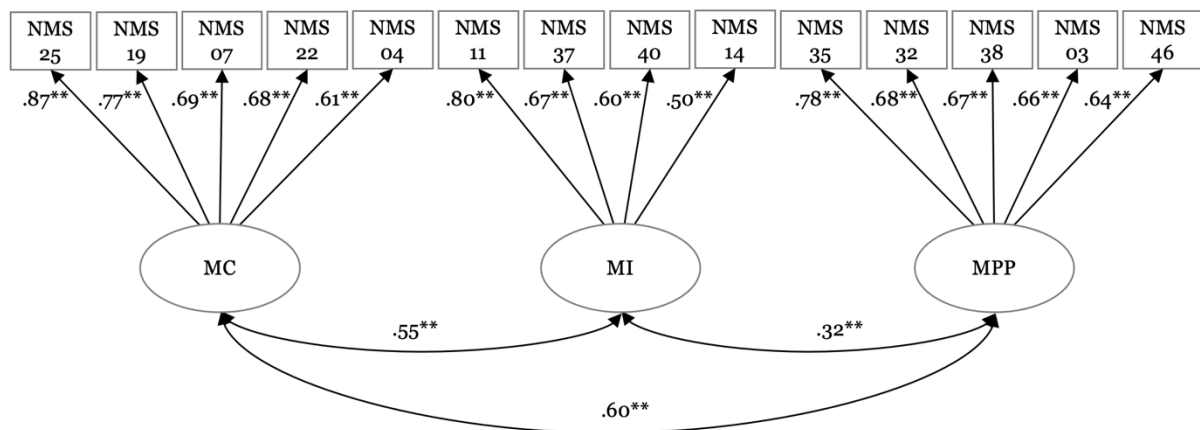
Note. ** p <.01.

Invariance Testing

Multi-group invariance testing compared first the New Zealand and United States samples, followed by the United States ethnic majority/minority group samples. In the first comparison there was evidence of configural, metric and scalar invariance between the New Zealand and United States samples. Although there was face evidence of lessening fit (the modified Chi-square difference test results were significant, *p* <.05), the χ^2/df ratio remained

acceptable down to the scalar-level (2.30), as did scores for CFI (.94), SRMR (.07) and RMSEA (.07, 90% CI [.06-.08]). The results were similar when comparing within the United States sample the responses made by ethnic majority and minority group participants. Although the χ^2/df ratio (1.74) fell below the recommended range (2.0 to 5.0; Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008), the remaining goodness-of-fit indices were acceptable at the scalar level (CFI = .93; SRMR = .08; RMSEA = .07, 90% CI [.06-.08]). The Chi-square difference test results, scaled using the Satorra-Bentler (2001) mean difference correction, were all significant (p >.05) when progressing from model 1 through to model 3. As the remaining goodness-of-fit indices are more robust, the model was not respecified to improve χ^2/df (Table 5). Invariance testing indicates the underlying constructs (MC, MI, MPP) hold across comparison groups, latent constructs are represented by the same observable variables across the comparisons groups, and comparison groups provide substantively the same mean response scores on the latent constructs (Fischer & Karl, 2019; Tracey & Xu, 2017).

Bivariate Correlations

An assessment of correlations between the respective factors and the mediating and outcome variables using Pearson's r yielded no significant relationships based on age, gender or job-role differences. There was no significant variation among either MC, MI and MPP, nor the mediating or outcome variables according to (a) ethnic majority/minority group membership relative to national demographics. However, significant variation was observed along the lines of (b) participants' ethnic majority/minority group status relative to organisational demographics (i.e., Tr, Pt, OID, Ti), and (c) participant's group status insofar as their ethnic status at both national- and organisational-levels aligned (i.e., Pt and Ti) (Table 6). There were strong correlations between MC-MI (r = .49, p = <.01), MI-MPP (r = .28, p = <.01) and MPP-MC (r = .54, p = <.01). Finally, MC and MPP correlate with all other variables in the model, and MI correlated with most of the proposed mediating variables.

Table 5

Fit Indices and Invariance Testing (Model Testing, NZ vs US, and US Ethnic Majority/Minority) (n = 316)

Model	χ^2	df	$\chi2/df$	CFI/SRMR	RMSEA [90% CI]	Comparison	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δdf	p
Confirmatory Factor Analysis									
Model 1 (single-factor)	502.39**	77	6.52	.75/.10	.13 [.12-.14]	-	-	-	-
Model 2 (three-factor)	130.59**	74	2.63	.97/.05	.05 [.04-.06]	Model 1, Model 2	814.17	3	<.01
Multi-group models NZ/US									
Model 1 (Configural invariance)	320.36*	148	2.16	.95/.06	.06 [.05-.07]	-	-	-	-
Model 2 (Metric invariance)	343.73*	159	2.16	.95/.07	.06 [.05-.07]	Model 1, Model 2	23.37	11	<.05
Model 3 (Scalar invariance)	390.17**	170	2.30	.94/.07	.07 [.06-.08]	Model 2, Model 3	46.45	11	<.01
Multi-group models US (Majority/minority)									
Model 1 (Configural invariance)	274.01**	148	1.85	.93/.08	.07 [.06-.08]	-	-	-	-
Model 2 (Metric invariance)	287.88**	159	1.81	.93/.08	.07 [.06-.08]	Model 1, Model 2	13.87	11	>.05
Model 3 (Scalar invariance)	296.41**	170	1.74	.93/.08	.07 [.06-.08]	Model 2, Model 3	8.53	11	>.05

Note. * p < .05, ** p < .01; uncorrected χ^2 test.

CFI = Comparative fit index.

SRMR = Standardised root mean square residual.

RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation. [90% CI] confidence interval for RMSEA.

Table 6

Correlations Among Ethnic Group Status, NMC and Mediating and Outcome Variables (US) (n = 316)

Variable, factor, outcome measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	*M*	*SD*	*α*
1. Status_dem	-											1.36	.48	-
2. Status_org	.43**	-										1.27	.44	-
3. Status_min	.63**	.80**	-									1.19	.39	-
4. Multicultural contact	.06	-.04	-.05	-								3.83	.81	.87
5. Multicultural ideology	.01	-.11	-.07	.49**	-							3.96	.67	.74
6. Multicultural policy & practice	.09	-.13*	-.15**	.54**	.28**	-						3.52	.89	.82
7. Trust	.08	-.16**	-.10	.42**	.53**	.47**	-					5.37	.99	.91
8. Perceived threat	-.05	.25**	.25**	-.17**	-.01	-.52**	-.22**	-				2.71	1.02	.84
9. Organisational identification	.09	-.16**	-.12*	.35**	.34**	.57**	.60**	-.48**	-			3.68	.84	.86
10. Organisation citizenship behaviour	.08	-.12*	-.08	.32**	.45**	.36**	.58**	-.35**	.61**	-		5.42	.89	.79
11. Turnover intention	.02	.27**	.31**	-.13*	.05	-.35**	.04	.53**	-.02	-.09	-	2.90	1.26	.90

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Status_dem = participant ethnic majority/minority status relative to national demographics. Majority $n = 203$, minority $n = 113$.

Status_org = participant ethnic majority/minority status relative to organisational demographics. Majority $n = 231$, minority $n = 85$.

Status_min = participant ethnic majority/minority status relative to both national and organisational demographics. No $n = 256$, Yes $n = 60$.

Highlighted cells denote where sample size was sufficient at the recorded effect size according to post hoc power analysis using G*Power (power ≥.80, $p = .05$).

Path Analysis

To explore the relationships between the respective NMC factors, and the mediating variables and outcome variables, first the hypothesised structural model was specified (Model A) (Figure 3) then analysed using IBM AMOS. Up to 2000 bootstrap samples were run. A covariance matrix of the respective variables was generated using Maximum Likelihood estimation. Model A failed the battery of goodness-of-fit indices and was rejected (χ^2/df = 21.4, CFI = .49, SRMR = .2, RMSEA = .26 [90% CI .24-.27) (Table 8).

An alternative 'empirical' model was tested using a hybrid theory/data driven approach. The model was firstly fully saturated, then alternative but theoretically plausible pathways tested in reference to modification indices generated in IBM AMOS. Accordingly, theoretical bases and statistical significance testing determined what paths should be removed. The resulting Model B (Figure 5) was acceptable according to the majority of goodness-of-fit indices (CFI = .99, SRMR = .02, RMSEA = .04 [90% CI .00-.08], and exhibited superior fit when compared to Model A (p <.01) (Table 8). Moreover, the path model was invariant when the results were controlled for ethnic majority/minority group status relative to organisational demographics (Status_org) and when they were controlled for ethnic group status as it aligned with both national and organisational demographics (i.e., from a national ethnic minority and an ethnic minority in the organisation) (Status_min) (see Table 8).

As expected, MI exerted a direct effect on OCB and indirect effects—mediated by Tr and Pt—on both OCB and turnover intentions. Similarly, MPP directly predicted lower Ti and indirectly predicted both weaker Ti and stronger OCB through the same mediators. Also in line with the hypothesized model, MPP had a direct positive path to OID, which, in turn resulted in stronger OCB and weaker TI. Contrary to the hypothesized model, MC did not significantly predict either the mediator variables or the organizational outcomes. Finally, the modification indices identified significant paths from both Tr and Pt to OID, which, in turn, affected the outcome measures (Table 7).

Table 7

Factor/Variable Relationships; their Standardised Direct, Indirect and Total Effects (US)

Factor/variable	Relationship	β direct	β indirect	β Total	SE	R^2
MI	MI->Tr	.43	-	.43	.07	18.5%
	MI-->Pt	.15	-	.15	.08	2.3%
	MI-->OID	-	.15	.15	-	2.3%
	MI-->OCB	.21	.13	.34	.06	11.6%
	MI-->Ti	-	.15	.15	-	2.3%
MPP	MPP->Tr	.35	-	.35	.05	12.3%
	MPP->Pt	-.56	-	-.56	.06	31.4%
	MPP->OID	.23	.30	.53	.05	28.1%
	MPP->OCB	-	.34	.34	-	11.6%
	MPP->Ti	-.29	-.11	-.39	.08	15.2%
Mediating	Tr->OID	.44	-	.44	.04	19.4%
	Tr->OCB	.25	.14	.39	.05	15.2%
	Tr->Ti	-	.18	.18	-	3.2%
	Pt->OID	-.26	-	-.26	.04	6.8%
	Pt->OCB	-.14	-.08	-.23	.04	5.3%
	Pt->Ti	.58	-.11	.47	.06	22.1%
	OID->Ti	.42	-	.42	.08	17.6%
	OID->OCB	.32	-	.32	.06	10.2%

Note. All relationships significant $p < .01$. MI = Multicultural Ideology, MPP = Multicultural Policy and Practice, Tr = Interpersonal Trust, Pt = Perceived Threat, OID = Organisational Identification, OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Ti = Turnover Intention.

Figure 5

Empirical Path Model (Model B) (Standardised estimates)
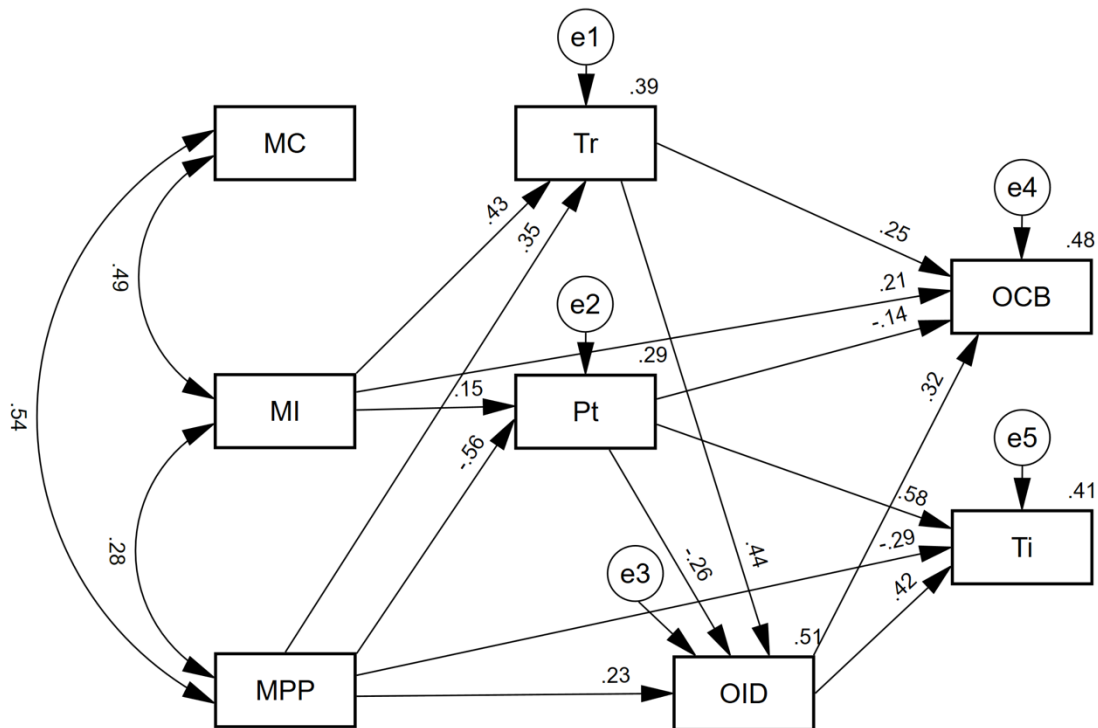
Note. All paths significant, *p* <.01.

Table 8

Best Fit Models Describing NMC, Mediating Variables and Organisational Outcomes (US) (n = 316)

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI/SRMR	RMSEA [90% CI]	Comparison	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p
Path Analysis (aggregate groups)									
Model A (hypothesised)	557.13**	26	21.43	.49/.22	.26 [.24-.27]	-	-	-	-
Model B (empirical)	17.32**	11	1.57	.99/.02	.04 [.00-.08]	Model 1, Model 2	539.81	15	<.01
Multi-group models (Status_org)									
Model 1 (Configural invariance)	33.99*	22	1.55	.99/.03	.04 [.00-.07]	-	-	-	-
Model 2 (Metric invariance)	77.57**	36	2.16	.96/.04	.06 [.04-.08]	Model 1, Model 2	43.58	14	<.01
Model 3 (Scalar invariance)	89.49**	42	2.13	.96/.05	.06 [.04-.08]	Model 2, Model 3	11.92	6	>.05
Multi-group models (Status_min)									
Model 1 (Configural invariance)	32.16^{ns}	22	1.46	.99/.03	.04 [.00-.07]	-	-	-	-
Model 2 (Metric invariance)	83.85**	36	2.33	.96/.04	.07 [.05-.08]	Model 1, Model 2	51.69	14	<.01
Model 3 (Scalar invariance)	99.09**	42	2.36	.95/.04	.07 [.05-.08]	Model 2, Model 3	15.24	6	<.05

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *ns* = not significant; uncorrected χ^2 test.

CFI = Comparative fit index.

SRMR = Standardised root mean square residual.

RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation. [90% CI] confidence interval for RMSEA.

Discussion

The twin purposes of the second study were to confirm whether the factor structure observed in Study One was evident in an alternative sample— therefore lending credence to the existence of the 3-factor model of NMC in the organisational context. That is, NMC comprised of multicultural contact (MC), multicultural ideology (Mi), and multicultural policy and practice (MPP). Invariance testing measured the observed factor structure and participant response patterns on the NMS-O. Secondly, path analysis was used to explore what NMC means for peoples' workplace experiences and outcomes relevant to organisational leaders. Five mediating and outcome variables were selected as being associated in the literature with the respective constructs described by NMC, and as important in the organisational context. These mediating and outcome variables were interpersonal trust (Tr), perceived threat (Pt) and organisational identification (OID), and organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) and turnover intention (Ti), respectively.

The 3-factor interpretation of NMC observed in Study One was detected again among the United States-derived sample. The national-level findings (e.g., Stuart and Ward, 2019) were reflected as the constructs MC, MI and MPP were substantively the same in terms of their meanings and definitional boundaries. The composition of the 14-item NMS-O was stable and reliable. The 3-factor model overall was remarkably stable, achieving scalar invariance in both New Zealand- and United States-based samples. The underlying constructs (MC, MI, MPP) held across comparison groups, the latent constructs were represented by the same observable variables, and comparison groups provided substantively the same mean response scores on the latent constructs. As approximately half of observed variance in the responses given by participants was explained by the model, the 3-factor interpretation of NMC appears substantive in the organisational context.

Subsequently, bivariate correlations revealed an unexpected pattern whereby there were no significant correlations between ethnic majority/minority group status relative to national demographics and any of the mediating or outcome variables—however, there were significant relationships with respect to the variables according to ethnic status relative to

organisational demographics. That is say, participants who identified as an ethnic minority were not always among the ethnic minority in their workplace and it was the latter relationship that proved significant. Accordingly, organisational-minority status predicted lower Tr and OID, greater Pt, and ultimately greater Ti. This suggests that, first, minority status relative to organisational demographics is the more important metric, and secondly the research provides evidence for practitioners that ethnic minorities are at particular risk of turnover when NMC is low.

Path analyses were used to measure the extent that the effects of NMC (comprised of MC, MI and MPP) on OCB and Ti are mediated by Tr, Pt and OID. However, the hypothesised model failed according to the battery of goodness-of-fit indices. Instead, a more nuanced structural model resulted from a hybrid theory/data driven approach to testing the theoretically plausible pathways. The final empirical model (Model B) achieved acceptable goodness-of-fit and aligned with the psychological theory. Subsequently, for MC there were no direct or indirect effects on any of the variables except to the extent MI and MPP covary with MC. Similarly, Ward et al. (2019), observed in their study on Korean immigrants' experiences in New Zealand that MC did not directly affect belongingness. The result aligns with the valenced interpretation of Contact Theory (Gaertner et al., 1994), which posits that the nature of contact, not contact alone, influences the outcomes of inter-group contact. In that context, MI and MPP represent positive valences.

Significant results in path analyses infer causal pathways, within limits of interpretation (Pearl, 2010). Subsequently, MI and MPP had measurable effects on all of the remaining variables. Among the mediating variables, MI predicts greater Tr. In turn, MPP predicts greater Tr and OID, and lower Pt. The direct effects ranged from moderate to very strong. Among the outcome measures, the main effects on OCB arose from greater Tr, followed by MI, MPP. In turn, the main effect on Ti comes from Pt. In contrast, MPP predicts lower Ti. These findings were predicted in the main. NMC evidently predicts more favourable organisational outcomes in terms of greater incidence of OCB and lower Ti.

In contrast to the literature (Ashforth et al., 2008), however, OID predicted higher Ti. This result seems perverse insofar as OID signals high individual-values/organisational-norms congruence—i.e., congruence between individual-values and norms as represented by MI and MPP. As the overall effect of NMC on Ti is negative, therefore the effect of OID on Ti may arise due to other psychological factors. As to the first of these, Ashforth at al. (2008) observed that complex organisations may contain multiple identities, and several may be available for individuals to associate themselves with. Should one of these identities be at odds with the prevailing social norms represented by MI, this is likely to result in greater turnover among a minority of employees for whom MI is incongruent (i.e., as a result of person-organisation mis-fit; Chang et al., 2021). Further, notwithstanding individuals' positive views on ethnic diversity, the stimulus of organisational change, resulting in job stress, is likely also to engender greater Ti (Yin-Fah et al., 2010). Indeed, a positive association between Mi and subsequent Pt was observed, albeit a small effect. High OID also results in greater resistance to organisational change (Bouchikhi & Kimberly, 2003). Such resistance might temporarily exacerbate intergroup tensions, such that an increase among employees' stress results in greater Ti. Elsewhere in the literature higher OID may predict greater Ti depending on employee's hierarchical level within the organisation (Cole & Bruch, 2005). As a result, job-role represents a possible confounding factor, but one beyond the scope of these studies. Finally, ethnic minority status reportedly predicts turnover when coupled with underrepresentation (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Notwithstanding positive valuing in the form of MI and MPP, underrepresentation in leadership and decision-making may still lead to greater Ti among ethnic minorities.

Finally, the results of Study Two suggest two future avenues of research. The first relates to the use of Hofhuis et al.'s (2015) conceptualisation of 'symbolic threat' as a representative of Pt. In Hofhuis et al.'s model, threat is defined in terms of four subdimensions, of which 'symbolic threat' is one. Revealed in that research were very strong positive relationships between (1) symbolic threat and (2) intergroup anxiety and (3) perceived threats of productivity loss. The relationship between symbolic threat and (4)

'realistic threat' was less strong, though, indicating a distinction among the constructs. In Hofhuis et al.'s determination, realistic threats involve potential losses which may be physical, economic or loss of status. In the organisational context, realistic threats should be more acute than symbolic threats that pertain to others' values or beliefs. For example, Brougham & Haar (2020) reported a positive association between perceived job threat (a realistic threat) and Ti. Excluding realistic threat from the current study represents a limitation that future research might remedy.

The second potential research avenue arose while assessing likely factor structures within the data. Observed was some evidence of a 5-factor solution composed of MC, MI, MPP, and Multicultural Leadership and Multicultural Socialising. The 5-factor solution offered the prospect of explaining a greater proportion of variance. However, this study lacked criterion measures for 'leadership' and this possible configuration could not be tested. Even so, leadership may be an important factor by virtue of how close organisational leaders and other organisational members are, relative to relationships with national-level leaders. In a study on the effects of national leadership on national economic growth, there was evidence that leaders with autocratic power were able to exert more influence than leaders in a democratic context (Jones & Olken, 2005). Organisational leaders wield a degree of autocratic power, meanwhile profitability incentives are likely to drive pragmatic decision-making intended to provide access to a wider pool of workers, therefore lowering labour costs and improving access to skills. Additionally, leadership may seek to ensure workers' environments are harmonious, therefore conducive to productivity (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001), and also to reduce turnover (e.g., Anjum et al., 2018). Leadership incentives are likely to differ between national and organisational contexts. Future research might explore the extent a 5-factor model incorporating Multicultural Leadership better explains NMC in the workplace.

Notwithstanding scope for further research, the current study found evidence of the 3-factor model of NMC in the organisational context. Further, the status of NMC in an organisation appears to be a substantial driver behind important organisational outcomes,

not to mention experiences that employees find salient in their day-to-day work. Evidently, by enhancing MI and MPP, practitioners can positively influence OCB and reduce turnover intentions, while building a sense of greater interpersonal trust among employees—a case of mutual benefit.

General Discussion

The current studies drew on a 3-factor model of Normative Multiculturalism (NMC) posited as best describing the nature and effects of multiculturalism in the national context than available alternatives. In Stuart and Ward's (2019) model, NMC is described in terms of (MC) community heterogeneity and inter-ethnic contact, (MI) characteristic diversity-valuing and willingness to integrate, and finally, (MPP) the presence of policies and practices that support cultural maintenance and participation. Based on studies carried out in New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States, at the national- or societal-level, significant and meaningful relationships between NMC, interpersonal trust, perceived threat and individuals' national identification were identified empirically (Watters et al., 2020; Stuart & Ward, 2019). Observed were increments in social cohesion as a result of NMC (Watters et al., 2020), in contrast to fears that multiculturalism might lead to societal breakdown. However, whether this model generalised or behaved in the same manner at the finer scale of workplace organisational structures had not been determined. Due to increasing ethnic diversity in modern workplaces, the importance of understanding the influence of multiculturalism on employee experiences and organisational outcomes is increasingly recognised.

In Study One I used Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to investigate the psychometric properties of a sample dataset derived from participants in New Zealand. A new Normative Multiculturalism Scale for Organisations (NMS-O) was successfully constructed and validated relative to a selection of appropriate criterion measures. The new scale was remarkably stable across samples taken from New Zealand and later from the United States in Study Two. Path analyses during the latter study found support for the

hypothesis that NMC would effect organisationally relevant outcomes—namely organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) and turnover intentions (Ti)—as mediated by interpersonal trust (Tr), perceived threat (Pt) and organisational identification (OID). In turn, in what is implicitly a causal model, the effects of NMC and the associated constructs (particularly MC, MI and MPP) held for people from both ethnic majority and ethnic minority groups in the United States.

During the research, several important patterns were observed in the data collected, particularly in Study Two. The first among these patterns was the distinction between contact with ethnic diversity versus quality of contact. It was apparent from the wider literature that contact with ethnic diversity was often inferred based on the demographics of the particular frame of reference—that is, national or organisational demographics (e.g., Diversity Climate models; Goyal & Shrivastava, 2013; Workplace Multiculturalism; Jackson & Van de Vijver (2018). In theory, though, societal level demographics which are diverse may bely segregation between inter-ethnic groups (e.g., Berry, 1984; Berry & Sam, 2016). It followed that this same pattern might occur at an organisational level. Along this line, Blancero et al. (2018) observed that ethnic segregation is increasing in workplaces in the United States—despite rising ethnic diversity nationally (O'Brien et al., 2015). NMC promotes instead a normative assessment of contact, or a measure of individuals' views of how common contact with ethnic diversity is in practice. However, observed in the data derived in Study Two, there was no direct effect of MC on any of the mediating or outcome variables, except so far as MC covaried with MI and MPP. Both MI and MPP characterise social norms where people hold positive views on ethnic diversity and inter-ethnic interaction, and ethnic minorities' needs are accommodated. The current research, therefore, provided support for the valenced interpretation of contact/inter-group relations where contact alone does not adequately explain inter-group outcomes. Contact is a necessary precondition, but quality of contact, specifically positive contact, leads to more positive inter-group outcomes.

The second important distinction observed was between ideology, and policy and practice (or MI and MPP). Among alternative models for interpreting multiculturalism in the workplace, these constructs were not always distinct, or 'policy' might be conceived of simply as an individual-level phenomenon. Because of extensive legal frameworks that effect labour markets at a high level, and organisational practices at operational levels, policy cannot be ignored. In the current research, a noteworthy pattern arose whereby 'organisational fairness' correlated more strongly with MI than for MPP. Mor Barak et al.'s (1998) Organisational Fairness Scale assessed bias in leadership decision-making, policy interpretation and organisational hiring practices (e.g., '*managers/team leaders have a track record of hiring and promoting employees objectively, regardless of their ethnicity/culture*'). As observed in Study One, manager's and team leader's propensity to treat staff fairly regardless of ethnicity appears to be more strongly linked with ideology than with organisational policies. Implicitly, policy changes intended to see workers treated more fairly are alone unlikely to achieve the desired outcomes unless accompanied by positive changes in normative ideology within the organisation. The 3-factor interpretation of NMC, in turn the NMS-O in which MI and MPP are distinct, effectively distinguishes the outcomes of these separate dimensions.

Finally, an unanticipated pattern emerged whereby ethnic status relative to national demographics saw no significant relationships between the NMC, nor the respective moderating and outcome variables. Instead, participants ethnic majority/minority status relative to organisational demographics predicted Tr, Pt, OID and subsequent Ti. These findings suggest that future research should ensure that when exploring ethnicity and organisational phenomena, that not only national demographics but ethnicity relative to organisational demographics should be considered.

Separately, this research uncovered strong negative correlations between Colour-blind Socialisation (CB) and MI, and CB and MPP. Although CB is presented by proponents as an effective strategy for managing diversity—by minimising the importance of differences and emphasising similarities (Gnanakumaran, 2012; Rattan & Ambady, 2013)—empirically,

we see further evidence such that CB is associated with more negative multicultural views and practices. Workplaces characterised by CB ideology are likely to see greater discrimination against employees from minority ethnocultures, despite the best of intentions. These findings provide additional support for the preferential application of multiculturalism as a strategy for managing ethnic diversity in the workplace.

Conclusion

The research provides evidence for a nuanced model of NMC, which is comprised of MC, MI and MPP. Moreover, the research establishes the importance of the 3-factor interpretation of NMC in the organisational or workplace context, not least due to the distinction between contact with ethnic diversity versus quality of contact, and the distinction between ideology, and organisational policy and practice, not to mention interaction effects among them. A final, critical element to NMC compared to alternatives is the consistent interpretation of the normative aspect of interpersonal and intergroup relations in the organisational environment. Notwithstanding individual views or preferences, social norms are particularly important in the workplace, particularly when norm violation can result in punishment, either by the social collective or through the organisational hierarchy. The normative, 3-factor interpretation of multiculturalism embodied by NMC therefore offers a substantially improved modality when compared to the alternative multiculturalism frameworks in I/O psychology. Moreover, by managing NMC in the workplace, practitioners have the opportunity to positively influence interpersonal trust, organisational identification and organisational citizenship behaviours, and to reduce turnover among employees—particularly employees who are in the ethnic minority. Conversely, to ignore the present 3-factor model would leave considerable leverage on the table (e.g., nearly half of the variation in organisational identification) when managing ethnic diversity and related organisational change.

References

A'yuninnisa, R. N., & Saptoto, R. (2015). The effects of pay satisfaction and affective commitment on turnover intention. *International Journal of Research Studies in Psychology, 4*(2), 57-70.

Allen, R. S., Dawson, G., Wheatley, K., & White, C. S. (2007). Perceived diversity and organizational performance. *Employee Relations, 30*(1), 20-33.

Anjum, A., Ming, X., Siddiqi, A. F., & Rasool, S. F. (2018). An empirical study analyzing job productivity in toxic workplace environments. *International journal of environmental research and public health, 15*(5), 1035.

ANZSCO (2018). Australian and New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (Standard No. V1.3). Retrieved http://aria.stats.govt.nz/aria/#ClassificationView:uri=http://stats.govt.nz/cms/ClassificationVersion/Z9DujoqhMVdksKZG

Apfelbaum, E. P., Sommers, S. R., & Norton, M. I. (2008). Seeing race and seeming racist? Evaluating strategic colorblindness in social interaction. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *95*(4), 918.

Aquino, K., & Douglas, S. (2003). Identity threat and antisocial behavior in organizations: The moderating effects of individual differences, aggressive modeling, and hierarchical status. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 90*(1), 195-208.

Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., & Corley, K. G. (2008). Identification in organizations: An examination of four fundamental questions. *Journal of management, 34*(3), 325-374.

Ashikali, T., & Groeneveld, S. (2015). Diversity management in public organizations and its effect on employees' affective commitment: The role of transformational leadership and the inclusiveness of the organizational culture. *Review of Public Personnel Administration, 35*(2), 146-168.

Bassett-Jones, N. (2005). The paradox of diversity management, creativity and
	innovation. *Creativity and innovation management, 14*(2), 169-175.

Berry, J. W. (1984). Cultural relations in plural societies: Alternatives to segregation and
	their sociopsychological implications. In Miller, N and Brewer, M. B. (Eds.), *Groups
	in Contact: The psychology of Desegregation*. Academic Press.

Berry, J. W., & Sam, D. L. (2016). Theoretical perspectives. In D. L. Sam & J. W. Berry
	(Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of acculturation psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 11-29).
	Cambridge University Press.

Berry, J. W., & Ward, C. (2016). Multiculturalism. In D. L. Sam & J. W. Berry (Eds.),
	Cambridge handbook of acculturation psychology (2nd ed., pp. 441-463).
	Cambridge University Press.

Billot, J. (2008). Increasing ethnocultural diversity in New Zealand: Implications for school
	leadership. *Journal of Educational Leadership, Policy and Practice, 23*(2), 87

Blancero, D. M., Mouriño-Ruiz, E., & Padilla, A. M. (2018). Latino millennials—The new
	diverse workforce: Challenges and opportunities. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral
	Sciences, 40(1), 3-21.

Boateng, G. O., Neilands, T. B., Frongillo, E. A., Melgar-Quiñonez, H. R., & Young, S. L.
	(2018). Best practices for developing and validating scales for health, social, and
	behavioral research: a primer. *Frontiers in public health, 6*, 149.

Borum, R. (2010). *The science of interpersonal trust*. Mental Health Law & Policy Faculty
	Publications.

Bouchikhi, H., & Kimberly, J. R. 2003. Escaping the identity trap. *MIT Sloan Management
	Review, 44*(3), 20-26.

Bowman Williams, J., & Cox, J. (2020, August). The New Principle-Practice Gap: The
	Disconnect between Diversity Beliefs and Actions in the Workplace. In *American
	Sociological Association Annual Meeting*.

Briggs, S. R., & Cheek, J. M. (1986). The role of factor analysis in the development and
	evaluation of personality scales. *Journal of personality, 54*(1), 106-148.

Brougham, D., & Haar, J. (2020). Technological disruption and employment: The influence on job insecurity and turnover intentions: A multi-country study. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 161*, 120-276.

Buchanan, A., Marks, R. & Álvarez Figueroa, M. (2016). 2015 *Forum on Ethnic Groups from the Middle East and North Africa: Meeting Summary and Main Findings*. United States Census Bureau Population Division. Retrieved https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/working-papers/2015/demo/MENA-Forum-Summary-and-Appendices.pdf

Buttner, E. H., Lowe, K. B., & Billings-Harris, L. (2012). An empirical test of diversity climate dimensionality and relative effects on employee of color outcomes. *Journal of business ethics, 110*(3), 247-258.

Byrd, C. M. (2017). The complexity of school racial climate: Reliability and validity of a new measure for secondary students. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 87*(4), 700-721.

Cabrera-Nguyen, P. (2010). Author guidelines for reporting scale development and validation results in the Journal of the Society for Social Work and Research. *Journal of the Society for Social Work and Research, 1*(2), 99-103.

Cachat-Rosset, G., Carillo, K., & Klarsfeld, A. (2019). Reconstructing the concept of diversity climate—A critical review of its definition, dimensions, and operationalization. European Management Review, 16(4), 863-885.

Carpenter, S. (2018). Ten steps in scale development and reporting: A guide for researchers. *Communication Methods and Measures, 12*(1), 25-44.

Chang, K., Kuo, C. C., Su, M., & Taylor, J. (2013). Dis-identification in organizations and its role in the workplace. *Relations Industrielles/Industrial Relations, 68*(3), 479-506.

Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological bulletin, 112*(1), 155.

Çokluk, Ö., & Koçak, D. (2016). Using Horn's Parallel Analysis Method in Exploratory Factor Analysis for Determining the Number of Factors. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 16*(2), 537-551.

Cole, M. S., & Bruch, H. (2006). Organizational identity strength, identification, and commitment and their relationships to turnover intention: Does organizational hierarchy matter? *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 27*(5), 585-605.

Collins, L. M., Schafer, J. L., & Kam, C. M. (2001). A comparison of inclusive and restrictive strategies in modern missing data procedures. *Psychological methods, 6*(4), 330.

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., & LePine, J. A. (2007). Trust, trustworthiness, and trust propensity: A meta-analytic test of their unique relationships with risk taking and job performance. *Journal of applied psychology, 92*(4), 909.

Combs, G. M., & Milosevic, I. (2016). Workplace discrimination and the wellbeing of minority women: Overview, prospects, and implications. *Handbook on well-being of working women* (pp. 17-31). Springer.

Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: incidence and impact. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 6(1), 64.

Costa, P. T., Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (2008). The Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R). In G. J. Boyle, G. Matthews, & D. H. Saklofske (Eds.), The Sage handbook of personality theory and assessment: personality measurement and testing (pp. 179–198). Sage.

Cotton, J. L., & Tuttle, J. M. (1986). Employee turnover: A meta-analysis and review with implications for research. *Academy of management Review, 11*(1), 55-70

Cox, T. (1994). *Cultural diversity in organizations: Theory, research and practice*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Cox, T., & Beale, R. L. (1997). *Developing competency to manage diversity: Readings, cases & activities*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Croucher, S. M. (2017). Integrated threat theory. In *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Communication*. Oxford University Press.

Cummings, L. L., & Bromiley, P. (1996). The organizational trust inventory (OTI). *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research, 302*(330), 39-52.

De Vaus, D. (2002). *Surveys in social research*. Allen & Unwin.

DeVon, H. A., Block, M. E., Moyle-Wright, P., Ernst, D. M., Hayden, S. J., Lazzara, D. J., ... & Kostas-Polston, E. (2007). A psychometric toolbox for testing validity and reliability. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 39*(2), 155-164.

Dinno, A. (2009). Exploring the sensitivity of Horn's parallel analysis to the distributional form of random data. *Multivariate behavioral research, 44*(3), 362-388.

Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2001). The role of trust in organizational settings. *Organization science, 12*(4), 450-467.

Dong, Y., & Peng, C. Y. J. (2013). *Principled missing data methods for researchers*. SpringerPlus, 2(1), 222

Dover, T. L., Kaiser, C. R., & Major, B. (2020). Mixed signals: The unintended effects of diversity initiatives. *Social Issues and Policy Review, 14*(1), 152-181.

Dukerich, J. M., Kramer, R., & McLean Parks, J. 1998. The dark side of organizational identification. In D. A. Whetten, & P. C. Godfrey (Eds.), *Identity in organizations: Building theory through conversations* (pp. 245-256). Sage.

Dunn, A. M., Heggestad, E. D., Shanock, L. R., & Theilgard, N. (2018). Intra-individual response variability as an indicator of insufficient effort responding: Comparison to other indicators and relationships with individual differences. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 33*(1), 105-121.

Edwards, M. R. (2005). Organizational identification: A conceptual and operational review. *International journal of management reviews, 7*(4), 207-230.

Emerson, K. T., & Murphy, M. C. (2014). Identity threat at work: How social identity threat and situational cues contribute to racial and ethnic disparities in the workplace. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 20*(4), 508.

Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum, R. C., & Strahan, E. J. (1999). Evaluating the use

of exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods, 4,* 272-299.

Fischer, R., & Karl, J. A. (2019). A primer to (cross-cultural) multi-group invariance testing possibilities in R. *Frontiers in psychology, 10,* 1507.

Gaertner, S. L., Rust, M. C., Dovidio, J. F., Bachman, B. A., & Anastasio, P. A. (1994). The contact hypothesis: The role of a common ingroup identity on reducing intergroup bias. *Small Group Research, 25,* 224–249

Gao, S., Mokhtarian, P. L., & Johnston, R. A. (2008). Nonnormality of data in structural equation models. *Journal of the Transportation Research Board, 2082,* 116-124.

Garg, S., & Sangwan, S. (2021). Literature Review on Diversity and Inclusion at Workplace, 2010–2017. *Vision, 25*(1), 12-22.

Gerhart, B. (2009). How much does national culture constrain organizational culture? *Management and Organization Review, 5*(2), 241-259.

Gignac, G. E., & Szodorai, E. T. (2016). Effect size guidelines for individual differences researchers. *Personality and Individual Differences, 102,* 74-78.

Gnanakumaran, V. (2012). *The effect of multiculturalism and colour blindness on individual and team selection in the workplace* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Guelph]. Retrieved https://atrium.lib.uoguelph.ca/xmlui/bitstream/handle/10214/4957/Gnanakumaran_Vishi_201212_MA.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

Goodman, S. W., & Alarian, H. M. (2021). National belonging and public support for multiculturalism. *Journal of Race, Ethnicity, and Politics, 6*(2), 305-333.

Goyal, S., & Shrivastava, S. (2013). Organizational diversity climate: Review of models and measurement. *Journal of business management & social sciences research, 2*(5), 55-60.

Gozdecka, D. A., Ercan, S. A., & Kmak, M. (2014). From multiculturalism to post-multiculturalism: Trends and paradoxes. *Journal of Sociology, 50*(1), 51-64.

Graham, J. W. (2009). Missing data analysis: Making it work in the real world. *Annual*

review of psychology, 60, 549-576.

Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., & Gaertner, S. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and

correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications

for the next millennium. *Journal of management, 26*(3), 463-488.

Guimond, S., Crisp, R. J., De Oliveira, P., Kamiejski, R., Kteily, N., Kuepper, B., ... &

Sidanius, J. (2013). Diversity policy, social dominance, and intergroup relations:

Predicting prejudice in changing social and political contexts. *Journal of Personality*

and Social Psychology, 104(6), 941.

Guimond, S., de la Sablonnière, R., & Nugier, A. (2014). Living in a multicultural world:

Intergroup ideologies and the societal context of intergroup relations. *European*

*Review of Social Psychology, 25(*1), 142-188.

Gutiérrez, A. S., & Unzueta, M. M. (2010). The effect of interethnic ideologies on the

likability of stereotypic vs. counterstereotypic minority targets. *Journal of*

Experimental Social Psychology, *46*(5), 775-784.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2014). *Multivariate data analysis:*

Pearson new international edition. Pearson Education Limited.

Hara, K., Adams, A., Milland, K., Savage, S., Callison-Burch, C., & Bigham, J. P. (2018, Aril).

A data-driven analysis of workers' earnings on Amazon Mechanical Turk.

In *Proceedings of the 2018 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing*

Systems (pp. 1-14).

Hawkins, R. X., Goodman, N. D., & Goldstone, R. L. (2019). The emergence of social norms

and conventions. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, *23*(2), 158-169.

Hentschel, T., Shemla, M., Wegge, J., & Kearney, E. (2013). Perceived diversity and team

functioning: The role of diversity beliefs and affect. *Small Group Research, 44*(1), 33-

61.

Hinkin, T. R., & Tracey, J. B. (2000). The cost of turnover: Putting a price on the learning

curve. *Cornell hotel and restaurant administration quarterly, 41*(3), 14-21.

Hirschberger, G., Ein-Dor, T., Leidner, B., & Saguy, T. (2016). How is existential threat

related to intergroup conflict? Introducing the multidimensional existential threat
(MET) model. *Frontiers in psychology, 7,* 1877.

Hofhuis, J., van der Zee, K. I., & Otten, S. (2015). Measuring employee perception on the
effects of cultural diversity at work: development of the Benefits and Threats of
Diversity Scale. *Quality & Quantity, 49*(1), 177-201.

Hooghe, M., Reeskens, T., & Stolle, D. (2007). Diversity, multiculturalism and social
cohesion: Trust and ethnocentrism in European societies. In Banting, K. G.,
Courchene, T. J., & Seidle, F. L. (Eds.), *Belonging, diversity, recognition and shared
citizenship in Canada.* Institute for Research on Public Policy.

Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M. (2008, September). Evaluating model fit: a synthesis
of the structural equation modelling literature. In *7th European Conference on
research methodology for business and management studies* (pp. 195-200).

Howard, M. C. (2016). A review of exploratory factor analysis decisions and overview of
current practices: What we are doing and how can we improve? *International
Journal of Human-Computer Interaction, 32*(1), 51-62.

Hubbard, E. E. (2004). *The diversity scorecard: evaluating the impact of diversity on
organizational performance.* Elsevier Butterworth–Heinemann.

Humes, K., Ramirez, R., Jones, N., Rios, M., Buchanan, A., & Marks, R. (2015). Census
Bureau's working classification of Middle Eastern or North African for the 2015
National Content Test. *Forum on ethnic groups from the Middle East and North
Africa.* US Department of Commerce.

Jackson, L. T., & Van de Vijver, F. J. (2018). Multiculturalism in the workplace: Model and
test. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 16*(1), 1-15.

Jacobson, R. P., Jacobson, K. J., & Hood, J. N. (2015). Social norm perceptions predict
citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 30*(8), 894-908.

Jin, M., Lee, J., & Lee, M. (2017). Does leadership matter in diversity management?
Assessing the relative impact of diversity policy and inclusive leadership in the public
sector. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 38*(2), 303-319.

Jones, B. F., & Olken, B. A. (2005). Do leaders matter? National leadership and growth since World War II. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 120*(3), 835-864.

Kim, S., Tam, L., Kim, J. N., & Rhee, Y. (2017). Determinants of employee turnover intention: Understanding the roles of organizational justice, supervisory justice, authoritarian organizational culture and organization-employee relationship quality. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 22*(3), 308-328.

Kline, R. B. (2015). Methodology in the Social Sciences. *Principles and practice of structural equation modelling (4th ed.).* Guilford Press.

Kochan, T., Bezrukova, K., Ely, R., Jackson, S., Joshi, A., Jehn, K., … & Thomas, D. (2003). The effects of diversity on business performance: Report of the diversity research network. *Human Resource Management, 42*(1), 3-21.

Korzilius, H., Bücker, J. J., & Beerlage, S. (2017). Multiculturalism and innovative work behavior: The mediating role of cultural intelligence. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 56*, 13-24.

Kymlicka, W. (2012). *Multiculturalism: Success, failure, and the future.* Migration Policy Institute.

Laurence, J., Schmid, K., & Hewstone, M. (2018). Ethnic diversity, inter-group attitudes and countervailing pathways of positive and negative inter-group contact: An analysis across workplaces and neighbourhoods. *Social indicators research, 136*(2), 719-749.

Lauring, J., & Selmer, J. (2011). Multicultural organizations: common language, knowledge sharing and performance. *Personnel Review, 40*(3), 324-343.

Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of applied psychology, 87*(1), 131.

LePine, J. A., Erez, A., & Johnson, D. E. (2002). The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: a critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology, 87*(1), 52.

Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the

reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of organizational Behavior, 13(*2), 103-123.

Mahdi, A. F., Zin, M. Z. M., Nor, M. R. M., Sakat, A. A., & Naim, A. S. A. (2012). The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. *American Journal of Applied Sciences, 9*(9), 1518-1526.

Marjanovic, Z., Holden, R., Struthers, W., Cribbie, R., & Greenglass, E. (2015). The inter-item standard deviation (ISD): An index that discriminates between conscientious and random responders. *Personality and Individual Differences, 84*, 79-83.

Matsunaga, M. (2008). Item parcelling in structural equation modelling: A primer. *Communication Methods and Measures, 2*(4), 260-293.

Matthews, K., Phelan J., Jones, N. A., Konya, S., Marks, R., Pratt, B. M., Coombs, J., & Bentley M. (2017). *2015 national content test race and ethnicity analysis report: A new design for the 21st century.* United States Census Bureau.

McAllister, D.J (1995). Affect- and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal co-operation in organisations. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(1), 24-59

Mishra, A. K. (1996). Organizational responses to crisis: The centrality of trust. In Kramer, R. M. & Tyler, T. R. (Eds.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 261-287). Sage.

Mishra, P., Pandey, C. M., Singh, U., Gupta, A., Sahu, C., & Keshri, A. (2019). Descriptive statistics and normality tests for statistical data. *Annals of cardiac anaesthesia, 22*(1), 67.

Mobley, W. H., Horner, S. O., & Hollingsworth, A. T. (1978). An evaluation of precursors of hospital employee turnover. *Journal of Applied psychology, 63*(4), 408.

Mohammadi, A., Broström, A., & Franzoni, C. (2017). Workforce composition and innovation: how diversity in employees' ethnic and educational backgrounds facilitates firm-level innovativeness. *Journal of Product Innovation Management, 34*(4), 406-426.

Mor Barak, M. E., Cherin, D. A., & Berkman, S. (1998). Organizational and personal

dimensions in diversity climate: Ethnic and gender differences in employee

perceptions. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 34*(1), 82-104.

Morrison, K. R., Plaut, V. C., & Ybarra, O. (2010). Predicting whether multiculturalism

positively or negatively influences White Americans' intergroup attitudes: The role of

ethnic identification. *Personality and social psychology bulletin, 36*(12), 1648-1661.

Nadiri, H., & Tanova, C. (2010). An investigation of the role of justice in turnover intentions,

job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior in hospitality

industry. *International journal of hospitality management, 29*(1), 33-41.

Ng, J. C. Y., & Ng, K. Y. N. (2014). Culture, organisational culture and organisational climate:

an integrative approach. *Indian Journal of Commerce and Management

Studies, 5*(2), 18-26.

O'Connell, Matthew, and Mei-Chuan Kung (2007). The cost of employee turnover. *Industrial

Management 49*(1), 14-19.

O'Brien, K. R., Scheffer, M., Van Nes, E. H., & Van der Lee, R. (2015). How to break the cycle

of low workforce diversity: A model for change. *PloS one, 10*(7).

Olson, R. (2003). Organizational culture putting the organizational culture concept to

work. *The Behavior Analyst Today, 3*(4), 471-481.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional

predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel psychology, 48*(4), 775-

802.

Orlitzky, M., & Frenkel, S. J. (2005). Alternative pathways to high-performance

workplaces. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 16*(8),

1325-1348.

Otten, S., Van Der Zee, K., & Brewer, M. B. (Eds.). (2014). *Towards Inclusive

Organizations: Determinants of successful diversity management at work.*

Psychology Press.

Parker, J., Arrowsmith, J., & Haar, J. (2017). Diversity management in New Zealand:

towards an empirically-based model of employer propensity to manage diversity. *Labour & Industry: a journal of the social and economic relations of work, 27*(1), 34-55.

Pavlov, G., Shi, D., & Maydeu-Olivares, A. (2020). Chi-square difference tests for comparing nested models: An evaluation with non-normal data. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 27(6)*, 908-917.

Pearl, J. (2010). The foundations of causal inference. *Sociological Methodology, 40*(1), 75-149

Petriglieri, J. L. (2011). Under threat: Responses to and the consequences of threats to individuals' identities. *Academy of Management Review, 36*(4), 641-662.

Pettigrew, T. F., & Tropp, L. R. (2006). A meta-analytic test of intergroup contact theory. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 90*(5), 751.

Pitts, D. (2009). Diversity management, job satisfaction, and performance: Evidence from US federal agencies. *Public Administration Review, 69*(2), 328-338.

Plaut, V. C. (2002). Cultural models of diversity in American: The psychology of difference and inclusion. In Richard, A., Minow, M., & Markus, H. R. (Eds.), *Engaging cultural differences: The multicultural challenge in liberal democracies.* Russell Sage Foundation.

Rattan, A., & Ambady, N. (2013). Diversity ideologies and intergroup relations: An examination of colorblindness and multiculturalism. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 43*(1), 12-21.

Raubenheimer, J. (2004). An item selection procedure to maximize scale reliability and validity. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 30*(4), 59-64.

Reich, T. C., & Hershcovis, M. S. (2011). Interpersonal relationships at work. In S. Zedeck, H. Aguinis, W. Cascio, M. Gelfand, K. Leung, S. Parker, J. Zhou (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (Vol. 3)* (pp. 223-248). American Psychological Association.

Revelle, W. (2019). *How To: Use the psych package for Factor Analysis and data*

reduction. Northwestern University, Department of Psychology.

Revelle, W. & Rocklin, T. (1979). Very Simple Structure - alternative procedure for estimating the optimal number of interpretable factors. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 14*(4), 403–414.

Richeson, J. A., & Nussbaum, R. J. (2004). The impact of multiculturalism versus color-blindness on racial bias. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 40(3), 417-423.

Rubin, E. V. (2009). The role of procedural justice in public personnel management: Empirical results from the Department of Defense. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 19*(1), 125-143

Russell, D. W. (2002). In search of underlying dimensions: The use (and abuse) of factor analysis in Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin. *Personality and social psychology bulletin, 28*(12), 1629-1646.

Sadashiva, A. (2005). *Meaning of multiculturalism: A comparative study of defining characteristics and behaviors in United States of America and India.* [Doctoral dissertation, Alliant International University]. ProQuest. Retrieved https://www.proquest.com/docview/305342945?pq-origsite=gscholar&fromopenview=true

Satorra, A., & Bentler, P. M. (2001). A scaled difference chi-square test statistic for moment structure analysis. *Psychometrika, 66*(4), 507-514.

Schaubroeck, J. M., Peng, A. C., & Hannah, S. T. (2013). Developing trust with peers and leaders: Impacts on organizational identification and performance during entry. *Academy of Management Journal, 56*(4), 1148-1168.

Schieman, S., & Reid, S. (2008). Job authority and interpersonal conflict in the workplace. *Work and Occupations, 35*(3), 296-326.

Schmid, K., Ramiah, A. A., & Hewstone, M. (2014). Neighborhood ethnic diversity and trust: The role of intergroup contact and perceived threat. *Psychological science, 25*(3), 665-674.

Schneider, B., Ehrhart, M. G., & Macey, W. H. (2013). Organizational climate and

culture. *Annual review of psychology, 64*, 361-388.

Schuh, S. C., Goeritz, A., Xin, K., De Cremer, D., & van Dick, R. (2015). How Ambivalence in Organizational Identification Affects Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. *Academy of Management Proceedings, 1,* 157-182.

Shockley-Zalabak, P., Ellis, K., & Winograd, G. (2000). Organizational trust: What it means, why it matters. *Organization Development Journal, 18*(4), 35.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior: Some parallels between counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. *Human resource management review, 12*(2), 269-292.

Spreitzer, G. M., & Mishra, A. K. (1999). Giving up control without losing control: Trust and its substitutes' effects on managers' involving employees in decision making. *Group & Organization Management, 24*(2), 155-187.

Stanley, L. S. (1996). The development and validation of an instrument to assess attitudes toward cultural diversity and pluralism among preservice physical educators. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 56*(5), 891-897.

Statistics New Zealand (2005). New Zealand Ethnicity Standard Classification [Database]. Retrieved http://aria.stats.govt.nz/aria/

Statistics New Zealand (2013). Hours worked in employment per week and status in employment by age and sex, 2001, 2006 and 2012 [Database]. Retrieved http://nzdotstat.stats.govt.nz/wbos/Index.aspx

Statistics New Zealand (2015). Standard Classification of Gender Identity [Database]. Retrieved http://aria.stats.govt.nz/aria/

Statistics New Zealand (2018). Date of birth classification [Database]. Retrieved http://aria.stats.govt.nz/aria/

Stephan, W. G., Ybarra, O., & Rios Morrison, K. (2015). Intergroup threat theory. In T. Nelson (Ed.), *Handbook of Prejudice* (pp. 255–278). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Stuart, J., & Ward, C. (2019). Exploring everyday experiences of cultural diversity: The

construction, validation, and application of the normative multiculturalism

scale. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 49*(2), 313-332.

Tracey, T. J., & Xu, H. (2017). Use of multi-group confirmatory factor analysis in examining

measurement invariance in counseling psychology research. *The European Journal

of Counselling Psychology, 6*(1), 75-82.

Trauzettel-Klosinski, S., & Dietz, K. (2012). Standardized assessment of reading

performance: The new international reading speed texts IReST. *Investigative

ophthalmology & visual science, 53*(9), 5452-5461.

Triana, M. D. C., Jayasinghe, M., & Pieper, J. R. (2015). Perceived workplace racial

discrimination and its correlates: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational

Behavior, 36*(4), 491-513.

Tsai, Y., & Wu, S. W. (2010). The relationships between organisational citizenship behaviour,

job satisfaction and turnover intention. *Journal of clinical nursing, 19*(23-24), 3564-

3574.

van de Vijver, F. J., Breugelmans, S. M., & Schalk-Soekar, S. R. (2008). Multiculturalism:

Construct validity and stability. *International Journal of Intercultural

Relations, 32*(2), 93-104.

van Kleef, G. A., Gelfand, M. J., & Jetten, J. (2019). The dynamic nature of social norms:

New perspectives on norm development, impact, violation, and enforcement. *Journal

of Experimental Social Psychology, 84*(2019).

Vassou, C., Zopiatis, A., & Theocharous, A. L. (2017). Intercultural workplace relationships

in the hospitality industry: Beyond the tip of the iceberg. *International Journal of

Hospitality Management, 61*, 14-25.

Wang, Y. W., Davidson, M. M., Yakushko, O. F., Savoy, H. B., Tan, J. A., & Bleier, J. K.

(2003). The scale of ethnocultural empathy: development, validation, and

reliability. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 50*(2), 221.

Ward, C., & Masgoret, A. M. (2006). An integrative model of attitudes toward

immigrants. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 30*(6), 671-682.

Ward, C., Kim, I., Karl, J. A., Epstein, S., & Park, H. J. (2020). How normative multiculturalism relates to immigrant well-being. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 26*(4), 581.

Watters, S. M., Ward, C., & Stuart, J. (2020). Does normative multiculturalism foster or threaten social cohesion?. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 75, 82-94.

Weems, G. H., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2001). The impact of midpoint responses and reverse coding on survey data. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 34*(3), 166-176.

Williams, K. Y., & O'Reilly III, C. A. (1998). Demography and diversity in organanisations: A review of 40 years of research. In Phillips, K. W. & O'Reilly, C. (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior, 20*, 77-140. Elsevier.

Wright, M., Johnston, R., Citrin, J., & Soroka, S. (2017). Multiculturalism and Muslim accommodation: Policy and predisposition across three political contexts. *Comparative Political Studies, 50*(1), 102-132.

Wymer, W., & Alves, H. M. B. (2012). A review of scale development practices in nonprofit management and marketing. *Economics & Sociology, 5*(2), 143-151.

Yentes, R. D., & Wilhelm, F. (2018). *Careless: Procedures for computing indices of careless responding*. R package version, 1(3), CRAN.

Yeo, S. Y. (2006). *Measuring organizational climate for diversity: A construct validation approach* (Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University). Retrieved https://etd.ohiolink.edu/apexprod/rws_etd/send_file/send?accession=osu1141677667&disposition=inline

Yin-Fah, B. C., Foon, Y. S., Chee-Leong, L., & Osman, S. (2010). An exploratory study on turnover intention among private sector employees. *International Journal of Business and Management, 5*(8), 57.

Yitmen, Ş., & Verkuyten, M. (2018). Positive and negative behavioural intentions towards refugees in Turkey: The roles of national identification, threat, and humanitarian concern. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology, 28*(4), 230-243.

Appendices

Appendix A

Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form (NZ/US)

INFORMATION SHEET

*The following survey takes 10-15 minutes to complete

This research has been approved by the School of Psychology Human Ethics Committee under delegated authority of the Victoria University of Wellington (New Zealand) Human Ethics Committee (ethics application number 28223) (for questions about the ethics of this research, contact the University Ethics Convenor; Dr. Judith Loveridge, judith.loveridge@vuw.ac.nz).

What is the purpose of this research?
- The purpose of this research is to better understand what multiculturalism means for our workplaces and what it means for us as employees.
- **[Study One]** This is the first of two studies investigating multiculturalism in United States and New Zealand-based organisations. In this part we are developing a new measurement of multiculturalism. We are particularly interested in (1) the extent to which different ethnic and cultural groups in your organisation are in contact with each other, (2) cultural diversity is recognised and valued, and (3) policies and practices in your organisation support and accommodate cultural diversity.

- **[Study Two]** This is the second of two studies investigating multiculturalism in United States and New Zealand-based organisations. In this study we are interested in how multiculturalism relates to workplace experiences and relationships.

Who can participate?
- Any 'working adult', aged 18 years or over, and
- Currently employed or employed within the last six-months in the United States
- If self-employed, you have regular working relationships with colleagues and direct managers, and have recently been employed.

What is involved if you agree to participate?
- (1) Several quick questions about you

- (2) a short survey asking you to rate your agreement (or disagreement) with a series of statements. (e.g., 'in my organisation 'most people work with colleagues from different [ethnicities/cultures][7], or 'managers are trained to lead [multi-ethnic /multi-cultural] teams')
- (3) You will be asked to record your thoughts if you wish
- A debriefing statement will be available at the end of the online survey.

Privacy and confidentiality
- This survey is anonymous, and you cannot be specifically identified as having participated in the research.

What happens to the information that you provide?
- The overall findings may be used as part of a MSc thesis, submitted for publication in a scientific journal and/or presented at scientific conferences
- The anonymous information you provide may be kept up in an Open Science repository online. This allows future researchers to reuse the data or to check any conclusions we make based on this research. Open Science repositories promote academic honesty and higher quality research
- If you would like to know the results of this study, they will also be posted to the Victoria University of Wellington - Centre for Applied Cross-cultural Research website (https://www.victoria.ac.nz/cacr)

Consent for participation
- By continuing with the survey, you are agreeing to the following statements:
- 'I understand the information provided on this study and by continuing with the online survey am giving consent to be a participant in the research as described above'.
- **[indicate agreement/continue to survey]**

If you have any questions about the survey, please contact:

Kai O'Donnell (researcher)
School of Psychology
Victoria University of Wellington
kai.odonnell@vuw.ac.nz

Dr. Colleen Ward (researcher)
Centre for Applied Cross Cultural Research
Victoria University of Wellington
colleen.ward@vuw.ac.nz

Your help is greatly appreciated. Research like this couldn't be done without you.

---

[7] For New Zealand the reference terms were [ethnicity/culture], [ethnicities/cultures] or [ethnic background], whereas for the United States these were [races/ethnicities] [racial/ethnic] or [racial background].

Appendix B

Demographic Item and Answer Options (NZ/US)

Table B9

Question	Response options	
1. Are you aged 18-years or over?		Yes, No **[cut-off criterion]**
2. **[Study One]** Are you currently employed in New Zealand, or were you employed within the last 6-months in New Zealand?	**[Study Two]** Are you currently employed in the United States, or were you employed within the last 12-months in the United States?	Yes, No **[cut-off criterion]**
3. What gender are you?	(1) Female; (2) Male; (3) Gender diverse; (4) Prefer not to say.	
4. What is your age? (years)	**[enter age]**	
5. What type of job/role do you have?	(1) Agriculture, forestry or fisheries; (2) Clerical or Administrative; (3) Community or Personal Service; (4) Machinery operator or Driver; (5) Manager; (6) Professional; (7) Sales worker; (8) Technician or Trades; (9) Prefer not to say.	
6. What is your ethnicity? (please pick the ethnicity you mainly identify with)	**[Study One]** (1) New Zealand European/Pākehā; (2) Other European; (3) Māori; (4) Samoan; (5) Cook Islands Māori; (6) Tongan; (7) Niuean; (8) Tokelauan; (9) Fijian; (10) Other Pacific Peoples; (11) Southeast Asian; (12) Chinese; (13) Indian; (14) Other Asian; (15) Middle Eastern; (16) Latin American; (17) African; (18) Other ethnicity; (19) Prefer not to say.	
What is your race? (please pick the race you mainly identify with)	**[Study Two]** (1) White or European descent; (2) Hispanic, Latino or Spanish origin (e.g. Mexican, Mexican American, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Dominican, Salvadoran, Columbian, Other Hispanic or Latino); (3) Black or African American (e.g. African American, Jamaican, Haitian, Nigerian, Ethiopian, Ghanaian, Other Black or African American); (4) Asian (e.g. Chinese, Filipino, Asian Indian, Vietnamese, Korean, Japanese, Other Asian); (5) American Indian, Alaska Native or Central or South American Indian (e.g., Navajo Nation, Blackfoot Tribe, Mayan, Aztec, Native Village of Barrow Inupiat, Nome Eskimo Community); (6) Middle Eastern or North African (e.g. Lebanese, Iranian, Egyptian, Syrian, Moroccan, Algerian, Other MENA); (7) Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander (e.g. Native Hawaiian, Samoan, Guamanian or Chamorro, Tongan, Fijian, Marshallese, Other Pacific Islander); (8) Other race; (9) Prefer not to say.	
7. In your organisation, do you identify as belonging to the ethnic/cultural majority or minority?	(A) Majority (most people are like me); (B) Minority (most people are different to me)	

Appendix C

NMS-O Test Item Pool (NZ)

Table C10

MC	MI	MPP
[NMS1] Interacting with people from different [races/ ethnicities] is commonplace	[NMS2] Most people think we shouldn't have too many people from different [racial/ethnic] backgrounds working here	[NMS3] Organisational practices are often adapted to the specific needs of [racial/ethnic] minorities
[NMS4] It is likely we will work daily with people from several different [races/ethnicities]	[NMS5] Most people believe the organisation's unity is weakened by people from different [racial/ethnic] backgrounds sticking to their old ways	[NMS6] Policies are in place to support people from [racial/ethnic] minorities
[NMS7] Most people work with colleagues from different [races/ethnicities]	[NMS8R] Most people think it would be better if everyone had the same [racial/ethnic] customs and traditions	[NMS9] Multiculturalism is supported by most managers/team leaders
[NMS10] Employees here rarely work with others from different [races/ethnicities]	[NMS11] Most people think working with people from different [racial/ethnic] backgrounds is a good thing	[NMS12R] Leadership positions are rarely held by people from [racial/ethnic] minorities
[NMS13] It is common to hear other languages spoken	[NMS14] Most people think it is important for people from different [racial/ethnic] backgrounds to get along with each other	[NMS15] It is acceptable for people to communicate in their native language
[NMS16R] We rarely come into contact with people from different [racial/ethnic] backgrounds	[NMS17] [Racial/ethnic] diversity is one of our defining characteristics	[NMS18R] [Racial/ethnic] minorities are under-represented in special project workgroups
[NMS19] Our teams tend to be [racially/ethnically] diverse	[NMS20] We distinguish ourselves from many other organisations by being accepting and supportive of [racial/ethnic] diversity	[NMS21] People from many [races/ethnicities] participate in the important decision-making
[NMS22] Most of our departments or working groups have [multi-racial/multi-ethnic] staff	[NMS23] Most people want to learn about the customs and heritage of different [racial/ethnic] groups	[NMS24] People from diverse [racial/ethnic] backgrounds are often included on advisory boards

[NMS25] Staff come from many different [racial/ethnic] backgrounds

[NMS28R] Employees from diverse [racial/ethnic] groups do not mix with each other

[NMS 33] It is uncommon for employees from different [races/ethnicities] to be friends

[NMS36R] Employees are more likely to socialise in their own [racial/ethnic] group

[NMS26] People pride themselves on welcoming [racial/ethnic] diversity

[NMS29] It is acceptable for people from [racial/ethnic] minorities to talk among themselves in their native language

[NMS31] Most people think that [multi-racial/multi-ethnic] teams are ideal

[NMS34R] Most people think that working in [racially / ethnically] diverse teams is stressful

[NMS37] Most people believe it is good to be exposed to [racially/ethnically] diverse perspectives

[NMS39] All staff are encouraged to share their cultures and traditional activities

[NMS41R] Most people think that [racial / ethnic] diversity makes it hard to connect with each other

[NMS43R] Most people think [race/ethnicity] is unimportant/not important

[NMS28R] We lack policies to support people from diverse [races/ethnicities]

[NMS30] Managers are trained to lead [multi-racial/multi-ethnic] teams

[NMS32] We have events to showcase our [multi-racial/multi-ethnic workforce

[NMS35] We sometimes have policy campaigns focused on [racial/ethnic] and inclusion

[NMS38] We make provisions for [racial/ethnic] minorities' needs and traditional activities

[NMS40] Managers/team leaders treat employees of all [races/ethnicities] fairly

[NMS42R] People from different [racial/ethnic] groups are favoured

[NMS44R] Photographs or media released by management and marketing often exclude [racial/ethnic] minorities

[NMS45] Staff are trained to work in [multi-racial/multi-ethnic] contexts

[NMS46] We can easily access [multi-racial/multi-cultural] skills training or ethnic diversity training

[NMS47] Management is committed to employing a [racially/ethnically] diverse workforce.

Note. Five-point Likert scale, from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree.* For New Zealand the reference terms were [ethnicity/culture], [ethnicities/cultures] or [ethnic background], whereas for the United States these were [races/ethnicities] [racial/ethnic] or [racial background]. R denotes reverse coded items.

Appendix D

Study One Criterion Measures, Survey Items and Instructions (NZ)

Table D11

Construct	Author	Instructions	Items
MC	Byrd (2017)	'How often do people of different ethnicities/cultures in your organisation...' [5-point Likert scale, 1 = *never* to 5 = *always*].	Frequency of Interaction 1. Choose to work together 2. Spend social time together 3. Work together Quality of Interaction 4. Trust each other 5. Like to have friends of different ethnicities/cultures 6. Get along well socially
MI	Stanley (1996)	'Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements...' [6-point Likert scale, 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*] [note reversed from original scale]	Appreciate Pluralism 7. Employees should have an equal opportunity to earn and succeed 8. Employees should be taught to respect those who are different from themselves 9. Employees should give up their cultural beliefs and practices to fit in with other employees [R] Value Pluralism 10. Employees should feel pride in their heritage 11. All employees should learn about cultural differences 12. I enjoy being around people who are different to me 13. Cultural diversity is a valuable resource and should be preserved.
MI	Wang et al. (2003)	'Please indicate how well the following statements describe you...' [5-point Likert scale, 1 = *never* to 5 = *always*]	14. I feel irritated when people of different ethnic/cultural backgrounds speak their language around me [R] 15. I feel annoyed when people do not speak standard English [R] 16. I get impatient when communicating with people from other ethnic/cultural backgrounds, regardless of how well they speak English [R] 17. I do not understand why people want to keep their indigenous ethnic/cultural traditions instead of trying to fit into the mainstream [R] 18. I don't understand why people of different ethnic/cultural backgrounds enjoy wearing traditional clothing [R]
MI	Byrd (2017)	'Thinking about how things are done in your organisation, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements...'	19. My ethnic/cultural group is seen in stereotypical ways [R] 20. Employees have a lot of stereotypes about your ethnic/ cultural group [R] 21. Managers/team leaders believe negative stereotypes about your ethnic/cultural group [R]

		[5-point Likert scale, 1 = *never* to 5 = *always*].	22. Managers/team leaders are prejudiced against certain ethnic/cultural groups [R] 23. My ethnic/cultural group is represented in stereotypical ways in internal communications media [R]
MI	Byrd (2017)	'Thinking about your organisation, please indicate how often the following occur...' [5-point Likert scale, 1 = *never*, 5 = *always*]	24. People think ethnicity/culture is not an important factor in how people are treated [R] 25. People think it's better not to pay attention to [race/ethnicity] [R] 26. I am encouraged to ignore ethnic/cultural differences [R]
MPP	Wang et al. (2003)	'Please indicate how well the following statements describe you...' [6-point Likert scale, 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*]	27. I am aware my organisation treats ethnic/cultural groups other than my own differently [R] 28. I recognise that management/internal communications often portrays people based on ethnic/cultural stereotypes [R] 29. I am aware of institutional barriers (e.g. restricted opportunities for job promotion) that discriminate against other ethnic/cultural groups other than my own [R] 30. I am aware that visual media released by management or marketing often excludes ethnic/cultural minorities who work here. [R]
MPP	Mor Barak et al. (1998)	'Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about you and the organisation you work at...' [6-point Likert scale, 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree]* [note reversed from original scale]	31. I feel I have been treated differently because of my ethnicity/culture [R] 32. Managers/team leaders have a track record of hiring and promoting employees objectively, regardless of their ethnicity/culture 33. Managers/team leaders give feedback and evaluate employees fairly, regardless of the employee's ethnicity/culture 34. Managers/team leaders make layoff decisions fairly, regardless of ethnicity/culture 35. Managers/team leaders interpret human resource policies (such as sick leave) fairly for all employees 36. Managers/team leaders give assignments based on the skills and abilities of employees.
MPP	Pitts (2009)	'Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about your organisation...' [5-point Likert scale, from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree]	37. Managers/team leaders in my work unit are committed to a workforce that is representative of all segments of society 38. Managers/team leaders work well with employees of different backgrounds 39. Policies and programs promote diversity in the workplace (e.g. recruiting ethnic/cultural minorities, training in awareness of diversity issues).

Note. [R] denotes reverse coded items

Appendix E

Study Two Constructs, Survey Items and Instructions (US)

Table E12

Construct	Author	Instructions	Item
Tr	Spreitzer & Mishra (1999)	'Thinking about the people you work with in general, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. I trust that my colleagues…' [7-point Likert scale, from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*]	1. Are completely honest with me 2. Will keep the promises they make 3. Express their true feelings about important issues 4. Care about my wellbeing 5. Take actions that are consistent with their words 6. Share important information with me 7. Would acknowledge their own mistakes 8. Can be relied on.
Pt	Hofhuis et al. (2015)	'Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Racial/ethnic diversity…' [5-point Likert scale, from 1 = *completely disagree* to 5 = *completely agree*]	1. Causes friction between colleagues with different norms and values [R] 2. Causes the department's culture to change strongly [R] 3. Forces employees to adjust to a different culture. [R]
OID	Mael & Ashforth (1992)	'Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements'. [5-point Likert scale, from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*] [note reversed from original scale]	1. When someone criticises my organisation, it feels like a personal insult 2. I am very interested in what others think about my organisation 3. When I talk about this organisation I usually say 'we' rather than 'they' 4. This organisation's successes are my successes 5. When someone praises this organisation, it feels like a personal compliment 6. If a story in the media criticised this organisation, I would feel embarrassed.

OCB	Lee & Allen (2002)	'Thinking about people in your organisation, please indicate how well the following statements describe your behaviour at work'. [7-point Likert scale, from 1 = *never* to 7 = *always*]	1. I willingly give time to help others who have work related problems 2. I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off 3. I go out of my way to make newer employees feel welcome in my work group 4. I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation 5. I take action to protect my organisation from potential problems.
Ti	Mobley et al. (1978)	'Thinking about your current workplace, please tell us about your intention to stay'. [5-point Likert scale, from 1 = *never* to 5 = *constantly*] [5-point Likert scale, from 1 = *very unlikely* to 5 = *certain*]	1. I often thinking about quitting my present organisation [R] 2. I will probably look for a new employer next year [R] 3. As soon as possible, I will leave this organisation. [R]

Note. [R] denotes reverse coded items

Appendix F

Participant Debrief Sheet (NZ/US)

Thank-you for your time! This research would not be possible without your support.

- **If you know of anyone else who might like to participate,** please forward refer them to this MTurk survey.
- If you would like to know the results of this study, they will also be posted to the Victoria University of Wellington - Centre for Applied Cross-cultural Research website (https://www.victoria.ac.nz/cacr)

This research is focused on understanding multiculturalism, including social norms, beliefs, policy and practice in our organisations.

- **[STUDY ONE]** This is the first of two linked studies being carried out in the United States and in New Zealand. In this study your survey answers will be used to develop a new assessment tool. More specifically, we are interested measuring multicultural climates in the workplace, or (1) the extent to which people view their work environment as one in which there is frequent contact among culturally diverse groups, (2) most people view diversity as a good thing, and (3) there are practices and policies to support cultural diversity.
- **[STUDY TWO]** This is the second of two linked studies being carried out in the United States and in New Zealand. In the previous study a new assessment tool was tested, measuring multicultural climates in the workplace. In this study we are interested in how multiculturalism relates to workplace experiences and relationships.
- This research is important because the United States are becoming more ethnically diverse, and because these changes are reflected in our workplaces. Research has shown that workplace environments can positively or negatively affect employee relationships as well as job satisfaction and performance. The development of a measure like this is important as it will allow us to investigate the influence of the workplace environment on outcomes such as employees' engagement, job satisfaction, performance, and turnover intentions.
- Ultimately, by better understanding what multiculturalism means for us in our day-to-day lives we can make more informed choices about how we work, and about how to create more satisfying and productive places to work.

If you have any questions, please contact:

Kai O'Donnell (researcher)	Dr. Colleen Ward (researcher)
School of Psychology	Centre for Applied Cross Cultural Research
Victoria University of Wellington	Victoria University of Wellington
kai.odonnell@vuw.ac.nz	colleen.ward@vuw.ac.nz

For questions about the ethics of this research, contact the University Ethics Convenor; Dr. Judith Loveridge, judith.loveridge@vuw.ac.nz

Appendix G

NMS-O Test Item Statistics (NZ)

Table G13

Item	Mean	*SD*	Skew	Kurtosis	W(p)	Item-total[1]	α[2]
NMS01	4.11	1.07	-1.20	0.65	.78 (<.01)	.57	.94
NMS02R	4.17	1.12	-1.30	0.82	.75 (<.01)	.51	.94
NMS03	2.78	1.25	0.14	-1.05	.91 (<.01)	.47	.94
NMS04	4.09	1.10	-1.32	1.11	.77 (<.01)	.38	.94
NMS05R	3.84	1.19	-0.70	-0.53	.84 (<.01)	.42	.94
NMS06	3.15	1.20	-0.10	-0.83	.92 (<.01)	.54	.94
NMS07	3.98	1.06	-1.26	1.15	.79 (<.01)	.49	.94
NMS08R	3.90	1.20	-0.88	-0.19	.83 (<.01)	.54	.94
NMS09	3.92	1.02	-0.98	0.68	.84 (<.01)	.66	.94
NMS10R	4.29	0.87	-1.22	0.87	.76 (<.01)	.48	.94
NMS11	3.84	0.99	-0.83	0.46	.86 (<.01)	.57	.94
NMS13	2.89	1.43	0.06	-1.45	.87 (<.01)	.38	.94
NMS14	4.14	0.97	-1.23	1.32	.80 (<.01)	.43	.94
NMS15	3.55	1.25	-0.56	-0.70	.88 (<.01)	.50	.94
NMS16R	4.34	0.96	-1.77	2.94	.70 (<.01)	.44	.94
NMS17	3.07	1.29	-0.11	-1.04	.91 (<.01)	.66	.94
NMS19	3.71	1.20	-0.75	-0.37	.86 (<.01)	.53	.94
NMS20	3.26	1.16	-0.27	-0.59	.91 (<.01)	.59	.94
NMS21	3.21	1.21	-0.17	-0.94	.91 (<.01)	.50	.94
NMS22	3.80	1.14	-0.78	-0.30	.85 (<.01)	.51	.94
NMS23	3.20	1.24	-0.26	-0.97	.91 (<.01)	.57	.94
NMS24	3.21	1.12	-0.10	-0.56	.92 (<.01)	.52	.94
NMS25	4.09	1.09	-1.29	0.88	.76 (<.01)	.48	.94
NMS26	3.68	1.04	-0.70	0.16	.88 (<.01)	.57	.94
NMS27R	3.39	1.19	-0.17	-1.02	.90 (<.01)	.50	.94
NMS28R	3.93	1.10	-0.93	-0.01	.83 (<.01)	.43	.94
NMS29	3.60	1.14	-0.52	-0.58	.89 (<.01)	.40	.94
NMS30	2.81	1.16	0.12	-0.80	.92 (<.01)	.49	.94
NMS31	3.43	1.02	-0.23	-0.19	.90 (<.01)	.61	.94
NMS32	2.83	1.41	0.16	-1.30	.89 (<.01)	.57	.94
NMS33R	4.10	1.09	-1.21	0.71	.78 (<.01)	.40	.94
NMS34R	4.01	1.05	-0.98	0.30	.83 (<.01)	.56	.94
NMS35	2.95	1.37	-0.04	-1.25	.90 (<.01)	.48	.94
NMS36R	3.87	1.03	-0.98	0.66	.85 (<.01)	.55	.94
NMS38	3.33	1.20	-0.45	-0.68	.90 (<.01)	.63	.94
NMS39	3.44	1.24	-0.48	-0.79	.89 (<.01)	.70	.94
NMS40	4.16	1.06	-1.35	1.26	.77 (<.01)	.40	.94
NMS41R	3.77	1.02	-0.78	0.26	.87 (<.01)	.50	.94
NMS42R	3.00	1.23	-0.11	-0.99	.92 (<.01)	.30	.94
NMS44R	2.81	1.24	0.15	-1.01	.92 (<.01)	.59	.94
NMS46	2.74	1.32	0.20	-1.07	.90 (<.01)	.49	.94
NMS47	3.49	1.24	-0.37	-0.81	.89 (<.01)	.53	.94

Note. Mean inter-item-correlation = .279 , Cronbach's α = .94, [1] Corrected item-total correlation. (R) reverse coded item, [2] Cronbach's alpha if deleted.

Appendix H

Final NMS-O Factor Loadings and Descriptive Statistics (NZ)

Table H14

Item	Content	MC	MI	MPP	*M*	*SD*
NMS07	Most people work with colleagues from different races/ethnicities	.81			3.98	1.06
NMS25	Staff come from many different racial/ethnic backgrounds	.81			4.09	1.09
NMS22	Most of our departments or working groups have multi-racial/multi-ethnic staff	.76			3.80	1.14
NMS19	Our teams tend to be racially/ethnically diverse	.75			3.71	1.20
NMS04	It is likely we will work daily with people from several different races/ethnicities	.73			4.09	1.10
NMS37	Most people believe it is good to be exposed to racially/ethnically diverse perspectives		.91		3.87	1.03
NMS11	Most people think working with other people from different racial/ethnic backgrounds is a good thing		.71		3.84	0.99
NMS14	Most people think it is important for people from different racial/ethnic backgrounds to get along with each other		.61		4.14	0.97
NMS40	Managers/team leaders treat employees of all races/ethnicities fairly		.50		4.16	1.06
NMS35	We sometimes have policy campaigns focused on racial/ethnic diversity and inclusion			.83	2.95	1.37
NMS32	We have events to showcase our multi-racial/multi-ethnic workforce			.68	2.83	1.41
NMS03	Workplace practices are often adapted to the specific needs of racial/ethnic minorities			.67	2.78	1.25
NMS46	We can easily access multi-racial/multi-cultural skills training or ethnic diversity training			.62	2.74	1.32
NMS38	We make provisions for racial/ethnic minorities' needs and traditional activities			.54	3.33	1.20

Note. MC, Multicultural Contact; MI, Multicultural Ideology; MPP, Multicultural Policy and Practice.

MC α = .88, MI α = .77, MPP α = .81.

Proportion of explained variances are 41%, 27% and 32% for MC, MI and MPP respectively.

Cross-loadings smaller than .30 are suppressed.