STRIKING BALANCE

The influence of inclusive leadership on the work-life balance of employees mediated by the perception of work-life balance practices

Master Thesis



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Preface

This master's thesis marks the end of a valuable period at Radboud University and represents

an accomplishment of the Master's degree in Strategic Human Resources Leadership. I would

like to use this opportunity to thank everyone who has supported me during my academic career.

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and friends for the support throughout my master's degree.

On the recommendation of my supervisor, I utilized AI Large Language tools (such as

ChatGPT and DeepL) to provide suggestions for active writing (e.g. from: the relationship is

explored in this study \rightarrow This study explores this relationship). I also used the tool for

suggestions in shortening the text for some paragraphs. This is indicated by footnotes.

I hope you enjoy reading the research!

Siri Uijttewaal

Nijmegen, June 2024

2

Abstract

Finding a balance between work-life and private life is an important topic in contemporary society. This cross-sectional study examines the relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance, using the social support theory as a theoretical foundation. This theory suggests that support contributes to individuals' well-being (Lakey & Cohen, 2000). This study also explores whether perceptions of different work-life balance practices (flexible work-arrangements, personal/family leave policies and organizational support) mediate the relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance.

Researchers conducted a questionnaire to test these relationships in a sample of 183 respondents. The results reveal a positive relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance. However, the findings indicate that perceived practices do not mediate the relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance. Nevertheless, this study reveals a significant relationship between inclusive leadership and employees' perceptions of work-life balance practice. Remarkably, these practices do not directly correlate with work-life balance itself.

Keywords: inclusive leadership, work-life balance, perceived flexible work-arrangements, perceived personal/family leave policies, perceived organizational support.

Contents

| Preface | | 2 |
|----------|-----------------------------------|----|
| Abstrac | t | 3 |
| Introduc | ction | 5 |
| Theoret | ical framework | 9 |
| Method | ology | 17 |
| Re | search design | 17 |
| Re | search ethics | 17 |
| Saı | mple | 18 |
| Me | easurement instruments | 19 |
| An | alysis | 23 |
| Results | | 24 |
| Pre | eliminary analysis | 24 |
| Ну | potheses testing | 25 |
| Ad | ditional analysis | 31 |
| Discuss | ion | 33 |
| Lin | nitations and future research | 35 |
| Pra | actical implications | 37 |
| Conclus | sion | 38 |
| Referen | ces | 39 |
| Append | ix | 48 |
| A. | Demographic characteristics | 48 |
| B. | Introduction and informed consent | 48 |
| C. | Questionnaire | 50 |
| D. | Statistical model | 59 |
| E. | Assumptions regression analysis | 59 |

Introduction

Many individuals face challenges in balancing work life and non-work life. Statistics indicate that one in five workers experience a poor balance between work life and non-work life (Wilkens et al., 2018). Since 2017 the European Union implemented a policy aimed at improving work-life balance (Wilkens et al., 2018). This policy mainly focuses on legalizing initiatives. These initiatives include flexible work-arrangements and child-related leave (Wilkens et al., 2018). Kalliath and Brough (2008) define work-life balance as an individual's perception if whether work and non-work activities are compatible. A balanced life has several implications and benefits for employers and employees (Byrne, 2005). Employees benefit from a good work-life balance by experiencing greater responsibility and a sense of ownership, fostering better relationships, avoiding problems at work and home, and having more control over their working lives (Byrne, 2005). Employers benefit from a good work-life balance by experiencing greater motivation and productivity of employees and reduced employee stress, as well as attracting a wider range of applicants and retaining staff. (Byrne, 2005). Therefore, it is important to create a healthy work-life balance.

Given the importance of attaining a healthy work-life balance in society, leadership and the approach to achieving a work-life balance can play a crucial role (Sani & Adisa, 2024). Leaders' behavior and leadership style can play a role in promoting employees' willingness to work. This is enhanced if leaders support employees with non-work responsibilities. Leaders who actively promote work-life balance can contribute to achieving organizational goals (Sani & Adisa, 2024). In line with social support theory, there is a relationship between the social support provided by a leader or organization and its impact on health and stress reduction (Lakey & Cohen, 2000). Shumaker and Brownell (1984) define social support as an exchange of resources between two individuals, aiming to improve the well-being of the recipient. Firstly, this study explores the relationship between leadership and work-life balance, taking the social support theory as the starting point for explaining this relationship. It focuses specifically on inclusive leadership, rather than leadership in general. Inclusive leadership is characterized by Korkmaz et al. (2022) as a behavior focused on the levels of individuals, teams and organizations that combines facilitating employee uniqueness, strengthening belonging within a team, showing appreciation and supporting organizational initiatives. This approach highlights the crucial role of leaders in creating an inclusive and supportive work environment. What distinguishes this approach from other leadership styles is the specific focus on individual characteristics and needs, along with the connection to the organization. This might be an important aspect in encouraging a healthy work-life balance.

To understand how an inclusive leader can contribute to a healthy work-life balance, it is important to focus on HR practices and processes. According to Bowen and Ostroff (2004), HR practices involve communications from employer to employee. For instance, HR practices that facilitate the combination of work and life responsibilities can signal to employees that their work-life balance is valued and encourage them to engage in particular behavior (cf. Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Nishii and Wright's (2007) HR process model plays an important role in understanding how HR practices (such as care arrangements), including leadership initiatives, are intended, actually implemented and perceived within organizations. Actual HR practices distinguish between the proclaimed strategy and its actual implementation (Wright & Nishii, 2007). However, individuals may perceive these practices differently, which is why it is interesting to look at the perceived HR practices section. Employers can use several specific HR activities that aim to promote work-life balance to retain or attract talent. These activities are known as work-life balance practices (Mescher et al., 2009). Such practices include flexible working arrangements, organizational support and personal or family leave (McDonald et al., 2005; Beauregard & Henry, 2009; McCarthy et al., 2010). When organizations implement work-life balance practices or other HR practices at the organizational level, it is common for employees to view practices positively and apply them consistently (Koon, 2020). However, leaders influence how these practices are perceived by employees (Nishii & Paluch, 2018). Thus, inclusive leaders can potentially have a significant influence on the perception and experience of work-life balance practices. Therefore, this study explores this relationship. Furthermore, this study examines how individuals perceive work-life balance practices and whether they indeed have a relationship with work-life balance. Moreover, this study examines how perceived work-life balance practices mediate the relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance. This study will further investigate the relationship between perceived practices and work-life balance using the job demands-resources model (Baker & Demerouti, 2017). This model states that work-related resources promote employee well-being and performance. Resources are therefore positively related to satisfaction with work-life balance, but job demands are negatively related to balance satisfaction (Sarwar et al., 2021).

Considering scientific relevance, current research in the field of work-life balance predominantly focuses on family supportive supervisor behavior (Crain & Stevens, 2018; De Valdenebro Campo et al., 2021; Susanto et al., 2022). Supervisors provide the content-specific support, focusing on individual's well-being and providing resources within the organization to

the employees (Crain & Stevens, 2018). Inclusive leadership adopts a broader approach, encompassing the entire organizational culture (Amin et al., 2018). Moreover, inclusive leadership also focuses on individual employees and their uniqueness, strengthening team belongingness, and supporting and appreciating organizational initiatives (Korkmaz et al., 2022). Research from Kelliher et al. (2008) shows that employers and organizational policies can also impact worker's ability to achieve work-life balance, although the focus of family supportive supervisor behavior primarily centers on the individual. For example, by offering flexible work options (Kelliher et al., 2018). Additionally, developing teams and team building can also contribute to improving the quality of work-life balance (Bradley et al., 2010). Inclusive leaders focus not only on individuals but also on teams and organizations. In this regard, the existing literature can be supplemented with valuable insights on how inclusive leadership impacts work-life balance. In this case, employees' perceptions of work-life balance practices mediate to clarify the context, given the variability in their perceptions (Wright & Nishii, 2007). For instance, the study by Dekker et al. (2007) argues that employees who receive higher levels of support for work-home culture are more likely to utilize offered work-life balance practices and experience increased positive interactions between work and non-work life (Dikkers et al., 2007). This shows that leaders' support can influence work-life balance. Further investigation into this matter can provide valuable insights into how practices effectively support work-life balance and the role that managers, teams, and the organization play in this regard.

When specifically considering societal relevance, this research can provide insight into how the leadership style affects work-life balance. Managers need to pay attention to their employees' work-life balance (Sani & Adisa, 2024). Supportive managers who are committed to the work-life balance of their team members contribute to higher levels of employee satisfaction, reduced conflict and lower employee turnover rates (McCarthy et al., 2010). This shows that leaders play a crucial role in this aspect of work-life balance and the practices of it. Therefore, it is interesting to understand the role of inclusive leadership in work-life balance and these practices and how they should deal with it.

This research examines how inclusive leadership relates to a better balance between work obligations and employees' personal lives. It also investigates how the application and perception of work-life balance practices within an organization mediate this relationship. For this reason, the following research question is formulated:

To what extent does inclusive leadership directly influence employees' work-life balance, and how is this relationship mediated by the perception of work-life balance practices?

Fully exploring this issue involves evaluating the relationships between inclusive leadership and perceived work-life balance practices, as well as the relationships between perceived work-life balance practices and work-life balance.

This research delves into the concepts of inclusive leadership, work-life balance, and perceived work-life balance practices to elucidate their interrelationships. Hypotheses are formulated based on these concepts. The research methodology is then delineated, followed by the presentation of findings. The report concludes with a discussion highlighting practical implications and a comprehensive conclusion.

Theoretical framework

¹Inclusive leadership starts with understanding inclusion. Shore et al. (2011) defines inclusions as employees feeling valued and experiencing the need of belonging and uniqueness at work. Korkmaz et al. (2022) describe inclusive leadership as a behavior that promotes employee uniqueness, strengthening team belongingness, showing appreciation and supporting organizational initiatives. Korkmaz et al. (2022) present a conceptual model of inclusive leadership with four key aspects. Leaders promote employee uniqueness by supporting diversity, fostering learning and development, and empowering employees. They strengthen team belonging by building relationships, ensuring equality and sharing decision-making. Moreover, leaders show appreciation by recognizing employees' efforts and contributions. Finally, inclusive leaders support organizational change to promote the mission of inclusion. Leaders play a crucial role in promoting a work-life balance (Sani & Adisa, 2024). This research focuses on inclusive leadership which encompasses various perspectives (Korkmaz et al., 2022), and examines the impact of achieving this balance.

There are multiple definitions of work-life balance, this study adopts Kalliath and Brough's (2008) definition: "The individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual's current life priorities." (Kalliath & Brough, 2008, p. 326). This definition focuses on whether individuals feel their work and non-work roles meet their shared expectations. Sirgy and Lee (2017) identify two main dimensions of work-life balance: commitment to both work and non-work life, and minimal conflicts between these roles. To promote work-life balance, specific HR practices, known as work-life balance practices, are essential. Employees perceive these practices as crucial in achieving a healthy work-life balance.

Human Resources departments implement and assess work-life balance practices (Hartog et al., 2013), because they are responsible for improving employees well-being (Koon, 2020). However, assessing these practices involves more than just HR. The evaluation of these practices is notably a complex issue that involves both managers and employees (Koon, 2020). This study focuses on perceived work-life balance practices as a part of HR practices. It is important to understand the extent to which work-life balance practices align with employees' perceptions (Koon, 2020). Managers play a crucial role in influencing how these practices are

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¹ This text (concepts explanation) was shortened from 1034 to 493 words using suggestions from AI Large Language Tools.

perceived (Wright & Nishii, 2007). This study aims to explore how employees perceive these practices, guided by Wright and Nishii's (2007) HR process model theory, which highlights potential discrepancies between intended and perceived HR practices. Several theories examine flexible work-arrangements, organizational support, and personal or family leave as practices conducive to achieving work-life balance (McDonald et al., 2005; Beauregard & Henry, 2009; McCarthy et al., 2010).

Flexible work-arrangements include flexible schedules, telecommuting, reduced work hours, and compressed workweeks (De Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). Personal/ family leave policies cover government regulations, personal leave, sabbatical opportunities and leave exchange programs (Johnson, 1995). In this study perceived organizational support focusses on perceived organizational family supports, which includes instrumental, informational and emotional support (Jahn et al., 2003). This research examines how the perception of these work-life balance practices can mediate the relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance.

Relationship inclusive leadership and work-life balance

To understand the connection between inclusive leadership and work-life balance, the focus is on social support theory within an academic framework. This theory examines how social relationships affect emotions, behaviors, cognitions and biology (Lakey & Cohen, 2000). It suggests that social support contributes to health outcomes by providing protection from the effects of stress. Ashikali et al. (2020) assume that inclusive leadership requires promoting and supporting an inclusive work environment that appreciates employees. Hence, from social support theory it can be argued that inclusive leadership affects individuals' well-being and reduces stress because of the social support leaders provide (Lakey & Cohen, 2000). Considering that work-life balance is directly related to well-being, this support may help employees achieve a better work-life balance (Jang, 2009). Thus, work-life balance influences well-being (Hoffmann-Burdzińska & Rutkowska, 2015). In essence, social support theory shows that inclusive leadership can help promote healthy work-life balance by providing social support, which benefits employees' health, well-being and stress levels.

Korkmaz et al. (2022) composed a comprehensive review of existing research on inclusive leadership, revealing that the empirical literature has not explored the relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance. Nevertheless, researchers conducted studies aiming to elucidate the relationship between inclusive leadership and employee well-being. Studies suggest a positive impact of inclusive leadership on employee well-being (Choi

et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2020; Cao et al., 2022). Therefore, work-life balance has been shown to contribute to improved health conditions and employee well-being (Zheng et al., 2015), establishing a positive association between the two (Emre & Spiegeleare, 2019). Previous research has extensively examined family supportive supervisor behavior concerning work-life balance by offering emotional or instrumental support (Crain & Stevens, 2018), highlighting the constructive influence of family supportive supervisors on work-life balance (Greenhaus et al., 2012). Additionally, how family supportive supervisor behavior affects work-life balance depends on the overall organizational context (Greenhaus et al., 2012). Organizational policies, practices, and culture significantly shape perceptions of work-life balance (Crain & Stevens, 2018). In contrast, inclusive leadership adopts a broader approach encompassing, individual, organizational and team perspectives, whereas family supportive supervisor behavior predominantly addresses the individual perspective. Additionally, Dikkers et al. (2007) argue that creating a supportive work environment with few obstacles is crucial for improving the balance between work and home life, which aligns with the fundamental organizational principles of inclusive leadership.

An analysis of the components of inclusive leadership by Korkmaz et al. (2022), potentially suggests a positive correlation with work-life balance. Firstly, promoting employee uniqueness, and emphasizing support and advancement, aligns with social support theory, which asserts that such support impacts work-life balance. Additionally, individuals have diverse needs for work-life balance based on their interests and experiences (Prakash, 2018), which inclusive leaders can accommodate. Secondly, fostering a sense of belonging within a job and organization contributes to better work-life balance (Pradhan, 2016). Employees feeling supported and connected to their work leads to improved balance (Pradhan, 2016). Leaders play a crucial role in creating this team environment through activities like team building, and can enhance work-life balance (Bradley et al., 2016). Thirdly, equality and recognition in inclusive leadership are crucial for optimal balance, recognizing that only when employees are equally involved and satisfied with their roles can optimal work-life balance be achieved, as affirmed by Wilkinson (2013). Employees perceive recognition of their needs and organizational solutions positively affecting their work-life balance (Robak et al., 2016). Supporting organizational efforts, although indirectly impacting individuals, remains significant, given the social support's critical role. Moreover, organizations influence work-life balance through policies like flexible work-arrangements (Kelliher et al., 2018), tailored to employees' diverse needs, an aspect leaders influence in policy implementation.

Additionally, researchers conducted studies on the direct relationship between inclusive leadership and employee engagement at work, as well as the minimal conflict between work and non-work life, which represents the dimensions of work-life balance (Sirgy & Lee, 2017). The study by Boa et al. (2021) reveals a positive relationship between inclusive leadership and employee engagement at work. In addition, Luu (2021) conducted research between disability inclusive leadership and work-family conflict. This research found a negative relation between disability inclusive leadership and work-family conflict. This means more inclusive leadership in relation to people with disabilities is associated with fewer work-life conflicts (Luu, 2021). The positive relationship between the two dimensions of work-life balance suggests that inclusive leadership might also positively affect the overall concept of work-life balance. Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is stated:

H1: Inclusive leadership has a positive relationship with the work-life balance of employees.

Analyzing whether inclusive leaders can contribute to a healthy work-life balance, involves examining the role of work-life balance practices as communication tool to employees (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004), and how inclusive leaders influence the perceptions of work-life balance practices.

Relationship inclusive leadership and perceived work-life balance practices

This study examines the relationship between inclusive leadership and the various perceived practices of work-life balance using the process model of Wright and Nishii (2007). Employees often perceive a difference between the actual implementation of HR practices and how they receive them. This challenge largely involves communication, in how the facilitated HR practices are conveyed. Furthermore, employees' previous experiences with HR practices influence their perceptions and interpretations of current practices (Wright & Nishii, 2007). Moreover, each individual processes information uniquely, influenced by their cultural background (Wright & Nishii, 2007). This suggests that perceptions of practices can vary widely between individuals (Wright & Nishii, 2007). According to Nishii and Paluch (2018), leaders play an important role in bridging the gap between HR practices as intended and their actual implementation. Moreover, leaders influence perceptions of employee climate (Nishii & Paluch, 2018).

According to Goleman (2017), a manager's leadership style influences satisfaction with HR practices, employee outcomes, and the actual implementation of policies. Dikkers et al. (2007) conclude that employees who perceive a higher level of support for work-home culture are more likely to use the work-life practices that employers offer. This implies that support may play an important role in both the perception and use of work-life balance practices.

When examining the relationship between inclusive leadership and perceived flexible work arrangements, it is evident that inclusive leadership emphasizes promoting uniqueness, focusing on employee support and empowerment. This approach includes encouraging employees to choose how they want to perform their work (Korkmaz et al., 2022). Leaders additionally influence the usage and application of flexible working, with effective communication playing a crucial role (Millard, 2020). Leaders communicate and shape the perception of flexible work-arrangements. Inclusive leaders can play an important role in promoting flexible working arrangement. Their focus on empowerment and support can create a work environment in which flexible work-arrangements are not only offered but also actively encouraged and utilized. Leaders do not directly control personal/family leave, but they do influence how employees perceive these leave policies. Leaders influence the use of personal/family leave and thus determine whether employees use it or not (Cordeiro, 2006). This is related to the relationship between the employee and the leader, and with promoting uniqueness. Additionally, when employees perceive a lack of managerial support for using leave policies, their likelihood of utilizing these policies decreases, regardless of their availability (Allen, 2001). Inclusive leadership emphasizes the importance of promoting uniqueness, building relationships, and supporting organizational efforts (Korkmaz et al., 2022), which is a crucial factor in this case, because the perception and use of personal/family leave policies may differ. Inclusive leadership with building good relationships may influence this. A component of inclusive leadership includes supporting organizational efforts (Korkmaz et al., 2022). Therefore, inclusive leadership may potentially impact perceived organizational support, as leaders' active involvement in supporting organizational efforts can positively affect employees' experience of HR practices and overall organizational support. The mentioned theories and empires lead to the following hypotheses:

H2a: Inclusive leadership has a positive relationship with the perceived flexible work-arrangements of employees.

H2b: Inclusive leadership has a positive relationship with the perceived personal/family leave policies of employees.

H2c: Inclusive leadership has a positive relationship with the perceived organizational support of employees.

Explorative: This research will examine whether certain dimensions of inclusive leadership are associated with different work-life balance practices and perceptions. However, little information exists on this topic, making this section exploratory in nature.

Relationship perceived work-life balance practices and work-life balance

The job demand-resources model from Baker & Demerouti (2017) explains the potential correlation between perceived work-life balance practices and work-life balance. This theoretical framework describes the impact of work-related demands and resources on employees (Schaufeli & Taris, 2013). The model posits that heightened job-related demands result in increased workload and potential health detriments (Schaufeli & Taris, 2013), which in turn negatively influence satisfaction with work-life balance (Sarwar et al., 2021). Conversely, it suggests that work-related resources foster employee well-being and performance (Schaufeli & Taris, 2013), thereby positively correlating with satisfaction regarding work-life balance (Sarwar et al., 2021). These practices serve as means to enhance work-life balance and thus show a positive relation (Bloom et al., 2009).

Tausig & Fenwick (2001) argues that flexible work-arrangements positively impact work-life balance. The availability of such arrangements suggests the ability to manage the demands of both home and work. This allows employees to choose a schedule that balances work and personal commitments (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). A personal/family leave policy can encourage employees to take leave when needed, thereby enabling a work-life balance (Feeney & Stritch, 2017). It is important to educate employees on the importance of maintaining a healthy well-being. An organization that values personal leave and allows employees to take leave without negative consequences will experience an increase in employee engagement, confidence and satisfaction (Feeney & Stritch, 2017). Several studies have already been conducted on the relationship between perceived organizational support and work-life balance. Both Wayne et al. (1997) and Fitria and Linda (2019) endorse this positive relationship. Indeed, employees' perceptions of organizational support affect their ability to achieve work-life balance, as well as their willingness to leave the organization. The following hypotheses are stated:

H3a: The perceived flexible work-arrangements have a positive relationship with work-life balance.

H3b: The perceived personal/family leave policies have a positive relationship with work-life balance.

H3c: The perceived organizational support have a positive relationship with work-life balance.

Perceived work-life balance practices as a mediating factor

Social support theory helps explain how inclusive leadership and perceptions of practices collaborate to influence employees' work-life balance. The study by Ashikali et al. (2020) demonstrate how inclusive leadership foster an inclusive work environment where employees feel valued. The study underscores the important role of social support within inclusive

leadership, which is crucial for enhancing well-being (Lakey & Cohen, 2000). Effective communication and implementation of HR practices significantly shape employees' perceptions of organizational support (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Flexible work-arrangements, personal/family leave policies and organizational support may serve as social support mechanisms that contribute to a healthy work-life balance.

Inclusive leadership lays the foundation for an organizational culture where employees can be themselves and feel at home, where the organization provides a fair and equitable work environment where everyone is treated as an insider (Korkmaz et al., 2022). The study by Dikkers et al. (2007) argues that employees who experience higher levels of support in the work-home culture are more likely to use offered work-life balance practices. This support can be provided by the inclusive leader, because this form of leadership centers around fostering a supportive organizational culture. Moreover, these workers also experience higher levels of positive work-life interaction (Dikkers et al., 2007). This indicates a mediated relationship. In addition, a harmonious work-life balance is more achievable when HR practices are flexible and responsive to employees' needs (Topcic et al., 2015).

When considering the various perceived HR practices, it appears that communication plays an important role in how leaders control the use and application of flexible work-arrangements (Millard, 2020). Meaning that leaders can influence how flexible work-arrangements are received, in a situation where these perceived flexible work-arrangements positively impact work-life balance (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). Additionally, research on personal/family leave policies indicates that leaders determine the use of family leave policies (Cordeiro, 2006). When employees feel that leaders do not support leave policies, they are less inclined to utilize them (Allen, 2001). An inclusive leader prioritizes relationships and promoting uniqueness (Korkmaz et al., 2022), while taking leave is essential for maintaining a good work-life balance (Fenney & Stritch, 2017). In addition, organizational support is a crucial element within inclusive leadership (Korkmaz et al., 2022), with employees' experience of this organizational support having a positive impact on work-life balance (Wayne et al., 1997; Fitria & Linda, 2019).

In conclusion, the different perceived work-life balance practices are expected to partially mediate the relationship between inclusive leadership and employees' work-life balance by creating a supportive work environment where employees feel esteemed, because regarding Shore et al. (2011) HR practices play a crucial role in creating a supportive work environment where employees feel an esteemed. These practices influence employees'

perceptions of their work environment and their ability to balance professional and personal commitments. For this reason, the following hypotheses are stated:

H4a: The relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance is partially mediated by the perception of flexible work-arrangements.

H4b: The relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance is partially mediated by the perception of personal/family leave policies.

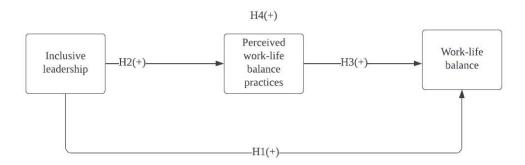
H4c: The relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance is partially mediated by the perception of organizational support.

Conceptual framework

The hypotheses align with the conceptual framework in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Conceptual model: Inclusive leadership, perceived work-life balance practices and work-life balance



Methodology

Research design

This study aims to examine the relationships between inclusive leadership and employees' work-life balance and determine if this relationship is mediated through perceived practices like flexible work-arrangements, organizational support and personal and family leave policies. This study applies quantitative research methodology for its reliability through critical analysis, facilitating quick data collections via survey to obtain numerical data on groups, facilitating respondent agreement or disagreement (Choy, 2014). Quantitative research stands out for its ability to use a larger sample size, enabling us to derive generalizable conclusions to answer the research question (Polit & Beck, 2010). Additionally, quantitative approach provides a precise overview of the relationships between inclusive leadership and work-life balance and enhances reliability by using (partly) standardized measurement instruments, and minimizing the likelihood of biases (Adcock & Collier, 2001). Employing a deductive approach, researchers test hypotheses derive from the theory and explore relationships between concepts, including the mediation effect. This study employs a cross-sectional design to collect data on variables such as including leadership, work-life balance and perceived work-life balance practices are collected at one point at a time (Levin, 2003). This approach aims to explore and identify relationships among the variables. Therefore, data collection occurred through an online questionnaire survey, which provided efficiency, and a wide reach within a short time (Lumsden & Morgan, 2005). Students collaborated to distribute the questionnaire through various social media platforms, including WhatsApp, Facebook, LinkedIn, email, and Radboud University Sona Systems, conducted the distribution of the questionnaire. This approach resulted in a diverse sample by approaching personal contacts within each individual's network. Data was collected using the software program Qualtrics (Qualtrics XM). The guidelines regarding the length of the questionnaire were taken into account, aiming for a length between 10 and 20 minutes (Revilla & Ochoa, 2017). The information collection period spanned approximately two weeks, from 17 April 2024 until 1 May 2024. A reminder was sent between the weeks.

²Research ethics

To ensure research ethics, Smith (2003) examined five principles of research ethics. The prioritized informed consent (Appendix B), ensuring participants understood the voluntary

² This text (research ethics) was shortened from 223 to 125 words using suggestions from AI Large Language Tools.

nature of their involvement and their right to withdraw at any time. The introduction provided a clear overview of this study's purpose, procedures, and estimated questionnaire length, which is inserted in Appendix B. Participants received explicit information about their right to refuse participation or withdraw, discussing risks and benefits thoroughly. The data was kept confidentially and anonymized, stored in the Radboud University's secure Research Information Service (RIS) for ten years. A contact person was available for participant questions. During the analysis process, it was emphasized that no data was deleted or manipulated, and the syntax was stored in SPSS for further analysis.

Sample

This study primarily focused on the perceptions of individuals within various organizations. The unit of analysis in this study concerned "employees". Specifically, the study focused on employees in the Dutch context, accessed through online social networks. Respondents could view the questionnaire in Dutch and in English, enabling all participants to understood the question. For the inclusive leadership scale, Dutch and English versions were already available. The other measurement scales were translated and then back-translated to ensure there were no significant differences in meaning. The researchers compared the back-translations with the original English scales. DeepL was used for the translations.

The choice of sample has an impact on the quality of the study and affects its validity and reliability (Morse, 1991). In this study, convenience sampling served as the sampling method. This method involved nonrandom selection of participants based on practical considerations, such as ease of access, availability at the time of research, willingness to participate, and geographic proximity (Etika et al., 2018). Diversifying the sample was crucial, aiming for diversity terms of gender, age, parenting status, and working hours (full-time and part-time). The survey was distributed across different platforms and channels to achieve diversity. Inclusion and exclusion criteria were also considered. Participants had to be 18 years or older and employed. Individuals who were not working and did not fall within this age range are excluded.

The G*power analysis (GPower 3.1) guided the assessment of sample size (Kang, 2021). This analysis considered the effect size, confidence level and desired statistical power. Hereby, the sample size was determined according to the power of .80 and a confidence interval of 95% ($\alpha = 0.05$). A minimum small effect size (f = .20) was required. To achieve this, a sample of 199 participants was necessary. Initially, the data set consisted of 508 participants before the cleaning process. This initial sample included data from pilot rounds, participants who completed less than 80% of the survey, participants who did not agree through the informed

consent statement, or participants who did not have a supervisor. After carefully cleaning of the dataset, 356 valid respondents remained, including 173 with a supervisory role and 183 without. This study focused on this filtered group of 183 respondents. As follows, the data set was cleaned and missing's and outliers were identified for some questions.

Within the sample 35% identified themselves as men, 65% as women. The birthyear (N=183) ranged from 1958-2004, the average was 1989 (SD=13,43). The average tenure (N=179) was 6,24 years (SD= 8,66). The number of working hours (N=183) ranged from 4 to 60 hours in a week, with an average of 29,16 hours (SD=11,67). The percentage of working from home (N=182) ranged from 0 to 100 percent. The average number of hours worked from home was 25.74%. In the sample there are 52 respondents with children, the number of children ranged from 1 to 6 children, the average was 2 children (SD=0,79). There were 18 people with dependent care responsibilities, the hours of dependent care ranged from 1 to 20. Appendix A details the demographic characteristics. Table 1 shows an additional representation of demographic characteristic.

Table 1. *Additional demographic characteristics*

| | Number of | Number of | Number of | Number of people with |
|--------|-------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| | people with | people with 1- | people with | dependent care |
| | children | 3 children | 3> children | responsibilities |
| Gender | (N=52) | (N=45) | (N=7) | (<i>N</i> =18) |
| Men | 16 | 15 | 1 | 6 |
| Women | 36 | 30 | 6 | 12 |

Measurement instruments

This study utilized several previously developed scales to measure the variables: inclusive leadership, work-life balance, and perceived work-life balance practices, including flexible work arrangements, personal/family leave, and organizational support. The evaluation of the measurement instrument encompassed fundamental elements such as reliability and validity. To ensure the construct validity of the scales, researchers conducted exploratory factor analysis. The primary objective was to identify factors that adequately represented the variables (Hair et al., 2018). The Bartlett test for sphericity was applied to examine the correlation between variables (p < .05), and sample fit was assessed using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) criterion (minimum of .50). Factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were considered, primarily focusing on the amount of variance. Additionally, the scree test helped in identifying the optimal number of factors (Hair et al., 2018). All these assessments aimed to determine the validity of the factors

in describing the variables. Reliability testing involved assessing internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha, which should exceed 0.70 (Hair et al., 2018). "Cronbach's alpha if item deleted" was analyzed; if reliability significantly increased, removing the item was considered. All items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). This method, present a simple and powerful approach, provided a useful and verifiable measure of underlying attitudes (Batterton & Hale, 2017). The final questionnaire, after factor and reliability analysis, is presented in Appendix C, with removed items formatted in bold.

Inclusive leadership

The framework of Korkmaz et al. (2022) was used to measure inclusive leadership by asking questions based on several dimension, including fostering employee's uniqueness (1), strengthening belongingness within a team (2), showing appreciation (3) and supporting organizational effort (4). The survey consists of a total of 34 items. An example item is "My supervisor supports each one of us both at personal and work level" (Korkmaz et al., 2022). Respondents should consider the manager or leader they interact with the most.

A factor analysis was conducted, involving various iterations to address cross-loadings. After removing iterations, the factor analysis revealed a KMO value of .908 and a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (<.001). Communalities ranged from .470 to .755, exceeding the minimum loading of .20 (Hair et al., 2018). The factor analysis identified five factors explaining 72.51% of the variance. The eigenvalue of these factors was 1.079, and the scree plot examined five factors. Items with cross-loadings were removed from the analysis, while maintaining the existing dimensions of inclusive leadership instead of the five-factor model, resulting in 20 items. Results indicated that Cronbach's alpha showed relatively high internal consistency (.928). As interest also lay in the dimensions of inclusive leadership, the average scores of the respondents on each dimension were calculated using the apriori items of the scales. The 'fostering employees uniqueness' dimension had a Cronbach's alpha of .927, 'strengthening belongingness within a team' had an alpha of .894, 'showing appreciation' had an alpha of .878, and 'supporting organizational effort' registered an alpha of .820. These values suggest that the dimensions are reliable and had a strong internal consistency.

Work-life balance

Three items from Haar (2013) measured the variable work-life balance. The scale focused on the overall level of enjoyment, satisfaction and management of all life roles and work (Haar, 2013). An example of an item is: "I am satisfied with my work-life balance." (Haar, 2013).

The factor analysis revealed a KMO of .652 and a significant Barlett's Test of Sphericity (<.001). One factor, explained 73,79% of the variance. The eigenvalue of the factor was 2.21,

and the scree plot examined one factor. The reliability analysis with a Cronbach's alpha of .817, led to the decision to remove the item about satisfaction with every aspect of life. Removing this item increased the Cronbach's alpha to .884. The increase of .067, exceeds the threshold of .05, suggesting that the internal consistency improved (Field, 2018). Since both item one and two covered satisfaction and item one lacks theoretical value, item one was removed while retaining the other two.

HR-practices

Perceived flexible work-arrangements: De Menezes and Kelliher (2011) assessed various variables, including generic flexible work arrangements, schedule flexibility, remote working, compressed working times, and reduced hours, to examine flexible work arrangements. In this study, the scale was adapted into a three-item scale to reflect perceptions of flexible work-arrangements, as inserted in Appendix C. An example item is: "I can decide when to do my work."

The factor analysis revealed a KMO of .515 and Barlett's Test of Sphericity was <.001. The communalities after extraction ranged from .056 to .966, falling below the minimum loading of .20 (Hair et al., 2018). Item three was deleted, revealing a KMO of .500 and a Barlett's test of sphericity <.001. The factor analysis identified one factor that explained 80,73% of the variance. The eigenvalue of this factor was 1.62. Item three, in which someone may work less, was removed. However, it is important to note the focus for now was only on flexible work-arrangements involving remote working and schedule flexibility. The reliability analysis revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .759.

Perceived Personal/family leave: Mulvaney (2014) utilized a measurement scale to assess the availability of leave programs and time off. These programs provided employee benefits, and included family leave that exceeded legal requirements. They encompassed personal leave of absence, sabbaticals, and the sharing of leave days through a leave bank. However, due to its limited utilization in organizations, the leave bank was excluded from this study. Participants were asked regarding their perceptions of the three items related to the availability of these programs in their organization (Mulvaney, 2014). In this study, three items were measured, an example is: "I feel supported in taking personal leave of absence when needed".

The factor analysis revealed a KMO value of .607 and Barlett's Test of Sphericity was <.001, indicating significance (p<.05). The communalities after extraction ranged from .192 to .795, falling below the minimum loading of 0.20 (Hair et al., 2018). For this reason, item three was deleted. After this deletion, KMO revealed a value of .50 and Barlett's test of Sphericitiy was <.001. One factor, explained 87,14% of the variance. The eigenvalue of this factor was

1.74. Sabbatical leave (item 3) was not included, as it was not feasible in every organization. This research focused on personal leave of absence and family leave beyond the required law. The reliability analysis showed a Cronbach's alpha of .852.

Perceived organizational support: perceived organizational support was measured by the perceived organizational family support scale by Jahn et al. (2003), which measured instrumental, emotional and informational support. However, the items were somewhat rewritten to focus more on work-life balance rather than work-family balance. Perceived organizational support comprised nine statements. An example of an item is: "My organization has programs and policies to help employees keep work-life balance." According to Jahn et al. (2003), the first six items related to instrumental and informational support, while the last three items focused on emotional support. To simplify hypotheses formulation and measurement, perceived organizational support was not yet distinguished yet. This study replicated the findings.

The factor analysis revealed a KMO value of .893 and Barlett's test of Sphericity was <.001. This analysis identified two factor that explained 74,61% of the variance. The eigenvalue of this factors was 1.14. The reliability analysis revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .906, indicating strong internal consistency. In this study, the first six items all loaded on factor one, and the last three items loaded on factor two. Appendix C showed the red items form the variable instrument and informational support, with a Cronbach's alpha of .914. The green items form the variable emotional support, with a Cronbach's alpha of .824.

³Control variables

This study examined control variables that impact employee work-outcomes include birthyear, gender, tenure, number of working hours, number of children and dependent care responsibilities. Control variable birthyear influenced employee well-being and leadership effectiveness. Keyes et al. (2002) suggest younger employees report higher well-being, while Bernerth et al. (2017) highlighted age importance in leadership studies. Birthyear was measured by the respondent's year of birth. The control variable gender affected performance efficiency and work-life balance. Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) noted gender difference in performance, related to leadership and Doble and Supriya (2010) linked gender to work-life perceptions. The control variable tenure impacts work-life balance by influencing absence rates and work motivations (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Ng and Feldman (2010) suggested longer tenure reduces absenteeism,

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³ This text (control variables) was shortened from 515 to 295 words using suggestions from AI Large Language Tools.

suggesting that employees with longer tenure may experience more stable work-life balance. Tenure was measured by years at the current organization. The control variable working hours directly influenced work-family conflict. Major et al. (2002) demonstrated that longer workhours increase conflicts. The control variable working from home affects work-life balance. Bellmann and Hübler (2020) found negative associations between working from home and work-life balance. Respondents reported the percentage of work hours spent working from home. The control variable number of children complicates work-life balance. Valcour (2007) reported that children increase work-family demands. The questionnaire asked respondents whether they have children with options 'yes' and 'no'. And asked how many children someone have. The last control variable was having dependent care responsibilities, such as elderly individuals or adults with disabilities, which adds to work-family conflict. Zuba and Schneider (2012) highlighted that caregivers face more conflicts between work and family duties. The questionnaire asked respondents whether they have dependent care responsibilities with options 'yes' and 'no', and how many hours respondents have dependent care responsibilities.

Analysis

The researcher utilized IBM SPSS to analyze the results. First, this study conducted descriptive analysis to examine data for missing values, outliers, skewness and kurtosis. After the factor analysis, the researcher conducted a reliability analysis and created a correlation matrix. Next, the researcher examined whether the assumptions for regression analysis were met by looking at linearity, multicollinearity, normality and homoscedasticity (Hair et al., 2018). After this the researchers conducted the regression analysis using PROCESS analysis to determine the link between the variables and the mediating effect of the perceived work-life balance practices. The PROCESS procedure in SPSS generated indirect and direct effects in mediation models (Hayes, 2012). The statistical model inserted in Appendix D. In addition to testing the hypotheses, this study examined whether certain concepts of inclusive leadership were more strongly associated with perceptions of a specific work-life balance practice. Moreover, this study examined whether certain dimensions were more related to work-life balance than others. The researchers accomplished this using regression analysis.

Results

Preliminary analysis

Table 2 presents the means, standard deviations and Pearson's correlations of the variables, including the different dimensions of inclusive leadership and the control variables. First, the table shows an association between inclusive leadership and work-life balance (r=.236, p<.01). Furthermore, inclusive leadership is positively associated with perceived flexible work-arrangements (r=.283, p<.01), perceived family/personal leave policies (r=.380, p<.01), perceived organizational support (instrumental & informational) (r=.312, p<.01), and perceived organizational support (emotional) (r=.401, p<.01). Work-life balance is positively linked with the perceived personal/family leave policies (r=.238, p<.01), and not with the other work-life balance practices.

For the control variables, higher birthyears experiences a slightly higher degree of emotional organizational support (r=.154, p<.05). Employee work hours positively relate to experienced inclusive leadership (uniqueness, individual level) (r=.157, p<.05) and with perceived family/personal leave policies (r=.171, p<.05). When individuals work from home, they perceive higher levels of inclusive leadership (r=.175, p<.05), perceived flexible work-arrangements (r=.489, p<.01), perceived informational and instrumental organizational support (r=.231, p<.01), and inclusive leadership at the individual level (r=.197, p<.01).

In addition, the distribution is skewed, meaning that there is an asymmetric distribution (Hopkins & Weeks, 1990). This is important to take into account when interpreting the results. In all cases, there is a negative skewness, meaning that most observations are a above the mean, with some values much lower. Analyzing the data, revealed inclusive leadership (*skewness*= -.659), work-life balance (*skewness*= -.969), perceived personal/ family leave (*skewness*= -.978), and perceived organizational support (emotional) (*skewness*= -.769) being moderately negative skewed. Perceived flexible work-arrangements (*skewness*= -.486) and perceived organizational support (informational/ instrumental) (*skewness*= -.229) showed low negative skewness.

 Table 2

 Mean, SD & correlations of (control) variables

| Variables | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 |
|--|---------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|------|--------|-------|--------|------|------|------|-----|------|
| Inclusive Leadership | 3.80 | 0.67 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Work-life Balance | 4.08 | 0.93 | .236** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Perceived flexible work arrangement | at 3.42 | 1.37 | .283** | .100 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Perceived familly/personal leave | 4.13 | 0.86 | .380** | .238** | .391** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. POS (informational/instrumental) | 3.21 | 0.97 | .312** | .033 | .367** | .283** | : | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. POS (emotional) | 3.68 | 0.77 | .401** | .103 | .327** | .480** | .588** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Dimension IL 1 (individual) | 3.89 | 0.73 | .935** | .231** | .289** | .374** | .247** | .354** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Dimension IL 2 (team) | 3.83 | 0.71 | .889** | .248** | .251** | .341** | .292** | .414** | .791** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. DimensionIL 3 (appreciation) | 4.05 | 0.88 | .731** | .259** | .106 | .292** | .226** | .354** | .612** | .671** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. Dimension IL 4 (organization) | 3.31 | 0.80 | .791** | .074 | .260** | .306** | .343** | .287** | .659** | .652** | .520** | | | | | | | | | |
| Control variables | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Birthyear | 1989.45 | 13.43 | 042 | 099 | 090 | 111 | .074 | .154* | 049 | 003 | .037 | 068 | | | | | | | | |
| 12. Gender | 1.65 | 0.48 | .075 | 074 | 015 | 071 | .005 | .014 | .077 | .071 | .033 | .110 | .014 | | | | | | | |
| 13. Children | 1.72 | 0.45 | 005 | 077 | 136 | 089 | .052 | .134 | 012 | .010 | .035 | 020 | .769** | 047 | | | | | | |
| 14. Number of children | 2.00 | 0.79 | .24 | .193 | .048 | .198 | .046 | .159 | .162 | .195 | .158 | .242 | 353* | .159 | .c | | | | | |
| 15. Dependent care | 1.90 | 0.30 | 015 | .028 | 128 | 068 | 021 | 044 | 040 | .006 | .055 | .005 | .239** | 007 | .239** | 300* | | | | |
| Hours dependent care | 7.72 | 5.78 | 210 | 056 | 355 | .085 | 158 | 232 | .215 | 312 | 405 | 307 | .454 | 077 | .689** | .046 | .c | | | |
| 17. Tenure | 6.24 | 8.66 | .071 | .022 | 013 | .063 | .112 | .002 | .054 | .050 | .016 | .096 | 583** | 017 | 425** | .037 | 066 | .065 | | |
| 18. Number of working hours | 29.16 | 11.5 | .143 | .103 | .068 | .171* | .008 | 039 | .157* | .097 | .070 | .104 | 103 | 321** | 060 | 252 | .030 | .407 | 026 | |
| 19. Working from home | 25.74 | 27.65 | .175* | .071 | .489** | .079 | .231** | .085 | .197** | .115 | .085 | .102 | 173* | .095 | 112 | .032 | 085 | 050 | 021 | .034 |

^{**} p < .01 level (2-tailed); * p < .05; N = 183

Hypotheses testing

Before regression analysis, all assumptions were evaluated, which is documented in Appendix E. It is important to note that some heteroscedasticity was present, so interpretation should be approached with caution. Polynomials were used to assess linearity, showing the centered polynomial of the dimension 'appreciation' of inclusive leadership is significant, and was therefore included in the additional analysis.

All hypotheses were tested using Hayes PROCESS Macro. Model 4 was used because of the mediation effect. All control variables that impacted the analyses were added in the analysis. The results can be found in the Tables 3 4 5 6 along with the appropriate Figures 2 3 4 5.

Hypothesis 1: predicted a positive association between inclusive leadership and the work-life balance of employees. In Tables 3, 4, 5, 6, this direct effect is examined. A significant direct effect was found (b=.298, p <.05). For this reason, Hypothesis 1 was confirmed.

Hypothesis 2 (a,b,c): examined a positive relationship between inclusive leadership and perceived work-life balance practices. The first model in Table 3, 4, 5, 6 presents the main effect of inclusive leadership on the perceived work-life balance practices. The results confirmed a direct relationship for perceived flexible work-arrangements (b=.410, p<.05) and personal/family leave policies (b=.458, p<.001). Additionally, inclusive leadership showed positive associations with employees perceived instrumental and informational organizational

c. Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

support (b=.420, p<.001) and with emotional organizational support (b=.474, p<.001). As a result, Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 2c were confirmed.

Hypothesis 3(a,b,c): Hypothesis 3 stated that perceived work-life balance practices had a positive effect on work-life balance (Model 2, Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6). Only the analysis of mediator personal/family leave policy was significant (F (5.173) = 2,63, p<.05, r²=.09). Hypothesis 3a predicted a positive relationship between perceived flexible work-arrangements and work-life balance, but the results in Table 2 did not support this (b =.012, p=.843). Hypothesis 3b expected a positive link between perceived personal/family leave policies and work-life balance, but as indicated in Table 3 the potential direct effect was not significant (b=.164, p=.063). Hypothesis 3c examined the relationship between perceived organizational support and work-life balance, but neither instrumental/informational support (b=-.046, p=.583) nor emotional support (b=.048, p=.639) showed significant associations. Hence, Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3c, were not confirmed

Hypothesis 4(a,b,c): examined whether perceived work-life balance practices partly mediated the relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance. Hypothesis 4a predicted flexible work-arrangements as a mediator, but as indicated in Table 3 this was not supported (b=.005, LLCI=-.044, ULCI=.058). Hypothesis 4b suggested personal/family leave policies mediate the relationship, but as shown in Table 4 this was not confirmed (b=.075, LLCI=-.001, ULCI=.184). Hypothesis 4c examined perceived organizational support as a mediator, but as indicated in Table 5 and 6 no significant mediation for either instrumental/informational support (b=-.019, LLCI=-.108, ULCI=.045) or emotional support (b=.023, LLCI=-.069, ULCI=.129). Therefore, Hypotheses 4a, 4b, 4c were not confirmed

Control variables: Working from home significantly influenced the model with flexible work-arrangements as mediator (Table 3, b=.02, p<.001) and with perceived organizational support (instrumental/informational) as mediator (Table 5, b=.00, p<.01). Birthyear significantly affected the model with perceived organizational support (emotional) as mediator (Table 6, b=.01, p<.05).

 Table 3

 Results for mediation analysis with mediator flexible work-arrangements

| Antecedents | Coeff. | SE | t | 95%CI | \mathbb{R}^2 |
|---|--------|--------|-------|-------------------|----------------|
| Model 1 : <i>F</i> (4.174)=17.384*** | | | | | .283 |
| Main effect on the mediator: | | | | | |
| Perceived Flexible work-arrangements | | | | | |
| Inclusive leadership* | .410 | .141 | 2.901 | [.133, .689] | |
| Birthyear | .000 | .007 | .044 | [130, .013] | |
| Working from home*** | .023 | .003 | 6.824 | [.016, .029] | |
| Number of working hours | .004 | .008 | .502 | [012, .020] | |
| Constant | .591 | 13.416 | .044 | [-25.887, 27.070] | |
| | | | | | |
| Model 2 : <i>F</i> (5.173)= 1.974 | | | | | .068 |
| Main effect on the dependent variable: | | | | | |
| Work-life balance | | | | | |
| Inclusive leadership* | .293 | .124 | 2.369 | [.049, .538] | |
| Perceived flexible work-arrangements | .012 | .052 | .199 | [105, .129] | |
| Birthyear | 005 | .006 | 929 | [016, .006] | |
| Working from home | .000 | .003 | .083 | [006, .006] | |
| Number of working hours | .006 | .006 | .927 | [006, .019] | |
| Constant | 12.869 | 10.944 | 1.176 | [-8.732, 34.471] | |
| Total, direct, indirect effects | | | | | |
| Total effect X on Y* | .298 | .122 | 2.440 | [.057, .539] | |
| Direct effect X on Y* | .293 | .124 | 2.369 | [.049, .538] | |
| Indirect effect of X on Y | .005 | .025 | | [044, .058] | |
| Stardardized indirect effects of X on Y | .004 | .019 | | [032, .043] | |

Figure 2

Model for mediation analysis with mediator flexible work-arrangements

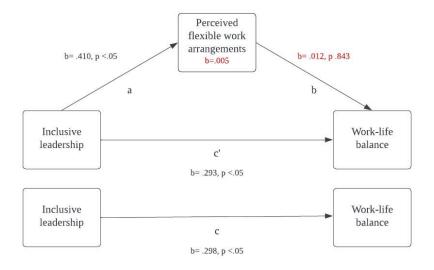


 Table 4

 Results for mediation analysis with mediator perceived personal/family leave policies

| Antecedents | Coeff. | SE | t | 95%CI | \mathbb{R}^2 |
|--|--------|--------|-------|-------------------|----------------|
| Model 1 : <i>F</i> (4.174)=6.207*** | | | | | .165 |
| Main effect on the mediator: | | | | | |
| Perceived personal/family leave | | | | | |
| Inclusive leadership*** | .458 | .120 | 3,80 | [.220, .696] | |
| Birthyear | 005 | .005 | -1.07 | [015, .004] | |
| Working from home | 001 | .003 | 042 | [005, .005] | |
| Number of working hours | .009 | .005 | 1.768 | [001, .019] | |
| Constant | 12.531 | 9.745 | 1.286 | [-6.702, 31.765] | |
| | | | | | |
| Model 2 : <i>F</i> (5.173)= 2.633* | | | | | .087 |
| Main effect on the dependent variable: | | | | | |
| Work-life balance | | | | | |
| Inclusive leadership | .223 | .122 | 1.837 | [017, .436] | |
| Perceived personal/family leave | .164 | .088 | 1.804 | [009, .336] | |
| Birthyear | 004 | .005 | 777 | [015, .007] | |
| Working from home | .001 | .003 | .214 | [005, .006] | |
| Number of working hours | .005 | .007 | .699 | [008, .017] | |
| Constant | 10.826 | 10.856 | .997 | [-10.600, 32.253] | |
| Total, direct, indirect effects | | | | | |
| Total effect X on Y* | .298 | .122 | 2.440 | [.057, .539] | |
| Direct effect X on Y | .223 | .122 | 1.837 | [017, .436] | |
| Indirect effect of X on Y | .075 | .047 | | [001, .184] | |
| Stardardized indirect effects of X on Y | .055 | .035 | | [001, .137] | |
| | | | | | |

Figure 3

Model for mediation analysis with mediator perceived personal/family leave policies

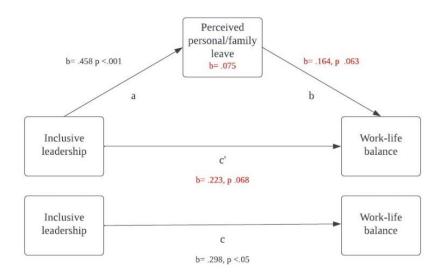


Table 5Results for mediation analysis with mediator Perceived Organizational Support (POS) (instrumental/informational)

| Antecedents | Coeff. | SE | t | 95%CI | \mathbb{R}^2 |
|--|---------|--------|--------|------------------|----------------|
| Model 1 : <i>F</i> (4.174)=7.378*** | | | | | .150 |
| Main effect on the mediator: | | | | | |
| $POS\ (in strumental/informational)$ | | | | | |
| Inclusive leadership*** | .420 | .103 | 4.068 | [.216, .624] | |
| Birthyear | .008 | .006 | 1.425 | [003 .019] | |
| Working from home** | .007 | .003 | 2.609 | [.002, .013] | |
| Number of working hours | 002 | 0.006 | 335 | [015, .011] | |
| Constant | -13.993 | 10.862 | -1.288 | [-35.431, 7.446] | |
| | | | | | |
| Model 2 : <i>F</i> (5.173)= 1.968 | | | | | .069 |
| Main effect on the dependent variable: | | | | | |
| Work-life balance | | | | | |
| Inclusive leadership* | .318 | .129 | 2.467 | [.063, .572] | |
| POS (instrumental/informational) | 046 | .084 | 551 | [009, .336] | |
| Birthyear | 005 | .006 | 850 | [016, .006] | |
| Working from home | .001 | .002 | .360 | [004, .006] | |
| Number of working hours | .006 | .006 | .926 | [007, .018] | |
| Constant | 12.230 | 11.101 | 1.102 | [-9.680, 34.141] | |
| Total, direct, indirect effects | | | | | |
| Total effect X on Y* | .298 | .122 | 2.440 | [.057, .539] | |
| Direct effect X on Y* | .318 | .129 | 2.467 | [.064, .572] | |
| Indirect effect of X on Y | 019 | .038 | | [108, .045] | |
| Stardardized indirect effects of X on Y | 014 | .027 | | [078, .034] | |

Figure 4 *Model for mediation analysis with mediator Perceived Organizational Support (POS) (instrumental/informational)*

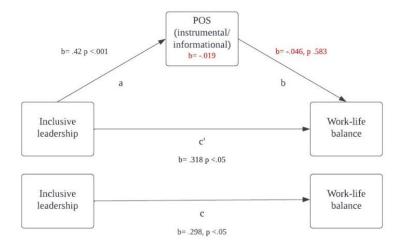
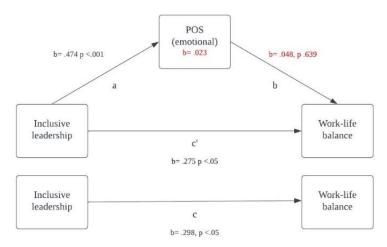


Table 6Results for mediation analysis with mediator Perceived Organizational Support (POS) (emotional)

| Antecedents | Coeff. | SE | t | 95%CI | \mathbb{R}^2 |
|--|---------|--------|--------|------------------|----------------|
| Model 1 : <i>F</i> (4.174)=8.322*** | | | | | .200 |
| Main effect on the mediator: | | | | | |
| POS (emotional) | | | | | |
| Inclusive leadership*** | .474 | .098 | 4,846 | [.281, .667] | |
| Birthyear* | .010 | .004 | 2,135 | [.001, .018] | |
| Working from home | .001 | .002 | .659 | [003, .005] | |
| Number of working hours | 006 | .004 | -1.309 | [015, .003] | |
| Constant | -16.834 | 8.817 | -1.909 | [-34.236, .567] | |
| | | | | | |
| Model 2 : <i>F</i> (5.173)= 1,972 | | | | | .085 |
| Main effect on the dependent variable: | | | | | |
| Work-life balance | | | | | |
| Inclusive leadership* | .275 | .128 | 2.147 | [.022, .528] | |
| POS (emotional) | .048 | .103 | .470 | [155, .251] | |
| Birthyear | 006 | .006 | 974 | [017, .006] | |
| Working from home | .001 | .006 | .182 | [005, .006] | |
| Number of working hours | .006 | .006 | .991 | [006, .019] | |
| Constant | 13.690 | 11.301 | 1.211 | [-8.615, 35.995] | |
| Total, direct, indirect effects | | | | | |
| Total effect X on Y* | .298 | .122 | 2.440 | [.057, .539] | |
| Direct effect X on Y* | .275 | .128 | 2.147 | [.022, .528] | |
| Indirect effect of X on Y | .023 | .049 | | [069, .129] | |
| Stardardized indirect effects of X on Y | .017 | .036 | | [049, .095] | |

Figure 5 *Model for mediation analysis with mediator Perceived Organizational Support (POS) (emotional)*



Additional analysis

Regarding the additional analysis, the examination focused on whether specific dimensions of inclusive leadership showed associations with specific work-life balance practices. For this purpose, regression analyses were conducted, applied four separate regression models. In these models, the dimensions of inclusive leadership served as the independent variable, while different perceived work-life balance practices each served as a separate dependent variable. Important to note, there was no multicollinearity between the dimensions (Appendix E), besides the correlations between the dimensions of inclusive leadership were below .80 (Table 2). For this reason, the dimensions had not been converted to z-scores.

The first regression model with perceived flexible work-arrangements as the dependent variable was significant, (F (7, 171) = 10.798, p < .001). However, the model showed no significant associations between the dimensions of inclusive leadership- fostering uniqueness, (b=.160, p=.450), team belongingness (b=.247, p=.272), organizational support (b=.259, p=.090), and showing appreciation (b=-.234, p=.087) in relation to perceived flexible work-arrangements. The control variable working from home was significant (b=.023, p<.01).

The second regression model with perceived personal/family leave policies as the dependent variable was significant, (F(7, 171) = 5.069, p < .001). However, there were no significant associations found between the fostering uniqueness dimension and personal/family leave policies (b=.232, p=.112), as well as the dimension related to team belongingness (b=.091, p=.556), organizational support (b=.068, p=.516), and showing appreciation (b=.080, p=.392).

The third regression model with perceived organizational support (instrumental and informational) as the dependent variable was significant, (F(7,71) = 5.687, p < .001). However, the dimensions fostering uniqueness (b = .169, p = .295), team belongingness (b = .242, p = .158), and appreciation (b = .024, p = .816) showed no significant associations with perceived organizational support. In contrast, the organizational support dimension exhibited a positive significant association (b = .342, p < .05). Additionally, the control variable working from home was also significant (b = .008, p < .01).

The fourth regression model with perceived organizational support (emotional) as the dependent variable was significant, (F (7, 71) = 6.512, p < .001). The dimensions fostering uniqueness (b= .059, p= .541), appreciation (b= .102, p = .212), and organizational support (b= .013, p= .883) showed no significant association with perceived organizational support. However, the dimension strengthening team belongingness (b= .309, p < .05) showed a

significant association. In this regard, the control variable birthyear showed significance (b= .009, p < .05).

Considering the positive direct relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance, this study also examined the influence of the inclusive leadership dimensions on work-life balance. The regression model utilized the inclusive leadership dimensions as an independent variable and work-life balance as a dependent variable was significant, (F (7,41) = 3.408, p<.05). However, not all dimensions demonstrated a significant association with work-life balance. Fostering uniqueness (b= .111, p=.488), showing appreciation (b=.202, p=.052) and team belongingness (b=.252, p=.141), showed no significant association. In contrast, a significant negative relationship emerged between supporting organizational efforts and work-life balance (b=-.270, p=<.05).

Additionally, this study explored whether practices act as moderators. Inclusive leadership remained the independent variable, with work-life balance as dependent variable and birth year, working hours and percentage of working from home as control variables. However, the findings showed that the interaction effects were not significant with perceived work-life balance practices as moderators: flexible work arrangement (b = -.071, p = .348), perceived personal/family leave policies (b = -.128, p = .141), perceived organization support (informational/instrumental) (b = -.029, p = .372) and perceived organization support (emotional) (b = -.068, p = .535).

Discussion

This study explored the impact of inclusive leadership on employees' work-life balance and if work-life balance practices affect this relationship. A good work-life balance benefits both employees and employers (Byrne, 2005), with leaders playing a crucial role (Sani & Adisa, 2024). While previous research often focuses on family supportive supervisor behavior in relation to work-life balance, this supervisor behavior primarily examines individuals' perspectives (Crain & Stevens, 2018). However, inclusive leadership addresses the needs of individuals, teams, and the organization as a whole (Korkmaz et al., 2022). Leaders possess the capability to influence the perception of practices aimed at enhancing work-life balance (Nishii & Paluch, 2018). This raised the question: To what extent does inclusive leadership directly influence employees' work-life balance, and how is this relationship mediated by the perception of work-life balance practices?

The findings indicated that inclusive leadership positively affects work-life balance. Leaders who acknowledge employees' unique needs, support organizational initiatives, and foster a sense of belonging and appreciation, help employees balance their work and life needs. These findings align with social support theory, which suggests that support enhances well-being (Lakey & Cohen, 2000). Considering that work-life balance directly correlates with well-being, such support mechanisms facilitate employees in achieving a more favorable work-life balance (Jang, 2009). Moreover, research demonstrates that leadership style influences work-life balance (Sani & Adisa, 2024). An inclusive leadership style promotes an organizational culture where employees feel valued and where a fair and equitable work environment is encouraged (Korkmaz et al., 2022), this has a positive influence on employees' work-life balance.

Secondly, inclusive leadership significantly enhanced perceived work-life balance practices. Employees under inclusive leaders benefit from flexible work arrangements, personal or family leave policies, and organizational support. This principle is underscored by Wright & Nishii's HR process model, positing that a leader shape employees' perceptions of HR practices through effective communication (Wright & Nishii, 2007). Given that effective communication is subject to individual interpretation, leadership style profoundly influences how these practices are perceived (Goleman, 2017). Leader support for employees is crucial in encouraging the adoption of work-life balance practices. Inclusive leaders customize this support by attentively addressing individual needs (Korkmaz et al.). Furthermore, inclusive leadership focuses on building relationships, which encourages employees to engage with

work-life balance initiatives (Cordeiro, 2006). This research underscores that focusing on inclusive leadership which includes, attending to individual needs, providing support, and prioritizing relationships, positively impacts employees' perceptions of work-life balance practices.

This study investigated how different work-life balance practices influence work-life balance. The findings indicate that there is no relationship between perceived flexible workarrangements and work-life balance, contradicting previous studies (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). Similarly, there is no connection found between perceived personal/family leave policies and work-life balance, despite the usual encouragement for leave (Feeney & Stritch, 2017). Additionally, there is no evidence supporting the relationship between perceived organizational support and work-life balance, despite previous suggestions of a positive association (Wayne et al., 1997; Fritria & Linda, 2019). This indicates that the findings diverge from prior research, suggesting that work-life balance practices not necessarily improve overall work-life balance. For example, a positive perception of flexible work arrangements does not necessarily imply to experiencing good work-life balance. Dikkers et al. (2007) provide a potential explanation for this. The study argues that simply having practices like flexible working arrangements is insufficient to establish a positive work-home culture. They emphasize the importance of a supportive organizational culture in reducing work-home conflicts and enhancing work-home interactions (Dikkers et al.,2007). This indicates that work-life balance practices alone don't inherently improve balance; their effectiveness relies on the presence of support, obstacles, and the overall organizational culture. In conclusion, this study suggested that there was not a direct effect between perceived work-life balance practices and actual work-life balance. Future research should explore these obstacles and delve deeper into the role of organizational culture.

Next, this study explored whether perceived work-life balance practices act as a mediator, enhancing the impact of inclusive leadership on work-life balance. Inclusive leadership fosters a culture where employees feel accepted (Korkmaz et al., 2022). According to Shore et al. (2011), HR practices are crucial in creating a supportive environment, where individuals feel valued and can balance work and personal commitments. However, the findings diverge, showed that these practices did not mediate the relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance.

This study incorporated various control variables to assess their impact on relationships and work-life balance. However, most of these variables, such as having children, having dependent care responsibilities, gender, number of working hours, and tenure, did not have a significant influence. The only exception was birthyear, which affected the mediator perceived

organizational emotional support. Additionally, working from home influenced perceptions of instrumental/informal support and flexible work-arrangements

This study examined whether dimensions of inclusive leadership are more closely associated with specific perceived work-life balance practices. Most dimensions showed no significant influence on work-life balance practices. Nevertheless, organizational support had a positive association with perceived instrumental/informational organizational support and belongingness within a team correlated with perceived organizational emotional support. However, almost none of the dimensions of inclusive leadership showed a significant direct relation with work-life balance. Only supporting organizational efforts showed a negative relationship with work-life balance. This suggested that consistent support from leaders towards organizational efforts may negatively impact work-life balance. This highlights the need for further investigation.

Limitations and future research

This study has some limitations. First of all, this study is cross-sectional research, which means that it looks at one time point (Lewin, 2006). For this reason, next research may choose to do a longitudinal study to see if there is a pattern over time (Farrington, 1991). Longitudinal research can provide valuable insights into how changes in leadership styles affect perceptions and practices regarding work-life balance and how this affects employees over time. Establishing causality is challenging in cross-sectional (Lewin, 2006). For example, employees with good work-life balance may perceive their manager as more inclusive because of perceived flexibility or opportunities. Longitudinal research can examine whether changes in leadership and work-life balance are preceded by other variables and contextual factors by taking measurements at multiple time point. This can help to determine whether changes in leadership actually lead to changes in work-life balance and provides a better understanding of the dynamics between inclusive leadership and work-life balance.

Convenience sampling was utilized, administering the questionnaire within Radboud University's student network. The sample predominantly comprised individuals with a Higher Vocational Education as their highest completed degree (50.8%). However, Geldenhuys & Henn (2017) indicate that individuals with higher education levels experience more workfamily conflicts, which potentially influenced their perceptions of inclusive leadership and work-life balance practices. Moreover, 65% of participants were women, which potentially impacted perceptions of work-life balance improvements. For instance, men may view flexible working hours as more effective for improving work-life balance than women (Doble & Supriya, 2010). Increasing male representation could reveal different relationships between

practices and work-life balance. This bias complicates generalizing the sample's findings to estimate population effects (Jager et al., 2017). For future research, diversifying the sample and employing random sampling is recommended to ensure representativeness.

The outcomes exhibited a negative skewness, indicating an asymmetric distribution (Hopkins & Weeks, 1990). Additionally, heteroscedasticity in the data poses challenges in achieving a representative picture. With a smaller sample size, extracting significant relationships and making generalizations becomes more complex (De Oliveira Vargas & Mancia, 2019). Although the G-Power test recommended a sample size of 199 participants, the final sample comprised 183 participants. A larger sample size would have enhanced the credibility and applicability of the study findings, potentially offering deeper insights into the effectiveness of inclusive leadership in promoting a healthy work-life balance for employees.

Further research can explore diverse organizational cultures, as Dikkers et al. (2007) suggest that the presence of work-life practices alone is insufficient; a supportive culture with minimal hindrances is crucial. Additionally, investigating different contexts beyond the Dutch setting could provide valuable insights. Cross-cultural studies can shed light on variations in interpretations of work-life balance and the utilization of related practices across countries and within diverse cultural contexts (Lewis & Beauregard, 2018). Beham et al. (2023) found that support from a family supportive supervisor is strongly and negatively associated with work-life conflict, particularly in countries with high human orientation. This highlights the influence of supportive supervision on work-life conflict, with culture playing a significant role. Future research could explore whether (organizational)culture similarly influences the relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance.

The last limitation of this study is the measurement of work-life balance, personal/family leave arrangements, and flexible work-arrangements. Initially, three items were used for each concept, but after analysis, only two items remained. For personal/family leave arrangements, sabbaticals were excluded, focused solely on perceived support for taking time off. Similarly, the option to work fewer hours was omitted from flexible work-arrangements, focused only on when and where someone can work. Although reliability for work-life balance and personal/family leave arrangements remains high, Cronbach's alpha for flexible work-arrangements was slightly below .80 but still above the acceptable threshold of .70 (Hair et al., 2018). The scales were adapted from the original theory to suit this study. Additionally, respondents may had left the percentage field blank, instead providing specific hour values for working from home (e.g., 8, 16, or 24 hours). For future research, incorporating other standardized measurement scales could provide a broader understanding of the concepts.

Practical implications

Creating a good work-life balance is essential for both employers and employees (Byrne, 2005). Leaders play a role in fostering such (Sani & Adisa, 2024). Supportive managers committed to work-life balance within their team ensure higher levels of employee satisfaction (McCarthy et al., 2010). This research provides insights into enhancing work-life balance and emphasizes the role of inclusive leadership in achieving it.

The findings indicate that inclusive leadership positively influences both work-life balance and the perception of work-life balance practices. Therefore, organizations should prioritize inclusive leadership from the outset of an employee's journey, by recruiting individuals who value uniqueness and contribute to a rewarding work environment. These principles can guide the recruitment of managers and supervisors. Moreover, current leaders can actively enhance their inclusivity. Inclusive leaders exhibit various behaviors, including supporting group members, ensuring justice and equity, encouraging diverse contributions, and facilitating shared decision-making (Randel et al., 2018). Leaders can improve their behavior to promote inclusion through mentorship and training programs (Kuknor & Bhattacharya, 2020), focusing on reducing biases, enhancing cultural competencies and effectively communicating inclusivity (Brown, 2019). By integrating inclusive behavior development programs into daily activities, leaders set an example for others to follow (Kuknor & Bhattacharya, 2020), thereby supporting employees and creating an inclusive environment stimulate to improving work-life balance.

Leaders can actively promote inclusive leadership dimensions, such as fostering uniqueness, by addressing individual work-life balance needs. Perhaps, one-on-one discussions can be an effective strategy to assess someone's specific personal needs. Inclusive leaders can also enhance team belongingness, and fostering a sense of belonging ultimately improving work-life balance (Landmann & Rohmann, 2021). Developing teams and team building can play a role in increasing the quality of work-life balance (Bradley et al., 2010). For this reason, team building activities can help improve work-life balance. Another effective strategy is expressing appreciation through positive feedback and recognition, while also understanding the diverse lifestyles of employees to tailor support accordingly (Kelliher et al., 2018). Therefore, implementing 360-degree feedback would be advantageous.

Finally, leaders must be aware of their influential role and actively support employees. An inclusive leader's support for organizational efforts positively influences employees' perceptions of instrumental and informational organizational support. Therefore, leaders should consider these factors when communicating work-life balance practices to employees.

Conclusion

This study examined the relationship between inclusive leadership and work-life balance and the potential mediating effect of different perceived work-life balance practices. There is a positive association between inclusive leadership and work-life balance. This means that when leaders encourage employee uniqueness, foster a sense of belonging within the team, show appreciation, and support organizational efforts, it contributes to a better work-life balance for employees. In addition, a positive association was also found between inclusive leadership and the various work-life balance practices (flexible work-arrangements, perceived organizational support (instrumental & informational, and emotional) and perceived personal/family leave policies). However, no direct association was found between work-life balance practices and work-life balance and work-life balance practices are intermediate roles in how inclusive leadership and work-life balance affect each other. Although the role of inclusive leadership remains crucial in promoting work-life balance. Theoretically, this study supports the earlier studies influencing positive effects of inclusive leadership on employee well-being. Practically, this study suggests, inclusive leaders can have benefits in giving employees a better balance between work life and personal life. This can be taken into account when recruiting new leaders and training current leaders. To conclude, the research shows that inclusive leaders can play a role in supporting employees in finding a healthy work-life balance. Together, let's strive for a workplace where 'striking balance' is not just a goal, but a reality for all employees, guided by inclusive leaders who show the way to a balanced, equal and supportive work environment.

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Appendix

A. Demographic characteristics

Table 7Demographic characteristics

| Variables | Mean | SD | Range |
|--|-------|-------|-----------|
| Birthyear (<i>N</i> =183) | 1989 | 13,43 | 1958-2004 |
| Tenure (in years) (<i>N</i> =179) | 6,24 | 8,66 | 0-40 |
| Number of working hours (<i>N</i> =183) | 29 | 11,67 | 4-60 |
| Working from home (%) (<i>N</i> =182) | 25,74 | 27,65 | 0-100 |
| Number of children (<i>N</i> =52) | 2 | 0,79 | 1-6 |
| Hours of dependent care $(N=18)$ | 7,72 | 5,78 | 1-20 |

| Variables | Categories | Frequencies | Percent |
|--|------------|-------------|---------|
| Gender (<i>N</i> =183) | Male | 64 | 35 |
| | Female | 119 | 65 |
| | Non-binair | 0 | 0 |
| | Other | 0 | 0 |
| Children (N=183) | Yes | 52 | 28,4 |
| | No | 131 | 71,6 |
| Dependent care responsibilities (<i>N</i> =183) | Yes | 18 | 9,8 |
| | No | 165 | 90,2 |

B. Introduction and informed consent

Dear participant,

Thank you very much for your willingness to participate in this research! We are students of the master program Strategic Human Resources Leadership at Radboud University. This research focuses on the topic of inclusive leadership. We are very curious about your experience with this.

The questionnaire contains questions about your leader's leadership style and your experience of your work and health. We have provided several subtopics within the theme. To be able to participate in the research, it is important that you are currently employed in an organisation and have a supervisor (manager).

Completing the questionnaire takes approximately 15 minutes. We greatly appreciate your time!

Kind regards,

Loes de Winkel, Nathalie Elenbaas, Lianne Fontein, Julie Harts and Siri Uijttewaal.

Under the supervision of Dr Marloes van Engen Associate Professor Strategic Human

Resource Management, Nijmegen Institute for Management Research, Radboud University

Anonymity and consent to participation.

Before proceeding to fill out the survey, we would like to ask you to read the following information carefully:

- Your answers will be processed anonymously and strictly confidential. This means that student survey reports will not show the answers given by individual participants.
- Your answers will be stored securely and anonymously in a database of the university; your answers cannot be traced back to you individually.
- Your answers will be used only for academic teaching and research purposes.
- You may stop filling in the survey at any time.
- You consent to the data being used for the purposes described above and retained for 10 years after completion of the study (1-5-2034).

For further questions regarding the study, please contact Siri Uijttewaal. You can send an email to siri.uijttewaal@ru.nl. She will answer your question as soon as possible.

Good luck completing the questionnaire! Click "yes" below if you want to participate in the survey. This means that you have had enough opportunity to consider whether you want to participate in the study and that you understand that there are no consequences for participating.

I agree

O Yes (1)
O No (2)

C. Questionnaire

Inclusive leadership individual: In the following statements, you will be asked to evaluate your supervisor (manager) based on her/his/their interaction with **individual** employees including you. To what extent are the following statements applicable?

Note*: The items that have been removed are bolded within the normal regression analysis (not within additional analysis).

| | Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1. My supervisor supports each one of us both at personal and work level. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2.My supervisor encourages each one of us to approach him/her/them on personal issues. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3.My supervisor encourages each one of us to approach them for support. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4.My supervisor encourages each one of us to share our ideas openly. | 0 | \circ | \circ | \circ | \circ |
| 5.My supervisor encourages everyone to make use of each other's unique backgrounds during problem- solving. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6.My supervisor fosters unique contributions of each one of us. | 0 | \circ | \circ | \circ | \circ |
| 7.My supervisor makes sure that each one of us is invited to express different viewpoints. | 0 | \circ | \circ | \circ | 0 |
| 8.My supervisor encourages each one of us to take initiative. | 0 | \circ | \circ | \circ | \circ |
| 9.My supervisor gives each one of us personal authority to make decisions on how to accomplish tasks on our own. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 10.My supervisor encourages each one of us to solve problems ourselves instead of just telling us what to do. | 0 | 0 | \circ | 0 | 0 |
| 11.My supervisor empowers each one of us to make work-related decisions. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| 12.My supervisor helps each one of us to learn from mistakes to develop ourselves. | 0 | \circ | \circ | \circ | 0 |
|--|---------|---------|---------|---------|---|
| 13.My supervisor gives attention to learning and development opportunities for each one of us. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 14.My supervisor helps each one of us to further develop ourselves. | \circ | \circ | \circ | \circ | 0 |

Inclusive leadership Belongingness: The following statements are about how your supervisor (manager) interacts with your **team.** Please indicate to what extent you disagree or agree with the statement.

| | Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1,My supervisor encourages honesty as a virtue within the team. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2.My supervisor treats team members fairly. | \circ | \circ | \circ | \circ | \circ |
| 3.My supervisor treats team members equally. | 0 | \circ | \circ | \circ | \circ |
| 4.My supervisor makes sure that nobody is left out in the team. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5.My supervisor encourages team members to build closer connections with one another. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6.My supervisor encourages collaboration within the team. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 7.My supervisor facilitates a strong team spirit. | \circ | \circ | \circ | \circ | \circ |
| 8.My supervisor fosters participative decision making within the team. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9.My supervisor explains the reasoning behind the decisions to the team. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 10.My supervisor motivates team members to come to a common agreement for action. | 0 | 0 | \circ | 0 | 0 |
| 11.My supervisor makes decisions together with the team when it is possible. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Inclusive leadership appreciation: The following statements are about how your supervisor (manager) gives **appreciation**. Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the statement.

| | Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1.My supervisor shows recognition for the contributions made by the team. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2.My supervisor praises the efforts of all team members. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3.My supervisor shows appreciation for the effort made by individuals. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Inclusive leadership Organization: The following statements are about how you rate your supervisor's (manager's) attitude towards the **organization** and organizational change. Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with a statement.

| | Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1.My supervisor is open to change the way we proceed to achieve our goals within the organization. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2.My supervisor acts constructively to reluctance towards changes happening within the organization. | 0 | 0 | 0 | \circ | 0 |
| 3.My supervisor is attentive to new opportunities to improve work processes within the organization. | 0 | 0 | 0 | \circ | 0 |
| 4.My supervisor communicates how inclusion contributes to organizational outcomes. | 0 | 0 | 0 | \circ | 0 |
| 5.My supervisor communicates the benefits of diversity for our organization. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6.My supervisor communicates dedication to establishing an organization which represents diversity in society. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Work-life balance: The following statements are about **work-life balance**. Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with a statement.

| | Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1.I am satisfied with every aspect of my life both personally and at work. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2.I am satisfied with my work-life balance. | \circ | \circ | \circ | 0 | \circ |
| 3.I am able to balance responsibilities of my work and private/family life. | 0 | 0 | 0 | \circ | \circ |

Perceived work-arrangement: The following statements are about the opportunities to arrange your **workplaces and working hours** and how you experience them within your organization. Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with a statement.

| | Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1.I can decide when to do my work. | 0 | \circ | \circ | 0 | 0 |
| 2.I have the freedom to work in a place other than the office/workplace (e.g. at home). | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3.If I wanted I could reduce workhours. | 0 | \circ | \circ | \circ | \circ |

Perceived personal/family leave: The following statements are about the experiences you have with **personal/family leave**. Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with a statement.

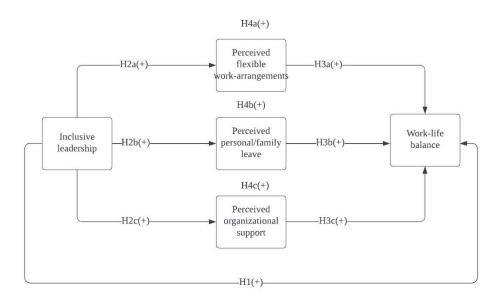
| | Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1.In my organization I feel supported to take leave for family reasons, beyond what is required by law. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2.I feel supported in taking personal leave of absence when needed. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3.My organization provides opportunities for sabbaticals when I want them. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Perceived organizational support The following statements are about the **support** you experience from your organization for a good work-life balance. To what extent do the following statements apply to you?

| | Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1.My organization has programmes and policies to help employees keep work-life balance. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3.My organization makes an active effort to help employees when there is a work-life conflict. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3.My organization puts money and effort into supporting employees' work- life balance. | 0 | 0 | 0 | \circ | \circ |
| 4.It is easy to find information about private life support programmes within my organization. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5.My organization provides its employees with useful information they need to keep work-life balance. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6.My organization helps employees find the information they need to combine work and private life. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 7.My organization is understanding when an employee has a work-life conflict. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8.In general, my organization supports employees to give substance to their private responsibilities. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9.Employees feel that the organization respects their desire to combine work and private life. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \circ |

D. Statistical model

Figure 6
Statistical model



E. Assumptions regression analysis

Linearity

For linearity, it is examined whether the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable are linear. For this purpose, the dimensions of inclusive leadership in relation to work-life balance were examined. Several polynomials were created for this purpose (centered, *2 and *3). Most of the variable are not significant meaning, however the centered variable of the dimension showing appreciation was significant meaning it is included in the regression analysis for the additional analysis. Now this variable is included the linearity assumption is met.

Table 8 *Regression analysis; linearity*

| | Statistics | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|------------|--------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-----------|
| | | Inclead_Cent | Inclead_Cen | 2 Inclead_Cent3 | ICindi_Cent | ICindi_Cent2 | ICindi_Cent3 | ICteam_Cent | ICteam_Cent2 | ICteam_Cent3 | ICwaar_Cent | ICwaar_Cent2 | ICwaar_Cent3 | ICorg_cent l | Corg_cent2 I | Corg_cen3 |
| N | Valid | 183 | 18 | 3 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 |
| | Missing | 0 | | 0 (| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Moo | | 0 | 0.450 | 0 1077 | | 0.5244 | 0.2265 | Λ | 0.5076 | 0.1015 | 0 | 0.773 | 0.9444 | 0 | 0.6417 | 0.1291 |

Variables Entered/Removed

| Model | Variables Entered | Variables Removed | Method |
|-------|--|----------------------|--------|
| 1 | ICorg_cen3, ICteam_Cent2, ICorg_cent2, ICwaar_Cent, ICwaar_Cent2, ICindi_Cent, ICindi_Cent2, ICteam_Cent, ICorg_cent, ICorg_cent, ICteam_Cent3, ICindi_Cent3, ICwaar_Cent3 | · | Enter |
| | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WLBMEAN

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

| | | | | Std. Error of the |
|-------|-------|----------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Estimate |
| 1 | ,418ª | ,175 | ,116 | ,87062 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), ICorg_cen3, ICteam_Cent2, ICorg_cent2, ICwaar_Cent, ICwaar_Cent2, ICindi_Cent, ICindi_Cent2, ICteam_Cent, ICorg_cent, ICteam_Cent3, ICindi_Cent3, ICwaar_Cent3

ANOVA^a

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------|
| 1 | Regression | 27,246 | 12 | 2,270 | 2,995 | <,001 |
| | Residual | 128,855 | 170 | ,758 | | |
| | Total | 156,101 | 182 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WLBMEAN

b. Predictors: (Constant), ICorg_cen3, ICteam_Cent2, ICorg_cent2, ICwaar_Cent, ICwaar_Cent2, ICindi_Cent, ICindi_Cent2, ICteam_Cent, ICorg_cent, ICteam_Cent3, ICindi_Cent3, ICwaar_Cent3

Coefficients^a

| | | Coefficie | nts" | | | |
|-------|--------------|---------------|----------------|------------|--------|-------|
| | | | | Standardiz | | |
| | | | | ed | | |
| | | | | Coefficien | | |
| | | Unstandardize | d Coefficients | ts | | |
| Model | | В | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. |
| 1 | (Constant) | 3,838 | ,108 | | 35,521 | <,001 |
| | ICindi_Cent | -,028 | ,216 | -,022 | -,129 | ,897 |
| | ICindi_Cent2 | ,114 | ,196 | ,110 | ,580 | ,563 |
| | ICindi_Cent3 | ,129 | ,121 | ,282 | 1,067 | ,288 |
| | ICteam_Cent | ,058 | ,232 | ,045 | ,249 | ,804 |
| | ICteam_Cent2 | ,012 | ,169 | ,010 | ,070 | ,944 |
| | ICteam_Cent3 | ,062 | ,130 | ,105 | ,478 | ,633 |
| | ICwaar_Cent | ,347 | ,143 | ,331 | 2,422 | ,017 |
| | ICwaar_Cent2 | ,288 | ,151 | ,474 | 1,906 | ,058 |
| | ICwaar_Cent3 | ,046 | ,058 | ,224 | ,795 | ,428 |
| | ICorg_cent | -,275 | ,177 | -,238 | -1,557 | ,121 |
| | ICorg_cent2 | ,079 | ,102 | ,069 | ,774 | ,440 |
| | ICorg_cen3 | ,030 | ,087 | ,052 | ,344 | ,731 |
| | | | | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WLBMEAN

Normality

All measurement levels are of interval or ratio. However, not all variables are normally distributed. This is because there is skewness and kurtosis in most variables. To determine if a distribution is normal, the skewness and kurtosis values are divided by their respective standard errors. If the resulting values do not fall between -1.96 and 1.96, the distribution is considered not normal (Hair et al., 2018). For example, the skewness of work-life balance is -0.969, and the standard error of skewness is 0.180, resulting in a value of -5.38. This indicates a deviation from normality. This implies that the results should be interpreted with caution.

 Table 9

 Regression analysis; normality

| | | | | | | | Statistics | S | | | | | | |
|---------------|-------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|---------|--------|------------|----------|----------|----------|---------------|-------------|------------|-------------|
| | | | | Welk | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | percentage van | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | Hoeveel uren | uw werkuren | | | | | | | | | | ľ |
| | | | per week werkt | werkt u | | | | | | | | | | ľ |
| | | Wat is uw | u (gemiddeld | (gemiddeld) | | WLBMEA | | | | | INCLEADindivi | INCLEADteam | INCLEADorg | , |
| | | geboortejaar? | aantal uren)? | vanuit huis? | INCLEAD | N | Flexmean | leavmean | POSmean1 | POSmean2 | duC | C | C | ICwaar_Cent |
| N | Valid | 183 | 182 | 180 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 | 183 |
| | Missing | 0 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Me | ean | 1989,45 | 29,1593 | 25,7359 | 3,7964 | 4,0792 | 3,4180 | 4,1284 | 3,2066 | 3,6758 | 3,8946 | 3,8316 | 3,3078 | ,0000 |
| Std. Error | r of Mean | ,992 | ,85270 | 2,06110 | ,04977 | ,06846 | ,10100 | ,06348 | ,07141 | ,05679 | ,05419 | ,05281 | ,05938 | ,06517 |
| Med | dian | 1997,00 | 32,0000 | 20,0000 | 3,8500 | 4,0000 | 4,0000 | 4,0000 | 3,4000 | 3,6667 | 4,0000 | 3,9091 | 3,3333 | -,0546 |
| Std. De | viation | 13,425 | 11,50351 | 27,65252 | ,67329 | ,92612 | 1,36633 | ,85880 | ,96599 | ,76829 | ,73307 | ,71439 | ,80328 | ,88160 |
| Skew | vness | -,875 | -,486 | ,897 | -,659 | -,969 | -,496 | -,978 | -,229 | -,769 | -,868 | -,534 | -,251 | -1,253 |
| Std. Error of | of Skewness | ,180 | ,180 | ,181 | ,180 | ,180 | ,180 | ,180 | ,180 | ,180 | ,180 | ,180 | ,180 | ,180 |
| Kurt | tosis | -,868 | -,566 | -,086 | ,543 | ,233 | -1,097 | ,671 | -,574 | 1,179 | ,846 | ,234 | -,389 | 1,960 |
| Std. Error o | of Kurtosis | ,357 | ,358 | ,360 | ,357 | ,357 | ,357 | ,357 | ,357 | ,357 | ,357 | ,357 | ,357 | ,357 |
| Minir | mum | 1958 | 4,00 | ,00 | 1,55 | 1,50 | 1,00 | 1,00 | 1,00 | 1,00 | 1,36 | 1,36 | 1,33 | -3,05 |
| Maxii | mum | 2004 | 60,00 | 100,00 | 5,00 | 5,00 | 5,00 | 5,00 | 5,00 | 5,00 | 5,00 | 5,00 | 5,00 | ,95 |

Multicollinearity

For this, the correlation between the different dimensions of inclusive leadership are not too high among themselves. For this, the collinearity statistics at Tolerance should be less than .10 and the VIF should be higher than 1 (Field, 2018). The tolerance is .527, .331, .301, and .515 and the VIF is 1.897, 3.018, 3.317, and 1.953. This means that this assumption is met.

 Table 10

 Regression analysis; multicollinearity

| | Variables Ente | ered/Removeda | |
|-----------|---------------------------|---------------|---------|
| | | Variables | |
| Model | Variables Entered | Removed | Method |
| 1 | INCLEADorgC, | | . Enter |
| | ICwaar_Cent, | | |
| | INCLEADindividu | | |
| | C, | | |
| | INCLEADteamC ^b | | |
| a. Depen | dent Variable: WLBME | AN | |
| b. All re | quested variables entered | 1. | |

Model Summary^b

| | | | | Std. Error of the |
|-------|-------|----------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Estimate |
| 1 | ,319ª | ,102 | ,081 | ,88762 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), INCLEADorgC, ICwaar_Cent, INCLEADindividuC,

INCLEADteamC

b. Dependent Variable: WLBMEAN

ANOVAa

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|--------------------|
| 1 | Regression | 15,859 | 4 | 3,965 | 5,032 | <,001 ^b |
| | Residual | 140,242 | 178 | ,788 | | |
| | Total | 156,101 | 182 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WLBMEAN

b. Predictors: (Constant), INCLEADorgC, ICwaar_Cent, INCLEADindividuC, INCLEADteamC

| \sim | • | n• | • | | |
|--------|-----|----|-----|----|----|
| Co | eti | 11 | 116 | 'n | tc |
| | | | | | |

| | | | | Standardized | | | | |
|-------|---------------------|--------------|-----------------|--------------|--------|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| | | Unstandardiz | ed Coefficients | Coefficients | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
| Model | | В | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 3,440 | ,514 | | 6,691 | <,001 | | |
| | ICwaar_Cent | ,190 | ,103 | ,181 | 1,852 | ,066 | ,527 | 1,897 |
| | INCLEADindividuC | ,173 | ,156 | ,137 | 1,111 | ,268 | ,331 | 3,018 |
| | INCLEADteamC | ,202 | ,168 | ,156 | 1,205 | ,230 | ,301 | 3,317 |
| | INCLEADorgC | -,245 | ,114 | -,212 | -2,143 | ,033 | ,515 | 1,943 |

a. Dependent Variable: WLBMEAN

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

| | | | | Commeanty | Diagnostics | | | |
|-------|-----------|------------|-----------------|------------|-------------|---------------|--------------|-------------|
| | | | | | | Variance Prop | ortions | |
| | | | | | | INCLEADindivi | du | |
| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | (Constant) | ICwaar_Cent | C | INCLEADteamC | INCLEADorgC |
| 1 | 1 | 3,960 | 1,000 | ,00 | ,00 | ,00 | ,00 | ,00 |
| | 2 | 1,000 | 1,990 | ,00 | ,52 | ,00 | ,00 | ,00 |
| | 3 | ,022 | 13,289 | ,14 | ,08 | ,01 | ,02 | ,92 |
| | 4 | ,011 | 19,280 | ,80 | ,35 | ,36 | ,09 | ,08 |
| | 5 | ,007 | 24,093 | ,06 | ,05 | ,62 | ,88 | ,00 |
| | | | | | | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WLBMEAN

Homoscedasticity

It is important that there is enough variance. However, the scatterplot shows that this is not the case and thus there is heteroscedasticity. This implies that the results should be interpreted with caution.

Table 11 *Regression analysis: homoscedasticity*

| \mathbf{r} | • 1 | | | α | . • | 4 9 | |
|--------------|------|------|---|----------|-----|-------|--|
| K. | 2617 | 1119 | 2 | Nt9 | fic | ticsa | |
| | | | | | | | |

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|----------------------|----------|---------|--------|----------------|-----|
| Predicted Value | 2,9204 | 4,7041 | 4,0792 | ,29519 | 183 |
| Residual | -2,66868 | 1,75869 | ,00000 | ,87781 | 183 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -3,926 | 2,117 | ,000 | 1,000 | 183 |
| Std. Residual | -3,007 | 1,981 | ,000 | ,989 | 183 |

a. Dependent Variable: WLBMEAN

Figure 7
Regression analysis; homoscedasticity

