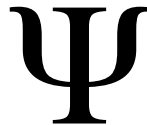**DET PSYKOLOGISKE FAKULTET**

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Leadership in Diversity Organizations, and Immigrants'
Organizational Commitment and Subjective General Health

HOVEDOPPGAVE

profesjonsstudiet i psykologi

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Vår 2014

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to examine leadership styles in managing cultural diversity from the LIDO-model at workplaces in Norway, and investigate the relationships between perceived leadership styles with immigrants' organizational commitment and subjective general health through online survey. The leadership styles from the LIDO-model are diversity leadership, assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. The relationships were measured by the Diversity Management Questionnaire, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, and the 12-item version of General Health Questionnaire. The sample consisted of 260 participants with both native and immigrant backgrounds from Eastern Europe and South-East Asia. Data were analyzed through Pearson correlation and hierarchical regression analyses. The results indicated significant associations between assimilation/separation leadership and continuance commitment ($p < .05$), and significant association between diversity leadership and subjective general health ($p < .05$). Although these results have provided a better understanding of the relationships between perceived leadership styles, and immigrants' organizational commitment and subjective general health at workplaces in Norway, more research is needed to conclude on these relationships.

Sammendrag

Formålet med denne artikkelen er å undersøke ledelsesstil ved håndtering av kulturelt

mangfold fra LIDO-modellen på arbeidsplasser i Norge, og undersøke forholdet mellom

opplevd ledelsesstil med innvandreres organisasjonstilhørighet og subjektiv generell helse

gjennom spørreundersøkelse. Ledelsesstilene fra LIDO-modellen er mangfoldsledelse,

assimilasjonsledelse, separasjonsledelse, og laissez-faire ledelse. Forholdene ble målt med

the Diversity Management Questionnaire, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, og

the 12-items version of the General Health Questionnaire. Utvalget bestod av 260 deltakere

med både etnisk norsk bakgrunn og innvandrerbakgrunn fra Øst-Europa og Sør-Øst Asia.

Dataene ble analysert gjennom Pearson korrelasjon og hierarkiske regresjonsanalyser.

Resultatene indikerte signifikante assosiasjoner mellom assimilering/separasjonsledelse og

behovstilhørighet (continuance commitment) ($p < .05$), og signifikant sammenheng mellom

mangfoldsledelse og subjektiv generell helse ($p < .05$). Selv om disse resultatene har gitt en

bedre forståelse av forholdene mellom oppfattet ledelsesstil, og innvandreres

organisasjonstilhørighet og subjektiv generell helse på arbeidsplasser i Norge, er mer

forskning nødvendig for å konkludere på disse sammenhengene.

As globalization is increasing, which involves demographic changes in the workforce and customer populations, combined with globalized markets and international competition, managing cultural diversity is becoming more important. In Norway, the number of immigrants is expected to double within year 2050 (Brunborg, 2013). For organizations to survive and thrive in this increased globalization, many business leaders argue that it is necessary to take competitive advantage of a culturally diverse workplace (Carr-Ruffino, 1996) and learn about effective leadership across cultures (Yukl, 2013). Good diversity leadership is important for immigrants, as it can help them integrate at their workplace and further into the new society. Diversity leadership focuses on acquiring and utilizing the assets among the workforce to produce greater benefits with diversity and minimize workplace challenges (Sandal, Bye, Fyhn, & Markova, 2013), and can be affected by personal factors of the leader and the organization's policies and directives (Bassett-Jones, Brown, & Cornelius, 2007).

Some of the advantages of cultural diversity at workplaces are increased opportunity for creativity, problem-solving, and organizational flexibility, because multicultural experiences can give access to new experiences and perspectives on situations and problems (Cox & Blake, 1991; Leung, Maddux, Galinsky, & Chiu, 2008). The downsides are that heterogeneous groups can also experience more conflict, less social integration, and more problems with communication than homogeneous groups (Knight et al., 1999).

Although cultural diversity can both be an asset and disadvantage at a workplace, it can ensue organizational agility if the organization succeeds in embracing diversity (Cox & Blake, 1991). According to Bassett-Jones, et al. (2007), when diversity is managed well, it can build a social capital that can create a strong source of intellectual and knowledge capital. It can also decrease frustration and turnover among employees of minority cultural backgrounds, because these employees will more likely be integrated in the organization

(Cox & Blake, 1991).

How diversity is managed can also be decisive for the degree of organizational

commitment for employees at a work place (Rupert, Jehn, van Engen, & de Reuver, 2010).

Research has shown that leadership style is related to employees' level of organizational

commitment (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2005) and health (Zineldin & Hytter, 2012). For

example, considerate and attentive leadership behaviors towards employees have been

associated with high organizational commitment (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2005) and

better health and self-reported well-being among employees (Zineldin & Hytter, 2012).

Research shows that employees with high level of organizational commitment and good

health can result in positive organizational outcomes (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Wilson, Dejoy,

Vandenberg, Richardson, & McGrath, 2004).

The present study contributes to the growing research on cultural diversity by

examining the relationship between leadership, and immigrants' commitment to the

workplace and subjective general health.

Leadership styles

"The process of cultural and psychological change that results following meeting

between cultures" is defined as *acculturation* by Sam and Berry (2010). Based on Berry's

acculturation theory (1997), Sandal, et al. (2013) developed a leadership model that is called

the LIDO-model (see figure 1), which will be used as a framework in this study. This model

distinguishes between four approaches in leading cultural diversity: diversity leadership,

assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. These leadership

approaches vary along two dimensions: *cultural maintenance* and *contact and participation*

(Berry, 1997). These dimensions cover the extent of a leader's concern with ethnical

differences among employees and the degree of the leaders' facilitation of interaction and

cooperation between these employees.

Assimilation leadership describes a leadership style in which the leader treats every employee in the same manner and expects employees of minority cultures to conform to the dominant culture, and therefore downplay cultural differences (Sandal, et al., 2013). With assimilation leadership, employees might feel that they have to suppress their personal values, attitudes, behaviors, or beliefs that are derived from their cultural background (Lopez & McMillan-Capehart, 2002). Suppressing cultural identity has shown to have negative effects on problem solving and creativity (Van Der Zee, Atsma, & Brodbeck, 2004), although electing to assimilate into the organization's culture can result in increased share of organizational values among the organization's members as immigrants may begin to think, behave, and react similarly to others in their organizations (Hood & Koberg, 1994), which can also lead to a better person-organization fit (Lopez & McMillan-Capehart, 2002).

Diversity leadership is characterized by leadership behaviors that aim for a reciprocal adaption of cultural practices and values intergroup interaction (Sandal, et al., 2013). The leader facilitates and stimulates for all employees to feel included and valued (Sandal, et al., 2013). When there is a pro-diversity climate in the workplace, immigrants will perceive greater organizational acceptance for a wider range of values (Kaplan, Wiley, & Maertz Jr., 2011; McKay et al., 2007). Encouraging employees to feel included and valued can foster organizational commitment and trust, internal motivation, and satisfaction for both employees from the cultural minority and cultural majority (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Employees who integrate have also been found to result in a better person-organization fit (Lopez & McMillan-Capehart, 2002).

The leadership style of separation refers to a leadership practice that involves minimal adaptation to meet the needs of employees from different cultures, and intergroup interaction is discouraged or prevented, so mutual adaption is not necessary (Fyhn, Bye, & Sandal, submitted). The leader acknowledges cultural differences but views them as problematic.

This leadership style may hinder certain individuals from joining and applying to the organization, as there is a lack of fit between immigrants' values and those of the organization (Samnani, Boekhorst, & Harrison, 2012). Separation leadership can also provide greater inter-group conflicts as research shows that groups are expected to dislike those with dissimilar beliefs and worldviews (Duckitt, Callaghan, & Wagner, 2005). Employees who choose to separate have also been found to result in a poor person-organization fit (Lopez & McMillan-Capehart, 2002).

Leaders who practice separation leadership or assimilation leadership have in common that they do not view diversity as an asset. As a consequence, immigrant employees will not be able to contribute with their thoughts and experiences (Samnani, et al., 2012), and these workplaces might therefore miss out on the opportunity for increased creativity and problem-solving (Cox & Blake, 1991).

Laissez-faire leadership is characterized by a leadership behavior that is indifferent or avoidant, in which the leader has abdicated from the responsibilities that are designated to him or her (Bass & Avolio, 1994). A leader that practices laissez-faire leadership does not deal with diversity challenges or facilitate for cultural interaction among employees. This is also similar for leaders who practice separation leadership, but leaders who practice separation leadership have an active approach (Fyhn, et al., submitted), which differs from leaders who practice laissez-faire leadership since they will have a passive approach when meeting cultural differences.

Laissez-faire leadership has been found to relate to interpersonal conflicts, role ambiguity, bullying at the workplace that can result in psychological distress (Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007), and emotional exhaustion in subordinates (Hetland, Sandal, & Johnsen, 2007). This suggests that laissez-faire leadership is a destructive leadership style, which can be harmful for employees' health and well-being.

Commitment

Organizational commitment is of crucial importance to any organization, as it can promote positive organizational outcomes, such as greater job performance, higher job motivation, greater organizational citizenship, and reduced absenteeism and turnover rates (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1979) define organizational commitment (OC) as a situation where "an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals" and this definition is followed in this paper. Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that commitment is multi-dimensional with three distinct components: (1) affective commitment (AC), (2) continuance commitment (CC), and (3) normative commitment (NC).

AC is when employees feel emotionally attached to their organization and identifies with the organization's goals and values. Employees with strong AC remain in the organization because they want to, and tend to be involved in and enjoy their membership in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). AC stems from the desire to contribute to the well-being of the organization in order to maintain equity in a mutually beneficial association (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

CC refers to when employees perceive costs of leaving the organization as too high, and lack other job alternatives. Employees with strong CC stay in the organization because they need to, and their work-behavior is therefore dependent of a continued employment (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

NC is when employees feel that they are obliged to commit to the organization out of a sense of loyalty or of group norms. Employees with strong NC remain in the organization because they feel obliged to, and exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). NC can also develop when an employee receives a reward in

advance (e.g. salary) or feels that he or she has been invested in by the organization (e.g. costs associated with job training, participation in courses etc.) (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

All of the three components of organizational commitment view commitment as a psychological state that describes the relationship between the employee and the organization, and can be decisive for employees' intentions to leave or remain in the organization. There is also evidence for that the three components of organizational commitment are not completely independent, and can give interactive effects on behavior (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Research shows that affective commitment seems to be positive for employees, as AC correlates negatively with self-stress and work-family conflict (Meyer, et al., 2002). Continuance commitment is less desirable as it has previously shown to be positively related to self-reported stress and work-family conflict (Meyer, et al., 2002), and weakly and negatively related to organizational citizenship behavior and job performance (Meyer, et al., 2002). Likewise, Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that employees who want to belong to the organization (AC), would more likely exert more effort than employees who need to belong (CC) or feel obligated to belong (NC). Furthermore, both continuance commitment and normative commitment have shown to have positive correlations with absenteeism (Meyer, et al., 2002), although normative commitment has also shown to correlate positively with job performance and organizational citizenship behavior (Meyer, et al., 2002).

Leadership and organizational commitment

Research on the relationship between leadership and OC have focused mainly on transformational leadership, which is defined as "a set of behaviors including idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration that transform followers' needs and expectations to a higher level" (Bass & Avolio, 1994), and have for example found that transformational leadership is much stronger related to AC,

than CC or NC (Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2012). This indicates that leaders who e.g. support

individuals, respect their employees, and understand their personal feelings and needs, can

develop more engaged and devoted employees (Joo, Yoon, & Jeung, 2012). Further, high AC

among employees has been found to be associated with leaders who have high level of

initiating structure (Dale & Fox, 2008). When leaders clarify expectations and provide formal

rules or procedures for employees to follow, employees show more efforts towards teamwork

and perceive higher felt responsibility, which again can result in higher AC among

employees (Dale & Fox, 2008).

On the other hand, Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly (1992) found that individuals can

experience lower organizational attachment when they do not feel involved in the unit he or

she is a member of. Also, when there is a stronger desire to be similar than being unique at a

workplace, the organizational commitment among minorities tend to be lower (Tsui, et al.,

1992). Employees who feel that there is a low tolerance for being different at their workplace

or feel that they are not involved in their group at work, in addition to lacking other job

alternatives, can experience psychological withdrawal from the organization (Tsui, et al.,

1992). Similarly, employees who perceive racial discrimination at their work place are more

likely to have reduced employer commitment and have higher intentions to seek other jobs

(Stainback & Irvin, 2012). Additionally, Lee (2004) found that laissez-faire leadership had

negative consequences on affective commitment, because leaders who practice laissez-faire

leadership were less likely to put in effort to build a relationship with their employees, which

can result in employees exhibiting less affect, loyalty, and respect for their leaders. Taken

together, these findings suggest that assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and

laissez-faire leadership can reduce employees' emotional attachment to the organization (AC)

among employees.

Jackson, et al. (2012) suggest that employees who do not have other job alternatives

(CC), will more likely remain in the organization despite perceived unsatisfactory leadership because they need to. This is also supported by a study by Kaplan, et al. (2011), where employees who believed that they had better chances to achieve their goals through the organization were more likely to remain in the organization. For employees of cultural minorities, leaders who do not recognize their cultural background or meet their needs can be perceived as practicing unsatisfactory leadership. This suggests that assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership can result in higher continuance commitment among immigrant employees.

Research shows that when employees of cultural minorities perceive an organizational pressure to conform, they felt more normatively committed (Rupert, et al., 2010). An implication of this is that assimilation leadership can result in higher NC among employees of cultural minorities. Employees have also reported higher levels of NC when their managers tried to create a common vision for the organization (Tseng, 2011). NC has also been found to be higher among individuals from cultures with high level of societal collectivism (Jackson, et al., 2012).

Subjective General Health

The World Health Organization defines health as a "state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" (WHO, 2003). Earlier research has shown that good health and well-being among employees are related to higher productivity and low sickness absence rates (Goetzel, Ozminkowski, Sederer, & Mark, 2002; Michie & Williams, 2003). Further, employees' health and well-being can be affected by leaders' behavior. For example, a study by Sheridan and Vredenburgh (1979) showed inverse relationship between leaders' consideration and employees' job tension.

Later studies also indicate that employees who experience democratic leadership style

tend to report good mental health and low sickness absence rates (Theorell et al., 2010). In addition, there is evidence that leaders who foster cohesiveness and reduce conflicts can lead to improved well-being among employees (Nielsen, Randall, Yarker, & Brenner, 2008).

In contrast, research suggests that adopting an assimilation or separation leadership can result in negative health and well-being for employees (Berry, 1997), because employees will only feel accepted when conforming to the norms and values of the majority (Lopez & McMillan-Capehart, 2002). Additionally, when leaders exhibit low consideration and low support, employees reported more physical and psychological health complaints and problems (Michie & Williams, 2003), and laissez-faire leadership has also shown to be strongly related to employee burnout (Hetland, et al., 2007). More specifically, employees who experience laissez-faire leadership seem to report poorer self-rated health than others (Theorell, et al., 2010). Laissez-faire leadership has also been linked to emotional exhaustion (Hetland, et al., 2007) and negative job satisfaction among subordinates (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), as well as less satisfaction with the leader (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Taken these findings together, poor health among employees can stem from perceived assimilation leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and low supportive and low considerate leadership.

The selected immigrant groups

In Norway, 14.1% of the population are immigrants or are born in Norway of immigrant parents (SSB, 2013b). Immigrants in Norway constitute a heterogeneous group when it comes to for example, reasons for immigration, residence time in Norway, and employment. This study includes both first-generation and second-generation immigrants from Eastern Europe and South-East Asia, and these immigrant groups were selected because they are both large immigrant groups with high employment in Norway, but have different residence time in Norway.

The biggest populations among South-East Asian countries in Norway is the

Vietnamese people with a population of 21 351 (SSB, 2013b). Other bigger groups from South-East Asia in Norway are immigrants from the Philippines with a population of 18 007 (SSB, 2013b) and the Thai people with a population of 15 583 (SSB, 2013b). Among the Eastern Europeans in Norway, the Russians have a population of 17 944 people (SSB, 2013b) and the Ukrainians have a population of 3 801 people (SSB, 2013b). The biggest population from Eastern Europe in Norway is from Poland with a population of 76 662 people (SSB, 2013b).

Of all the first-generation immigrants in Norway in the working age between 15 and 74 years, 62.8 % of them were employed in 2013 (SSB, 2013c). The Eastern Europeans and the South-East Asians had similar percentage of employment in 2012, where the Vietnamese had an employment percentage of 63 % (SSB, 2013c), Ukrainians with 62.4 % (SSB, 2013c), and Russians with 60.5 % (SSB, 2013c).

Among the South-East Asians, the Vietnamese people have the longest residence time where most first-generation immigrants have lived longer than 20 years in Norway (SSB, 2013a). Russians and Ukrainians have on the other hand a shorter residence time, where most first-generation immigrants have lived approximately between five to nine years in Norway (SSB, 2013a). This indicates that the Vietnamese have lived in Norway much longer than the Russians and Ukrainians, and it is assumed that the longer an ethnic group have lived in a country, the more integrated that group is in the society.

The Present Study

This study aims to investigate the relationship between leadership styles in dealing with cultural diversity and immigrants' organizational commitment. This study also aims at investigating how leadership styles can affect immigrants' subjective general health.

Hypotheses. The hypotheses in this study are based on the frameworks about leadership styles, immigrants' organizational commitment, and subjective general health that

were presented earlier.

Affective commitment. Managers who adopt the diversity leadership behavior will show more concern and take actions to meet the needs of their employees from different cultures, as well as facilitating interaction between employees from different cultures. It is therefore expected that employees from different cultures will value this type of leadership, and therefore show more involvement and have higher identification with the organization (AC). Leaderships that do not recognize employees' cultural background and their needs, or show low consideration and lack of support, are expected to decrease employees' identification with the organization and their desire to stay at the organization.

Hypothesis 1a: High level of perceived diversity leadership is positively associated with AC.

Hypothesis 1b: High levels of perceived assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership are negatively associated with AC.

Continuance commitment. When immigrants perceive that their leaders do not recognize their cultural background or meet their needs and wants, nor have the intention to do so, it is reasonable to imagine that these employees would want to quit their jobs. For those who are without job alternatives, they will more likely experience a greater need to remain in the organization despite experiencing unsatisfactory leadership.

Hypothesis 2: High levels of perceived assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership are positively associated with CC.

Normative commitment. When employees perceive pressure from their leaders to conform or to be more similar to the majority at the work place, it is expected that they will more likely feel that they should follow social norms. I therefore expect that these employees will mostly stay at the organization out of a sense of loyalty to the organization, social rules, or feelings of obligation.

Hypothesis 3: High level of perceived assimilation leadership is positively associated with NC.

Subjective general health. Findings suggest that leaders who are democratic, high in consideration, and foster cohesiveness, can promote good mental health and lower stress levels among employees. Diversity leadership, which includes these leadership behaviors, is therefore expected to be associated with good health among employees.

Hypothesis 4a: High level of perceived diversity leadership is positively associated subjective general health.

Assimilation leadership has been suggested to result in poorer well-being, because immigrants feel less accepted unless they conform to the norms and values of the majority. Separation leadership and laissez-faire leadership are also both characterized as low in consideration and support for cultural differences, which empirical evidence suggests to result in poorer health among employees.

Hypothesis 4b: High levels of perceived assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership are negatively associated with subjective general health.

Method

Sample

An invitation to participate in the study was sent to participants of interest and to leaders of companies with a high proportion of employees with immigrant backgrounds. These companies were both public and private companies within different areas and of varied sizes. When sending invitation to companies, it was often forwarded to eligible employees through senior management or from the HR-department. The participants and leaders were also asked to forward the invitation to people that were eligible for the study's criteria through their social networks. This recruitment method is called the snowball method

(Browne, 2005). The invitation was sent by e-mail, with a web link to an online survey, to both people of Norwegian origins and to people with other cultural backgrounds. In this invitation, there was an introductory message about the purpose of the study and that the responses would be kept confidential. The invitation and the questionnaire were both in Norwegian, and were sent out during a six months period.

There were 260 participants in total, where 150 of these completed the survey (57.7%) and 110 completed partially (42.3%). Also, 40.8% were males and 59.2% were females. Their age ranged from 18-64, with a mean of 36.80 (SD = 12.13). The respondents were categorized in ethnic region groups based on respondents' birth country and their parents' birth country. Norwegian-born respondents with parents born overseas were categorized in the same ethnic region that their parents were from, and 34% of the immigrants were second-generation immigrants. The three ethnic region groups were: Eastern Europe (40%), South-East Asia (31.2%) and Norway (28.8%). Among the immigrant participants, 137 participants were not born in Norway, and of these 53.3% have lived 10 years or less in Norway. For more details, see table 1.

This study's focus will be on the data material from the immigrants, and the data from the Norwegian respondents will only be used in the factor analysis of the Diversity Management Questionnaire (see in *Measures*).

Ethics

This study was approved by the Regional Ethical Committee and the Norwegian Social Science Data Services. All data were anonymous and kept confidential to protect participants' privacy. Information that could identify the individual participant was not stored.

Procedure

The survey was published on a designated webpage. It included demographic questions, the Diversity Management Questionnaire (DMQ) (Sandal, et al., 2013), the

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer, et al., 1993), and the 12-item version of

the General Health Questionnaire (Goldberg & Williams, 1988). To get access to the survey,

participants logged in to the web link that was provided in the invitation that was sent via e-

mail.

Measures

  Independent variables.

  Demographics. Participants gave the following demographic information: sex, age,

birth country, residence time in Norway, their parents' birth country, if they were in a paid

job position, how long they had been in their current work position, their comprehension of

the Norwegian language, level of completed education, and how well they thought their job

fitted their qualifications.

  Diversity management questionnaire (DMQ). The diversity management

questionnaire was developed to measure leadership behaviors and styles. It is based on the

theoretical acculturation framework by Berry (1997) and the LIDO model (Sandal, et al.,

2013). Items were generated from interviews with Norwegian leaders and employees of

native and immigrant backgrounds (for a detailed description of the development of the

DMQ, see (Sandal, et al., 2013). Some items about laissez-faire leadership are also based on

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire—Form 5X by Bass and Avolio (1995).

  The questionnaire consists of 43 statements describing different leadership behaviors.

The DMQ was designed to measure four leadership approaches: diversity leadership,

assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. The respondents

were asked to judge how each item fitted with their perception of "good leadership" as well

as how they perceived their leaders' leadership behavior and style as this study focuses on the

perceptions of actual leadership. The responses were indicated on a 5-point likert scale (1:

strongly disagree – 2: disagree a little – 3: neither agree nor disagree – 4: agree a little – 5:

strongly agree).

Factor Analysis. Since the DMQ is a new instrument, a factor analysis was conducted. A Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was used to extract maximum possible variance of the 43 likert scale questions from the Diversity Management Questionnaire. A Varimax (orthogonal) rotation was also used as I assumed that the variables had low possibility for a relation with each other. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .74, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, suggesting that the factor analysis was appropriate for the data set.

A total of 19 items were eliminated because they did not contribute to a simple factor structure and failed to meet the minimum criteria of having a primary factor loading of .3 or above, and no cross-loadings of .3 or above.

Principal components analysis revealed the presence of six components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 25.25%, 9.96%, 8.28%, 7.17%, 5.18% and 4.97% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the fourth component. Using Cattell (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain four components for further investigation.

The four-factors solution explained a total of 50.66% of the variance, with Factor 1 contributing 25.25%, Factor 2 contributing 9.96%, Factor 3 contributing 8.28%, and Factor 4 contributing 7.17%.

Seven items loaded onto Factor 1. It is clear from Table 2 that all these seven items related to a leadership style in which the leader tolerates cultural differences and foster inclusion and respect for cultural differences. This factor is also related to a leader who gives clear instructions on acceptable behavior, shows concerns and respect for each others' cultures and traditions, and treats everybody the same regardless of their ethnic background.

This factor was identified as "Diversity leadership".

Eight items loaded onto a second factor that was related to a leadership style in which the leader does not value or facilitate for cultural diversity. This factor applies to a leader who does not allow employees to talk about their cultural background at work, demands employees with immigrant backgrounds to adapt to "the Norwegian behavior", and shows little interest for cultural diversity. This factor was labeled "Assimilation/Separation leadership", which means that assimilation leadership and separation leadership styles from the LIDO-model (Sandal, et al., 2013) were merged into one factor. Therefore, the hypotheses concerning these two leadership styles will not be able to be separated and will instead be combined for further analyses. Both assimilation and separation leadership see cultural diversity as a problem and share the same view of not facilitating integrating and fostering cultural diversity.

The four items that loaded onto the third factor were related to a leadership style in which the leader does not engage with employees. This factor concerns a passive leader that does not manage conflicts or problems, and was identified as "Laissez-faire leadership".

The five items that loaded onto the fourth factor identified a leadership style in which the leader facilitates help with language problems for immigrants, let immigrants of the same cultural backgrounds work together, but tries to prevent them from forming cliques during lunch breaks. This factor was labeled "Unilateral facilitation". This factor was an unexpected factor and was not included in the study's hypotheses, and is therefore not included in further analyses either.

A reliability analysis of each factor was also conducted to check if each factor was stable enough to be used as a scale. The reliability measured .84 for diversity leadership, .82 for assimilation/separation leadership, and .70 for laissez-faire leadership.

Table 2.
Factor Loadings for Principal Component Analysis With Varimax Rotation of Leadership Styles Scale

Scale	Diversity Leadership	Assimilation/ Separation Leadership	Laissez-faire Leadership	Unilateral facilitation
The leader gives clear expression of what is acceptable behavior in the workplace.	**0.80**	-0.03	0.00	0.07
The leader treats employees equally regardless of their cultural background.	**0.71**	-0.21	-0.13	0.11
The leader provides clear instructions about what is expected of the individual and how tasks should be carried out.	**0.71**	-0.12	-0.14	0.16
The leader requires that employees show consideration and respect for each other's cultures and traditions.	**0.67**	-0.22	0.03	0.32
The leader shows zero tolerance for bullying.	**0.66**	-0.27	-0.10	-0.06
The leader requires that employees respect their superiors regardless of the manager's sex.	**0.63**	-0.23	0.03	-0.20
The leader does not give special treatment for employees of foreign descent, either positively or negatively.	**0.59**	-0.08	-0.22	-0.20
The leader expresses that jokes and humor with racial undertones must be tolerated.	-0.13	**0.76**	0.13	-0.30
The leader does little for employees with foreign backgrounds to find their place in the workplace.	-0.24	**0.73**	0.16	-0.06
The leader expresses that cultural differences are "debris in the machinery".	-0.20	**0.67**	-0.05	0.14
The leader expresses that foreign employees should not talk about their cultural background.	-0.16	**0.61**	-0.05	0.15
The leader encourages employees with foreign backgrounds to quit their job if they do not settle in at the workplace.	-0.22	**0.58**	0.19	0.15
The leader requires that employees with immigrant backgrounds to adapt " the Norwegian way" to be.	0.11	**0.58**	0.20	0.08
*The leader does not tolerate racist statements even if it happens in a humorous way.	0.32	**-0.57**	0.04	0.34
The leader shows little interest in employees' cultural backgrounds.	-0.15	**0.56**	0.04	0.08
The leader lets employees resolve misunderstandings themselves.	-0.05	-0.11	**0.76**	-0.04
The leader leaves employees to solve social problems in the workplace	0.08	0.18	**0.72**	-0.07

themselves.

The leader fails to intervene if conflicts arise	-0.20	0.26	**0.61**	0.01
The leader let problems become serious until he or she intervenes.	-0.33	0.22	**0.58**	-0.08
The leader facilitates for employees who do not want a female supervisor to be spared from that.	-0.32	0.35	0.04	**0.63**
The leader helps with reading through outgoing email / letter if employees have difficulty in formulating in Norwegian.	0.33	-0.11	-0.03	**0.62**
The leader put together teams so that employees with the same cultural background can work together.	-0.08	-0.04	0.20	**0.60**
The leader tries to prevent employees from the same culture to form a click at the workplace, such as during lunch breaks.	0.11	0.10	-0.34	**0.55**
The leader offers language courses for employees of foreign origin without charge, and facilitates that the course may be taken during working hours.	0.01	0.09	-0.22	**0.43**

Note. Factor loadings greater than .40 are shown in boldface.

ª = reversed item.

Dependent variables.

Organizational Commitment. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer, et al., 1993) was used to measure organizational commitment among participants. The questionnaire consists of 18 statements based on the three-Component Model of Commitment, and includes three scales: *Affective (6 items), Continuance (6 items), and Normative Commitment (6 items).* The respondents were asked to rate the degree of their experience of organizational commitment to their workplace. The responses were made on 5-point likert scale (1: strongly disagree – 2: disagree a little – 3: neither agree nor disagree – 4: agree a little – 5: strongly agree). Some of the items were for example: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization." (AC), "I would feel guilty if I left my organization now" (NC), and "Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire" (CC). The internal consistency reliability of the organizational commitment scales in all three ethnic groups, ranged from 0.74 to 0.79.

Subjective general health. The 12-item version of the General Health Questionnaire (Goldberg & Williams, 1988) was used to measure the subjective general health. It addresses problems involving inability to carry out normal functions as well as symptoms of anxiety, depression, and social dysfunction. Examples of the items included are "Have you recently lost much sleep over worry?" and "Have you recently been feeling unhappy and depressed?". Responses were given on a 5-point likert scale from 1-"not at all" to 5-"very often". High scores reflected more health complaints. The scale reliability was 0.63, which is considered as acceptable (Aron, Aron, & Coups, 2006).

Data analysis. SPSS version 21 (for Mac) was used for data analysis. To describe the strength and direction of the relationships between the study variables, the correlations were analyzed through Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. A significance level of 0.05 and 0.01 were used for the correlation matrix.

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were also conducted to estimate the relationships between the independent variables (the leadership styles) and the dependent variables (three components of organizational commitment and subjective general health) at several levels for Eastern Europeans and South-East Asians. The regression analyses also controlled for demographic variables: sex, age, and ethnicity group. A significance level of .05 was used for the hierarchical multiple regression analyses.

Results

Correlations between Leadership Styles, Organizational Commitment, and Subjective General Health

Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated between the independent variables, the dependent variables, and demographic variables among immigrants. To determine the strength of the correlations, r of .10 is considered as small, .30 as medium, and .50 as large correlation (Cohen, 1988). The results are presented in table 3.

The analysis showed weak and no significant correlations between diversity leadership, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Diversity leadership did however show a significant positive correlation with affective commitment ($r = .31, p < 0.01$), and with subjective general health ($r = .2. p < 0.05$). Assimilation/separation leadership had a significant negative correlation with affective commitment, ($r = -.32, p < 0.05$), but a significant positive correlation with continuance commitment ($r = .25, p < 0.01$). Assimilation/separation had however weak and no significant correlations with normative commitment and subjective general health. The analysis also showed that laissez-faire leadership had a significant negative correlation with affective commitment ($r = -.23, p < 0.05$), and a significant positive correlation with continuance commitment ($r = .23, p < 0.05$). On the other hand, laissez-faire leadership had weak and no significant correlations with normative commitment and subjective general health.

Table 3
Pearson Product-moment Correlations Between Measures of Leadership Style, Organizational Commitment, and Subjective General Health

Immigrants

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Sex	-									
2. Age	.10	-								
3. Residence years in Norway	-.33**	.22**	-							
4. Diversity Leadership	.17	.14	.12	-						
5. Assimilation/Separation	-.17*	-.03	.10	-.44**	-					
6. Laissez-Faire	.04	.11	-.03	-.32**	.30**	-				
7. Affective Commitment	.10	.11	-.09	.31**	-.32*	-.23*	-			
8. Continuance Commitment	.03	.26**	.05	-.18	.25**	.23*	-.10	-		
9. Normative Commitment	.01	.19*	-.02	.13	-.06	-.07	.23*	.32**	-	
10. Subjective General Health	.01	.07	.01	.20*	-.03	-.06	.16	-.12	-.01	-

Note. **. Correlation is significant at the .01 level [2-tailed ($p < 0.01$)].
*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level [2-tailed ($p < 0.05$)].

Regression analysis for leadership styles, organizational commitment, and subjective general health

Separate two-step hierarchical multiple regression analyses were carried out in order to investigate the relationship between the leadership styles, the three components of organizational commitment, and subjective general health. The three components of organizational commitment and subjective general health were entered as dependent variables, while the leadership styles were entered as independent variables for the specific hypotheses. Sex, age and ethnicity group were entered at Step 1, to control for the possible impact of these variables. Diversity leadership, assimilation/separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership were entered at Step 2. The results of these hierarchical multiple regression analyses are reported in tables 4, 5, 6, and 7.

Affective Commitment. I hypothesized that diversity leadership would be positively associated with affective commitment, and that assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership would be negatively associated with affective commitment. Sex, age and ethnicity group were entered at Step 1 and explained 4% of the variance in affective commitment, which was nonsignificant ($p = .26$). After controlling for sex, age and ethnicity group, the leadership styles in Step 2 explained an additional 13% of the variance in affective commitment, which was significant ($p = .001$). The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 16%, $F (6, 108) = 3.54, p = .003$). None of the individual variables contributed significantly to the variance, though assimilation/separation leadership recorded a beta that approached significance ($\beta = -.19, p = .062$). Therefore, result did not support hypothesis 1a or hypothesis 1b.

Table 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for Leadership style Variables Predicting Affective Commitment (N =115)

Step and predictor variable	B	$SE\ B$	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1:				.04	.04
Sex	.09	.17	.05		
Age	.01	.01	.07		
Ethnicity Group	.23	.18	.13		
Step 2:				.16	.13*
Diversity Leadership	.16	.10	.16		
Assimilation/Separation Leadership	-.22	.12	-.19†		
Laissez-faire Leadership	-.13	.10	-.12		

Note. * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$

Continuance Commitment. I hypothesized that assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership would be positively associated with continuance commitment. The demographic variables explained 10% of the variance in continuance commitment, which was significant ($p = .01$). In Step 1, age was significant ($\beta = 0.23, p = .016$) and ethnicity group approached significance ($\beta = 0.18, p = .075$). After controlling for sex, age and ethnicity group, the leadership styles explained an additional 10% of the variance in continuance commitment, which was significant ($p = .004$). The model as whole explained 20% of the total variance after Step 2, $F(6, 108) = 4.52, p < .00$). When checking for individual contributions to the variance, only assimilation/separation leadership was significant ($\beta = .21, p = .037$). The result therefore only partially supports hypothesis 2.

Table 5

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for Leadership style Variables Predicting Continuance Commitment (N = 115)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1:				.10	.10
Sex	-.09	.19	-.05		
Age	.03	.01	.23*		
Ethnicity Group	.35	.19	.18†		
Step 2:				.20	.10*
Diversity Leadership	-.12	.11	-.11		
Assimilation/Separation Leadership	.27	.13	.21*		
Laissez-faire Leadership	.13	.11	.11		

Note. * p < 0.05; † p < 0.10

Normative Commitment. I hypothesized that assimilation leadership would be positively associated with normative commitment, but this result applies to assimilation/separation leadership as they were combined after the factor analysis. The three demographic variables did not explain a significant portion of the variance in normative commitment ($R^2 = .04$, $p = .206$), although age approached significance in Step 1 ($\beta = .18$, $p = .062$). After adding the leadership styles in Step 2, the model still did not explain a significant portion of the variance ($R^2 = .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p = .68$). The total variance explained by the model as a whole after Step 2 was 5% and still nonsignificant, $F(6, 108) = 1.02$, $p = .419$. In the final step, all of the leadership styles were weakly associated with normative commitment and there were none significant associations. The result did not support hypothesis 3.

Table 6

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for Leadership style Variables Predicting Normative Commitment (N = 115)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1:				.04	.04
Sex	-.05	.17	-.03		
Age	.02	.01	.18†		
Ethnicity Group	.11	.18	.06		
Step 2:				.05	.01
Diversity Leadership	.08	.11	.08		
Assimilation/Separation Leadership	.00	.12	.00		
Laissez-faire Leadership	-.06	.10	-.06		

Note. * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$

Subjective General Health. I hypothesized that diversity leadership would be positively associated with subjective general health, and that assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership would be negatively associated with subjective general health. Sex, age and ethnic background explained 1.4% of the variance in subjective general health, which was nonsignificant ($p = .674$). After controlling for demographic variables, the leadership styles explained an additional 4.4% of the variance in subjective general health, which was nonsignificant, $F(3,103) = 1.59$, $p = .197$. The total variance explained by the model as a whole after Step 2, was 6% and nonsignificant, $F(6, 103) = 1.054$, $p = .395$. Of individual contributions, only diversity leadership was significantly associated with subjective general health ($\beta = .228$, $p = .044$). The result did therefore support hypothesis 4a, but did not support hypothesis 4b.

Table 7

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for Leadership style Variables Predicting Subjective General Health (N = 110)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1:				.01	.01
Sex	.03	.07	.04		
Age	.00	.00	.09		
Ethnicity Group	-.08	.08	-.11		
Step 2:				.06	.04
Diversity Leadership	.09	.05	.23*		
Assimilation/Separation Leadership	.03	.05	.06		
Laissez-faire Leadership	-.01	.04	-.01		

Note. * p < 0.05; † p < 0.10

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between perceived leadership styles, organizational commitment, and subjective general health of employees with immigrant backgrounds from Eastern Europe and South-East Asia in Norway. The relationships were tested through six hypotheses, and with a correlation analysis and hierarchical regression analyses that controlled for the impact of sex, age and ethnicity group. The result indicated that diversity leadership was not significantly related to affective commitment, continuance commitment, or normative commitment. Diversity leadership was however positively related to subjective general health. Based on results from factor analysis, the assimilation leadership and the separation leadership were combined as assimilation/separation leadership. This new category of leadership style was significantly negatively associated with affective commitment and positively associated with continuance commitment, but weakly related to normative commitment. Finally, laissez-faire leadership was not significantly related to any types of organizational commitment or subjective general health.

Hypothesis 1a stated that high level of perceived diversity leadership should be positively associated with affective commitment. The correlation for this relationship was significant. When controlling for sex, age, and ethnicity group, this association was surprisingly nonsignificant and therefore did not support this hypothesis. The nonsignificant result is different from what I first assumed. However, 34% of the participants were second-generation immigrants, and they are expected to be more integrated in Norway and therefore more likely to experience less need for assistance with cultural differences than first-generation immigrants at the workplace. This indicates that diversity leadership might have less influence on second-generation immigrants, and therefore explains the weak link between diversity leadership and affective commitment. If this is the case, then further

research should make a distinction between immigrant generations in the selection of sample.

Hypothesis 1b stated that high levels of perceived assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire are negatively associated with affective commitment. The result from the correlation analysis is in line with the hypothesis. After controlling for the demographic variables, the negative association between assimilation/separation leadership and affective commitment was just almost significant. Although the correlations for these relationships were significant, the result still does not this hypothesis. However, this finding is in line with another study that showed no association between assimilation leadership and decreased affective commitment (Rupert, et al., 2010). Also, laissez-faire leadership has in comparison to other leadership styles been found to be less effective in affecting employees' affective commitment (Lee, 2004), which can explain the nonsignificant result on this relationship. Though researches have shown mixed findings (Meyer et al., 2012), some argue that affective commitment is less relevant for individuals from collectivistic cultures (Erez, 1997). A weak association between leadership styles and affective commitment can therefore be found among the chosen sample in this study, as Eastern Europeans and South-East Asians are considered to have collectivistic cultures (Hofstede, 2014). These implications can give reasons for why none of the leadership styles were significantly associated with AC. Further research on these relationships is therefore needed to be able to any draw conclusions.

Hypothesis 2 stated that high levels of perceived assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire are positively associated with continuance commitment. This relationship was confirmed by the correlation analysis. Participant's age showed to have a significant association with CC, while ethnicity group approached significance. An indication of this can be that older employees have higher CC, which is supported by earlier research that attributed this to limited opportunities for job alternatives (Meyer, et al., 2002). Ethnicity group was also almost significantly associated with CC, hinting that cultural differences

might have an influence on CC, although earlier studies have showed mixed results for this association (Meyer, et al., 2012). After controlling for demographic variables, only the association between assimilation/separation leadership and CC was significant. This hypothesis is therefore only partially supported. The nonsignificant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and CC was not as expected, although some scholars have reported a nonsignificant correlation on this relationship before (Mester, Visser, Roodt, & Kellerman, 2003). Furthermore, the reliability of the laissez-faire leadership scale (.70) was considered as good, but this scale can be adjusted to achieve even higher reliability in further research. More research is therefore needed to draw reliable conclusions about the associations between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment.

Although laissez-faire leadership was not significantly related to CC, the relationship between assimilation/separation leadership and CC seems to be a relative stable association that persisted even after controlling for participants' sex, age, and ethnicity group. This result indicates that assimilation/separation leadership does affect the continuance commitment of employees with immigrant backgrounds. Earlier research has also shown that continuance commitment is a disadvantage for both the employer and employee as it is negatively related to for example job performance, absenteeism, and stress and work-family conflicts (Meyer, et al., 2002). Against this backdrop, our results may suggest that the assimilation/separation leadership style should therefore be avoided as this study finds it to be associated with higher CC among employees.

Hypothesis 3 stated that high level of perceived assimilation leadership is positively associated with normative commitment. After the factor analysis, assimilation leadership was combined with separation leadership, and therefore it was not possible to test this hypothesis. The result showed however that the association between participants' age and NC approached significance ($p = .062$), which indicates that older employees tend to have higher

NC. A study by Meyer, et al. (1993) also supports this association. Still, the result showed no significant associations between assimilation/separation leadership and normative commitment, which indicates that this hypothesis most likely would not have been supported.

Hypothesis 4a stated that high level of perceived diversity leadership is positively associated with subjective general health. In line with our expectations, this association was both significant before and after controlling for sex, age, and ethnicity group. This positive association indicates that diversity leadership is perceived as beneficial and positive for employees' perception of their own health. This further implies that diversity leadership can foster better health among employees of minority ethnicity, which again can lead to increased job performance and lower sickness absence (Goetzel, et al., 2002; Michie & Williams, 2003). Organizations should therefore strive to adopt a diversity leadership in order to promote better subjective general health among their employees of immigrant backgrounds.

Hypothesis 4b stated that high levels of perceived assimilation leadership, separation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership are negatively associated with subjective general health. The correlations for these relationships were not significant. After controlling for sex, age, and ethnicity group, none of the contributions of these leadership styles to the variance were significant and therefore did not support this hypothesis. It is possible that this relationship was affected by other variables that were not controlled for, as The World's Health Organization (2014) suggests that health can be determined by social and economic environment, physical environment, and personal characteristics and behaviors as well. For example, higher socio-economic status has been found to relate to better health (Hallerod & Gustadsson, 2011). This suggests that several variables should be taken into consideration more closely in further research on this topic.

Limitations

As with any study, this study has certain limitations that limit the generalizability of

the results, but also provide opportunities for future research. One potential limitation with this study is that the small sample size may have decreased the likelihood for significant results (Aron, et al., 2006). Another potential limitation is that the uncertain response rate when using the snowball-method, especially when immigrant studies generally tend to have low response rate (Deding, Fridberg, & Jakobsen, 2008).

Since assimilation leadership and separation leadership were combined, it made it impossible to test the effect of these leadership styles separately. The Diversity Management Questionnaire might have to be adjusted to find the items that are able to differentiate between these leadership styles in further research. The usage of interviews when forming the Diversity Management Questionnaire substantiates however the validity and relevance of the items in the questionnaire. The somewhat high reliability of the scales of the leadership styles in this study is also considered as a strength.

The influence of leader behaviors is likely to be moderated by other personal and external factors, which were not controlled for in this study. These personal and external factors include employee characteristics and aspects of the work environment as well (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). For example, job satisfaction, which is the extent of how much employees are engaged in their work, as well as organizational tenure, have shown to be positively related to organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). It has also been reported that employees in a high performing branch are more likely to show higher organizational commitment than employees in low performing branches (Mowday, Porter, & Dubin, 1974).

A cross-sectional study makes it hard to identify causal effects on the relationship between leadership styles, and employees' organizational commitment and health. Also, this study was conducted in Norway with immigrants in Norway, and the findings may not generalize to other immigrant groups, countries, or settings due to societal and cultural

differences.

Implications and Conclusions

Although there has been done a lot of research on multicultural workplaces, there are few studies on this topic in Norway. This study is the first study to investigate the relationship between leadership styles, organizational commitment, and subjective general health, among immigrants in Norway as far as I know of. Since this study is based on a new leadership model, *the LIDO-model* (Sandal, et al., 2013), and utilized a new instrument, *the Diversity Management Questionnaire* (Sandal, et al., 2013), the results were therefore interesting.

This study contributes to the research of diversity with findings of that diversity leadership can benefit both organizations and employees, in terms of low sickness absence and good health among employees. Moreover, assimilation/separation leadership is not beneficial for the organization as it is positively related to continuance commitment, which has shown to be a disadvantage for both the organization and the employee (Meyer, et al., 2002). Organizations should therefore strive to avoid high levels of continuance commitment among their employees by for example changing leadership styles. However, empirical evidences propose that the relationships between perceived leadership behavior, and immigrants' organizational commitment and subjective general health, are quite complex, and the nonsignificant assocations in this study can be explained by the mentioned limitations. Further research should therefore take consideration of this aspect and for moderating variables.

Since the LIDO-model (Sandal, et al., 2013) is newly developed and based on a theoretical framework, more research on these leadership styles will be both be interesting and necessarily to draw further conclusions. Conducting a longitudinal study on these relationships can also provide causal explanations. Further research could also distinguish

between more ethnic minorities, as McKay, et al. (2007) suggest that a "one size fits all" diversity management might not suffice when members of minority groups do not respond similar to an organization's diversity climate and because studies have also shown that different ethnic groups can have different preferences for leadership (House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997).

Diversity within the workforce will be inevitable in the future. To achieve positive organizational outcomes and advantages through preferred organizational commitment and better health and well-being among employees with immigrant backgrounds, leadership training should be more emphasized in organizations. Further training on leadership should plan for diversity as a source of competitive advantage.

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Table 1

Group characteristics as a Percentage of the sample

| Characteristic	Norway (*n* = 75)	Eastern Europe (*n* = 104)	South-East Asia (*n* = 81)
Female	40.8%	29.8%	61.7%
Male	59.2%	70.2%	38.3%
Age (mean)	35.2	32.05	28.08
Born in Norway		2.9%	55.6%
10 years or less residence in Norway	25.4%	57.7%	7.4%
Have a paid job	92.7%	89.4%	91.4%
Have a leader position	21.2%	14.4%	13.6%
Completed primary education	2%		4%
Completed high school	21.3%	11.9%	18%
Completed college/university 1-4 years	37.3%	30.5%	42%
Completed college/university 5-6 years	3.3%	50.8%	34%
Completed PhD	1.3%	5.1%	2%
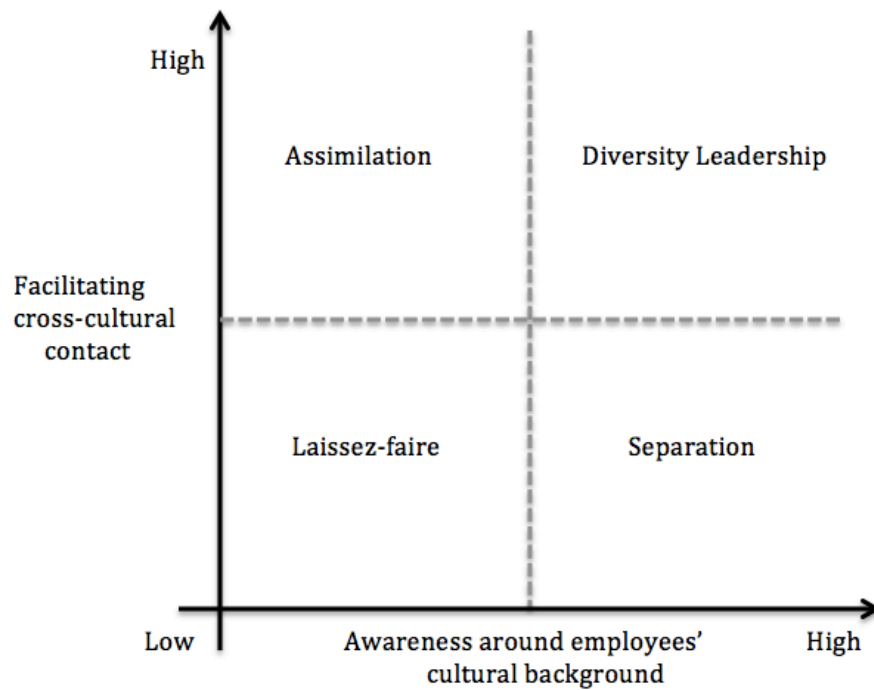
Figure 1. The Leadership in Diverse Organizations (LIDO) model. This figure illustrates the

leadership styles in the LIDO-model according to "facilitating cross-cultural contact" and

"awareness around employees' cultural background".

Footnotes

[1]Copies of the Diversity Management Questionnaire, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, and the 12-item of General Health Questionnaire could not be included in the appendix due to copyright issues.

Appendix

The invitation to participate in this study's survey about leadership in cultural diversity at workplaces was as the following:

Invitasjon til å delta i undersøkelse om ledelse på flerkulturelle arbeidsplasser.

Arbeidslivet har i økende grad blitt en møteplass for mennesker fra ulike kulturer og opprinnelsesland. Ledere spiller en nøkkelrolle for at alle ansatte skal finne sin plass i fellesskapet på arbeidsplassen og for at den enkeltes erfaringer og kompetanse skal komme til nytte. Samtidig er det mange ubesvarte spørsmål om hva som kjennetegner god og effektiv ledelse på flerkulturelle arbeidsplasser, og hva ledelse kan bety for den enkeltes tilknytning, velvære og trivsel på arbeidsplassen.

Undersøkelsen "Mangfoldsledelse" tar sikte på å få mer kunnskap om dette temaet og vi vil i den forbindelse invitere deg til å delta. Dette kan du gjøre ved å klikke på lenken nedenfor.

Ledere:
http://www.survey-xact.no/LinkCollector?key=682LGG1S9192

Arbeidstakere:
https://www.survey-xact.no/LinkCollector?key=57KAPFJF9P3K

Prosjektet gjennomføres av forskningsgruppen Society and Workplace Diversity Group ved Universitetet i Bergen med NAV som aktiv samarbeidspartner. Professor Gro Mjeldheim Sandal er prosjektleder.

Vi håper at du er villig til å dele dine erfaringer med oss. Det vil kunne ta deg 10-15 minutter å delta i undersøkelsen . Vi må ha svarene dine innen en uke etter at du mottar denne invitasjonen. Svarene dine vil bli behandlet helt konfidensielt. Etter at undersøkelsen er avsluttet, kan du lese mer om resultatene på forskningsgruppens hjemmeside: http://www.uib.no/rg/saw

Har du spørsmål til undersøkelsen? I så fall kan du ta kontakt med prosjektmedarbeider Tonje Fyhn (tonje.fyhn@psysp.uib.no).

Med vennlig hilsen
Society and Workplace Diversity Research Group