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Inclusive management in international organizations: How does it affect local and expatriate academics?

Abstract

Purpose – A growing number of academics relocate abroad to work as expatriates in the university sector. While this employee group seems to have a highly constructive influence on the performance of university organizations, some problems in relation to effective inclusion of these individuals have been noted. In order to further advance our theoretical understanding regarding integration efforts in international university organizations we explore how two types of inclusive management, empowering management (identity-blind) versus English management communication (identity-conscious) affect local and expatriate academics.

Design/methodology/approach – Using responses generated from a survey of 792 local and 620 expatriate academics, this article assesses the effects of inclusive management on job engagement and stress among the two groups.

Findings – Our results show that one type of inclusive management, empowering management (identity-blind), has a favorable influence on job engagement and stress in both subsamples. The other type, English management communication (identity-conscious), increases stress for local academics but has no effect on the expatriates. These findings are useful for theory development in relation to employee inclusion in international organizations.

Originality/value – We have little knowledge about how inclusive management functions in international organizations. Testing the effect of identity-blind and identity-conscious inclusive management practices among two different groups of local and expatriate academics provides new insight to this area. In particular, the use of English management communication provides new knowledge on the integration of majority and minority groups in international organizations.

Keywords Expatriate academics, Inclusive management, Empowering management, English management communication.

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

The global mobility of expatriate academics has increased substantially along with university internationalization making this area increasingly important to the field of human resource management (Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, 2010). The relatively high degree of autonomy in

their jobs and the notion that tasks can often be carried out in a similar fashion across different countries are key reasons for the expanding cross-national relocation among academics (Froese, 2012; Isakovic and Whitman, 2013). This intensification in academics' international mobility has led to a growing interest in this group from practitioners and researchers (Richardson and McKenna, 2002; Selmer and Luring, 2012, 2013).

Over the years several studies have revealed the importance of expatriate academics for universities in terms of research productivity (Levin and Stephen, 1999; Corley and Sabharwal, 2007) and for global rankings used to produce various university league tables (Gress and Ilon, 2009). At the same time, an increasing attention has developed in relation to the difficulties experienced with the recruitment and retaining of expatriate academics (Altbach, 1996; Richardson and McKenna, 2000; Altbach, 2005). Some of these difficulties concern the working conditions which expatriate academics are faced with as university employees. For example, Skachkova (2007) found that expatriate academics regularly experience devaluation of their contributions and exclusion from important networks that could lead to opportunities for publishing and for acquiring research grants. Interviewees in this study also described the existence of discrimination in the form of sexism, racism, and ethnocentrism. Similarly, Munene (2014) identified problems related to isolation of the foreign faculty along with minimal professional development opportunities and exclusion in research and teaching activities.

Hence, a number of problems exist in relation to providing a good working environment for expatriate academics (Austin, 2003). One idea to improve this conceptually has been suggested. That is to use inclusive management practices for integrating foreign individuals into the local work culture (Devita, 2000; Mor-Barak, 2000; Luring and Klitmøller, forthcoming). In addition to these few studies having investigated inclusive management in international organizations, a small group of studies has suggested the relevance of inclusive management for other types of minorities

defined by profession, ethnicity, and gender (e.g. Nembhard and Edmondson, 2006; Nishii and Mayer, 2009; Mitchell, Boyle, Parker, Giles, Chiang and Joyce, 2015). Spurred by this notion we set out to explore the role of inclusive management practices in relation to local and foreign personnel and thereby to take the first small step toward a more general theorizing about inclusive management in international organizations (cf. Feldman, Khademian, Ingram and Schneider, 2006).

So far only a handful of studies have dealt with inclusion in international organizations. For example, Luring (2013) found that expatriates in Saudi-Arabia reinterpreted inclusive policies from the parent company thus developing localized practices that best suited their own aims. Michailova (2002) studied two Western subsidiaries in Russia and concluded that expatriates should not use empowerment and participation approaches as the cultural context did not allow for it. Both these studies qualitatively explored how superior expatriate managers exercised inclusion of the lower-level local employees. However, in order to develop a more generic theory-building concerning how inclusive management practices work in international organizations, researchers need to focus on both expatriate and local employees. This is because it cannot be assumed that expatriates will always be a dominant group facilitating the inclusion. In recent years organizations are to an increasing extent recruiting self-initiated expatriates that are not per se entering the organization at the management level (Tharenou, 2013). Self-initiated expatriates, which encompass most expatriate academics, can work in all kinds of positions in a foreign country organization (Selmer, Luring, Normann and Kubovcikova, 2015).

Hence, in general, what distinguishes expatriate academics from local employees is not the level of power but rather the novel situation they face in the new country. An inclusive practice that may help this particular group would be to assist these international individuals to carry out their work despite lacking a full set of skills for functioning in the local context.

In order to develop a better understanding of inclusion in international organizations, we argue that there is a need to focus on two different types of groups (locals and expatriates) and two different types of inclusive management practices: a general one and one that is specialized to the needs of the minority. With regard to the two different groups, only a limited amount of research has actually explored if there are any variations in how expatriate and local employees are affected by management practices. Differences between the two groups have been mentioned to be assumed rather than confirmed (Olsen and Martins, 2009). Moreover, it can be argued that in order to understand expatriates' work-lives better, we need to explore this group not only in isolation but to compare the expatriates to their local counterparts (Caprar, 2011). Only then will we be able to identify the difficulties which are arising from the international setting and subsequently to relate these challenges to what is generally experienced by all organization employees and what is caused by insufficient integration. Accordingly, the first step in developing a theory for inclusive management in international organizations would be to outline how such practices affect locals and expatriates respectively.

In relation to the different types of inclusive management that may be exercised in international organizations, we take departure in Konrad and Linnehan's (1995) framework. Here inclusive management in diverse organizations is depicted as either identity-blind or identity-conscious. Identity-blind inclusion is directed toward any individual in the organization whereas identity-conscious inclusion is aimed at a group with particular needs. As an identity-blind inclusive management practice we use general empowerment fostering participation in decision making. As an identity-conscious inclusive management practice we use English language management communication as this would be an initiative facilitated primarily to include foreign organization members. To the best of our knowledge, in prior studies of inclusive management, the practice of English management communication has not been included as a type of practice. This may be due

to the fact that the majority of studies of inclusive management (e.g. Nishii and Mayer, 2009; Mitchell et al., 2015; Randel, Dean, Ehrhart, Chung and Shore, 2016) focus on a domestic organizational context rather than on an international setting including local and expatriate employees. In this context English management communication can be argued to be an internationally oriented inclusion practice.

When assessing the role of the two types of inclusive management among local and expatriate academics we use the level of job engagement and stress to determine the effect. This is because such outcomes are important indicators for the wellbeing and productivity of employees in an organization.

Theory and research questions

Inclusive management

Theories on inclusion have primarily been concerned with employee involvement and the integration of diversity (Verkuyten, 2005; Nembhard and Edmondson, 2006; Nishii and Mayer, 2009; Mitchell et al., 2015). Inclusive management refers to the words and actions of the manager indicating an invitation and appreciation for diverse employees' contributions (Nembhard and Edmondson, 2006). This research has specifically emphasized the inclusion of individuals from minority groups, and an aim has been to grant them access to communication networks where they can influence decision-making and adapt the organization to their special needs (Pettigrew and Martin, 1989; Mor-Barak and Cherin, 1998; Randel et al., 2016). As such, organizational inclusion research generally focuses on removing hindrances to the participation of minority-group employees (Roberson, 2006). Inclusion, however, is not only for the weak or the few. Inclusive

management practices can also have positive effects on majority-group members making them feel empowered in the workplace (Pelled, 1996).

Accordingly, Konrad and Linnehan (1995) distinguish between general inclusive management practices and inclusive practices directed toward a specific gender, race, or nationality. The general practices they label identity-blind practices. This is where no special concern is taken towards any demographic group (Konrad & Linnehan 1995). In other words, this type of general inclusion can facilitate more participation through involvement of all organization members.

In contrast, some management practices may be structured to ensure that in addition to overall individual concerns, the specific needs of a demographic group are taken into consideration (Konrad and Linnehan, 1995). This could be done to support the inclusion of a minority group, which may otherwise be excluded from communication networks and participation in organizational decision making (Shore, Randel, Chung, Dean, Ehrhart and Singh, 2011). Hence, two different approaches to inclusion in organizations exist.

There may also be different reasons for the positive effect of inclusive management. Benefit to the individual may be caused by both instrumental and symbolic outcomes of the practices. With regard to instrumental reasons, Seibert, Silver, and Randolph (2004) pinpoint autonomy and information sharing as important reasons for why organization members want to feel included. As a theoretical framing for this argument, Leiter and Maslach (1999) argue that organization members can feel disengaged and stressed if they experience a mismatch between their needs and the work settings. If an individual is included and listened to, there is a greater chance that they feel in control over their job which should make them more engaged and less stressed. Accordingly, one reason for inclusive management to yield positive results is that organization members feel more in control over their situation since they are more involved in decision making. This will increase the fit between the person and the environment (Kezar, 2001). In other words, inclusion and empowerment

allow individuals to adjust to demands in the environment and cope with them thereby mitigating stress according to their needs and circumstances (Butts, Vandenberg, DeJoy, Schaffer and Wilson, 2009). Another effect of increased inclusion is greater intrinsic motivation which is known to foster engagement (Seibert et al., 2004). Finally, inclusion has been found to improve the communication flow in organizations since more people are involved in the dialogue. This has also been found to reduce stress as a consequence from participating in the interaction (Butts et al., 2009).

In addition to the above-mentioned positive consequences, it has also been argued that the beneficial effects of inclusion for workers can sometimes be more symbolic than substantive in nature (Butts et al., 2009). In this regard, Alvesson (1993) argues that organizational ethics and knowledge can be seen as a symbolic vehicle that can be influential on organization members. Inclusive practices may simply signify to employees that they are valued and taken seriously by the organization (Noorliza and Asaari, 2006). This could also have a favorable effect on engagement and could reduce the individual's stress level.

Empowering management as identity-blind practice

Empowering management encompasses processes of delegating and sharing power with the employee (Zhang and Bartol, 2010). Such empowerment of the employee is considered a psychological state of enhanced feelings of self-efficacy and control (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Arnold, Arad, Rhoades and Drasgow, 2000). Moreover, a central aspect of empowerment is that it fosters employee participation in decision making (Ahearne, Mathieu and Rapp, 2005).

The practice of empowering management has been found to be valued in the academic profession across national boundaries (Bensimon and Neumann, 1993; Kezar, 2001). On a more general level, Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli (2006) found job control to be linked to job

engagement among teachers at different ranks. Similar results were found by Sonnentag, Mojza, Demerouti and Bakker (2012) in a panel study with 111 participants.

While relatively solid strong evidence seems to support the link between empowering management and job engagement, there are also indications that employee stress levels could be reduced by the same practices (Skakon, Nielsen, Borg and Guzman, 2010). For example, Dobрева-Martinova (2002) found an inclusive and empowering management style to reduce job ambiguity and subsequently occupational stress. Among public sector employees, Laschinger and colleagues (1999) specifically identified managers with an empowering behavior to have a less stressed work group. Almost and Laschinger (2002) showed that nurses being empowered by access to information and opportunities in their work environment experienced a lower degree of job strain.

While domestic research generally finds positive effects of empowering management, some studies, however, indicate that not all employee-groups may have the same view on this type of management depending on their cultural background. For examples, it has been highlighted that non-Western individuals are less receptive to empowerment (Michailova, 2002). Accordingly, although domestic research on homogeneous groups provides a strong empirical documentation for the constructive effect of empowering management practices, studies distinguishing between local and expatriate employees suggest that differences may exist. We therefore pose our first research question:

RQ 1 How will empowering management, as an identity-blind inclusive management practice, influence job engagement and stress for local and expatriate employees respectively?

English management communication as identity-conscious practice

It has been argued that it is the internal communication in the organization which enables work groups to create a healthy social environment and coordinate work activities (Hobman, Bodia

and Gallois, 2004). In an international organization, a managerial approach to ensure that all employees are included in the international communication has been to adopt a common language that all can understand and speak (Bartels, Peters, de Jong, Pruyn and van der Molen, 2010; Luring and Selmer, 2010, 2012b). A common language can be seen as inclusive in that it provides a unifying code between individuals holding different language repertoires (Janssens and Steyaert, 2014).

Related to this, Luring and Selmer (2012a) found that conscious use of the common language by the management promoted inclusiveness and increased openness to diversity in multicultural organizations. This perception by members is important since linguistic involvement and acceptance have been found to enhance individuals' willingness to communicate despite proficiency variations in the common language (Klitmøller, Schneider and Jonsen, 2014; Bordia and Bordia, 2015).

As such, inclusive language management is a form of communication which allows all linguistic minorities to take part in the dialogue and thus a more equal access to information and decision making for the expatriate group (cf. Luring and Klitmøller, forthcoming). Here, the manager's key role would be to set an example for overcoming language-induced isolation among foreign personnel (Neeley, Hinds and Cramton, 2012).

Only a few studies have explored the link between language and engagement. However, with regard to symbolic consequences, Wefald and Reichard (2011) argue that employees' beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution are important antecedents to work engagement. The use of a common language which expatriate personnel can understand would certainly increase the feeling that the local management cares about the foreign individuals' contribution to the organizational dialogue.

English management communication may also affect stress. Smeltzer (1987) argues that communication among members of the work group is one of the most important communication variables in relation to work stress. According to Smeltzer (1987), this indicates that if organization members are excluded from internal communication, it will increase their stress level. Related to this, Hajro and Pudelko (2010) describe how the linguistic competencies of the managers are vital for healthy functioning of a work group leading to lowering the general stress level. Moreover, continuous code switching between the local and common language as well as reduced access to information and decision making could be disruptive and cause anxiety and stress among foreign employees as they feel left out (Tenzer, Pudelko and Harzing, 2014).

However, the effect of English management communication may not be similar for expatriate and local employees. Speaking a common, second language has been described also to have many negative consequences in relation to speaking one's native tongue. It can reduce communication speed and frequency as well as creating misunderstandings. Unfamiliar vocabulary, strong accents, slow speech rhythm, or frequent grammatical mistakes can make it more difficult for employees in international work groups to interact (Yashima, Zenk-Nishide and Shimizu, 2004; Wells, 2013). Moreover, according to Volk, Köhler, and Pudelko (2014) processing information in a non-native language depletes an individual's cognitive resources so that few reserves are left for other tasks. Such hardship makes working by use of a second language demanding and often stressful.

When taken from the perspective of the local employees, managerial inclusive practices inducing the employees to communicate primarily in English may lead to the perception of working in a more stress-full and less engaging environment. This is compared to an otherwise demographically homogenous workplace, where the majority group's mother tongue could be freely spoken thus granting greater rhetorical power to the individual. Hence, even though minority groups

such as expatriates perceive English management communication as a just and positive inclusive practice, this may be considered differently by the local majority. They may instead consider such management practices as favoring the presence and participation of a minority group in a way that could be problematic for their own job performance and wellbeing (Bobo and Kluegel, 1993; Konrad and Linnehan, 1995). In other words, there could be good reasons for why identity-conscious inclusive management practices, such as using a common language, could be beneficial for expatriates. However, the same practice could have negative consequences for local academics. Accordingly, we ask the second research question:

RQ 2 How will English management communication as an identity-conscious inclusive management practice influence job engagement and stress for local and expatriate employees respectively?

Methodology

To investigate our two research questions, we have chosen a quantitative survey method. Such an approach is usually depicted as applying a positivist and objectivist epistemological perspective on social phenomena. However, in the studies of people in complex organizational settings, one has to acknowledge that, based on their differentiated experiences, individuals ascribe multiple meanings to social experiences, which pose difficulties to fit into pre-determined categories (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). This entails a certain precautionous attendance to the often assumed generalizability and causal explanatory support of quantitative methodology (Yilmaz, 2013). By the careful use of theory as an essential foundation for our exploratory research questions, we seek to comply with such limitations of survey research. Hence, we acknowledge that a deductive approach entails that relations between categories and variables are theoretically assumed and may be empirically proposed in the analysis, yet not exhaustively determined. The shortcomings of such an approach should therefore be acknowledged

in the design of the data collection and not least in the conclusions made (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Although some weaknesses in a quantitative approach could be alleviated by research of a more qualitative nature, there are obvious values of applying a survey design for our purpose. By use of quantitative data, we can provide a general picture of relations between different participant-rated variables that could not have been achieved with the same precision by use of, e.g., interviews or observations (Patton, 2002). This is especially important in our case because qualitative expatriate research has made the argument that empowerment can have negative consequences in international settings (e.g. Michailova, 2003). As this argument is counter to existing domestic quantitative research, there is a need to explore this assumption in a more generalizable way in order to support or reject the oppositional arguments made in this field. We thus assess that our research method is well-suited to answer our main research questions although we acknowledge that qualitative research could add further details and explanations to our findings. This is discussed further in the section on potential future extensions of our results.

Sample

Our investigation has gained insights into the consequences of inclusive management for local and expatriate academics through questionnaires distributed to university employees in the Nordic countries (Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Finland) and the Netherlands. These countries were selected because English is extensively used as a common language by international organizations (including the university sector). Academics were selected from the natural sciences as they often work in large international research projects and co-author collaborative ventures. In addition, English has become a lingua franca to the natural sciences in a highly globalized research field, and most of the natural science disciplines can be researched irrespective of country boundaries. Respondents were identified from university webpages, and the sample included permanent staff

members as well as doctoral researchers/PhD students, post-doctoral researchers, and assistant professors. Using an electronic survey program, 3,452 individuals were originally targeted. Eventually, after three reminders, 1,412 exploitable responses were received amounting to a response rate of 40.9%.

For the purpose of this study, the total sample of academics was divided into two groups based on whether they worked in their native country or a country to which they had expatriated. The local academics constituted 56% of the total sample with an average age of 39.67 years (SD=11.57). The subsample of local academics had a majority of 56.8% of male respondents. Amongst expatriate academics, the average age was 34.96 years (SD=8.70). In the host country, the expatriate respondents had a majority 61.9% of male respondents and only 38.1% represented the female population. The majority, 65.6%, came from outside the EU countries.

Measures

Except for background variables all constructs were measured by established multi-item scales. Response categories for all scales ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. As is common in similar studies, this investigation used currently held nationality as an indicator for expatriate status (Lauring and Selmer, 2014).

Inclusive management:

Empowering management was measured by a three-item, seven-point subscale on fostering participation in decision making by Zhang and Bartol (2010). Sample item: “My team leader makes many decisions together with the team” ($\alpha=.90$). *English management communication* was measured by a five-item, seven-point scale by Lauring and Selmer (2011). Sample item: “The team leader issues instructions and guidelines in English” ($\alpha=.85$).

Engagement and stress:

Job engagement was measured by a nine-item, seven-point scale by Schaufeli et al. (2006). Sample item: “When I am working, I forget everything else around me” ($\alpha=.74$). Stress was measured by Parker and DeCotiis’ (1983) two subscales. *Job anxiety* was measured by six items. Sample item: “I have felt uneasy and nervous as a result of my job” ($\alpha=.79$). *Work pressure stress* was measured by four items. Sample item: “We have too much work and too little time to do it” ($\alpha=.80$).

In the multiple regressions, *Age* was applied as a control variable because job engagement and stress may change depending on the respondent’s age (James, McKechnie and Swanberg, 2011). This variable was assessed from a direct single question to the respondents: “How old were you on your last birthday?”

The above variables are measured independently as rated by the participants. However, through statistical analysis we assess if some constructs seem to be related to each other or not. In other words, if an increase in values for one variable is followed by a similar increase in another variable, this could be taken as an indication that the two variables are related to each other. In addition, by dividing the sample the relation or non-relation can be compared for different groups.

To conclude the methodological considerations, it should be mentioned that conducting this type of survey-based research means that we have only been in scant contact with the participants of the study. Hence, we have not influenced the research field directly through our presence as would have been the case for a qualitative approach. Still, since we are studying individuals in the same situations as ourselves, namely local and expatriate academic researchers, we are not entirely detached from our subjects, which would be the ideal of positivist research. The selection of variables and hypotheses are based on useful theories in the field (e.g. Konrad and Linnehan, 1995),

but they are also guided by our own daily experiences with internationalization of our profession and inclusion. Indeed, it was because this theme caught our initial interest – registering unsolved managerial problems and tensions in our own work context – that we decided to launch the study.

Results

In this section we shortly outline the statistical results of the study. For an overview of the variables, we provide a table depicting the sample means, standard deviations, and zero-order Pearson correlations of all variables (Table 1).

[Insert Table 1 about here]

The two research questions were explored by way of two sets of hierarchical multiple regressions. The first set included local academics (Table 2). The control variable, Age, was entered in Step 1. That produced a significant positive association with Job engagement (beta = 0.12, $p < .01$) and Work pressure stress (beta = .16, $p < .001$) in addition to a significant negative association with Job anxiety (beta = -0.21, $p < .01$). The significant and positive association between Age and the applied dependent variables justifies the application of the former variable as a control in the multiple regressions.

In Step 2, the predictor variables, Empowering management and English management communication, were entered. Empowering management produced a significant positive association with Job engagement (beta = 0.11, $p < .01$) and a negative relation with Job anxiety (beta = -0.16, $p < .001$) and Work pressure stress (beta = -0.08, $p < .05$). English management communication produced a significant positive association with Work pressure stress (beta = 0.10, $p < .01$).

[Insert Table 2 about here]

Results of the second set of hierarchical multiple regressions included expatriate academics as displayed by Table 3. Similar effects as in the first regression were found for the control variable, Age.

In Step 2, the predictor variables, Empowering management and English management communication, were entered again. Like in the first model this variable produced a significant positive association with Job engagement (beta = 0.14, $p < .01$) and a significant negative association with Job anxiety (beta = -0.21, $p < .001$) and Work pressure stress (beta = -0.13, $p < .01$). However, there was no significant effect of English management communication on any of the outcome variables. We use these results to answer the two research questions in the discussion.

[Insert Table 3 about here]

Discussion

Main findings and limitations

In this study we explored two research questions related to how inclusive management functions in international organizations. This contributes to the existing literature on inclusive management (Mor-Barak, 2000; Nembhard and Edmondson, 2006; Nishii and Mayer, 2009; Randel et al., 2016) by adding the international dimension. More specifically, we explore differences in relation to two types of inclusive management: that of identity-blind and that of identity-conscious practices. Especially the focus on language in inclusive management is novel to the field and relevant to the international context comprising local and expatriate academics.

The first research question concerned identity-blind inclusive management in the form of empowering management. Domestic research has found positive consequences of empowering management practices in relation to both job engagement (Hakanen et al., 2006) and stress (Almost

and Laschinger, 2002). Other studies, however, have argued that the effect of identity-blind empowerment can be dependent upon culture (Michailova, 2002). Yet, such an influence could not be identified in our study of academics. More specifically, we found that for international university organizations there was no difference in the effect of empowering management practices between expatriate and local academics on neither engagement nor stress.

In this respect our study suggests that international university organizations function similarly to most domestic organizations when it comes to empowering management: it is something that benefits all employees. This is in correspondence with prior research showing that the practice of empowering management is valued in the academic profession across national boundaries (Bensimon and Neumann, 1993; Kezar, 2001). While claims have been made that universities have come to resemble other international organizations using highly qualified personnel (Lauring and Selmer, 2012a), it is still unclear to what extent our results can be generalized. It is possible that in international organizations with blue-collar workers, the effect of empowering management would to a higher degree be dependent on culture or expatriate status as found by Michailova (2002). This line of inquiry, however, needs to be further explored in future studies.

The second research question dealt with identity-conscious inclusive management asking how English management communication would influence local and expatriate academics respectively. Prior research indicated that being included in the organizational communication flow increases job engagement (Wefald et al., 2011) and decreases stress (Tenzer et al., 2014). Such results would predict English management communication to have a positive effect for expatriates. However, other studies suggest that negative emotions may also originate from having to speak a second language that one does not master well (Volk et al., 2014). This could lead to disengagement

and stress not least for the local employees that, as a majority group, may feel forced into this way of communicating due to increasing internationalization efforts by the organization.

Our results showed no effect of English management communication for the expatriate group but found a significant association between this practice and stress among the locals. This indicates that inclusive management practices in relation to English language could have negative consequences for locals while having no consequences for the expatriates. Our findings are thus in correspondence with prior studies which have emphasized that the majority group can perceive some inclusive practices as favoring the minority in ways that could be problematic for their own job performance and wellbeing (Bobo and Kluegel, 1993; Konrad and Linnehan, 1995). This could also be the case in our study where local academics feel more stressed since they might in several scenarios be prevented from using their native language. The expatriate academics, on the other hand, are probably more prepared to give up their mother tongue and comply with using a common language since they have relocated on their own initiative.

Although we found an increase in stress among local employees in departments with a high level of English management language, we found no effect on job engagement and job anxiety. This may simply be because having to speak a second language is cognitively demanding and thus stressful. However, this does not necessarily demotivate the worker in relation to the job task, nor does it lead to emotional strain in the form of job anxiety.

When applying the conclusions of this study, there are some limitations that should be taken into consideration. Common method variance could be a potential problem since all the data were collected by cross-sectional self-reports. However, the general and automatic condemnation of cross-sectional self-report methods has been found to be exaggerated (Spector, 2006). Moreover, differences between subsamples and varying effects for the two types of inclusive management cannot be explained by any method bias. Hence, although common method variance could have had

some effect on the study, we estimate that it was not a serious problem in relation to our main conclusions.

To alleviate some of the methodological limitations of the quantitative method, a qualitative approach should be considered in future endeavors. This kind of data collection could provide more detailed answers to how employees deal with inclusion in international organizations and why it affects them like it does. Previous research has indicated that there could be both instrumental and symbolic reasons for inclusive management to have positive consequences. It is, however, very difficult to study the interrelations between different causes to the consequences for the different groups using survey research. Here it would be useful to apply a qualitative, near insider approach to assess the micro processes at play in inclusive management (cf. Moore, 2011).

Implications

Our findings could have some applicable guidelines for further theory-development with regard to inclusive management. Although the results may not be generalizable to all international organizations, they could provide a first step towards developing a more general theory on inclusive management in international organizations, specifically in academic or knowledge intensive organizations. The main conclusion to draw from our findings is that while general, identity-blind inclusion seems to be an overall positive practice in such organizations, identity-conscious inclusive management practices are a more precarious endeavor to engage in. Especially, our study suggests that research in inclusive management in international organizations should pay more attention to how inclusive management practices directed at specific international minorities also affect the local majority. We have to acknowledge that there will be a tradeoff when providing special treatment to better integrate a group with specific needs. Not least when dealing with needs that are perceived as incompatible with the preferences of the local majority. In this case, our study focused

on language, but it may also relate similarly to other identity-conscious inclusive practices such as funding aimed at attracting or favoring foreign national academics, or even food in the canteen.

From a practical perspective, there may also be useful learnings from our findings. With regard to empowering management, our study shows that, at least in universities, managers should not worry about specific cultures or groups feeling stressed or disengagement by this practice. In other words, empowerment for all is a good thing at least when it pertains to an internationalized academic organization.

In relation to the practical implications of language, we propose that HR departments and managerial staff in universities could benefit from gauging more closely the English skills among their local employees, who, in the studied countries in Northern Europe, would often report being fluent in English. However, such self-perceived proficiency may hold its limits since prior studies have found that even though individuals have good language skills, it is still demanding to interact in a second language (Volk et al., 2014; Luring and Klitmøller, 2015). Moreover, English management communication may entail shifts in the power-balance between expatriate and local academics. For instance, the local academics might feel that the expatriates gain power and more influence in the organization if the latter is more proficient in English (cf. SanAntonio, 1987; Neeley, 2013). Thus, international organizations may benefit from training local staff in ways that prepare them for these types of linguistic encounters.

In terms of internationalizing faculty, English training interventions can sometimes face resistance from older members of staff who have perhaps, as the majority group, been used to communicate primarily in their local mother tongue (Luring and Selmer, 2013). Moreover, some of these staff members might have a lower command of English thereby, in line with our results, experiencing more stress in relation to a shift to English management communication. Hence, this

group of employees could be important to include in the organization's inclusive management. Yet more studies are needed in this area.

The above described difficulties related to English management communication may also be an important focus during recruitment and selection processes particularly of the new local personnel. It seems relevant to emphasize the management expectations of having to communicate in English and prepare them for the potential stress that this may entail in comparison to being able to communicate in the local language. It follows that fluency in academic English could be included as a requirement in the job advertisement. The above efforts would contribute to the selection panel's ability to not always automatically choose the strongest academically accomplished candidate if he or she has poor communication skills in the common language.

Consequently, internationalization strategies of faculty should also become an endeavor involving the local employees and not only incoming expatriates. For example, as far as language training and recruitment selection criteria are concerned, the focus should also be directed at domestic staff members as they also need to be fully equipped to accommodate for the practice of establishing an international community within the organization they share with expatriate academics. More specifically, fluency in academic English (writing, reading, listening, speaking) of local employees could be explicitly assessed across the various phases during the recruitment process, for example by asking the candidate to solve a case study in English and/or deliver at least one of the job presentations in English.

Yet, while these practical implications may be relevant in academic organizations who strategically aim to develop a more international environment, it should also be acknowledged that some university departments do not fully pursue this. Instead, they should go for a balanced approach to recruitment and training where English language proficiency is only an optional component or listed as a 'desirable' rather than an 'essential' job feature. In both cases, however,

clarity and transparency in terms of prioritizing which inclusive management practices are applied would be needed in order to avoid unnecessary stress among the staff.

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Table 1: Means, standard deviation and correlations among the variables

S.No	Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Job engagement	5.01	0.83	1.00					
2	Stress	3.82	1.08	0.02	1.00				
3	Work pressure stress	4.15	1.15	0.17**	0.39**	1.00			
4	Empowering management	4.83	1.38	0.12**	-0.17**	-0.10**	1.00		
5	English management communication	5.61	1.26	-0.02	0.04	0.02	0.12**	1.00	
6	Age	37.60	10.66	0.10**	-0.16**	0.16**	-0.06*	-0.29**	1.00

Table 2: Multiple regression for the local academics' subsample

	Job engagement	Job anxiety	Work pressure stress
	β	β	β
Step 1 (Control)			
Age	0.12**	-0.21***	0.16***
<i>Adjusted R²</i>	0.01	0.04	0.03
Step 2			
Empowering management	0.11**	-0.16***	-0.08*
English management communication	-0.01	0.04	0.10**
<i>Adjusted R²</i>	0.02	0.07	0.04
<i>Change in R²</i>	0.01	0.03	0.01

* p<.05; ** p<.01; *** p<.001

Table 3: Multiple regression for the expatriate academics' subsample

	Job engagement	Job anxiety	Work pressure stress
	β	β	β
Step 1 (Control)			
Age	0.09*	-0.09*	0.15***
<i>Adjusted R²</i>	0.01	0.01	0.02
Step 2			
Empowering management	0.14**	-0.21***	-0.13**
English management communication	0.01	-0.03	0.05
<i>Adjusted R²</i>	0.02	0.05	0.03
<i>Change in R²</i>	0.01	0.04	0.01

* p<.05; ** p<.01; *** p<.001