1-1-2023

Creating meaningful work for employees: The role of inclusive leadership

Azadeh Shafaei
Edith Cowan University

Mehran Nejati
Edith Cowan University

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH QUANTITATIVE

WILEY

Creating meaningful work for employees: The role of inclusive leadership

Azadeh Shafaei PhD [1,2] ⓘ | Mehran Nejati PhD [1,3] ⓘ

[1]School of Business and Law, Edith Cowan University, Joondalup, Western Australia, Australia

[2]Centre for Work + Wellbeing, Edith Cowan University, Joondalup, Western Australia, Australia

[3]Centre for People, Place & Planet, Edith Cowan University, Joondalup, Western Australia, Australia

Correspondence
Mehran Nejati, School of Business and Law, Edith Cowan University, 270 Joondalup Dr, Joondalup, WA 6027, Australia.
Email: m.nejati@ecu.edu.au

Abstract

Meaningfulness is a fundamental psychological need and can result in numerous positive outcomes for employees and organizations. However, little is known about how inclusive leadership can promote employees' sense of meaningful work. Drawing upon self-determination theory, we posit that inclusive leadership enhances meaningful work through creating psychological safety and fostering learning from errors. Inclusive leadership improves work meaningfulness as it contributes to better job attributes. Study hypotheses were tested using a multiple-study research design, including a two-wave field study of 317 full-time employees (Study 1) and a randomized experimental vignette methodology with 440 participants (Study 2). Findings from both studies support the hypothesized mediation model and suggest that inclusive leaders enhance employees' meaningful work mediated through psychological safety and learning from errors.

KEYWORDS
inclusive leadership, learning from errors, meaningful work, psychological safety

1 | INTRODUCTION

Humans are at the heart of the future of work. For employees and subsequently companies to thrive, organizations need to create a meaningful work. Meaningfulness is an essential human need (Yeoman, 2014) and the search for meaning is a "universal human motive" (Lips-Wiersma & Morris, 2009, p. 493). According to a 2019 survey of more

than 3500 employees, meaningful work outranks compensation, perks, and other factors in career importance across all age groups (Workhuman, 2019).

Despite being a contested concept (Gallie, 1955), meaningfulness is often regarded as a "positive, subjective, individual experience" in the context of work (Bailey, Yeoman, et al., 2019). Work meaningfulness is defined as the degree to which employees assess and perceive the value or relevance of their work (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Rosso et al., 2010). In addition to being a moral responsibility of organizations (Wang & Xu, 2019), meaningful work enhances employees' motivation in carrying out their job, and makes them emotionally engaged in their work (Britt et al., 2001; Konczak et al., 2000).

Work meaningfulness is a positive stimulating factor that can contribute to both employees' well-being and organization functioning (Wrzesniewski, 2003). Work meaningfulness has been found as the most important aspect of job for employees since a substantial portion of people's adult life is spent at work, and if the work they do is meaningful, it can benefit them, their employer and society (Bailey & Madden, 2016; May et al., 2004; Wang & Xu, 2019). Specifically, work meaningfulness has been found to be positively related to a wide range of employee and organizational outcomes such as work and life satisfaction, engagement, psychological well-being, work motivation, career development, creativity, positive work behavior, in-role and extra-role performance, and organizational commitment (Cohen-Meitar et al., 2009; Rosso et al., 2010). Moreover, work meaningfulness can bring about several positive outcomes including job satisfaction, better performance, and greater motivation (Mulki & Lassk, 2019).

While previous studies affirm that several organization-based interventions such as job design, feedback, and autonomy are salient for work meaningfulness, there are still important gaps in how a sense of meaningfulness arises (Bailey, Lips-Wiersma, et al., 2019). There is scarce evidence in the literature on how organizations can contribute to creating a sense of work meaningfulness for their employees (Antal et al., 2018), as scholars tend to consider work meaningfulness as an individual responsibility, rather than a managerial task (Michaelson et al., 2014). This is crucial as meaningfulness is dependent on the "other" for its realization and leaders play a fundamental role in contributing to employees' experience of meaningful work (Wang & Xu, 2019). Frémeaux and Pavageau (2022) refer to leadership as a key factor that can contribute to employees' experience of meaningful work.

While a few leadership styles such as ethical leadership (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Mostafa & Abed El-Motalib, 2020), transformational leadership (Arnold et al., 2007; Han & Oh, 2020), authentic leadership (Cassar & Buttigieg, 2013), and empowering leadership (Lee et al., 2017) have been examined in relation with meaningful work, there is a dearth of studies examining the influence of inclusive leadership on creating meaningful work for employees. Why inclusive leadership? The answer is because inclusive leadership refers to a leadership style that invites and appreciates contributions from followers by demonstrating openness, flexibility, and availability (Carmeli et al., 2010), which can create a psychologically safe environment (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). Such a psychologically safe environment helps employees share their unique perspectives, discuss differences, and practice problem solving (Ashikali et al., 2021). Also, inclusive leaders promote employees' uniqueness and sense of belongingness to the organization, the two crucial factors in creating a psychologically safe environment where employees can be themselves (Randel et al., 2018). Moreover, inclusive leaders welcome contributions from diverse team members and ensure that employees have access to organizational resources (Carmeli et al., 2010). Through demonstrating availability, flexibility, and openness, inclusive leaders provide help and support to employees to solve problems, and make them believe that mistakes are not criticized, rather are opportunities to learn from (Ye et al., 2019).

This research contributes to the literature and practice in several ways. First, our study contributes to and extends the previous research on how to create a meaningful work for employees by investigating the crucial role of inclusive leadership. It provides a response to previous calls for further studies to identify what leadership style could promote a meaningful work for employees (Demirtas et al., 2017; Mostafa & Abed El-Motalib, 2020; Rosso et al., 2010; Steger & Dik, 2010; Wang & Xu, 2019). We build our argument upon self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) to explain inclusive leaders create positive job attributes by satisfying their employees' basic psychological needs for competence, and autonomy which can enhance employees' autonomous (intrinsic) motivation leading to meaningful work. We then make a case for why and how inclusive leaders can help employees experience

meaningful work. Therefore, results of our study offer practical implications to managers, leaders, and human resource development (HRD) practitioners on how to redesign work and create the necessary conditions to enhance employees' work meaningfulness and avoid the tedium of "a Monday through Friday sort of dying" (Terkel, 1975, p. 1). Having a meaningful work also facilitates employees' work motivation and enhances their positive work behaviors which are crucial elements for organizations to succeed (Spreitzer & Sutcliffe, 2007).

A second major contribution of our research is examining the mechanism through which inclusive leaders can contribute to employees' experience of meaningful work. We suggest that inclusive leaders create psychological safety for their employees to voice out their ideas. As supported by previous research, inclusive leaders enhance psychological safety at work settings (Hirak et al., 2012). When employees perceive that their input is welcomed by their leader and they are not criticized for their mistakes, they tend to realize that learning from errors is valued by their leader (Carmeli et al., 2010; Choi et al., 2015). When leaders treat their staff with respect and dignity, and value their contributions, they can create positive job attributes which makes employees perceive that their workplace promotes experimentation, open discussion, and learning from errors (Edmondson, 1999). Working in such a supportive environment created by inclusive leaders can foster greater meaningful work for employees (May et al., 2004). Our study findings extend the work design literature by providing evidence on the importance of leaders in redesigning work practices to enhance employees' sense of meaning.

2 | LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT

2.1 | Inclusive leadership and meaningful work

Leaders who provide a working context in which power is shared among leader and followers, can create a meaningful work for their employees (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). In contrast, a highly hierarchical working context reduces work meaningfulness (Lee et al., 2017). One leadership style that has the potential to contribute to employees' experience of meaningful work is inclusive leadership. According to Randel et al. (2018), both empowering leaders and transformational leaders could give employees a full sense of meaningful work if they would incorporate inclusive leadership (Ahearne et al., 2005).

Inclusive leadership refers to demonstrating participative behaviors by leaders and providing employees with a supportive environment to share their views (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). By emphasizing on respect, recognition, responsiveness, and responsibility, inclusive leaders share power and authority with employees and encourage their unique contributions (Hollander, 2012). Inclusive leaders involve their staff in decision making and support employees for every step of the activity (Carmeli et al., 2010) by providing feedback. This leadership style enhances employees' autonomy, signals that they are valued individuals who can make unbiased decisions, provides them with emotional support and increased trustworthiness (Hollander, 2012; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Ryan, 2006), and gives them the opportunity to voice their opinions which are essential in creating meaning-making capabilities (Newman et al., 2017; Tangirala et al., 2013), and can lead to experiencing meaningfulness at work by employees (Wang & Xu, 2019).

Many employees believe that work can only be meaningful when it allows them to realize their potential (Spreitzer et al., 2010). It has also been argued that continuous learning is required to reach self-actualization (Spreitzer et al., 2010), which subsequently leads to meaningfulness and thriving at work. As highlighted in the literature (Newman et al., 2017; Tangirala et al., 2013), one of the conditions that help employees experience meaningfulness in their work is when they are given confidence and opportunity to speak up and have their voice heard (Lam et al., 2016).

In the same vein, Morin (2008) proposed six work characteristics that are positively and significantly related to meaningful work. These characteristics include: (1) Moral correctness (i.e., working in a workplace that values justice and equity); (2) Learning and development opportunities (i.e., work that individuals enjoy doing and can develop their competence); (3) Autonomy (i.e., work that allows employees take responsibility, and encourages problem solving); (4) Recognition (i.e., workplace that recognizes employees' contributions); (5) Positive relationships (i.e., work that

enables good and positive relationship among employees); (6) Social purpose (i.e., doing the work that benefits others and society). These mentioned characteristics highlight the role of leadership, specifically inclusive leadership, in fostering meaningful work through impacting job attributes.

It is worth noting that the concept of meaningful work and work meaningfulness have been used interchangeably in the literature and researchers have defined them either as one dimensional or multi-dimensional concepts. For instance, the term meaningfulness refers to individuals' subjective experience of their work activity and measures "the degree to which the employee experiences the job as one which is generally meaningful, valuable, and worthwhile" (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p. 162). Meaningful work on the other hand includes both subjective experience and objective characteristics of the job. Evidence from the literature shows that some researchers have defined meaningful work based on employees' subjective experience as "the value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards" (May et al., 2004, p. 14), while others have focused more on the causes and resources of the meaningful work and whether there is a congruence between what individuals hope to realize at work and their perceptions about the extent to which those objectives are realized (Morin, 2008). According to Frémeaux and Pavageau (2022, p. 55), these two concepts do not oppose each other, therefore, they adopted a definition for meaningful work that incorporates both dimensions and refers to a "sense of coherence between the expected and perceived job characteristics according to one's own ideals or standards."

In addition, Monnot and Beehr (2014) focused on the perceived level of individual's work significance and defined meaningful work as a single work event that may be greatly meaningful and significant by one employee or not significant or meaningful by another employee. Considering meaning as the outcome of the sense that work makes, Rosso et al. (2010, p. 94) argued, "meaning is an individual interpreting what her work means, or the role her work plays, in the context of her life (e.g., work is a pay check, a higher calling, something to do, an oppression)."

In a meta-analysis on "meaningful work," Allan et al. (2019) categorized conceptualization of meaningful work into unidimensional and multidimensional. The former captures employees' perception of their work as being important, valuable, and worthwhile, while the latter considers the aspects of personal growth, helping others, and contributing to the greater good focusing on the process of meaningful experience. Specifically, conducting actions that are valuable and pertinent to individuals' existence can explain why the work is worthwhile (Allan et al., 2014). Given that the current study aims to understand the extent to which employees perceive their work as meaningful, we consider the unidimensional model, similar to Allan et al. (2019), and operationalize meaningful work as the general judgment that employees have about their work whether it achieves valuable, significant, and worthwhile goals, and is compatible with their existential values.

Being creative and self-expressive, people look for jobs that provide them with the freedom to act independently and express their true selves (Shamir, 1991). Research has shown that a leadership style that delegates power, authority, competency, and decision making to employees, can facilitate employees' self-management, independent thought process, and abilities to seek out learning opportunities (Pearce, 2004). As mentioned by Matsuo et al. (2019), leadership has a positive effect on employees' intrinsic and autonomous psychological states, motivations, and behaviors via autonomy and developmental support. Leaders through providing developmental support and autonomy help employees to understand the purpose of their work, improve work processes, and recognize their growth. Subsequently, inclusive leadership through demonstrating openness, availability, and flexibility, and promoting individuals' sense of belonging and uniqueness provide developmental support to employees to voice their opinion, learn from others, and improve their work performance. This will promote employees' intrinsic psychological states, leading to enhancing their sense of meaningfulness. Intrinsic and autonomous motivation is one of the key concepts in self-determination theory and refers to the sense of individual's self-endorsement and volition which involves being freely engaged in activity because one identifies with its values and meaning (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Williams et al., 2004).

Self-determination theory postulates that when employees' psychological needs for competence and autonomy are met, they will have greater autonomous (intrinsic) motivation which has been associated with improved well-being and enhanced performance (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan, 1995). Research has shown that various factors

including managerial style, job design, and work context influence employees' intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 2017). Specifically, to facilitate employees' autonomous motivation, a leader should satisfy basic psychological needs of employees in the work context by treating employees with respect, dignity, and valuing their unique contributions. This can enhance employees' autonomous (intrinsic) motivation (Morrison et al., 2007) and enable them to experience meaningfulness at work (Martela et al., 2021; May et al., 2004).

Self-determination theory posits that when individuals are autonomously motivated and feel competent, they will experience several positive psychological outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Additionally, self-determination theory postulates that relationships, based upon meaningful interactions, are fundamental for employees' well-being and optimal functioning (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), which highlights the vital role of leadership in creating a work context that emphasizes on respect, trust, support, and high-quality relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Trépanier et al., 2012).

Inclusive leaders value their employees' unique contributions, give them autonomy to try out new ways of doing things and voice out their opinions, encourage employees to gain competence and realize their potential through learning from errors, and provide them with feedback. This leadership style helps redesign the work by offering positive job attributes which can enhance employees' meaning. Therefore, building upon self-determination theory, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1. Inclusive leadership is positively related to meaningful work.

2.2 | Inclusive leadership and meaningful work via psychological safety

Research shows that employees' relationship with their immediate manager can dramatically influence their perception of psychological safety in workplace. Psychological safety refers to being able to show one's self without the fear of negative consequences on status, career or self-image (Kahn, 1990). Specifically, employees can experience psychological safety when they perceive that expressing their true selves at work would not result in adverse consequences. In a psychologically safe environment, employees are aware of the boundaries and acceptable behaviors at work because the relationship between leader and employees is based on trust. Therefore, working in a supportive environment created by inclusive leaders helps employees feel safe to try out innovative ways of doing things, and not to be afraid of discussing their mistakes and learning from their errors (Edmondson, 1999).

Prior research shows that when employees are provided with opportunities for learning and personal development, they would experience a strong sense of meaningful work (Bailey, Yeoman, et al., 2019; Fletcher, 2019). Through exhibiting respect, recognition, responsiveness and responsibility, supporting employees, ensuring equity within the group, encouraging employees' diverse contribution to the group, and helping employees fully contribute their unique perspectives and abilities (Randel et al., 2018), inclusive leaders create a psychologically safe environment and encourage learning from mistakes rather than being afraid of making one. Psychological safety creates a safe work environment built on trust and mutual respect between employees and their leaders (Kirk-Brown & Van Dijk, 2016). In a psychologically safe environment created by inclusive leaders, individuals feel respected and can offer their unique contributions without the fear of being judged or criticized (Choi et al., 2015). This can generate positive feelings and meaningful exchange that will induce meaningful work (Rabiul et al., 2022). Moreover, leaders, who provide a psychologically safe and supportive work environment for their employees, care about employees' feelings and needs, and provide feedback and opportunities to employees to voice their opinions, can enhance employees' self-determination and interest in work which could lead to meaningful work (Deci & Ryan, 1987).

Inclusive leaders create a psychologically safe environment for their employees to participate in decision making, encouraging them to make personally relevant choices and exert self-direction. Such a psychologically safe environment satisfies employees' basic needs for autonomy and competence, resulting in meaningful work. As such, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 2. Inclusive leadership is positively related to employees' perception of psychological safety.

Hypothesis 3. The positive relationship between inclusive leadership and meaningful work is mediated through psychological safety.

2.3 | Inclusive leadership and meaningful work via learning from errors

Inclusive leaders provide their employees with sufficient discretion and freedom to perform their work activities. Inclusive leaders welcome employees' inputs and suggestions, provide employees with organizational resources, and exhibit availability which make employees believe that their leaders do not criticize or punish them for mistakes (Carmeli et al., 2010; Choi et al., 2015). Inclusive leaders encourage their employees to take challenging goals and support them to demonstrate responsive behaviors in negative circumstances (Hollander, 2012). Inclusive leaders do this by taking responsibility for their work results and protecting their employees when their new ideas fail (Hollander, 2012). These behaviors by inclusive leaders allow employees to feel comfortable to take risks, and not to be intimidated by mistakes, but rather learn from those mistakes to improve work performance (Javed et al., 2017; Ye et al., 2019).

Inclusive leaders perform an important role in motivating and facilitating their followers to engage in an exchanging and learning behavior (Boekhorst, 2015; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2017; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004). This involves leaders creating an environment in which they develop opportunities for individuals to express diverse viewpoints, such as with problem solving (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2014; Randel et al., 2018). Leaders both encourage the exchange of these diverse viewpoints among employees and stimulate team members to discuss these differences.

Employees who work with an inclusive leader will experience a "sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's own actions" which is an essential tenet of the self-determination theory (Deci et al., 1989, p. 580). They feel respected and valued for their perspectives and contributions without being criticized for their mistakes, rather being given the opportunity to learn from those mistakes. Lysova et al. (2019) conducted a review on the contributing factors to meaningfulness and what specific factors could help create meaning for individuals. Their study identified that organizational culture that supports learning is one of the important factors that could create meaningful work for employees. Research also shows that leaders' behaviors in managing errors in the organization influences employees' learning orientation and leadership has been identified as an important factor that affects employees' learning from errors (Putz et al., 2013). A supportive culture which promotes learning from errors allows employees to satisfy their needs for control, belongingness, and meaningfulness (Cardador & Rupp, 2011). According to Carton (2018), leaders are the "architects" who create meaning in their organizations. Consequently, inclusive leaders who provide a supportive work environment where employees feel valued and respected to share their unique contributions without the fear of being criticized, persuade learning from errors that could promote meaningful work. These behaviors by an inclusive leader in support of learning from errors create positive attributes for the job which can lead to meaningful work. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4. Inclusive leadership is positively related to employees' learning from errors.

Hypothesis 5. The positive relationship between inclusive leadership and meaningful work is mediated through learning from errors.

Figure 1 depicts the research model examined in the current paper. We used a multiple-study design to test our research hypotheses across two studies. Study 1 is a two-wave field study of 317 employees. Study 2 is a scenario
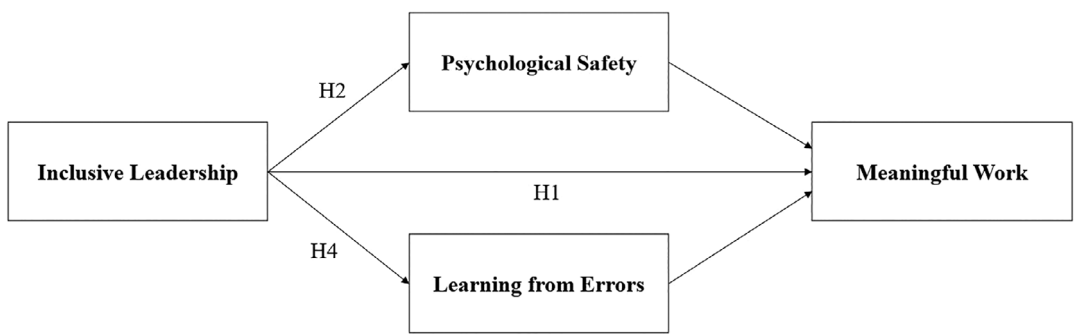
H3: The positive relationship between inclusive leadership and meaningful work is mediated by psychological safety.

H5: The positive relationship between inclusive leadership and meaningful work is mediated by employees' learning from errors.

FIGURE 1 Hypothesized model.

experiment with 440 participants. This multiple-study design enables us to examine the association between study variables through a combination of field work for the added benefit of providing external validity, and a randomized experimental design to address concerns around endogeneity and omitted variables (Bascle, 2008). This approach has been previously used by other researchers (Gerpott et al., 2019).

In Study 1, we used structural equation modeling (SEM) to assess the measurement model and test the study hypotheses using AMOS 24. In Study 2, we used one-way ANOVA to assess the differences in all our latent variables between the two manipulated independent variable scenarios (low inclusive leadership vs. high inclusive leadership) for verifying the study hypotheses in the experimental setting. In the following sections, we illustrate the method and findings for each of the two studies conducted as part of this research.

3 | STUDY 1

3.1 | Methods

3.1.1 | Participants and procedure

The data reported in this manuscript were collected as part of a larger research project on inclusive leadership and organizational behaviors. Institutional ethics approval was obtained before data collection. Respondents were recruited in Australia through the Qualtrics Panel Management. Other studies in the management discipline have also used this approach and yielded valid and reliable responses (see e.g., Shafaei et al., 2020). We ensured the confidential and anonymous treatment of data and obtained employees' consent before recording their responses for the study. Data for the field study were collected at two points in time, 2 weeks apart. The study samples were randomly selected from full-time employees working in Australia. Data for Study 1 were collected from 317 full-time employees. In terms of the demographic profile, 54.6% of respondents in Study 1 were female, 48% aged between 36 and 45, 46.4% had a bachelor's degree, and 85.2% had more than 3 years of working experience in their current organization. Moreover, 41.6% of respondents held a managerial role in their current workplace. With regards to the type of organization, 45% of the respondents worked in the service sector followed by 13% manufacturing, 9% construction, and 33% others. According to Reserve Bank of Australia (2022), service, manufacturing, and construction

are listed as the key industries in Australia, indicating that the sample in our study is a good representative of the Australian workforce.

3.1.2 | Measurement

Inclusive leadership

We measured inclusive leadership ($\alpha = 0.934$) in Time 1, using eight items adapted from Carmeli et al. (2010) using five-point Likert scale, where 1 referred to strongly disagree and 5 referred to strongly agree. The scale reliability was reported by Carmeli et al. (2010) with Cronbach's α of 0.94. The scale demonstrated good reliability in the current study with a Cronbach's α of 0.934.

Psychological safety

We measured psychological safety in Time 2, which was 2 weeks after Time 1, via two items adapted from Edmondson (1999) using five-point Likert, where 1 referred to strongly disagree and 5 referred to strongly agree. The scale demonstrated good reliability in the current study with a Cronbach's α of 0.830.

Learning from errors

Learning from errors was measured in Time 2 via four items adopted from Rybowiak et al. (1999) using five-point Likert scale, where 1 referred to strongly disagree and 5 referred to strongly agree. The scale demonstrated good reliability in the current study with a Cronbach's α of 0.923.

Meaningful work

We measured meaningful work, in Time 2 via three items adapted from Spreitzer (1995) using five-point Likert scale, where 1 referred to strongly disagree and 5 referred to strongly agree. This is a sub-scale of the original version of the measure for psychological empowerment which asks about meaningful work. The scale has shown good validity and reliability in prior studies (e.g., Guan & Frenkel, 2021; Han & Oh, 2020; Kordbacheh et al., 2014). The 3-item scale by Spreitzer (1995) was selected in the study because it aligns with the aims of the study and operationalization of meaningful work in the study. Moreover, according to Allan et al. (2019), unidimensional scale for measuring meaningful work developed by Spreitzer (1995) is suitable for studies focusing on understanding the antecedents of meaningful work and how it relates to outcomes. However, the multidimensional scales for meaningful work are better suited for understanding the experiences or processes that give rise to meaningful work. The scale demonstrated good reliability in the current study with a Cronbach's α of 0.913.

3.1.3 | Control variables

This study controlled for demographic variables such as gender, age, role, and tenure as well as the industry nature (high-tech vs. non-high-tech). We assumed that employees who are in a middle and senior age group would have a higher level of meaningful work because their perspective and expectation from work would be different from younger employees. We also controlled for gender as the literature shows female employees value meaningful work more than high pay and other perks (Bokemeier & Lacy, 1987; Hoffman & Friedman, 2018). Additionally, we considered whether employees holding managerial role would have higher levels of meaningful work as they have progressed in their career and have access to more resources in the organization (Albrecht et al., 2021). As shown in a study by Kipfelsberger et al. (2022), employees with low tenure with the leader seemed to be more prone to be influenced by their leaders' meaningful work compared to those with longer tenure. As stated by Hoffman and Friedman (2018), working in a high-tech organization may enhance levels of meaningful work as people can see their role in making

the world a better place. In a study by Abdul Hamid (2022), it is highlighted that technology provides a great resource for employees' flexible working and contributes to business resilience and the findings from the study revealed that utilizing technology in work is a way to foster innovation, leading to high levels of meaningful work. Our analysis reveals that the control variables in the current study do not have a significant correlation with the study variables (at 95% significance level). The only exception to this is the significant correlation of industry type (no-high-tech vs. high-tech) with learning from errors (Pearson Correlation: 0.182, *p*-value 0.001) and psychological safety (Pearson Correlation: 0.128, *p*-value 0.023), in that, as anticipated, in high-tech industries there is a greater perceived sense of learning from errors and psychological safety. Nonetheless, our SEM results show that none of the control variables are significantly associated with the outcome variable (i.e., meaningful work), ruling out any possible confounding effect.

3.1.4 | Assessments of common method variance

Collecting the study in two waves helps reduce the potential threat of common method variance (CMV). In addition, we incorporated several recommendations by Schwarz et al. (2017), such as using clear and simple items, during the research design to minimize the CMV threat.

As this study uses a single source for its data collection, to examine potential threat of the bias caused by measuring responses from the same source, we compared our model to a model in which all items from the dependent variables (mediators and outcome variables) were loaded onto a single factor. Results revealed no evidence of such bias as the one-factor model did not fit the data well [χ^2/df = 7.401; CFI = 0.811; GFI = 0.719; AGFI = 0.636; TLI = 0.782; RMSEA = 0.142].

3.2 | Results

3.2.1 | Measurement model

All manifest variables had a high and statistically significant factor loading on their respective latent variables. The measurement model assessment resulted in good fit indices [χ^2/df = 1.802; CFI = 0.977; GFI = 0.928; AGFI = 0.903; TLI = 0.973; RMSEA = 0.05]. The measurement model also demonstrated acceptable validity and reliability. Table 1 reports the item loadings, composite reliabilities (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) for all the study variables which confirm the convergent validity and reliability of the measurement model.

In addition, Table 2 reports the correlation among variables and the results of discriminant validity both through Fornell-Larcker criterion (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio, which confirm discriminant validity of study variables.

3.2.2 | Structural model

The results of structural model analysis, as shown in Table 3, revealed that all the hypotheses are significantly supported. Specifically, the total effect of inclusive leadership (Time 1) on meaningful work (Time 2) was significant (ß = 0.471, *p* < 0.01), confirming H1. The association between inclusive leadership and psychological safety (Time 2) is positive and significant (ß = 0.510, *p* < 0.01), supporting H2. Additionally, the relationship between inclusive leadership and learning from errors (Time 2) is positive and significant (ß = 0.451, *p* < 0.01), confirming H4. Both proposed mediation hypotheses (H3 and H5) are supported, with the indirect links between inclusive leadership and meaningful work found to be significant through psychological safety (ß = 0.221, *p* < 0.01) and learning from errors

TABLE 1 Item loadings, variance inflation factors, composite reliabilities (CRs), average variance extracted (AVE) (Study 1).

Constructs & corresponding items	Item loadings	CR	AVE
Inclusive leadership		0.935	0.734
My supervisor/leader...			
1. Is open to hearing new ideas.	0.789		
2. Is attentive to new opportunities to improve work processes.	0.821		
3. Is open to discuss the desired goals and new ways to achieve them.	0.828		
4. Is available for consultation on problems.	0.796		
5. Is an ongoing "presence" in this team—someone who is readily available.	0.760		
6. Is available for professional questions I would like to consult with him/her.	0.795		
7. Is ready to listen to my requests.	0.845		
8. Encourages me to access him/her on emerging issues.	0.775		
Psychological safety		0.831	0.711
1. The people in my organization value others' unique skills and talents.	0.847		
2. As an employee in my organization, one is able to bring up problems and tough issues.	0.839		
Learning from errors		0.923	0.750
1. Mistakes assist me to improve my work.	0.847		
2. Mistakes provide useful information for me to carry out my work.	0.850		
3. My mistakes help me to improve my work.	0.863		
4. My mistakes have helped me to improve my work.	0.903		
Meaningful work		0.909	0.769
1. The work I do in this organization is very important to me.	0.840		
2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	0.879		
3. The work I do in this organization is meaningful to me.	0.911		

TABLE 2 Correlations among study variables and discriminant validity (Study 1).

	Mean	Std. dev.	1	2	3	4
1. Inclusive leadership	3.807	0.775	*0.829*	0.439	0.522	0.429
2. Learning from errors	3.866	0.742	0.410	*0.901*	0.582	0.550
3. Psychological safety	3.538	0.872	0.447	0.500	*0.923*	0.586
4. Meaningful work	3.723	0.881	0.399	0.507	0.521	*0.818*

Note: Diagonal and *italicized* elements are the square roots of the average variance extracted. Below the diagonal elements are the correlations between the construct values. All correlations are significant at $p < 0.01$ or better. Above the diagonal elements are the HTMT values.

($\beta = 0.142$, $p < 0.01$), demonstrating the mechanisms through which inclusive leadership fosters meaningful work. The R squares for meaningful work, psychological safety, and learning from errors are found to be 0.382, 0.195, and 0.169 respectively.

To assure the validity of mediation effects, Robust Mediation (ROBMED) analysis proposed by Alfons et al. (2022) was applied. ROBMED builds on bootstrapping the indirect effect via linear regression and constitutes two key elements in testing mediation: First, it uses linear regression in testing mediator. Second, it utilizes the state-of-

TABLE 3 Results of hypothesis testing (Study 1).

Structural model estimates	Standardized estimate	Lower CI	Upper CI	Significance, p
Hypothesis 1				
Path between inclusive leadership → meaningful work	0.471	0.297	0.635	0.002
Hypothesis 2				
Path between inclusive leadership → psychological safety	0.510	0.363	0.636	0.004
Hypothesis 3				
Indirect effect between inclusive leader → meaningful work (mediated via psychological safety)	0.221	0.114	0.373	0.002
Hypothesis 4				
Path between inclusive leadership → learning from errors	0.451	0.315	0.581	0.002
Hypothesis 5				
Indirect effect between inclusive leader → meaningful work (mediated via learning from errors)	0.142	0.073	0.238	0.001
Control variables				
Gender → meaningful work	0.09	−0.07	0.222	0.375[n.s.]
Age → meaningful work	0.023	−0.052	0.09	0.644[n.s.]
Tenure → meaningful work	−0.004	−0.062	0.06	0.957[n.s.]
Industry type → meaningful work	−0.117	−0.286	0.027	0.214[n.s.]
Role → meaningful work	0.004	−0.086	0.098	0.930[n.s.]

Abbreviation: n.s., not significant.

the-art method bootstrapping for testing the indirect effect in mediation models. After treating the outliers following recommendations by Aguinis et al. (2013), the results of ROBMED revealed significant relationships between inclusive leadership and meaningful work via mediating roles of psychological safety as well as learning from errors.

4 | STUDY 2

To overcome limitations of field study in terms of endogeneity and possible omitted variables (Bascle, 2008), in Study 2, we conducted a randomized experimental study which enables addressing these shortcomings through manipulating the independent variable. To address concerns of external validity and generalizability for experimental studies (Scandura & Williams, 2000), this research applied the randomized experimental vignette methodology. It involves measuring dependent variables after manipulating the independent variable using carefully constructed and realistic scenarios, further enhancing both internal and external validity (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010). To avoid the trap of involving participants who are removed from their natural environments which may negatively impact the study's external validity, the current study recruited full-time employees as respondents.

4.1 | Method

4.1.1 | Participants and procedure

Data for Study 2 were collected from 440 full-time employees in Australia recruited by Qualtrics (Nejati & Shafaei, 2023; Ng et al., 2019). After obtaining consent from respondents to participate in the study, they were

randomly allocated to a scenario containing a brief vignette about Alex, a gender-neutral team leader/supervisor. We used Gerpott et al. (2019) as a guide in crafting our scenarios and experiment design. We asked study participants to vividly imagine working for the described supervisor, read the scenario carefully, and answer the questions that follow based on that.

Following advice from Gerpott et al. (2019), we used two attention checker items, asking respondents to mark an item at "Disagree," as instruction manipulation checks (IMCs). These IMCs enabled us to detect and eliminate participants who did not carefully follow the instructions and randomly responded to the survey questions. This approach has been successfully used in previous studies and managed to identify and eliminate participants with invalid responses (Gerpott et al., 2019; Oppenheimer et al., 2009). This step was programmed in the online survey to be automated, and data were only collected from respondents who passed the IMCs.

We had set a quota of 220 responses for each scenario which was filled within 2 weeks of field work. Scenario 1 referred to Low Inclusive Leadership (Mean Age = 45.91, 60.9% Female) and Scenario 2 referred to High Inclusive Leadership (Mean Age = 47.54, 63.2% Female). In terms of the demographic profile, 62% of respondents in Study 2 were female, 32.7% had a bachelor's degree, and majority had more than 3 years of working experience in their current organization (91.6%). Moreover, 27.3% of respondents held a managerial role in their current workplace.

We conducted one-way ANOVA with the perceived inclusive leadership item as the dependent variable. Results of the ANOVA showed participants evaluated their leader as being more inclusive in the high inclusive leadership scenario, $F(1,438) = 5835.2$, $p < 0.001$. We then assessed the differences in all our latent variables between the two manipulated independent variable scenarios (low inclusive leadership vs. high inclusive leadership) to verify the study hypotheses in the experimental setting.

4.1.2 | Measures

A copy of the low versus high inclusive leadership vignette used in the current study is available in Appendix. All manifest variables had a high and statistically significant factor loading on their respective latent variables. We measured psychological safety ($\alpha = 0.913$) using four items adapted from Edmondson (1999). Learning from errors ($\alpha = 0.969$) was measured using four items adapted from Rybowiak et al. (1999). Finally, we measured meaningful work ($\alpha = 0.965$) using three items adapted from Spreitzer (1995).

4.2 | Results

Table 4 reports some descriptive analysis and the correlation among variables in Study 2. It also contains results of discriminant validity both through Fornell-Larcker criterion and HTMT ratio (Hair et al., 2021), which confirm discriminant validity of study variables. We also conducted a confirmatory factor analysis using Amos to estimate the individuality of the assessed variables, namely psychological safety, learning from errors, and meaningful work. We found that the correlated three-factor solution fit the data well (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000) with CFI = 0.982; GFI = 0.936; AGFI = 0.898; TLI = 0.976; and RMSEA = 0.077. The fit indices for the correlated three-factor solution were much better than the fit indices for the one-factor model (CFI = 0.714; GFI = 0.520; AGFI = 0.280; TLI = 0.643; and RMSEA = 0.296), ruling out the threat of CMV.

As shown in Table 4, discriminant validity of the variables was demonstrated through Fornell-Larcker criterion and HTMT criterion. In addition, using the Fornell and Larcker (1981) method, we examined and demonstrated convergent and differential validity of the study variables.

To examine the influence of the manipulated inclusive leadership variable on other variables, we conducted one-way ANOVA and compared the means for psychological safety, learning from errors, and meaningful work. We observed statistically significant differences between low and high inclusive leadership scenario for psychological

TABLE 4 Correlations among study variables and discriminant validity (Study 2).

	Mean	Std. dev.	CR	AVE	MSV	1	2	3
1. Psychological safety	2.991	1.203	0.905	0.761	0.55	*0.892*	0.791	0.763
2. Learning from errors	3.295	1.152	0.956	0.878	0.55	0.744	*0.956*	0.682
3. Meaningful work	3.055	0.940	0.966	0.904	0.52	0.718	0.660	*0.967*

Note: Diagonal and *italicized* elements are the square roots of the AVE. Below the diagonal elements are the correlations between the construct values. All correlations are significant at $p < 0.01$ or better. Above the diagonal elements are the HTMT values.

Abbreviations: AVE, average variance extracted; CR, composite reliability; MSV, Mean Squared Variance.

safety (Mean for low scenario: 2.028, Mean for high scenario: 3.873, $F(1,438) = 635.037$, $p < 0.001$), learning from errors (Mean for low scenario: 2.536, Mean for high scenario: 3.983, $F(1,438) = 274.189$, $p < 0.001$), and meaningful work (Mean for low scenario: 2.434, Mean for high scenario: 3.610, $F(1,438) = 275.051$, $p < 0.001$). Our results suggest that respondents in the high inclusive leadership scenario perceived a statistically significant higher level of psychological safety, willingness to learn from errors, and meaningful work, providing further support for H1, H2, and H4 in the experimental setting.

Our experimental analysis also revealed that when working for an inclusive leader (i.e., high inclusive leadership scenario), respondents were 2.5 times more likely to find their job activities to be personally meaningful to them, compared to those working for a non-inclusive leader (i.e., low inclusive leadership scenario). Employees working for an inclusive leader were 7.4 times more likely to think it would be safe to take a risk in their organization compared to those working for a non-inclusive leader. In addition, employees working for an inclusive leader were 2.7 times more likely to think mistakes would help them to improve their work compared to those working for a non-inclusive leader.

5 | DISCUSSION

5.1 | Summary of key findings

Research has shown that leaders who value and respect their employees' contributions can positively influence the job attributes by enhancing their employees' work meaningfulness. Our study findings answer the calls for research (Demirtas et al., 2017; Mostafa & Abed El-Motalib, 2020; Rosso et al., 2010; Wang & Xu, 2019) by providing empirical evidence, both through field and experimental study, on the association of inclusive leadership and meaningful work. Our two studies complemented each other and provided support for the hypotheses in both field and experimental setting. We found that working with an inclusive leader is positively associated with employees' experience of meaningful work. The results of our studies also show the path through which inclusive leadership promotes employees' work meaningfulness. Specifically, our studies show that inclusive leadership promotes meaningful work via two possible pathways of psychological safety and learning from errors.

5.2 | Theoretical implications

The current study contributes to the leadership field by answering the calls in the literature regarding the specific leadership styles which could influence employees' experience of meaningful work. While prior research had mainly focused on empowering, ethical, transformational, servant, and authentic leadership, our research is among the first attempts to evidence how inclusive leadership fosters meaningful work. The current study demonstrates that

inclusive leaders enhance employees' sense of meaning through creating a psychologically safe environment and encouraging learning from errors among employees. As argued by Parker and Jorritsma (2021), when it comes to work design, managers, team leaders, and HRD practitioners have the potential to make a wider impact. The current research reveals the positive role of inclusive leadership in fostering meaningful work. This is specifically important as earlier research shows that managers overall tend to design poorer quality work (Parker et al., 2019).

Inclusive leaders support each employee as member of the group, ensure justice and equity within the group, encourage employees' diverse contributions to the group, and help employees provide their unique perspectives by demonstrating openness, availability, and accessibility (Randel et al., 2018). These behaviors of inclusive leaders positively impact job attributes and can satisfy individuals' psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and opportunities for action to learn and realize one's potential. These key concepts of self-determination theory are innate psychological needs and, once addressed, they can create a sense of meaningfulness (Martela et al., 2018). What makes inclusive leaders distinct from other types of leaders is their focus on both enhancing their employees' group membership while treating them as unique individuals and valuing their contributions. Inclusive leaders achieve this by displaying openness, availability and accessibility to their employees, respecting their perspectives, and treating them with dignity (Randel et al., 2018). Therefore, inclusive leaders can help their employees experience meaningful work.

The current study contributes to the literature by demonstrating that inclusive leadership can influence employees' meaningfulness though work as they enhance job attributes through providing employees with opportunities to voice their ideas and unique contributions. Having the opportunity to express their opinions and being valued for their perspectives, contributions and attributions help employees enhance their meaning-making capabilities which ultimately result in experiencing more meaningful work (Morrison et al., 2007; Newman et al., 2017; Wang & Xu, 2019).

Inclusive leaders, like ethical leaders, focus on promoting employees' participation. According to Brown et al. (2005, p. 120), ethical leaders "provide followers with voice." Ethical leaders do this by enhancing employees' capabilities in speaking up their opinions and providing them with the opportunities to voice their views which can ultimately lead to experiencing meaningful work. Despite being an important antecedent of meaningful work, ethical leadership was found to be a weak predictor of meaningful work in both public and private sectors due to its small effect size in some prior studies (Demirtas et al., 2017; Mostafa & Abed El-Motalib, 2020). However, our findings reveal that inclusive leadership demonstrates a strong effect size for the direct association with meaningful work. This is a unique theoretical contribution as this research helps to understand an important antecedent of meaningful work and provides an answer to the calls by researchers in this regard.

In line with the logic of self-determination theory, by displaying openness, accessibility and availability, treating employees with respect and dignity, and valuing employees' unique perspectives and contributions, inclusive leaders can help their employees satisfy their needs for autonomy, uniqueness, competence (Randel et al., 2018), and meaningfulness (Britt et al., 2001). These behaviors of inclusive leaders provide employees with a sense of meaningfulness leading to increased intrinsic motivation (May et al., 2004).

While theorizing and verifying the key role of inclusive leadership in creating meaning, this study also contributes to theory by uncovering the mechanisms for this association. This research contributes to the self-determination theory by identifying two new specific pathways through which inclusive leadership can result in meaningful work. According to Nembhard and Edmondson (2006), inclusive leaders share power with their employees and enhance employees' engagement by heightening perceptions of psychological safety. Therefore, inclusive leaders can overcome the damaging effects of power imbalance and encourage employees' participation and contributions (Randel et al., 2016). Perceived psychological safety as described by Edmondson (2018, p. 22) is "a climate where people feel safe enough to take interpersonal risks by speaking up and sharing concerns, questions, or ideas." Inclusive leader gives employees confidence and encouragement to speak up which increases employees' perception of psychological safety.

Our results revealed that psychological safety mediates the positive relationship between inclusive leadership and meaningful work. This is reasonably justifiable because inclusive leaders provide a psychologically safe environment by fostering employees' sense of belongingness and uniqueness and valuing their contributions. Working in such a psychologically safe environment helps employees satisfy their basic needs for competence and autonomy that boosts employees' autonomous (intrinsic) motivation leading to meaningful work which is supported by self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). As argued by Kuo et al. (2019), psychological safety represents interpersonal trust (Detert & Burris, 2007) and respect (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006), and creates an environment which allows employees to comfortably be themselves (Edmondson, 1999), therefore fostering meaning.

This study also found that learning from errors mediates the positive relationship between inclusive leadership and meaningful work. Because inclusive leaders demonstrate openness, accessibility and availability to their employees and welcome their unique contributions, they encourage employees not to be afraid of their mistakes but have a positive attitude toward purposeful reflection and analysis of errors in order to reduce the probability of their occurrence in the future (Bauer & Mulder, 2008; Zhao, 2011). This is in congruence with findings of prior research that found learning opportunities can provide employees with a strong sense of meaningful work (Bailey, Yeoman, et al., 2019; Fletcher, 2019). Specifically, being able to evaluate the errors and learn from them, can help employees realize the value of task purpose. This is a subjective assessment of task based on employees' own ideals and standards that can lead to experiencing meaningful work (Fletcher & Schofield, 2019; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

5.3 | Practical and social implications

Meaningfulness is an important psychological need that bolsters self-worth and life experience and is fundamental for high levels of performance, satisfaction, motivation, and well-being (Rosso et al., 2010; Yeoman, 2014). Additionally, meaningful work heightens a wider interest in work and intrinsic motivation of employees (Fletcher, 2019; Soane et al., 2013). Meaningful work can also translate into higher levels of life meaningfulness which is a subjective evaluation of individual's life as being valuable and significant (Steger et al., 2012). Having a workforce with a high sense of meaning leads to positive work behaviors, higher organizational commitment and work engagement, better performance, and increased creativity which can positively contribute to organization's success (Ahmed et al., 2022; Bailey & Madden, 2016; Rosso et al., 2010; Soane et al., 2013; Spreitzer & Sutcliffe, 2007). Thus, it is paramount for organizations to redesign work through strategies and initiatives that can create a meaningful work for their employees.

Our study findings have revealed that inclusive leaders are crucial in organizations through influencing other organizational level factors and creating conditions for employees to experience meaningful work. Inclusive leaders shape an organizational culture and help employees to learn the expected behaviors relevant to the culture and its underlying values. Inclusive leaders also cultivate high-quality relationships in the workplace based on trust that can foster collaboration and cooperation among employees (Carmeli et al., 2009). Inclusive leaders can translate organizational and social values of work to employees and show them how to approach it. In this regard, we draw upon the concept of fearless organization by Edmondson (2018) which refers to organizations with a psychologically safe environment in which employees feel comfortable and confident to contribute their ideas and report mistakes. Instead of criticizing employees for their mistakes, organizations should focus on learning behaviors of employees and strategies to foster them. Fearless organizations are more likely to succeed because they value continuous learning and can create organizational learning in the process. Working in fearless organizations can lead to employees' experience of meaningful work. The results of our studies show that inclusive leaders can make a psychologically safe environment for their employees. This, in turn, can help create a fearless organization.

Inclusive leaders can do this by supporting employees as group members, ensuring equity and inclusion, encouraging employee's diverse contribution to the groups, and assisting employees to fully provide their unique perspectives (Randel et al., 2018). Translating these factors into practice, to be an inclusive leader, one should be open,

accessible, and available to their employees and ensure that leader is not seen as a "boss" who always has the best solutions. Inclusive leaders should acknowledge differences and be inclusive in their practices by listening to employees' voice and expressing appreciation for their unique contributions. Besides, inclusive leaders should create a culture for learning by inviting participation and seeking input from all employees, including the marginalized ones. Inclusive leaders should also offer help in how to deal with errors and utilize them as learning opportunities. Providing more opportunities to employees to have autonomy in their work can promote motivation which ultimately helps individuals experience meaningful work (Lysova et al., 2019).

HRD practitioners can apply the insights provided in this research to develop evidence-based interventions to support meaningful work. For instance, they can ensure that jobs are designed to enhance autonomy, task significance, and task identity among employees to increase experience of meaningfulness. Similarly, building trust-based relationships with leaders and other colleagues fosters sense of belonging that can help individuals to have a sense of unity that supports meaningfulness. Another important takeaway for HRD practitioners is to focus on learning and development interventions as they are crucial to promoting meaningful work among employees. Through learning new knowledge and skills, employees gain a sense of self-actualization and accomplishment which can lead to higher levels of meaningful work (Chalofsky, 2010). Leadership development trainings should be aimed at enhancing leaders and managers' inclusive practices to foster higher levels of meaningfulness among employees. It is worth noting that instead of a one-size fits all approach, interventions should be tailored to employees' unique needs. As HRD practitioners have a leading role in meaningful work, it is essential to understand more about work meaningfulness and how this could be promoted via organizational interventions as well as leadership practices (Thory, 2016). By hiring and appointing inclusive leaders and supervisors, organizations could create psychological safety for their employees to confidently speak up, promote a mindset of continuous learning, and enhance employees' sense of meaningful work, which are some key factors that propel organizations toward success through becoming a fearless organization.

5.4 | Limitations and future research directions

Our two studies have complemented each other and addressed some of the key limitations attributed to each one of the studies alone. In our Study 1, while time-lagged data helps to minimize common method bias, there are concerns with omitted variables in a field study due to the use of a measured instead of a manipulated independent variable. This limitation was addressed in the second study. In Study 2, despite addressing the limitation of Study 1, we were restricted by some degree of demand characteristic—cues that may bias respondents toward what they perceive experimenter expects to find (Nichols & Maner, 2008). In our research, collecting data through a third-party research organization might have reduced the demand characteristics as respondents were not directly approached by a researcher as an authority figure in the field, which may subsequently neutralize the impact of participants' attitudes toward experimenters. This is an important consideration as participants may be biased to help the experimenter achieve the desired outcome if they like the experimenter (Nichols & Maner, 2008). Moreover, it has been argued that demand characteristics cannot really account for the uncovered interactions (Gerpott et al., 2019). While each of our studies alone have their limitations, the combination of field study (Study 1) and experimental study (Study 2) address the key identified limitations.

Study 1 allowed us to test the proposed hypotheses using a field study, providing external validity. This approach offered some additional benefits for testing mediation effect due to the continuous nature of our measured independent variable in the field. This enabled us to validate how inclusive leadership as a continuous variable is associated with meaningful work, not just as a dichotomous variable (low vs. high) given the nature of the experimental manipulation.

Using a randomized experimental design in Study 2 allowed us to manipulate the independent variable (i.e., inclusive leadership), therefore eliminating the possible endogeneity threats. Study 2 also enabled us to assess

the differences in all our latent variables between the two manipulated independent variable scenarios and find further support for our study hypotheses in an experimental setting. Our multiple-study research design made it possible to study the phenomenon in a more causally defensible and robust way. Nonetheless, despite attempts to control for and alleviate the threat of common method bias, it could still impact the study results. Future studies in different contexts can help validate findings of the current study.

Our results are also limited to our study context (i.e., Australia), a highly individualist culture which values individualism, with a low score in power distance and an intermediate score in uncertainty avoidance. Therefore, generalizing findings of this research to other countries and contexts should be made with caution. Inclusive leadership is still a nascent construct and future studies from other contexts are needed to provide additional external validity for our findings and shed more lights on the link between inclusive leadership and meaningful work in different contexts. Although our study sample represents the three key sectors (service, manufacturing, and construction) in Australia, future studies can specifically focus on investigating the different job characteristics that each sector could have. In addition, future studies could also investigate individual differences in the model caused by employee personality, as the research by Simonet and Castille (2020) shows that employees find meaning at work differently depending on their personality traits. Another possible avenue for future research is exploring the link between inclusive leadership and thriving at work, and its subsequent impact on employee wellbeing.

6 | CONCLUSION

The quest for meaning is a fundamental human need and one of the ways to find meaning is through work. Given that employees are the fundamental drivers of economy, central to the future of work, and vital to organization success, it is of the utmost importance for organizations to create a meaningful work to contribute to a more prosperous future for employees, organizations and other stakeholders (Lee et al., 2018). This research revealed that inclusive leaders can help their employees experience a sense of meaningful work. Specifically, inclusive leaders can enhance job attributes and employees' meaning through creating a psychologically safe environment that allows employees to speak up their unique ideas and contributions. Also, inclusive leaders encourage employees not to be afraid of being criticized or punished for making mistakes or errors but rather consider those errors as learning opportunities. This helps employees to realize that their task purpose is valuable and to experience a sense of meaningful work.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
The data reported in this manuscript were collected as part of a larger research project on inclusive leadership and organizational behaviors. One of measured variables of the current study (i.e., Meaningful work) has been previously used in one of our publications as the following: Shafaei et al. (2020). However, there is no major overlap between the research models examined in the earlier publication and the one presented in this manuscript.

ORCID
Azadeh Shafaei https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3329-6293
Mehran Nejati https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1199-8617

REFERENCES

Abdul Hamid, R. (2022). The role of employees' technology readiness, job meaningfulness and proactive personality in adaptive performance. *Sustainability*, *14*(23), 15696. https://doi.org/10.3390/su142315696

Aguinis, H., & Bradley, K. J. (2014). Best practice recommendations for designing and implementing experimental vignette methodology studies. *Organizational Research Methods*, *17*(4), 351–371. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428114547952

Aguinis, H., Gottfredson, R. K., & Joo, H. (2013). Best-practice recommendations for defining, identifying, and handling outliers. *Organizational Research Methods*, *16*(2), 270–301. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428114547952

Ahearne, M., Mathieu, J., & Rapp, A. (2005). To empower or not to empower your sales force? An empirical examination of the influence of leadership empowerment behavior on customer satisfaction and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(5), 945–955. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.5.945

Ahmed, U., Yong, I. S.-C., Pahi, M. H., & Dakhan, S. A. (2022). Does meaningful work encompass support towards supervisory, worker and engagement relationship? *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *71*(8), 3704–3723. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-06-2020-0321

Albrecht, S. L., Green, C. R., & Marty, A. (2021). Meaningful work, job resources, and employee engagement. *Sustainability*, *13*(7), 4045–4059. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13074045

Alfons, A., Ateş, N. Y., & Groenen, P. J. (2022). A robust bootstrap test for mediation analysis. *Organizational Research Methods*, *25*(3), 591–617. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428121999096

Allan, B. A., Autin, K. L., & Duffy, R. D. (2014). Examining social class and work meaning within the psychology of working framework. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *22*(4), 543–561. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072713514811

Allan, B. A., Batz-Barbarich, C., Sterling, H. M., & Tay, L. (2019). Outcomes of meaningful work: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Management Studies*, *56*(3), 500–528. https://doi.org/10.1111/joms.12406

Antal, A. B., Debucquet, G., & Frémeaux, S. (2018). Meaningful work and artistic interventions in organizations: Conceptual development and empirical exploration. *Journal of Business Research*, *85*, 375–385. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.10.015

Arnold, K. A., Turner, N., Barling, J., Kelloway, E. K., & McKee, M. C. (2007). Transformational leadership and psychological well-being: The mediating role of meaningful work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *12*(3), 193–203. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.12.3.193

Ashikali, T., Groeneveld, S., & Kuipers, B. (2021). The role of inclusive leadership in supporting an inclusive climate in diverse public sector teams. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *41*(3), 497–519. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X1989972

Atzmüller, C., & Steiner, P. M. (2010). Experimental vignette studies in survey research. *Methodology: European Journal of Research Methods for the Behavioral and Social Sciences*, *6*, 128–138. https://doi.org/10.1027/1614-2241/a000014

Bailey, C., Lips-Wiersma, M., Madden, A., Yeoman, R., Thompson, M., & Chalofsky, N. (2019). The five paradoxes of meaningful work: Introduction to the special issue 'meaningful work: Prospects for the 21st century'. *Journal of Management Studies*, *56*(3), 481–499. https://doi.org/10.1111/joms.12422

Bailey, C., & Madden, A. (2016). What makes work meaningful—Or meaningless? *MIT Sloan Management Review*, *57*(4), 53–61.

Bailey, C., Yeoman, R., Madden, A., Thompson, M., & Kerridge, G. (2019). A review of the empirical literature on meaningful work: Progress and research agenda. *Human Resource Development Review*, *18*(1), 83–113. https://doi.org/10.1177/15344843188046

Bascle, G. (2008). Controlling for endogeneity with instrumental variables in strategic management research. *Strategic Organization*, *6*(3), 285–327. https://doi.org/10.1177/1476127008094339

Bauer, J., & Mulder, R. (2008). Conceptualisation of learning through errors at work. In S. Billett, C. Harteis, & A. Eteläpelto (Eds.), *Emerging perspectives of workplace learning* (pp. 115–128). Sense Publishers.

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *117*(3), 497–529.

Boekhorst, J. A. (2015). The role of authentic leadership in fostering workplace inclusion: A social information processing perspective. *Human Resource Management*, *54*(2), 241–264. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21669

Bokemeier, J. L., & Lacy, W. B. (1987). Job values, rewards, and work conditions as factors in job satisfaction among men and women. *The Sociological Quarterly*, *28*(2), 189–204. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1533-8525.1987.tb00290.x

Britt, T. W., Adler, A. B., & Bartone, P. T. (2001). Deriving benefits from stressful events: The role of engagement in meaningful work and hardiness. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *6*(1), 53–63. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.6.1.53

Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *97*(2), 117–134. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2005.03.002

Cardador, M. T., & Rupp, D. E. (2011). Organizational culture, multiple needs, and the meaningfulness of work. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C. P. M. Wilderom, & M. F. Peterson (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational culture and climate* (pp. 158–180). Sage.

Carmeli, A., Ben-Hador, B., Waldman, D. A., & Rupp, D. E. (2009). How leaders cultivate social capital and nurture employee vigor: Implications for job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(6), 1553–1561. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016429

Carmeli, A., Reiter-Palmon, R., & Ziv, E. (2010). Inclusive leadership and employee involvement in creative tasks in the workplace: The mediating role of psychological safety. *Creativity Research Journal*, *22*(3), 250–260.

Carton, A. M. (2018). "I'm not mopping the floors, I'm putting a man on the moon": How NASA leaders enhanced the meaningfulness of work by changing the meaning of work. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *63*(2), 323–369. https://doi.org/10.1177/0001839217713748

Cassar, V., & Buttigieg, S. C. (2013). An examination of the relationship between authentic leadership and psychological well-being and the mediating role of meaningfulness at work. *Journal of Humanities & Social Sciences*, *3*(3), 171–183.

Chalofsky, N. (2010). *Meaningful workplaces*. Jossey-Bass.

Choi, S. B., Tran, T. B. H., & Park, B. I. (2015). Inclusive leadership and work engagement: Mediating roles of affective organizational commitment and creativity. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, *43*(6), 931–943. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2015.43.6.931

Chrobot-Mason, D., Ruderman, M. N., & Nishii, L. H. (2014). Leadership in a diverse workplace. In D. V. Day (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of leadership and organizations* (pp. 683–708). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199755615.013.034

Cohen-Meitar, R., Carmeli, A., & Waldman, D. A. (2009). Linking meaningfulness in the workplace to employee creativity: The intervening role of organizational identification and positive psychological experiences. *Creativity Research Journal*, *21*(4), 361–375. https://doi.org/10.1080/10400410902969910

Deci, E. L., Connell, J. P., & Ryan, R. M. (1989). Self-determination in a work organization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*(4), 580–590. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.74.4.580

Deci, E. L., Olafsen, A. H., & Ryan, R. M. (2017). Self-determination theory in work organizations: The state of a science. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *4*, 19–43. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych032516-11310

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. Plenum.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1987). The support of autonomy and the control of behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *53*(6), 1024–1037. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.53.6.1024

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*(4), 227–268. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01

Demirtas, O., & Akdogan, A. A. (2015). The effect of ethical leadership behavior on ethical climate, turnover intention, and affective commitment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *130*, 59–67. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014-2196-6

Demirtas, O., Hannah, S. T., Gok, K., Arslan, A., & Capar, N. (2017). The moderated influence of ethical leadership, via meaningful work, on followers' engagement, organizational identification, and envy. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *145*, 183–199. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2907-7

Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. (2007). Leadership behavior and employee voice: Is the door really open? *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*(4), 869–884. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2007.26279183

Edmondson, A. C. (1999). Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *44*(2), 350–383.

Edmondson, A. C. (2018). *The fearless organization: Creating psychological safety in the workplace for learning, innovation, and growth*. John Wiley & Sons.

Fletcher, L. (2019). How can personal development lead to increased engagement? The roles of meaningfulness and perceived line manager relations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *30*(7), 1203–1226. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1184177

Fletcher, L., & Schofield, K. (2019). Facilitating meaningfulness in the workplace: A field intervention study. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1-29, 2975–3003. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2019.1624590

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(1), 39–50. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378101800104

Frémeaux, S., & Pavageau, B. (2022). Meaningful leadership: How can leaders contribute to meaningful work? *Journal of Management Inquiry*, *31*(1), 54–66. https://doi.org/10.1177/1056492619897126

Gallie, W. B. (1955). Essentially contested concepts. *Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society*, *56*, 167–198.

Gerpott, F. H., Van Quaquebeke, N., Schlamp, S., & Voelpel, S. C. (2019). An identity perspective on ethical leadership to explain organizational citizenship behavior: The interplay of follower moral identity and leader group prototypicality. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *156*, 1063–1078. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3625-0

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly*, *6*, 219–247. https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(95)90036-5

Guan, X., & Frenkel, S. (2021). Supervisor-subordinate guanxi and employee thriving at work: The key role of relation-generated resources. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 59(3), 400–419. https://doi.org/10.1111/1744-7941.12273

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16(2), 250–279. https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(76)90016-7

Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2021). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)*. Sage Publications.

Han, S.-H., & Oh, E. G. (2020). The link between transformational leadership and work-related performance: Moderated-mediating roles of meaningfulness and job characteristics. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 41(4), 519–533. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-04-2019-0181

Hirak, R., Peng, A. C., Carmeli, A., & Schaubroeck, J. M. (2012). Linking leader inclusiveness to work unit performance: The importance of psychological safety and learning from failures. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(1), 107–117. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.11.009

Hoffman, S. F., & Friedman, H. H. (2018). Machine learning and meaningful careers: Increasing the number of women in STEM. *Journal of Research in Gender Studies*, 8, 11.

Hollander, E. (2012). *Inclusive leadership: The essential leader-follower relationship*. Routledge.

Javed, B., Naqvi, S. M. M. R., Khan, A. K., Arjoon, S., & Tayyeb, H. H. (2017). Impact of inclusive leadership on innovative work behavior: The role of psychological safety–CORRIGENDUM. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 23(3), 472. https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2017.3

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4), 692–724. https://doi.org/10.5465/256287ki

Kipfelsberger, P., Raes, A., Herhausen, D., Kark, R., & Bruch, H. (2022). Start with why: The transfer of work meaningfulness from leaders to followers and the role of dyadic tenure. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 43(8), 1287–1309. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2649

Kirk-Brown, A., & Van Dijk, P. (2016). An examination of the role of psychological safety in the relationship between job resources, affective commitment and turnover intentions of Australian employees with chronic illness. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(14), 1626–1641. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1053964

Konczak, L. J., Stelly, D. J., & Trusty, M. L. (2000). Defining and measuring empowering leader behaviors: Development of an upward feedback instrument. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 60(2), 301–313.

Kordbacheh, N., Shultz, K. S., & Olson, D. A. (2014). Engaging mid and late career employees: The relationship between age and employee engagement, intrinsic motivation, and meaningfulness. *Journal of Organizational Psychology*, 14(1), 11.

Kuo, C.-C., Ye, Y.-C., Chen, M.-Y., & Chen, L. H. (2019). Proactive personality enhances change in employees' job satisfaction: The moderating role of psychological safety. *Australian Journal of Management*, 44(3), 482–494. https://doi.org/10.1177/0312896218818225

Lam, C. F., Wan, W. H., & Roussin, C. J. (2016). Going the extra mile and feeling energized: An enrichment perspective of organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 101(3), 379–391. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000071

Lee, M. C. C., Idris, M. A., & Delfabbro, P. H. (2017). The linkages between hierarchical culture and empowering leadership and their effects on employees' work engagement: Work meaningfulness as a mediator. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 24(4), 392–415. https://doi.org/10.1037/str0000043

Lee, S.-H., Shin, Y., & Kim, M. (2018). Why work meaningfulness alone is not enough: The role of social identification and task interdependence as facilitative boundary conditions. *Current Psychology*, 40, 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-018-0027-0

Lips-Wiersma, M., & Morris, L. (2009). Discriminating between 'meaningful work' and the 'management of meaning'. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 88, 491–511. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-009-0118-9

Lysova, E. I., Allan, B. A., Dik, B. J., Duffy, R. D., & Steger, M. F. (2019). Fostering meaningful work in organizations: A multi-level review and integration. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 110, 374–389. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.07.004ma

Magee, J. C., & Galinsky, A. D. (2008). 8 social hierarchy: The self-reinforcing nature of power and status. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1), 351–398. https://doi.org/10.1080/19416520802211628

Martela, F., Gómez, M., Unanue, W., Araya, S., Bravo, D., & Espejo, A. (2021). What makes work meaningful? Longitudinal evidence for the importance of autonomy and beneficence for meaningful work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 131, 103631. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2021.103631

Martela, F., Ryan, R. M., & Steger, M. F. (2018). Meaningfulness as satisfaction of autonomy, competence, relatedness, and beneficence: Comparing the four satisfactions and positive affect as predictors of meaning in life. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 19, 1261–1282. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-017-9869-7

Matsuo, M., Arai, K., & Matsuo, T. (2019). Empowering leadership and meaningful work: The mediating role of learning goal orientation. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 23(4), 328–338. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijtd.12165

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *77*(1), 11–37. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317904322915892

Michaelson, C., Pratt, M. G., Grant, A. M., & Dunn, C. P. (2014). Meaningful work: Connecting business ethics and organization studies. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *121*(1), 77–90. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-1675-5

Monnot, M. J., & Beehr, T. A. (2014). Subjective well-being at work: Disentangling source effects of stress and support on enthusiasm, contentment, and meaningfulness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *85*(2), 204–218. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.07.005

Morin, E. M. (2008). *The meaning of work, mental health and organizational commitment*. desLibris.

Morrison, E. E., Burke, G. C., III, & Greene, L. (2007). Meaning in motivation: Does your organization need an inner life? *Journal of Health and Human Services Administration*, *30*(1), 98–115.

Mostafa, A. M. S., & Abed El-Motalib, E. A. (2020). Ethical leadership, work meaningfulness, and work engagement in the public sector. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *40*(1), 112–131. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X18790628

Mulki, J., & Lassk, F. G. (2019). Joint impact of ethical climate and external work locus of control on job meaningfulness. *Journal of Business Research*, *99*, 46–56. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.02.007

Nejati, M., & Shafaei, A. (2023). Why do employees respond differently to corporate social responsibility? A study of substantive and symbolic corporate social responsibility. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*. https://doi.org/10.1002/csr.2474

Nembhard, I. M., & Edmondson, A. C. (2006). Making it safe: The effects of leader inclusiveness and professional status on psychological safety and improvement efforts in health care teams. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *27*(7), 941–966. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.413

Newman, A., Donohue, R., & Eva, N. (2017). Psychological safety: A systematic review of the literature. *Human Resource Management Review*, *27*(3), 521–535. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2017.01.001

Ng, T. W., Yam, K. C., & Aguinis, H. (2019). Employee perceptions of corporate social responsibility: Effects on pride, embeddedness, and turnover. *Personnel Psychology*, *72*(1), 107–137. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12294

Nichols, A. L., & Maner, J. K. (2008). The good-subject effect: Investigating participant demand characteristics. *The Journal of General Psychology*, *135*(2), 151–166. https://doi.org/10.3200/GENP.135.2.151-166

Oppenheimer, D. M., Meyvis, T., & Davidenko, N. (2009). Instructional manipulation checks: Detecting satisficing to increase statistical power. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *45*(4), 867–872. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2009.03.009

Parker, S. K., Andrei, D. M., & Van den Broeck, A. (2019). Poor work design begets poor work design: Capacity and willingness antecedents of individual work design behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *104*(7), 907–928. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000383

Parker, S. K., & Jorritsma, K. (2021). Good work design for all: Multiple pathways to making a difference. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *30*(3), 456–468. https://doi.org//10.1080/1359432X.2020.1860121

Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., King, E. B., Rogelberg, S. G., Kulich, C., & Gentry, W. A. (2017). Perceptions of supervisor support: Resolving paradoxical patterns across gender and race. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *90*(3), 436–457. https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12179

Pearce, C. L. (2004). The future of leadership: Combining vertical and shared leadership to transform knowledge work. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *18*(1), 47–57. https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.2004.12690298

Pratt, M. G., & Ashforth, B. E. (2003). Fostering meaningfulness in working and at work. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline* (pp. 309–327). Berrett-Koehler.

Putz, D., Schilling, J., Kluge, A., & Stangenberg, C. (2013). Measuring organizational learning from errors: Development and validation of an integrated model and questionnaire. *Management Learning*, *44*(5), 511–536. https://doi.org/10.1177/1350507612444391

Rabiul, M. K., Patwary, A. K., Mohamed, A. E., & Rashid, H. O. (2022). Leadership styles, psychological factors, and employee commitment to service quality in the hotel industry. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, *23*(4), 853–881. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2021.1913695

Randel, A. E., Dean, M. A., Ehrhart, K. H., Chung, B., & Shore, L. (2016). Leader inclusiveness, psychological diversity climate, and helping behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *31*(1), 216–234. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-04-2013-0123

Randel, A. E., Galvin, B. M., Shore, L. M., Ehrhart, K. H., Chung, B. G., Dean, M. A., & Kedharnath, U. (2018). Inclusive leadership: Realizing positive outcomes through belongingness and being valued for uniqueness. *Human Resource Management Review*, *28*(2), 190–203.

Reserve Bank of Australia. (2022). *Composition of the Australian Economy SNAPSHOT*. Reserve Bank of Australia. Retrieved December 12, 2022, from https://www.rba.gov.au/education/resources/snapshots/economy-composition-snapshot/

Rosso, B. D., Dekas, K. H., & Wrzesniewski, A. (2010). On the meaning of work: A theoretical integration and review. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *30*, 91–127. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2010.09.001

Ryan, J. (2006). Inclusive leadership and social justice for schools. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 5(1), 3–17. https://doi.org/10.1080/15700760500483995

Ryan, R. M. (1995). Psychological needs and the facilitation of integrative processes. *Journal of Personality*, 63(3), 397–427. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1995.tb00501.x

Rybowiak, V., Garst, H., Frese, M., & Batinic, B. (1999). Error orientation questionnaire (EOQ): Reliability, validity, and different language equivalence. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(4), 527–547.

Scandura, T. A., & Williams, E. A. (2000). Research methodology in management: Current practices, trends, and implications for future research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(6), 1248–1264. https://doi.org/10.5465/1556348

Schwarz, A., Rizzuto, T., Carraher-Wolverton, C., Roldán, J. L., & Barrera-Barrera, R. (2017). Examining the impact and detection of the "urban legend" of common method bias. *ACM SIGMIS Database: The DATABASE for Advances in Information Systems*, 48(1), 93–119. https://doi.org/10.1145/3051473.3051479

Shafaei, A., Nejati, M., & Mohd Yusoff, Y. (2020). Green human resource management: A two-study investigation of antecedents and outcomes. *International Journal of Manpower*, 41(7), 1041–1060. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJM-08-2019-0406

Shamir, B. (1991). Meaning, self and motivation in organizations. *Organization Studies*, 12(3), 405–424.

Simonet, D. V., & Castille, C. M. (2020). The search for meaningful work: A network analysis of personality and the job characteristics model. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 152, 109569. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.109569

Soane, E., Shantz, A., Alfes, K., Truss, C., Rees, C., & Gatenby, M. (2013). The association of meaningfulness, well-being, and engagement with absenteeism: A moderated mediation model. *Human Resource Management*, 52(3), 441–456. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21534

Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(5), 1442–1465. https://doi.org/10.5465/256865

Spreitzer, G. M., Lam, C. F., & Fritz, C. (2010). Engagement and human thriving: Complementary perspectives on energy and connections to work. In *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research* (pp. 132–146). Psychology Press.

Spreitzer, G. M., & Sutcliffe, K. M. (2007). Thriving in organizations. In D. L. Nelson & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Positive organizational behavior: Accentuating the positive at work* (pp. 74–85). Sage.

Steger, M. F., & Dik, B. J. (2010). Work as meaning: Individual and organizational benefits of engaging in meaningful work. In A. Linley, S. Harrington, & N. Page (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology and work* (pp. 131–142). Oxford University.

Steger, M. F., Dik, B. J., & Duffy, R. D. (2012). Measuring meaningful work: The work and meaning inventory (WAMI). *Journal of Career Assessment*, 20(3), 322–337. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072711436160

Tangirala, S., Kamdar, D., Venkataramani, V., & Parke, M. R. (2013). Doing right versus getting ahead: The effects of duty and achievement orientations on employees' voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(6), 1040–1050. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033855

Terkel, S. (1975). Working, 1975 British Edition. *Wildwood House, London, 76*.

Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An "interpretive" model of intrinsic task motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(4), 666–681. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1990.4310926

Thory, K. (2016). Developing meaningfulness at work through emotional intelligence training. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 20(1), 58–77. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijtd.12069

Trépanier, S.-G., Fernet, C., & Austin, S. (2012). Social and motivational antecedents of perceptions of transformational leadership: A self-determination theory perspective. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science/Revue canadienne des sciences du comportement*, 44(4), 272–277. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028699

Vandenberg, R. J., & Lance, C. E. (2000). A review and synthesis of the measurement invariance literature: Suggestions, practices, and recommendations for organizational research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 3(1), 4–70.

Van Knippenberg, D., De Dreu, C. K. W., & Homan, A. C. (2004). Work group diversity and group performance: An integrative model and research agenda. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(6), 1008–1022. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.6.1008

Van Knippenberg, D., & Van Ginkel, W. P. (2010). The categorization-elaboration model of work group diversity: Wielding the double-edged sword. In R. Crip (Ed.), *The psychology of social and cultural diversity* (pp. 257–280). Wiley-Blackwell.

Wang, Z., & Xu, H. (2019). When and for whom ethical leadership is more effective in eliciting work meaningfulness and positive attitudes: The moderating roles of core self-evaluation and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 156, 919–940. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3563-x

Williams, G. C., McGregor, H. A., Zeldman, A., Freedman, Z. R., & Deci, E. L. (2004). Testing a self-determination theory process model for promoting glycemic control through diabetes self-management. *Health Psychology*, 23(1), 58–66. https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-6133.23.1.58

Workhuman. (2019). The future of work is human. International Employee Survey Report.

Wrzesniewski, A. (2003). Finding positive meaning in work. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline* (pp. 296–308). Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Ye, Q., Wang, D., & Li, X. (2019). Inclusive leadership and employees' learning from errors: A moderated mediation model. *Australian Journal of Management*, *44*(3), 462–481. https://doi.org/10.1177/0312896218805796

Yeoman, R. (2014). Conceptualising meaningful work as a fundamental human need. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *125*(2), 235–251. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-1894-9

Zhao, B. (2011). Learning from errors: The role of context, emotion, and personality. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *32*(3), 435–463. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.696

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES

Azadeh Shafaei is a Lecturer at the School of Business and Law, Edith Cowan University. She is also a core member of ECU Centre for Work + Wellbeing. Dr Shafaei has previously worked as a Postdoctoral Research Fellow at the School of Business and Law and a Senior Lecturer at Graduate Research School, Edith Cowan University.

Mehran Nejati is a Senior Lecturer at the School of Business and Law, Edith Cowan University. He is also a core member of ECU Centre for People, Place and Planet. Dr Nejati formerly held the position of the Director of PRME (Principles for Responsible Management Education) and Sustainability at ECU School of Business and Law from 2019 to 2022.

APPENDIX

Imagine that you are working for a supervisor named Alex:

Low inclusive leadership scenario

Alex is a supervisor who is not open to hearing new ideas and does not support new ways to achieve desired goals. Alex is hardly ever available for consultation on problems. Alex does not like to listen to employees' requests and discourages employees to come for consultation on emerging issues. Alex does not care about new opportunities to improve work processes. Alex is not respectful of employees' differences and does not welcome the unique value they bring to the team.

High inclusive leadership scenario

Alex is a supervisor who is open to hearing new ideas, and discussing the desired goals and new ways to achieve them. Alex is available for consultation on problems, encourages employees to come for consultation on emerging issues, and is ready to listen to their requests. Alex is an ongoing "presence" in this team — someone who is readily available, and is attentive to new opportunities to improve work processes. Alex is respectful of employees' differences and welcomes the unique value they bring to the team.