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The Impact of Diversity Training on Employee Commitment: A Comparative Study of Companies in Turkey with and without Training, and the Moderating Role of Age

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ABSTRACT

The Impact of Diversity Training on Employee Commitment: A Comparative Study of Companies in Turkey with and without Training, and the Moderating Role of Age

This study aims to examine the effects of diversity training on employees' organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness, as well as the moderating role of age in these relationships. The research was conducted with 212 participants working in companies in Turkey. A Socio-Demographic Information Form, Organizational Commitment Scale, and Inclusivity Scale were used as data collection tools. The results of the research showed that diversity training has a positive and significant effect on both organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness. Additionally, it was found that age has a moderating role in the relationship between diversity training and organizational commitment, but does not have a moderating role in the relationship between diversity training and perceived inclusiveness. These findings suggest that diversity training can be an effective tool in increasing employees' organizational commitment and perception of inclusiveness. However, it should be noted that age may affect the effectiveness of diversity training. These results can help organizations develop their diversity management strategies and increase employee commitment and perception of inclusiveness.

Keywords: diversity, diversity training, inclusion, commitment

INTRODUCTION

In today's business world, the concepts of diversity and inclusion are gaining increasing importance. Globalization, demographic changes, and increased social awareness have created a need for organizations to create more diverse and inclusive work environments (Mor Barak, 2022). In this context, diversity training has become an important tool to help organizations effectively manage these differences and create an inclusive work environment.

Diversity training refers to programs aimed at increasing employees' awareness of differences, reducing prejudices, and promoting inclusive behaviors (Bezrukova et al., 2016). These trainings have potential effects on important organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment (Yap et al., 2010; Sohail et al., 2011; Eshiteti et al., 2017; Rokaya & Al-Ghazzawi, 2018) and perceived inclusiveness (Thakur & Dhar, 2022; Oloo, 2023). While organizational commitment expresses employees' psychological bond with the organization and their desire to stay in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991), perceived inclusiveness reflects the degree to which employees feel themselves as a valuable and accepted part of the organization (Shore et al., 2011).

The theoretical framework of the research is based on social exchange theory (Blau, 2017) and social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1979). These theories have been used to explain how diversity training can affect employees' organizational commitment and perceptions of inclusiveness. Within the scope of social exchange theory, it can be expected that employees may perceive the organization's investment in diversity training as a positive gesture and in return may show more commitment to the organization. On the other hand, within the scope of social identity theory, it can be suggested that diversity training can contribute to the formation of a more inclusive organizational culture by increasing employees' awareness of differences and reducing prejudices. Previous research in the literature has also shown that diversity trainings have positive effects on organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness (Yap et al., 2010; Sohail et al., 2011; Eshiteti et al., 2017; Rokaya & Al-Ghazzawi, 2018; Thakur & Dhar, 2022; Oloo, 2023).

On the other hand, within the framework of expectancy-value theory (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002), it is thought that age may have a moderating role in the relationship between diversity trainings and organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness. According to this theory,

individuals' motivation to participate in an activity depends on the value of that activity and their expectations of success. Employees in different age groups may perceive the value and potential benefits of diversity management training differently. This can affect the impact of training on organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness.

In this context, the current study aims to examine the effects of diversity training on organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness, and to examine the moderating role of age in these relationships.

This research aims to make significant contributions to the literature on diversity management and organizational behavior. First, it contributes to the existing knowledge in this field by empirically examining the effects of diversity training on organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness. Second, examining the moderating effect of age will contribute to a better understanding of the responses of employees in different age groups to diversity training and the effectiveness of this training. Finally, this study conducted in the Turkish context brings a cross-cultural perspective to the diversity training literature.

On the other hand, the findings of this thesis present important implications that organizations should consider when designing and implementing diversity training programs. The positive effects of diversity training on organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness can support organizations' decisions to invest in such trainings. In addition, developing customized training programs according to employees' age can increase the effectiveness of the training and better meet the needs of employees in all age groups.

In conclusion, this study takes a step towards better understanding the effects of diversity training on organizational outcomes and the factors that shape these effects. It is thought that the findings can help organizations improve their diversity management strategies and increase employee engagement and perceptions of inclusion.

CHAPTER 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Diversity Training

Under this heading, the concepts related to diversity training, which have been carried out within the scope of diversity practices in theory and practice since the 1990s, are explained and the literature on diversity training is presented.

1.1.1. The Concept of Diversity

Basically, diversity, which refers to all the characteristics that make people different from other individuals, refers to being “unique” from another perspective. The concept of being different or diversity is primarily rooted in psychology and psychology-based approaches, with its roots in social comparison theory (Jones & Dovidio, 2018). The transfer of the concept to the organizational dimension has emerged with the changing structure of the workforce, migration and labor migration brought about by the global economy, and the formation of groups that are segregated and discriminated against in organizations (Mor Barak, 2022; Kuskü et al., 2020).

According to Syed and Tariq (2017), diversity, which has been conceptually interpreted from various angles, generally refers to various identity dimensions such as age, gender, religion, ethnicity and disability that can be used to distinguish individuals or groups from each other. The concept of diversity, which is expressed as a fundamental component of today's societies, refers to all the characteristics that distinguish people from each other, make them separate, not being alike, and the characteristics that cause one person to be perceived differently from another (Galinsky et al., 2015).

Conceptual approaches to diversity begin with the examination of dimensions of diversity (Harrison et al, 1998; Hubbard, 2004; Jackson et al., 1995; Milliken & Martins, 1996). According to Sürgevil (2010), differences of interpretation arising from managerial perspectives within the organization constitute the dimensions of diversity. Hubbard (2004) considers diversity dimensions as primary differences consisting of age, ethnicity, gender,

mental-physical abilities, race and sexual orientation, and secondary differences consisting of communication style, education, family status, military service, organizational role and hierarchical level, religion, mother tongue, geographical location, income, work experience and work style. Mor Barak (2022), on the other hand, examines the dimensions of diversity in the narrow context of gender, race, ethnicity, national origin, disability and age and in the broad context of visible and invisible differences.

Although basically categorizing similar characteristics, Jackson et al. (1995) and Milliken and Martins (1996) define them as surface-level and deep-level differences. In these studies, easily identifiable characteristics such as race, ethnicity, gender and age are defined as surface-level differences, while underlying characteristics such as attitudes and values are defined as deep-level differences (Harrison et al., 1998). According to these definitions and classifications, the concept of diversity, which emphasizes all the differences and similarities between people who are referred to as employees in the organization, reveals a diversity and a strong mosaic structure within the organization (Sürgevil, 2010).

1.1.2. The Concept and Practices of Diversity Management

Diversity management is defined as a management philosophy that aims to recognize and value heterogeneity in organizations (Özbilgin & Tatlı, 2008). Generally, diversity management, which can be seen as a continuation of affirmative action and equal opportunity programs implemented in some countries (Bleijenbergh et al., 2010), is a set of organizational management practices that aim to recognize and be aware of individual differences within the organization. On the other hand, diversity management, which refers to the voluntary efforts put forth by organizations (Gilbert & Stead, 1999; Klarsfeld, 2009; Özbilgin & Tatlı, 2011), is also defined as systematic and planned programs or procedures designed to improve interaction between people of different ethnicities, genders, or cultures, and to turn this diversity into a source of creativity, complementarity, and greater effectiveness, thereby creating a source of organizational power (Stockdale & Crosby, 2004; Risberg & Söderberg, 2008).

Diversity management, as a value system that accepts individual differences as a strength for management, brings together four concepts according to Kramar (1998):

- **Managing differences and similarities:** The art of managing diversity extends beyond addressing differences; it also encompasses the management of shared attributes. Subjectively, this process involves acknowledging 'otherness' and recognizing human traits that diverge from one's own. Objectively, it encompasses the vast spectrum of individual and cultural variances that constitute humanity. Effectively managing this diversity requires skillful navigation of interpersonal dynamics and potential friction arising between individuals with distinct personal backgrounds and cultural identities.

- **Identifying dimensions of diversity:** Diversity encompasses a wide array of characteristics that can be categorized into primary and secondary dimensions, reflecting both visible and invisible aspects of human variation. Primary dimensions comprise innate or largely immutable traits such as age, gender identity, sexual orientation, racial background, ethnicity, and physical abilities. In contrast, secondary dimensions include more fluid or acquired attributes like educational attainment, income level, marital status, work experience, professional background, personality traits, parental role, geographical residence, religious affiliations, organizational tenure, and military service history. These multifaceted dimensions profoundly influence individuals' worldviews, communication patterns, and interpersonal interactions. When designing and implementing diversity management initiatives, it's crucial to clearly define which specific dimensions the programs aim to address, ensuring targeted and effective interventions.

- **Managing all differences and similarities in a particular dimension:** This process requires managing all characteristics that encompass a particular dimension. For example, it is necessary to consider that an organizational right determined for parents may create a negative situation for non-parents.

- **"Including" rather than assimilating different groups into the non-dominant organizational culture:** Diversity management requires a structure that allows all individuals within the organization to actively participate in the process of developing a new culture in the organization. The use of the organization's mission and organizational values is an important tool in achieving this.

Looking at the theoretical studies on diversity management, it is seen that diversity management is addressed at the ethical level and organizational level. Studies conducted at

the ethical level focus on social inequality in organizations and aim to create a more socially just structure. On the other hand, the second group examining diversity management at the organizational and economic level focuses on the organizational impact dimension such as productivity (Janssens & Steyaert, 2003).

Diversity management practices are designed to improve interaction between individuals who differ individually and to create a source of creativity, complementarity, and greater effectiveness from this diversity. These practices refer to systematic and planned programs or procedures developed by organizations to effectively manage diversity (Risberg & Söderberg, 2008; Benschop et al., 2015). These practices, which fundamentally aim to recognize and respect individual differences among employees and thereby create a positive environment (Omotayo et al., 2020), also include goals that will ensure the organization's survival, such as creating a larger employee pool and establishing a wider customer database worldwide (Wentling, 2000; Kim, 2006).

In the literature, it is seen that practices are classified according to different categories (Wentling, 2000; Hur & Strickland, 2015; Nishii et al., 2018). In the context of the parties benefiting from the results of the practices, there are practices that focus on organizational outcomes such as creating an employee pool and creating equal employment opportunities, as well as practices that focus on employee-oriented outcomes such as diversity training, employee groups, mentoring, and creating work-life balance (Nishii et al., 2018).

The main practices and explanations identified by Christiansen and Sezerel (2013) on diversity management are shown in Table 1.

Table 1*Main Diversity Management Practices*

Practice	Description
Top Management Support	Creation of a diversity/inclusion vision expressed and conveyed to employees at the organizational level by senior management.
Inclusion in Management Plans	Development of a diversity strategy and plan that is aligned with and developed in conjunction with the organizational strategic plan.
Performance Contribution	Developing an understanding among employees that a more diverse and inclusive work environment can provide greater productivity and help improve individual and institutional performance.
Measurement	Ensuring that diversity management practices are qualitatively and quantitatively measurable in various aspects.
Accountability	Ensuring that managers and leaders responsible for diversity management practices are accountable for diversity by tying their performance evaluations and compensation to the results of their practices.
Success Plans	Establishing an ongoing, strategic process for identifying and developing a diverse talent pool of potential future leaders for an organization.
Recruitment	Expanding the employee pool in the recruitment process to create a workforce resource from diverse and qualified employees.
Diversity Training	Organizational efforts undertaken to inform and educate senior management and employees about the benefits of diversity to the organization.

Source: Christiansen and Sezerel (2013)

1.1.3. The Concept of Diversity Training

Diversity training is defined as practices designed to educate and inform management and employees within diversity programs prepared to achieve the organization's diversity goals (Sürgevil, 2010). According to Eğinli (2011), diversity training refers to educational activities for employees aimed at conveying information about approaching differences with understanding and making efforts to comprehend them, creating tolerance towards differences, and acquiring knowledge about differences. Diversity training, defined as educational programs aimed at increasing positive interaction between individuals and groups and reducing prejudice

and discrimination (Bezrukova et al., 2012), is one of the most important steps in diversity management practices and is generally considered as the starting point in managing diversity (Cox & Blake, 1991; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1999; Kulik & Roberson, 2008; Roberson et al., 2013).

Kulik & Roberson (2008) state that diversity training is carried out based on two main purposes. First, organizations tend to conduct training to announce their managerial strategies and activities. Training conducted in this context is carried out as an introductory activity to diversity management practices. The second reason for conducting diversity training is expressed as creating direct or indirect behavioral changes in employees to improve relationships among employees (Bendick et al., 2001; Kulik & Roberson, 2008).

The historical background of diversity training, which defines organizational effectiveness in a wide range from one-hour short briefings to comprehensive organizational-level applications (Ferdman & Brody, 1996), extends to "sensitivity training" implemented in the 1960s and 1970s within the framework of anti-discrimination laws, parallel to diversity practices (Paluck, 2006). Diversity training is generally seen as a separate branch in the education literature because it is stated to elicit more emotionally charged reactions than other types of training (Bezrukova et al., 2016).

The characteristics that distinguish diversity training from other types of training due to its scope are listed as follows (Lindsay, 1994):

- Diversity training primarily brings up "undiscussable" topics. Although it varies geographically, socially ignored issues form the focus of these trainings. Societies where ignoring a person's disability or accent is considered polite are common. Diversity and inclusion training requires people to talk about hidden issues they previously ignored. This situation can also reveal fears in individuals. In the training, participants may also be asked to share characteristics they normally don't notice, such as their races, genders, or feelings of alienation that they claim not to notice normally. For this reason, diversity training can be environments where individuals express topics and feelings related to them that are not discussed or ignored outside of family or close ones for the first time. Therefore, diversity and inclusion training that brings up emotionally charged and uncritically addressed issues differs from employee training such as motivation or time management.

- In diversity training, both facilitators and attendees become integral subjects of the learning process. The inherent complexity arises from the fact that each individual in the training environment embodies a unique combination of gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and age. This dual role of participant and subject matter presents both opportunities and challenges. On one hand, it enriches the learning experience as everyone brings firsthand knowledge to the table. On the other, it introduces complexity because this knowledge is deeply rooted in personal life experiences, which can vary greatly. The training's true value emerges when participants begin to contextualize these individual experiences within the broader framework of diversity concepts. Consequently, peer-to-peer interaction becomes a crucial component of the learning journey. Through these exchanges, individuals gain insights into how their interpretations of experiences may differ from others, fostering a deeper understanding of diverse perspectives and challenging preconceived notions.

- Because diversity training includes individual fears, uncritically raised issues, and life experiences, these trainings require a "deep level of awareness." In other words, diversity and inclusion training aim to help participants' "transformative insights" into their assumptions and behaviors regarding differences that they have not thought deeply about or focused on. These trainings, which focus on illuminating internal and interpersonal beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors, include emotional, experiential, and self-awareness components unlike other trainings.

- Diversity training, which also has an experiential feature, requires individual change to create change. It is important to bring up previously "undiscussable" issues. Therefore, for organizational change to occur, differences should be consciously evaluated through dialogue that includes different voices.

Although diversity training varies according to organizational level demands, it generally includes a mixture of didactic methods such as education, persuasion, conferences, videos, as well as interactive methods such as discussions, drama, simulation, and exercises (Pendry et al., 2007).

To speak of positive results from the training, it is pointed out that there are basic requirements such as focusing on behaviors rather than trying to change beliefs, having short and long-term goals, getting support from top management, allocating a budget for training, creating an

environment where organizational experiences can be openly discussed in training, and determining critical success factors for training (Sürgevil, 2010). It is important that the training is well-planned; it is thought that improperly designed training programs have a reverse effect on managing diversity in organizations (Syed & Tariq, 2017). Eğinli (2009) states that the most effective data in evaluating the results of diversity training are employees' attitudes and relationships.

Diversity training is also an effective tool for organizations to attract customers and create customer loyalty, keep employee morale high, increase employee productivity, and ensure understanding and harmony among employees (Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1999).

1.1.4. Key Components in Diversity Training

Diversity training is described as more challenging compared to other employee training programs because it leads participants to confront their attitudes, values, and beliefs (Clements & Jones, 2006). Therefore, the key components that need to be considered in diversity training are also the main factors affecting the efficiency of the training. Different theorists have defined the essential components required for effective diversity training.

Wentling & Palma-Rivas (1999) identified key components for effective diversity training programs. These include top management support, integration with organizational strategy, and alignment with company needs. Employing qualified trainers, combining training with other diversity initiatives, and mandating participation are crucial. Programs should be inclusive and ensure trust and confidentiality. Lastly, accountability and evaluation processes are essential to guarantee the training's effectiveness. This approach enables organizations to implement impactful and sustainable diversity training programs.

In the Cox model (2001), five key components are mentioned for successful diversity training: leadership support (gaining management commitment and linking efforts to strategic goals), research and measurement (collecting data on basic needs assessment), education (trainer references and training levels), alignment of management systems (supporting training with other efforts related to diversity within the system), and follow-up (measuring accountability and effectiveness) (Hite & McDonald, 2006).

Combs & Luthans (2007) group the key components for effective diversity training under three main headings: the training content meeting self-efficacy skills, the training meeting behavioral expectations, and the impact of training on organizational practices.

According to King et al. (2010), a needs analysis should be conducted primarily for a successful diversity training program. Conducting a needs analysis before starting a training program allows for determining the needs of the organization and its employees and meeting these needs at the end of the training. The second important component is expressed as considering the context of the training plans. Additionally, it fulfills the conditions of encouraging reward systems for training, providing comprehensive organizational promotion, making training a part of strategic management plans, and creating long-term evaluations of the training.

1.1.5. Classification of Diversity Training

Various classifications of diversity training, which aims to prevent prejudice and discrimination by developing awareness and tolerance towards differences between individuals and increasing interaction among employees, are observed in the literature from different perspectives. To make a classification, it is primarily necessary to establish the purpose of diversity training. Kulik & Roberson (2008) state that diversity training is conducted based on two main purposes. Firstly, organizations tend to conduct training to announce their managerial strategies and activities. Training conducted in this context is carried out as an introductory activity to diversity management practices. The second reason for conducting diversity training is expressed as creating direct or indirect behavioral changes in employees to improve relationships among employees (Bendick et al., 2001; Kulik & Roberson, 2008).

Ferdman & Brody (1996) sought answers to the questions "What?, Why? and How?" in the classification stage of diversity training and made a classification in this context. The classification is shown in Figure 1. Accordingly:

- **Why?:** It seeks to answer why diversity training is conducted. There are three main answers in this context. These are expressed as legal and social requirements, ethical practices, and business success. Although legal requirements are often stated as the starting point for training and practices, ensuring harmony among employees for ethical reasons can be important for organizations. In organizations that adopt a pluralistic and multicultural approach for

individuals and groups within the organization, diversity training and other diversity practices are seen as an important opportunity. Multiculturalism refers to the recognition and valuation of different cultures and groups within the organization. Pluralism involves accepting the coexistence of communities or groups that differ in their cultural identity or practices within the organization.

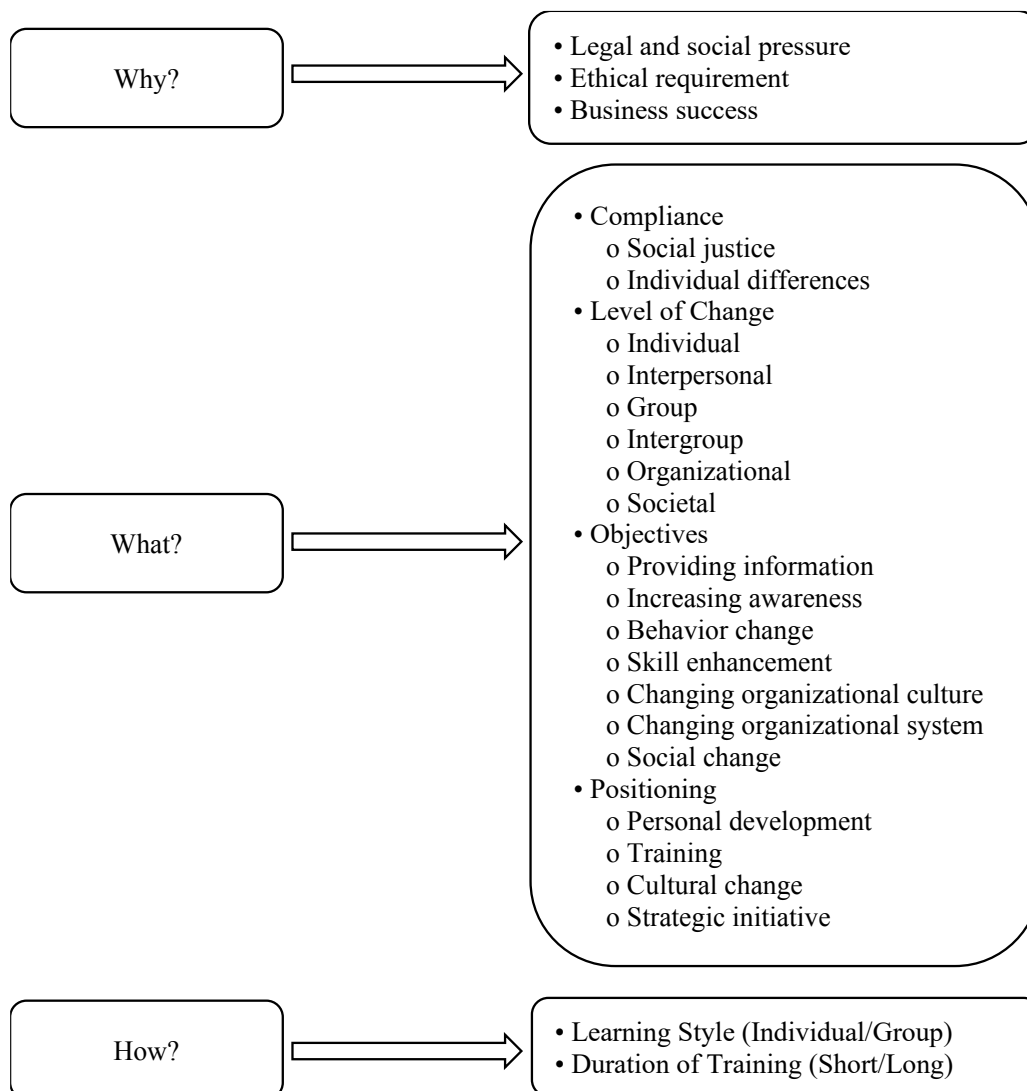
- **What?:** It expresses the characteristics related to the content of diversity training. In this context, it is seen that a distinction is made within the framework of adaptation, level of change, goals, and positioning. Organizations may choose to implement training programs for explicit or implicit reasons. Among these, training conducted to help employees adapt to the organization occupies an important place. On the other hand, depending on the level of change targeted by the organization, it is possible to set change goals at individual, interpersonal, intergroup, or organizational levels. The level of change targeted by the organization through training is also closely associated with the training. These can be goals such as providing information, developing awareness and understanding, imparting skills, changing organizational culture, and changing the organization as a community. At this point, initiatives towards organizational development can significantly contribute to the managerial and cultural change of the organization. On the other hand, the positioning of training within the organization expresses how the training is presented within the organization and how it is perceived by organization members. In this direction, the support of training by the management level is seen as an important factor affecting the success of the training.

- **How?:** It focuses on how diversity training is conducted. It is seen that classification is made under three main headings: learning types, duration of training, and the role of the trainer. When learning types are considered, learning can be targeted at individual or group levels. While some organizations conduct their training programs by including everyone regardless of their duties or positions within the organization, some organizations may conduct training for different groups or levels. In such training targeting specific groups, individual or interpersonal level behavior or skill development is generally targeted. The duration of training is expressed as another feature that can vary on an organizational basis. Accordingly, while some organizations conduct diversity training as separate special sessions, some organizations can implement it as part of an organizational training plan. This situation is associated with organizations' evaluation of diversity training as a process targeting individual change or as a tool for cultural

change at the organizational level. Finally, the role and competency level of the trainer in the training is effective in classifying the training. While the teaching competency of the trainer comes to the forefront especially in cultural diversity training, the trainer's ability to model for the group they are training becomes important in training aimed at working together of different groups. The trainer's consulting ability generally becomes important when it comes to training leaders and managers.

Figure 1

Diversity Training Classification



Source: Ferdman & Brody (1996)

Diversity training, which primarily aims to create changes in perception, attitude, and behavior, requires the correct determination of awareness-based or skill-development training according to needs. This classification of diversity training based on purpose is also referred to as classification according to learning outcomes in the literature (Kalinowski et al., 2013). Although raising awareness is the main goal of most training programs, both approaches are generally used together and create a greater impact when combined (Bezrukova et al., 2012; Ehrke et al., 2020; Ferdman & Brody, 1996). While the classification of diversity training according to purpose is mainly considered under two headings, when learning outcomes are taken into account, Kalinowski et al. (2013) consider it under three main headings: affective-based, cognitive-based, and skill-based outcomes. Affective-based outcomes define internal states that guide perception and behavior, and generally include attitudes, self-efficacy, and motivation. On the other hand, cognitive-based outcomes include verbal knowledge, knowledge organization, and cognitive strategies, and express behavioral changes. Finally, skill-based outcomes involve changes in behavior.

Eğimli (2009) discusses diversity training under three main headings: awareness training, skill development training, and cultural diversity training (Table 2).

According to this classification shown in Table 2, while awareness training aims to develop employees' awareness within the organization and help them move away from negative thoughts about differences, awareness-based training includes identifying demographic changes, cultural factors affecting communication, cultural values, prejudices, and assumptions. Skill-based training, which aims to identify the talents and skills of group members with differences by ensuring their participation in training, aims to reveal the talents and skills of individuals or groups defined as different within the organization through methods such as role-playing, psychodrama, theater, video, or surveys. Cultural diversity training, which focuses on cultural differences within the organization, aims for individuals to acquire and develop the competencies needed to work and live in a new culture.

Table 2*Classification of Diversity Training*

Training Type	Purpose	Scope
Awareness training	To develop awareness of employees in the organization about differences and to ensure that negativity is avoided.	Discussion of the impact of demographic changes on diversity, social perceptions and differences, cultural factors that hinder effective communication, and identification of cultural values, prejudices, and assumptions.
Skill development training	In talent and skill-based diversity training, the participation of members of different groups is ensured to identify their talents and skills.	Attempting to instill the concepts of accepting differences and valuing differences by learning the talents and skills of people defined as different through methods such as role-playing, psychodrama, theater, video, and questionnaires.
Cultural diversity training	Cultural diversity training aims to enable individuals to acquire, develop, or increase the competencies necessary to work and live in a new culture. It aims to minimize encounters with unknown situations related to culture and to convey the necessary information to overcome various events.	Conveying information about which values are important in the culture of the country where the person will take on a role, in order to achieve cognitive, emotional, and behavioral outcomes through methods such as regional studies (cultural and economic issues, etc.), language preparation, and sensitivity training, so that the person can live and work more comfortably in the country where they will be assigned.

Source: Eğinli (2009)

1.1.5.1. Awareness-Raising Training

Awareness-based training, which stems from cognitive-based studies in the field of social psychology, primarily uses cognitive approaches to create prejudice awareness in individuals (Pendry et al., 2007). Awareness-raising training is expressed as the preferred training by organizations within diversity training (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004; Hite & McDonald, 2007). It is thought that implicit biases directly affect our attitudes and behaviors without conscious awareness or control and are related to discrimination (Maxfield et al., 2020; Onyeador et al., 2021). In the literature, it is seen that the concepts of unconscious bias and implicit bias are used in the same context (Brownstein & Saul, 2016). However, Onyeador et al. (2021) point

out that implicit biases cannot be processed without consciousness and distinguish these two concepts. Accordingly, unconscious bias is defined as a form of implicit bias that encompasses associations automatically activated in consciousness that reflect prejudices or stereotypes affecting decision-making and behavior towards members of a social group (Onyeador et al., 2021). Based on this information, the target point of awareness training is to ensure the recognition of implicit or unconscious biases. Banaji & Greenwald (2016) state that people's prejudices stemming from unconscious feelings and beliefs about the groups they belong to can cause them to judge or behave towards other people in positive or negative ways. Moreover, since people generally see themselves as fair and unbiased, confronting these hidden biases can be uncomfortable.

Awareness-based training, commonly associated with the multicultural model, aims to increase individuals' awareness of social perceptions and prejudices that begin with the interpretation of other people's cultures due to stereotypes towards certain groups, thereby aiming to increase sensitivity to the beliefs and feelings of people from other cultures (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004).

However, Pendry et al. (2007) state that awareness-raising training aimed at eliminating prejudices to persuade participants to value differences will not be effective, especially when attitudes are emotionally based. It is thought that training that is not supported by behavior and only provides factual information is ineffective in creating attitude change. Additionally, it is stated that diversity training generally does not affect implicit or explicit prejudices in the long term (Onyeador et al., 2021). Similarly, Hite & McDonald (2007) state that while awareness training provides knowledge and insight, it often leaves participants lacking in practical skills.

1.1.5.2. Skill-Based Training

As an alternative to awareness-based training, skill-based training focuses on behaviors rather than attitudes by emphasizing communication skills, conflict management, or resolution methods between different group identities (Roberson et al., 2003). Skill-based training not only teaches the values and knowledge necessary to complete a set of skills on a specific topic but also allows participants time to observe skills, practice skills, develop skills, and receive feedback on application, enabling the application of the skill (Barbee & Martin, 2013).

An important component of skill-based training is the experiential learning approach. David Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory forms the foundation for these types of training. Kolb's theory proposes that learning occurs in a four-stage cycle namely concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation (Kolb, 2014). This approach allows participants in diversity training to experience real-world scenarios, reflect on these experiences, develop conceptual understandings, and apply what they have learned.

In skill-based diversity training, learning objectives determined based on Bloom's taxonomy cover cognitive (knowledge and thinking skills), affective (attitudes and values), and psychomotor (physical skills) domains (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). For example, in a diversity training, participants may be expected to understand different cultural perspectives (cognitive), develop empathy towards differences (affective), and practice intercultural communication skills (psychomotor). The training content includes real scenarios, case studies, and scientific theories. This approach helps participants relate theoretical knowledge to practical applications. For instance, through a real cultural conflict scenario that occurred in an organization, participants can develop solution strategies and apply these strategies through role-playing methods.

An important feature that distinguishes skill-based training from other training methodologies is the debriefing practice. Debriefing is a structured reflection and analysis process that takes place after experiential activities. This process allows participants to share their experiences, reinforce what they have learned, and consider how to transfer this learning to real work environments (Fanning & Gaba, 2007). The debriefing process plays a critical role in transforming learning into awareness and skill development.

When considered for diversity training, skill-based training is defined as training that targets behavioral change, such as communication skills, conflict management, or resolution strategies between various group identities (Roberson et al., 2003; Kalinoski et al., 2013). Therefore, it is possible to define skill-based training as training that allows for the development of different behavioral skills, starting from thinking skills, compared to awareness training. In response to the criticism that awareness-based training does not provide guidance on how to apply the knowledge learned in training within the organization, diversity training aimed at developing behavior includes in-training applications (Ferdman & Brody, 1996).

Treven & Treven (2007) state that skill-based training is designed to go beyond creating awareness and develop skills for managing differences. Skill-based training, which aims to develop methods required for effective interaction with others, includes four main methods in this context:

i) Intercultural understanding: Understanding cultural characteristics that cause people to treat each other differently within the organization.

ii) Intercultural communication: Learning to overcome verbal and non-verbal barriers to intercultural communication.

iii) Facilitation skills: Training to help others reduce or eliminate misunderstandings that may arise from cultural differences.

iv) Flexibility and adaptation: Developing the ability to patiently adopt new and different approaches when dealing with those who are different.

Interpersonal relationship skills are expressed as the most important and generalizable skills for the organization. In the context of communication with differences, the interpersonal skills identified by Barker (2004) are listed below:

- Working effectively in different conditions,
- Working cooperatively as a member of a team,
- Getting along well and working effectively with people of different personalities,
- Participating in organizational activities regularly and on time,
- Being able to see events from others' perspectives,
- Being able to engage appropriately in social interactions and situations,
- Speaking comfortably and confidently with others in the organization,
- Providing appropriate feedback to others in the organization,

- Being able to cope with criticism, disagreement, or disappointment during conversations with others,
- Being able to initiate and maintain task-oriented or friendly conversations with others in the organization.

On the other hand, Clements (2006) states that the focus of skill-based training is to create a context where people can learn, develop, and apply the necessary skills in communication with others, emphasizing the importance of practice. The main practice-based training applications are explained below (Clements, 2006; Eğinli, 2011):

i) Role Playing: The important feature of role-playing is the enactment of real-life scenarios in training and participants behaving as they would in these situations. There are generally two types of methods used in role-playing: enacting a scenario predetermined by the trainer or playing a spontaneously created scenario. In the first case, the predetermined scenario is given to the participants by the trainer, and participants demonstrate how they would behave according to this scenario during the training. In spontaneous role-playing, the scenario created during the training is enacted simultaneously by the participants according to the situation. Role-playing is expressed as a good learning method as it allows participants to identify scenarios with real-life experiences and understand how they react in different situations. Role-playing is described as a very powerful method for exploring most of the problems that differences create within the organization. It provides an opportunity for participants to understand their behaviors in situations, gain information about their own prejudices, assumptions, and worldviews, and significantly helps them create self-awareness. However, role-playing activities can be challenging for participants who are not accustomed to such activities. Also, if the scenarios fail to connect with the issues raised after the activity, the impact of role-playing on participants may decrease.

ii) Psychodrama: It is defined as a method that can help participants connect their own experiences and emotions. Psychodrama is a method developed primarily by Psychotherapist Jacob L. Moreno (1889–1974), which has different stages from warm-up to sharing with the group and is based on psychotherapy. Psychodrama is seen as an effective method for diversity training because it reveals participants' emotions towards different situations. Psychodrama can be effective in connecting with the experiences of participants and making sense of these

experiences. Additionally, it can help participants who come to diversity training with feelings such as guilt, anger, confusion, or resistance to cope with these emotions. The main disadvantages of psychodrama are expressed as being time-consuming and requiring expertise. It is not suitable for training consisting of large groups due to its focus on individuals in training. Also, if psychodrama is performed by non-experts, it may harm participants because of its focus on emotions. Therefore, it is a method that needs to be worked on carefully.

iii) Theater: It is a method where certain situations are enacted by professional actors. In diversity training, it is used for the purpose of discovering and opening up problems. Typically, professional actors are used to enact scenarios based on the organization's real-life experience. It is mainly carried out by professional actors enacting scenarios based on real experiences within the organization, followed by individual and group work on this play. In some cases, the play may include different characterizations of the same character with different perspectives. This way, it is possible for participants to see different behaviors of a character for the same situation. The most important advantage of the theater activity is expressed as not posing any threat to participants and not creating discomfort in participants. However, besides disadvantages such as the theater activity being costly and the necessity to adhere to the actors' timing, it cannot provide the opportunity for participants to work through their own life experiences as in role-playing and psychodrama activities. Therefore, watching actors can make it difficult for participants to interact.

iv) Video: The use of video content in diversity training is expressed as an effective method for conveying perspectives on topics and providing information about different groups. It is seen as an advantageous training method for organizations in terms of time and cost. It is also an effective method in terms of creating a discussion environment within the training. However, video content that is not dwelled upon and watched in a short time can cause the intended message to be passed without being fully understood. Therefore, for the video activity to be efficient, it is important to plan it well, gather opinions within the group after the video screening, and create a discussion environment.

v) Discussion: Participants need to be in a discussion environment with others who have the same and different perspectives for effective learning. Discussions also allow people to express their feelings and needs regarding differences and create an opportunity to obtain necessary information about people. Therefore, discussions serve as an effective tool in fulfilling the

learning objectives of the training by revealing participants' attitudes, beliefs, values, and prejudices. A significant part of the disadvantages of the discussion method stems from poor management rather than the method itself. The role of the trainer comes to the fore in terms of giving everyone equal speaking rights and correct timing in discussions. Also, participants' reluctance to express themselves in discussions may be closely related to the trainer's success in involving all participants in the discussion. Therefore, discussion is a method where the trainer's competence is at the forefront.

vi) In-training Tests: Tests are shown as an important way to open discussion within training. Therefore, it is a method used in conjunction with the discussion method. The activity is carried out by answering questions prepared to determine participants' knowledge level on the subject, followed by discussing the answers in class. Good preparation of questions significantly affects obtaining the desired answers from participants. Therefore, it is important for the efficiency of the test method that the tests are neither too short nor too challenging, consist of questions appropriate to the activity, and create a discussion environment after the test.

1.1.5.3. Cultural Diversity Training

Cultural diversity training, also defined as "intercultural education" in the literature, encompasses training conducted to help individuals who need to work or live in different countries or work with different cultures adapt to both the physical and cultural environment (Eğinli, 2011). Landis (2003) states that encountering different cultures can create a "culture shock," thus constituting a significant stress and anxiety factor for individuals. Culture shock is expressed as a situational discomfort that occurs when people start living in a geography and culture different from their own (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000). Cultural diversity training plays an important role in recognizing or reducing these effects. Bhawuk & Brislin (2000) define cultural diversity training as an intercultural adaptation program as a form of diversity training. These trainings also aim to enable people interacting with different cultures to achieve business success by establishing effective communication with these cultures. Another aim of cultural diversity training is expressed as increasing employees' knowledge about cultures to provide better service to culturally diverse customers (Hussain et al., 2020). On the other hand, Fowler (2006) distinguishes cultural diversity training from other diversity training. While using similar tools and methods, cultural diversity training aims to prepare people for more effective interpersonal relationships when they interact with people from cultures other than their own.

On the other hand, diversity training generally aims to increase interaction by reducing discrimination within the organization and improve the environment within the organization.

Sussman (1997), in her intercultural diversity training model based on four archetypes, takes the view that prejudices and interpersonal competence are independent dimensions. The four archetypes and their characteristics, based on the personality traits of the participants, are explained below:

- **Polite Tolerant:** These individuals are characterized as prejudiced but with interpersonal competence. Although they harbor negative feelings towards a particular group, they do not express these feelings in a way that would hurt or disturb the group or individuals. Due to their ability to display appropriate verbal and non-verbal behaviors, these people are recognized as individuals who exhibit appropriate attitudes and behaviors towards different individuals or groups in their environment. These individuals, who can work with people they dislike due to social rules or organizational sanctions, do not exhibit negative behavior towards individuals or groups due to their interpersonal competencies. However, they tend to maintain psychological distance from different individuals or groups due to their prejudices.
- **Comforting Coworker:** These individuals have interpersonal competence, but unlike polite tolerant individuals, they do not have prejudices. While individuals in both archetypes comply with legal and social rules, the comforting coworker does this not out of obligation but because they want to. People with these characteristics can empathize with different individuals or groups and are more interested in who people are rather than their cultural backgrounds. Therefore, mutual and supportive characteristics come to the fore in their relationships. They can establish comfortable relationships with people they define as different without having to be on alert.
- **Classic Conservative:** These individuals are defined as both prejudiced and lacking interpersonal competence. These people harbor negative feelings towards different individuals or groups, and they are unwilling or unable to hide these feelings in their communication with these people. Individuals representing the classic conservative archetype do not hesitate to express their feelings in various ways, from derogatory comments to destructive statements, in their relationships with different individuals or groups.

- **Good-Natured Incompetent:** This archetype represents people who do not harbor hostility towards anyone but lack interpersonal competencies. These individuals do not harbor negative feelings towards different individuals or groups, but they fail to read social cues because they do not pay attention to the traditions of the society they are in. Therefore, these types of people are defined as individuals who have difficulty adapting to different individuals or groups. Due to their lack of interpersonal competencies, they may unintentionally become alienated from society.

In the archetype-based cultural diversity training proposed by Sussman (1997), a training model needs to be developed based on the personality traits of the participants. According to this view, while people's intuitions and life experiences feed their developed prejudices, they do not prevent them from maneuvering skillfully in culturally different situations. Therefore, regardless of the prejudices formed against a particular minority, people's abilities to say and do "the right things" can also come to the fore in interaction with differences. People can carefully learn "what" they should say and how they should say it in such environments. Interpersonal competence comes to the forefront at this point. People with interpersonal competence can develop skills and strategies for such situations. Moreover, the main behavioral and communicational components in people with interpersonal competence are expressed as active listening, empathy, capturing contextual cues about people, and managing conflicts (Sussman, 1997).

Based on this concept, intercultural competence, as a prominent concept in cultural diversity training, is defined as the ability of individuals in a different culture to understand and respond well to the demands required by that culture and adapt to cultural values (Eğimli, 2011). The concept of intercultural competence should essentially include three components: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. For individuals to have intercultural competence and interact effectively and appropriately with people from different cultures, they need to have cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions. Taking diversity training at cognitive, emotional, and behavioral levels helps people develop an objective perspective on different cultures and gain intercultural competence (Graf, 2004; Eğimli, 2011).

For individuals to gain intercultural competence covering these dimensions, in addition to cognitive training that provides knowledge about cultures, training that will enable them to acquire necessary intercultural skills also constitutes the scope of intercultural diversity training

(Eğinli, 2011). The Intercultural Competence Model, adapted by Graf (2004) to determine intercultural competencies, consists of five dimensions. These dimensions are explained below:

- **Intercultural Communication Skill:** Intercultural communication skill, sometimes used synonymously with intercultural sensitivity, includes respecting different cultures, empathy, understanding ambiguities, effective communication, and relationship management skills.
- **Intercultural Sensitivity:** It refers to individuals trying to acquire sufficient knowledge about the culture and respecting different cultural values when communicating with different cultures.
- **Interpersonal Competence:** Interpersonal competence, expressed as the basic component of intercultural competence, is defined as the ability to establish and manage interpersonal communication.
- **Social Problem-Solving Skill:** Social problem-solving ability, defined as a fundamental factor in cultural adaptation, refers to people developing effective or adaptable coping for situations encountered in daily life where no effective solution is available.
- **Self-evaluation:** It refers to individuals making their own assessments to facilitate intercultural interactions and cultural adaptation for effective intercultural competence.

Cultural diversity training, designed for people who interact with different cultures in line with organizational goals and need to live in a different culture, aims to develop new behavioral skills for effective communication with different cultures, starting from cognitively developing cultural awareness in individuals. Intercultural diversity training (Eğinli, 2011), which aims for people to develop intercultural competence regarding other cultures by first recognizing their own cultures, is particularly important for organizations operating at an international level.

1.2. Workplace Inclusion

Workplace inclusion has been considered one of the important topics in diversity management literature for approximately thirty years (Keating, 2018). The concept of inclusion has emerged with similar research trends in organizational literature (Roberson, 2006), social work (Mor Barak, 2000), and social psychology (Brewer, 1991) over the past decade (Shore et al., 2010). Workplace inclusion is considered one of the research topics of increasing importance in recent years. Indeed, the Academy of Management, one of the most influential organizations in the

field of management globally, has been organizing annual meetings since 1951, and for its 79th meeting in 2019, it set the main theme as "Understanding The Inclusive Organization" (AOM, 2019). Shore et al. (2018) stated that workplace inclusion has become one of the important topics of interest worldwide. With many academic studies conducted in recent years, the literature on workplace inclusion is showing rapid development. The concept of workplace inclusion, which can encompass many fields of science, has a history of nearly thirty years and has been frequently mentioned in the international literature in recent years.

1.2.1. The Concept of Workplace Inclusion

According to Mor Barak (2000), an inclusive workplace is a work environment that values individual and intergroup differences, addresses the needs of minorities, fosters social equality, collaborates with individuals, groups, and organizations locally and globally, thus assuming social responsibility to increase social welfare. In a study conducted by Mor Barak (2022), a conceptual framework was established that addresses the employee as part of the organization in terms of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship, employee well-being, task success, etc. This brings forth concepts of global togetherness, global understanding, and acting as a global force. To realize this idea, an organization needs to provide its employees with a work environment that reveals their talents, gives them equal opportunities, treats them fairly and honestly, involves them in management, and uses these behaviors as an organizational strategy in its relationships with all general and immediate external environmental elements. The main purpose of workplace inclusion is to harmonize employees with different ethnic backgrounds, cultures, beliefs, abilities, and traditions in organizations, and to benefit from these differences at the highest level. Extending this to a global scale will increase the success of the concept.

Thomas & Ely (1996) and Mor Barak (2022) state that inclusive organizations not only accept workforce diversity but also contribute to the development of surrounding communities and draw attention to the needs of disadvantaged groups. Organizations that have adopted a culture of workplace inclusion do not only think about themselves. For them, social benefit is as important as their own goals and profitability. Inclusive organizations try to do what is necessary regarding the rights of minority groups, what needs to be done for their integration into society and the workforce, and the duties that fall on organizations, society, and the state for these groups. They encourage and support their employees' participation in activities that

provide social benefits. For example, inclusive workplaces engage in activities that support the employment of women in areas where female employment is low, as well as the employment of disabled individuals and other minority groups.

Giovannini (2004) defines inclusiveness as the acceptance and utilization of individual differences in work environments. If businesses can utilize their employees' different personal characteristics for the benefit of the company, this will help them gain a competitive advantage. Winters (2014) describes inclusiveness as creating an environment where different approaches, styles, perspectives, and experiences are accepted for employees to use their potential and for the business to achieve better results. Especially businesses that produce goods and services on a global scale naturally employ individuals with very different characteristics. It is crucial for these companies to create suitable work environments where differences can be displayed.

Inclusiveness is the degree to which individuals feel part of critical organizational processes through their access to information, attachment to co-workers, and participation in decision-making processes (Mor Barak, 2022). Inclusiveness is mostly based on valuation and respect (Wilson, 2016). Workplace inclusion is possible through open communication and sharing of emotions and information (Cottrill, 2011). In inclusive environments, all individuals are treated fairly, valued as individuals, and included in fundamental decision-making processes (Nishi, 2013). Inclusive workplaces are more likely to retain their current employees as they value equal opportunity and are established to attract the brightest talents that demonstrate employee development (Högemark, 2018). Gasorek (2000) defines inclusive organizations as those that value employees, consider and use their ideas, have successful cooperation within and between departments, where current employees feel a sense of belonging and potential employees are interested in the organization. Inclusiveness reinforces a person's feeling of being part of the organizational system (Mor Barak, 2022).

Workplace inclusion can also be defined as removing barriers to employees' full participation and contribution to organizations (Roberson, 2006). This points to the expectation that creating environments where employees with different characteristics can contribute to organizations with their own experiences will be beneficial. Therefore, inclusiveness has been defined as focusing on increasing the participation of all members of the organization to benefit from the positive effect of differences for the organization's "competitive business advantage" (Roberson, 2016). As Roberson emphasizes, perhaps the most emphasized and important

dimension of inclusiveness is individuals' participation in decisions with their personal skills and experience. Workplace inclusion aims to first identify barriers to full participation, then determine what important points are needed to remove these barriers, and finally increase participation (Sturm, 2006). Creating appropriate work environments where employees can express their work-related ideas can be expressed as a prerequisite for inclusiveness. Employees can produce innovative ideas in environments where they can feel comfortable and be themselves. If a workplace aims to be inclusive, it should first prepare an appropriate environment that will enable its employees to participate in decisions (Kozlu, 2008).

According to Mor Barak (2022), workplace inclusion is the individual's feeling of being part of the organization in both formal processes such as decision-making and access to information, and informal processes such as lunch meetings and social gatherings where decisions and information exchange take place. In an inclusive workplace, it is unlikely for a leader to make decisions alone. Employees are asked to express their opinions in decision-making processes, and a joint decision is expected to be made under the leader's management as a result of these consultations. Thus, employees who participate in decisions feel like partners of the organization rather than just employees. This is interpreted as reinforcing the sense of belonging, thereby increasing organizational commitment and employee productivity (Eren, 2008).

Workplace inclusion is the preparation of work environments where employees with different personal and cultural characteristics can work together in accordance with business objectives, where their personal differences are valued as richness and provide added value to the business. Workplace inclusion practices are efforts to create a workplace where employees' unique characteristics are valued and where employees can be themselves comfortably within the organization (Nishii, 2013). Initiatives to create inclusive workplaces should consider individual differences, needs, perceptions, and at the same time focus on creating structures, systems, and processes that make employees feel equally valued (Ferdman & Davidson, 2002). Katz & Miller (2003) stated that creating an inclusive, high-performing, and sustainable organizational culture is a very difficult process because the organization's policies, practices, and programs need to change and transform employees' behaviors. Inclusiveness is a multifaceted concept. It covers both internal organizational policies and external relationships.

While it requires fundamental changes in human resources management within the organization, it will also be necessary to change relationships with the external environment.

With proper management of inclusiveness and diversity, an organizational environment can be achieved where all members can exhibit their maximum potential (Cox, 1991). At the individual level, employees showing maximum performance leads to an overall increase in the organization's performance. Practices such as participation in decisions, valuing individuals' ideas, providing a work environment where individuals can reveal their talents, fair management understanding, equal opportunities, etc., will increase productivity among employees and achieve maximum performance. This will also increase the success of organizations. Sposato et al. (2015) stated that equality and inclusiveness are of great importance in achieving organizational goals in work environments consisting of employees with different qualities. Perceiving individual differences as richness and treating employees fairly allows employees to perform better in the work environment, thus enabling easier achievement of organizational goals.

Employees' perceptions of inclusiveness are considered to be very important in terms of organizational commitment as well as job performance (Downey et al., 2015). Factors such as participation in decisions, employees feeling unique and valuable, and being able to express their ideas openly will bind the individual to the organization and provide job satisfaction. Implementing decisions that include their own ideas will increase job satisfaction and thus individual performance (Milne, 2018). According to Shore et al. (2010), inclusiveness leads to various organizational outcomes such as high-quality work relationships, job satisfaction, intention to stay in the job, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, well-being, creativity, and enhanced career opportunities. Inclusion practices have an enhancing effect on an individual's creativity, job satisfaction, and job performance. As an individual's performance increases, their organizational commitment and work well-being also increase. This creates an intention to stay in the job for the individual. An individual who finds the opportunity for self-realization can have open and two-way communication with the manager while also obtaining enhanced career opportunities.

1.2.2. Benefits of Workplace Inclusion

There are many studies in the literature showing the effect of workplace inclusion on organizational outcomes. For example, it has been shown to increase job satisfaction (Mor Barak & Levin, 2002; Mor Barak et al., 2006; Acquavita et al., 2009; Madera et al., 2013), reduce turnover (McKay et al., 2007; Nishii & Mayer, 2009; Kaplan et al., 2011; Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013), decrease absenteeism (Avery et al., 2007), increase organizational commitment (Cho & Mor Barak, 2008; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Hwang & Hopkins, 2012; Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013), enhance organizational citizenship behavior (Den Hartog et al., 2007; Singh et al., 2013), and improve performance (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Singh et al., 2013; Sabharwal, 2014).

According to Holvino et al. (2004), inclusiveness has significant effects in a multicultural environment. Preserving diversity and managing differences have become critical components of organizational effectiveness and success. Organizations' effective utilization of the talents of individuals with different qualities is expected to increase their organizational performance. Through inclusiveness, organizations try to gain competitive advantage by turning individual differences into gains. At this point, the difference of each individual is considered a valuable contribution to the organization.

Mor Barak (2000) proposed a theoretical inclusiveness model suggesting that diversity and organizational culture would contribute to perceptions of inclusiveness, which would then lead to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, individual well-being, and task effectiveness. Riordan (2014) suggested that with the feeling of inclusiveness, there would be various positive outcomes such as less turnover, more sense of belonging, and more team participation. When employees in the work environment understand that their differences are valuable, that they are not excluded due to their differences, and that they can contribute to the business with their personal characteristics, they will feel a greater sense of belonging. It is expected that organizations with an inclusive climate will benefit from this situation as employees show higher performance towards organizations they feel they belong to.

Inclusive climate is a term used to describe a work environment where employees are encouraged to be themselves and have fair access to resources (Barton, 2017). An employee being themselves is perhaps the key point where the most important gains will emerge for the

organization. For an individual to be themselves, they need to be able to express their thoughts freely by breaking out of the stereotypical shell assigned to them and turn these thoughts into action. The necessary atmosphere for this is inclusive climates. Exclusive businesses have minimal or no relationship with the community they are in. Inclusive businesses, on the other hand, establish healthy relationships with the community they are in. Participating in some projects for the benefit of society and employees participating in various activities for the benefit of society is a desired situation for inclusive businesses (Mor Barak, 2000).

According to Shore et al. (2010), an inclusive climate increases performance, commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and job satisfaction. Many scientific studies have proven the positive effects of inclusive climate on organizational outcomes. According to a research report by Deloitte (2012), when employees perceive that their organizations are determined, supportive, and have a structure where they feel they belong, their job performance increases. According to Daya (2014), an inclusive climate created at the organizational level results in employees' feelings of respect, acceptance, trust, participation in organizational decisions, and access to information. Inclusive climate makes the individual respectable with the principle of participation in decisions and the uniqueness of differences. The individual feels happy and secure. This increases the individual's job satisfaction, commitment to the organization, job performance, and well-being.

The benefits of an inclusive workplace can be expressed as follows:

- It increases employee satisfaction, reducing turnover intention and employee turnover rate.
- Issues such as employee participation in decisions and equal treatment increase job satisfaction.
- It increases intra-group cooperation, harmony, and accord.
- The value given to the individual increases the individual's sense of belonging, which positively affects organizational commitment.
- It has an enhancing effect on employee productivity and performance.
- An increase in the number of employees exhibiting organizational citizenship behavior is observed.

- It harmonizes leader-employee relationships.
- It enables the leader to gain positive characteristics such as being more paternal, understanding their employees, listening, being helpful, and using the consultation method in decisions.
- It also helps the organization gain an image of a respectable institution that protects its employees and cares about social responsibility in the external environment.
- It ensures the possession of quality human resources.

1.2.3. Importance of Workplace Inclusion

The concept of workplace inclusion has been one of the topics that have been emphasized in recent years, especially in foreign literature. Although workplace inclusion is a new concept in the literature, it is a concept that attracts interest worldwide (Shore et al., 2018). In this context, Workplace Inclusion is one of the topics adopted and considered important by the Academy of Management (AOM), one of the important organizations in the field of business management. As a matter of fact, the topic of the 79th Annual Meeting organized by AOM in Boston-USA in August 2019 was determined as "Understanding the Inclusive Organization".

It will be necessary to understand the importance of the concept of inclusiveness at the macro level first. Inclusive economic and political organizations (state organs or private enterprises) are institutions that enable and even encourage the entire society to take part in economic life so that individuals can use their talents and skills and make choices freely. For a state to be inclusive, it needs guaranteed individual rights, an impartial legal system, and public services that provide equal conditions where everyone can move freely. Inclusive economic organizations increase profitability and productivity in the economy and promote economic welfare at the macro level (Acemoğlu & Robinson, 2023). Individuals who feel secure in their economic life, can make and implement decisions freely, and are sure that their economic rights will not be taken away will be encouraged and motivated to make investment decisions. Inclusive economic state organs create inclusive markets that provide individuals with the freedom to work in the most suitable business areas according to their abilities and offer equal conditions for them to work. Inclusive organizations are also a driving force in the equal distribution of this welfare, as well as the effect of increasing economic welfare. Because equal rights given to the general public constitute social justice. Inclusive economic organizations

also promote technology and education, which are two elements that increase welfare. Sustainable growth is only possible with technological development. However, technology alone is not enough. There is a need for individuals who know how to use the technology or who create that technology. Without these individuals, all technologies will become useless (Acemoğlu & Robinson, 2023). Ultimately, the key point is human. It is only possible with inclusive organizations for people to reveal innovation and be equipped with the necessary arguments for this.

Inclusive economic organizations contain elements that are vital for sustainable growth, such as encouraging technological innovations, benefiting from inclusive practices of markets, and mobilizing the talents and experiences of many individuals throughout society (Acemoğlu & Robinson, 2023).

When we evaluate inclusiveness at the micro level, as a result of the migrations that occurred with the increase in international mobility and the cosmopolitan structure formed in the population structures of countries, organizations have also acquired human resources consisting of different races and cultures and gained a multinational character. Due to the increasing competitive conditions with globalization, organizations have started to engage in production and commercial activities outside their own countries. The disappearance of market boundaries has forced organizations trying to meet the needs of different customer groups to employ a workforce with different qualities. With workforce differences, it has been accepted that human resources management is a new and fundamental problem that should be given importance in organizations. The problem of how to manage these differences has become important for organizations in order for employees with different races, religions, languages, cultures, genders, abilities, experiences, etc. to be more effective and efficient (Kevser, 2019).

Workplace inclusion is a concept that brings a different perspective to the notion of diversity management and is considered important in the literature. Diversity management is an approach that seeks to find solutions to various problems arising from people's differences at the individual, organizational, and societal levels, believing that all people should have equal opportunities and that everyone's differences should be respected (Sürgevil & Budak, 2008). Workplace inclusion, on the other hand, helps organizations meet the needs of their diverse employees and gain competitive advantage (Roberson, 2006). Workplace inclusion not only

manages differences but also encourages them and views differences as an element that ensures sustainable growth for the organization.

When inclusiveness is emphasized in terms of organizational culture in a workplace, discrimination among employees is partially eliminated. Research is needed on the determinants of inclusive workplaces. This is because workplace inclusion practices have positive effects on organizational outcomes as employees recognize their unique characteristics, feel appreciated, and feel like valuable parts of the organization (Shore et al., 2010).

Workplace inclusion is one of the important concepts in creating workplaces where resources are used effectively in today's job market, where employees with different qualities are employed. Inclusive behaviors are important because they contribute to individuals' needs for belonging and self-actualization, which are among their most important needs (Traavik, 2018). The principles of inclusiveness and equality are very important for organizations to achieve their goals in today's labor market where differences are increasing (Sposato et al., 2015). When employees feel inclusion practices in the work environment, it increases their job satisfaction and reduces their tendency to leave the job (Brimhall, 2014).

In workplace inclusion, access to information, participation in decision-making processes (Mor Barak & Cherin, 1998; Nishii, 2010), conflict management, and combating discrimination are very important for organizations (Panicker, 2018). Measures should be taken to enable employees to access information equally from both internal and external sources for the effective execution of organizational activities. Since employees participating in decision-making processes will act with a greater sense of responsibility, they are expected to show more effort in achieving the success of decisions.

According to Miller & Monge (1986), when organization members perceive a participatory climate, outcomes such as participation in the decision-making process, job satisfaction, and productivity are positively affected by this situation. While conflict is seen as a dangerous situation that should be avoided for the organization in the Classical Management Approach, according to the Modern Management Approach, conflict within the organization is inevitable, and it is very important for managers to manage these conflicts well in terms of organizational performance. The successful implementation of conflict management practices is considered an important inclusiveness practice. Since it is an important element for employees to feel

belonging to the organization in the fight against discrimination, the sense of belonging is also a dimension that ranks high in the practice of inclusiveness. Since equal treatment of employees is essential in inclusive climates, inclusiveness is a management style without discrimination.

In inclusive organizations and societies, people from different cultures can be fully themselves while also contributing more to the organization as valuable and full members (Ferdman, 2017). This can be considered as an element that creates significant value, especially for organizations that employ staff from different cultures. In an organizational environment where differences are seen as richness, employees with different individual experiences and abilities are expected to contribute more to the organization's activities. When this diversity is well managed, it will return as added value to the organization and bring positive features such as employee satisfaction, loyalty, and belonging to the organization.

1.2.4. Differences Between Workplace Inclusion and Diversity Management

Many researchers who have been working on diversity management in recent years (e.g., Linnehan & Kondrad, 1999; Roberson, 2006) state that there is a shift in the literature from the concept of "diversity" to "inclusion." In today's job market, where competition has increased and transportation opportunities have greatly improved for organizations operating in a global market, it is no longer sufficient for organizations to simply employ workers with different characteristics in harmony. Additionally, a significant portion of organizations are trying to benefit from the different personal characteristics of employees. Today, organizations are trying to match their employees with quite different external customer groups in terms of their characteristic features.

According to Janssens & Zanoni (2014), diversity management and inclusion promote equality through organizational practices that expand norms and offer less hierarchical positions. Both approaches create a management understanding that spreads to the base by reducing hierarchy and the sharpness of the management prism.

While diversity management primarily refers to the underlying differences in the demographic composition of groups or organizations, inclusion refers to increasing the participation of all employees and leveraging the effects of diversity on the organization (Roberson, 2006). While diversity management aims to organize differences among existing employees in a way that

does not disrupt the organization's functioning, inclusion goes a step further with the idea of how these differences will create positive contributions to the organization's work outputs. In fact, inclusion desires the employment of diverse employees, especially in recruitment.

According to Nishii (2013), while the focus of diversity management is on justice and equality in policies, inclusion involves participation and learning from others. This allows each individual in businesses to add value to the organization with their personal knowledge and experience, and enables organization members to benefit from the accumulation of people from different cultures. Ferdman (2013) states that differences are expected in organizations, while inclusion refers to organizations understanding and valuing these differences and using them for the benefit of the organization. Differences can even be a necessity for the organization. What matters is to see these differences as a value and to use their unique abilities for the benefit of the organization. While diversity alone does not yield positive results for organizations, effective management of these differences can be beneficial for the organization, employees, and stakeholders.

Diversity management may not always produce positive results for organizations. Jackson & Joshi (2011) and Mannix & Neale (2005) have found that diversity management studies sometimes have negative consequences such as low commitment, low performance, increased conflicts, and turnover. In such cases, it becomes important to focus on inclusive practices to improve employee performance, resolve conflicts, and prevent turnover.

According to Wetling & Palma-Rivas (2000), inclusion is related to diversity management. Indeed, Guillory & Guillory (2004) stated that organizational inclusive practices are generally about removing barriers between employees or creating opportunities for different members. Inclusion is a concept that encompasses diversity management. Diversity management alone is not sufficient to improve organizational outputs and create employee satisfaction. A fair and equal management style is sometimes not enough for employee satisfaction. It is also necessary to demonstrate that employees are valuable with their differences and that creative ideas are important for organizations. Inclusion is a concept that can achieve this. While diversity management primarily refers to demographic differences, inclusion refers to creating environments where employees' unique contributions to the organization are appreciated and their full participation is encouraged (Mor Barak, 2015).

The most striking distinction between workplace inclusion and diversity management is that diversity management can be made mandatory and legalized, while inclusion stems from voluntary actions (Winters, 2014). Many countries have tried to prevent discrimination against individuals due to their personal characteristics through laws. While organizations could discriminate among their employees by focusing on their differences for various reasons, legal barriers protect employees against such situations. On the other hand, inclusion activities are not a legal obligation and primarily consist of activities aimed at increasing employees' sense of belonging and commitment with the support of top management.

While diversity management practices mainly focus on bringing women, employees from different ethnic backgrounds, and other marginalized group members to the workplace, inclusion practices focus on creating equal access to decision-making, resources, and upward mobility opportunities for individuals (Shore et al., 2018).

1.3. Organizational Commitment

In the realm of management and behavioral sciences, organizational commitment is viewed as the cornerstone of the employee-organization relationship. It represents the degree to which an individual aligns with and engages in their specific workplace. Essentially, it's the psychological connection linking an employee to their organization, encompassing elements such as workplace engagement, allegiance, and alignment with organizational principles (Meyer et al., 2002). The concept of organizational commitment is a topic that receives considerable interest in academic research. The reason for this is that organizational commitment encourages positive attitudes and behaviors for organizations to ensure their continuity. Employees with high organizational commitment; integrate their own goals with organizational goals, identify themselves with the organization they work for, use their knowledge and skills for the organization, contribute to reducing employee turnover rate, and help increase organizational effectiveness. Studies in the literature have emphasized that organizational commitment is related to outcomes that have important consequences for the organization such as employee turnover rate, organizational citizenship behavior, intention to leave, job search, absenteeism, and job performance (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003; Cohen, 2006).

1.3.1. The Concept of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been one of the most studied topics in workplace research. When employees' job satisfaction is low, organizational commitment decreases, and the search for alternative opportunities to leave their current jobs increases. If alternative opportunities are not available, employees may emotionally or mentally withdraw from the organization. Therefore, organizational commitment is considered an important attitude in increasing employees' contribution to the organization. Organizational commitment is an issue that both the employee and the employer need to work on to achieve a better working environment for the organization. By ensuring organizational commitment, employees' attitudes towards work and the organization can be improved. Organizational commitment gradually develops as employees analyze the nature, culture, environment, and standards of the organization. It is an important element in establishing the employee's connection with the organizational environment. In short, organizational commitment is defined as an important attitude that demonstrates an employee's recognition of the organization, involvement in its activities, and loyalty.

Organizational commitment, as conceptualized by Mowday et al. (1979), represents the extent to which an individual connects with and participates in their specific workplace. This notion encompasses an employee's bond with their organization and their alignment with its core principles and objectives. Initial research on this topic approached it from a unidimensional attitudinal standpoint, incorporating elements such as affiliation, engagement, and fidelity (Porter et al., 1974). The attitudinal perspective, as described by Porter et al. (1974), refers to the emotional/psychological connection an employee develops through their association with and immersion in the organization. Porter et al. (1974) further elaborated on organizational commitment as "marked by a desire to maintain organizational membership; embracing the organization's ethos and aspirations; and a readiness to go above and beyond for the organization." Employees gauge their level of organizational commitment by assessing how well their personal values and goals harmonize with those of their employer. Consequently, this congruence between individual and organizational values and goals is deemed to constitute organizational commitment.

The evolution of organizational commitment as a concept can be traced through three distinct phases. The inaugural phase is marked by Becker's (1960) introduction of the side-bet theory,

a pioneering effort to construct a holistic theoretical framework for understanding the loyalty bond between workers and their employers. This theory posits that devoted employees remain faithful to their organization due to accumulated, often imperceptible investments or "side bets" they've made by continuing their employment. Becker (1960) coined the term "side bets" to encompass all personal investments an employee would forfeit upon leaving their position. He argued that as time progresses, these investments compound, creating an increasingly powerful deterrent against departure. The potential loss of these accrued benefits, coupled with a perceived scarcity of comparable alternatives, effectively tethers the individual to their current organization. Becker's (1960) perspective implies a strong correlation between organizational commitment and employee retention. This proposed link between commitment and turnover has been a central theme in subsequent research on organizational commitment. Within the field of organizational behavior, employee turnover is widely recognized as a significant outcome of organizational commitment levels.

The second era in organizational commitment research was ushered in by Porter et al. (1974), who shifted the focus to an individual's psychological bond with their workplace. This attitudinal perspective aimed to conceptualize organizational commitment as a distinct mindset, differentiating it from related concepts such as behavioral intentions. Porter et al. (1974) characterized organizational commitment as the comparative intensity of an employee's identification with and engagement in their specific organization. Exchange theory serves as the cornerstone for elucidating the commitment process. Scholars have positioned organizational commitment as a parallel construct to job satisfaction, proposing that it may sometimes serve as a superior predictor of employee turnover. In this framework, organizational commitment is delineated by three interconnected elements: firstly, a profound acceptance of and belief in the organization's objectives and principles; secondly, a readiness to invest substantial effort for the organization's benefit; and thirdly, a strong inclination to preserve organizational membership. Although this approach introduces a fresh perspective on organizational commitment, it maintains an emphasis on the robust link between commitment and employee retention (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

The third phase in organizational commitment research was spearheaded by O'Reilly & Chatman (1986) and Meyer & Allen (1984), who introduced a multidimensional approach. O'Reilly & Chatman (1986) conceptualized organizational commitment as the employee's

psychological connection to their workplace, reflecting the extent to which they assimilate or embrace the organization's attributes or objectives. They proposed that an employee's psychological attachment could be predicted by three distinct factors: firstly, the employee's adherence to organizational norms for specific external benefits or self-interested participation; secondly, the employee's identification or involvement with the organization rooted in a sense of allegiance; and thirdly, internalization or engagement based on the congruence between personal and organizational values. O'Reilly & Chatman (1986) framed commitment within two fundamental dimensions: transactional exchange and psychological attachment. The compliance dimension, representing the exchange process, results in a superficial connection to the organization. They posited that the other two dimensions, characterized by stronger bonds, identification, and internalization, embody psychological attachment. Allen & Meyer (1990) expanded on this by proposing a three-component model of commitment, suggesting that organizational commitment manifests in three distinct forms: affective attachment, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization, and employees' sense of moral obligation to remain with the organization.

1.3.2. Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

The three-dimensional conceptualization of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990) has emerged as the most widely embraced framework in studies focusing on this field.

1.3.2.1. Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is characterized as an individual's emotional bond with, engagement in, and sense of belonging to their organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Employees who exhibit strong affective commitment choose to remain with their organization due to their own emotional connection (Allen & Meyer, 1991). When workers feel emotionally tied to their workplace, they demonstrate a greater inclination to stay, perceiving their personal aspirations and professional relationships as congruent with the organization's principles and objectives (Beck & Wilson, 2000). Morrow (1993) conceptualized affective commitment as a work-related attitude encompassing positive sentiments towards the organization, describing it as an orientation that intertwines the individual's identity with that of the organization. Similarly, Mowday et al. (1982) defined affective commitment in terms of the comparative intensity of an

individual's identification with and involvement in their organization, emphasizing the deep-rooted nature of this type of organizational attachment.

The intensity of affective commitment grows as the alignment between employees' expectations and needs regarding the organization aligns more closely with their actual experiences. Affective commitment can be described as "organizational loyalty rooted in value rationality, reflecting the degree of congruence between an organizational member's values and those of the organization." According to Meyer & Allen's (1997) organizational commitment framework, affective commitment is shaped by various factors, including job complexity, role and goal clarity, goal difficulty, management responsiveness, peer solidarity, fairness, personal significance, feedback, involvement, and reliability. To foster affective commitment, employees must identify with the organization and assimilate its objectives and practices (Beck & Wilson, 2000). The development of employees' affective commitment to their organizations typically begins with a desire to establish a mutually beneficial relationship and identification with the organization. This commitment then evolves through internalization as individuals and the organization come to share compatible goals and values. In essence, affective commitment represents the extent to which employees feel a sense of unity with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Affective commitment deals with three main factors in the relationship between the employee and the organization. First, the employee develops psychological closeness to the organization; second, the relationship between the employee and the organization; and third, the employee's desire to remain a member of the organization. Individuals tend to associate themselves with the organization's goals by developing emotional closeness to an organization and exert effort in achieving these goals. When employees' values align with the organization's values, they identify more easily with the organization. This situation facilitates employees' adoption of the organization's values and goals. In this context, affective commitment has been addressed in many studies in workplace research, and its relationship with organizational outcomes such as absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and job performance has been expressed (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

1.3.2.2. Continuance Commitment

Meyer & Allen (1997) define continuance commitment as "awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization." It inherently has a self-interested approach due to employees' perception or measurement of the costs and risks that would arise from leaving their current organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Allen & Meyer (1991) stated that employees whose primary bond with their organizations is based on continuance commitment continue to work in their organizations because they need to. Continuance commitment is an instrumental (benefit/cost) commitment based on the evaluation of economic benefits obtained in the relationship between employees and the organization (Beck & Wilson, 2000). Organizational employees remain committed to the organization due to positive material rewards they obtain through negotiation, without needing to identify with the organization's goals and values.

The strength of continuance commitment, which represents employees' need to stay in the organization, is determined by the costs employees would have to bear if they leave the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Therefore, continuance commitment is expected to be high in situations where there are few possible job alternatives and the employee's investments in the organization are high. Accordingly, it can be said that leaving the organization would be easier if better alternatives are available for employees. Investments made by employees in their organizations and weak employment alternatives force employees to stay in the organization, and employees remain committed to their organizations because they need to. Employees with continuance commitment may want to stay in their organizations in case of leaving due to organization-specific skills, retirement-related plans, severance pay, or other investments they might lose.

In continuance commitment, employees staying in the organization represents the benefit obtained from continued employment, while leaving the organization represents a cost. The concept of continuance commitment is described as an exchange framework where performance and loyalty are offered in return for material benefits and rewards, referring to the concept of profit. Therefore, to retain employees with continuance commitment, the organization needs to pay more attention to and recognize elements that elevate the employee's morale to emotional commitment.

1.3.2.3. Normative Commitment

Normative commitment is defined as the feeling employees have about their obligation to continue working (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organizational employees internalize normative duty and obligation beliefs, feeling obligated to continue their organizational membership (Allen & Meyer, 1990). According to Allen & Meyer (1991), employees with normative commitment feel they should stay in the organization. In terms of normative commitment, employees continue their organizational membership because they view it as the right behavior to maintain. In normative commitment, organization members feel committed to the organization based on moral reasons (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). Employees with normative commitment consider staying in the organization as the morally right option, regardless of how much status improvement or satisfaction the organization provides them.

The level of normative commitment is influenced by perceived rules about mutual obligations between the organization and employees (Suliman & Iles, 2000). Mutual obligations are primarily addressed in social exchange theory; according to this theory, it is assumed that a person receiving help will be under a strong normative obligation to repay this benefit. For example, we can talk about normative commitment when employees feel obligated to repay the organization for investments made in them, such as training and career development opportunities. It can be said that such moral obligations are influenced by the socialization process within society or the organization. In short, we can express that normative commitment is based on the norm of reciprocity. In other words, when an employee receives a benefit from the organization, they incur an obligation to show commitment to the organization in return.

Meyer et al. (1993) emphasized that these three types of commitment represent a psychological state that defines the relationship between employees and the organization, determining whether the employee will stay in the organization. Meyer et al. (1993) stated that employees with strong affective commitment will continue their organizational membership because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they have to, and those with strong normative commitment because they think they ought to. Meyer & Allen (1997) defined an employee with organizational commitment as "one who stays with an organization, attends work regularly, puts in a full day and more, protects corporate assets, and believes in the organizational goals." This employee makes a positive contribution to the organization due to their commitment to it.

Allen & Meyer (1991), while explaining the three-dimensional organizational commitment model, stated that affective, continuance, and normative commitment do not have boundaries that can be definitively separated from each other, and that employees can have different levels of these three commitment dimensions. For example, an employee may have both strong affective commitment to the organization and continuance commitment, which is expressed as the necessity to stay in the organization. Another employee may enjoy working for the organization but also acknowledge that leaving would be economically very difficult. Yet another employee may simultaneously feel a great desire, need, and obligation to stay in the current organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Although the authors put forward this view, they state that it is possible to conceptually and empirically distinguish the three-dimensional commitment model.

1.4. Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development

Diversity training refers to educational programs implemented in organizations to increase employees' awareness of differences, help them move away from negative attitudes, and develop their skills in managing diversity (Eğimli, 2009). These trainings aim to create a more inclusive environment within the organization by increasing employees' sensitivity towards differences (Sanchez and Medkik, 2004).

Organizational commitment is defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1979). The three-dimensional organizational commitment model developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) consists of three different components: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. It is thought that diversity training can increase employees' commitment to the organization.

The relationship between diversity training and organizational commitment can be explained within the framework of social exchange theory (Blau, 2017). According to this theory, employees perceive the investments made by the organization (e.g., diversity training) as a positive gesture and, in return, show more commitment to the organization. Employees who receive diversity training are expected to feel valued by the organization and, as a result, increase their organizational commitment. In this context, our first hypothesis is as follows:

H₁: Diversity training positively and significantly predicts organizational commitment.

Perceived inclusiveness refers to the degree to which employees feel valued and accepted within the organization (Shore et al., 2011). An inclusive organizational culture reflects an environment where employees' differences are valued, their ideas are considered, and their participation in decisions is encouraged (Mor Barak, 2015).

The relationship between diversity training and perceived inclusiveness can be examined from the perspective of social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1979). According to this theory, individuals' perceptions of the groups they belong to affect their self-esteem and sense of identity. Diversity training can contribute to the formation of a more inclusive organizational culture by increasing employees' awareness of differences and reducing prejudices. This, in turn, can lead employees to feel more valued and accepted within the organization. Accordingly, our second hypothesis is:

H₂: Diversity training positively and significantly predicts perceived inclusiveness.

Age is thought to play a moderating role in the relationships between diversity training and organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness. Age differences can affect employees' experiences, values, and expectations (Ng and Feldman, 2010). For example, younger employees may be more open to issues of diversity and inclusiveness, while older employees may have more traditional perspectives. Therefore, the effects of diversity training may vary depending on age.

The moderating effect of age can be explained within the framework of expectancy-value theory (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002). According to this theory, individuals' motivation to participate in an activity depends on the value of that activity and their expectations of success. Employees in different age groups may perceive the value and potential benefits of diversity training differently. This, in turn, can affect the impact of training on organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness. In this context, our last two hypotheses are as follows:

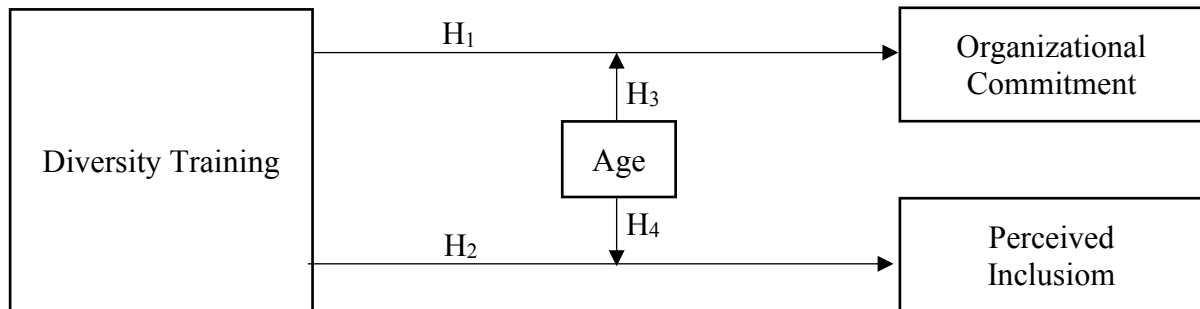
H₃: Age has a moderating role in the relationship between diversity training and organizational commitment.

H4: Age has a moderating role in the relationship between diversity training and perceived inclusiveness.

The research model developed in this context is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Research Model



CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

2.1. Research Paradigm and Design

In this study, which examines the effects of diversity training on perceived inclusiveness and employee commitment and the moderating role of age in these relationships, a quantitative research paradigm was adopted. In quantitative research based on positivism, statistical and mathematical models are used for data analysis. In other words, quantitative research is an effort to explain the relationships between variables using mathematical methods, accompanied by statistical and numerical data (Patton, 2005; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). The quantitative research paradigm, in which objective, impartial and personal interpretations are obtained, facilitates the creation of applicable insights for similar contexts (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

This research employed a descriptive cross-sectional design, which is utilized to investigate phenomena, circumstances, or variables within a specific temporal frame, with the objective of elucidating the characteristics of that particular moment or period (Bell et al., 2022). In this methodological approach, data are typically gathered at a single point in time and subsequently analyzed to comprehend the prevailing situation or relationships (Hair et al., 2019). The cross-sectional design offers advantages in terms of swift and efficient data collection when compared to longitudinal or experimental designs, which often demand more extensive time and resources (Bell et al., 2022; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Given the present time constraints and limitations in the data gathering process, the cross-sectional design was deemed the most appropriate choice for this investigation.

2.2. Participants

The sample of the study was selected among employees over the age of 18 in Turkey using the convenience sampling method. The convenience sampling method involves researchers selecting the sample group from people or sources that they can easily reach or access (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). In this study, the convenience sampling method was preferred to provide a

fast and economical data collection process within the framework of constraints such as time and cost. On the other hand, Bell et al. (2022) state that a sample of 100-200 people is sufficient for social research. A total of 212 participants were reached in this study, and it was concluded that a sufficient sample size was reached. Demographic statistics of the participants are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Demographic Statistics

Variable	Category	n	%
Age	18-24	39	18.4
	25-34	101	47.6
	35-44	41	19.3
	45-54	24	11.3
	55 and above	7	3.3
Gender	Female	99	46.7
	Male	86	40.6
	Other	14	6.6
	Prefer not to say	13	6.1
Marital status	Single	123	58.0
	Married	77	36.3
	Divorced	10	4.7
	Widowed	2	0.9
Education level	High school	3	1.4
	Associate degree	12	5.7
	Bachelor's degree	129	60.8
	Master's degree	62	29.2
	Doctorate	6	2.8
Years of experience	Less than 1 year	27	12.7
	1-5 years	94	44.3
	6-10 years	43	20.3
	11-15 years	26	12.3
	More than 15 years	22	10.4
Monthly income	Less than \$1,000	58	27.4
	\$1,000 - \$2,999	74	34.9
	\$3,000 - \$4,999	44	20.8
	\$5,000 and above	17	8.0
	Prefer not to say	19	9.0
Sector of employment	Private	172	81.1
	Public	23	10.8
	Non-profit	17	8.0
Having child	Yes	50	23.6
	No	162	76.4

As seen in Table 3, the majority of participants were in the 25-34 age range (47.6%, $n = 101$), followed by the 35-44 age range (19.3%, $n = 41$) and the 18-24 age range (18.4%, $n = 39$). Regarding gender distribution, 46.7% ($n = 99$) of the participants were female, while 40.6% ($n = 86$) were male. In terms of marital status, most participants were single (58.0%, $n = 123$), with married individuals comprising the second largest group (36.3%, $n = 77$). Examining education levels, the vast majority of participants held a bachelor's degree (60.8%, $n = 129$), followed by those with a master's degree (29.2%, $n = 62$). Regarding years of experience, 44.3% ($n = 94$) of participants had 1-5 years of experience, while 20.3% ($n = 43$) had 6-10 years of experience. In the monthly income distribution, 34.9% ($n = 74$) of participants earned between \$1,000 and \$2,999, while 27.4% ($n = 58$) earned less than \$1,000. The majority of participants worked in the private sector (81.1%, $n = 172$). Lastly, 76.4% ($n = 162$) of the participants reported not having children.

Of the participants, 53.3% ($n = 113$) reported receiving diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) training, while 46.7% ($n = 99$) indicated they had not received such training. For those who received DEI training, the average duration was 13.2 hours ($SD = 11.2$, $min = 1$, $max = 60$). Other statistics of the participants who received DEI training are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

DEI Training Statistics

	Not at all		Slightly		Moderately		Quite a bit		A great deal	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
To what extent did your training involve practical, hands-on activities?	10	8.8	18	15.9	20	17.7	24	21.2	41	36.3
Did your training include real-world scenarios or simulations?	6	5.3	23	20.4	14	12.4	24	21.2	46	40.7
How much reflection and discussion were encouraged during your training sessions?	14	12.4	16	14.2	14	12.4	19	16.8	50	44.2

Examining the training experiences of participants who received DEI training, 36.3% (n = 41) reported that their training involved practical, hands-on activities "a great deal." Additionally, regarding the inclusion of real-world scenarios or simulations in the training, 40.7% (n = 46) of participants reported that these were incorporated "a great deal." Similarly, in terms of encouragement for reflection and discussion during training sessions, 44.2% (n = 50) of participants indicated that this occurred "a great deal." These results suggest that DEI training programs generally incorporate practical elements, include real-world scenarios, and strongly encourage participant reflection and discussion.

2.3. Measures

The survey form used to collect research data includes the Socio-Demographic Information Form, the Organizational Commitment Scale and the Inclusivity Scale.

The Socio-Demographic Information Form used in the study was developed by the researcher. The form consists of 15 questions aimed at determining the basic demographic characteristics of the participants and their diversity training experiences. This form includes basic demographic information such as age, gender, marital status, education level, job title, years of experience, monthly income, sector of employment and having children. In addition, the form includes questions about the status of receiving diversity, equality and inclusion (DEI) training, the duration and quality of the training received.

The Organizational Commitment Scale was developed by Meyer et al. (1993). The scale, which includes a total of 15 items, includes three dimensions namely affective commitment (items 1-5), continuance commitment (items 6-10) and normative commitment (items 11-15). The scale is a five-point Likert-type scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Strongly Agree). The scale includes two reverse-coded items (items 2 and 3). The mean scores obtained from the scale and dimensions reflect the participant's relevant organizational commitment level. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of the scale were reported as 0.83 for the affective commitment dimension, 0.82 for the continuance commitment dimension, and 0.76 for the normative commitment dimension (Meyer et al., 1993).

The Inclusion Scale was developed by Chung et al. (2020). The scale, which has a total of 10 items, includes two dimensions namely belongingness (items 1-5) and uniqueness (items 6-10).

The scale is a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). The average scores obtained from the scale reflect the level of perceived inclusiveness. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of the scale were reported as 0.88 for the belongingness dimension and 0.83 for the uniqueness dimension (Chung et al., 2020).

The reliability analysis results of the scales used in collecting research data are shown in Table 5. It was determined that all scales had Cronbach Alpha values over 0.80. These results show that the scales have high internal consistency.

Table 5

Reliability Analysis Results

Scale	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Organizational Commitment	15	.917
Affective Commitment	5	.886
Continuance Commitment	5	.829
Normative Commitment	5	.876
Perceived Inclusion	10	.976
Belongingness	5	.958
Uniqueness	5	.975

2.4. Data Collection Procedure

The data for the study was collected from volunteer participants over a one-month period between August 15 and September 15, 2024. An online questionnaire form prepared in Google Forms was used to collect the research data. The invitation to participate in the survey was sent to the participants via various platforms such as social media, e-mail and WhatsApp. It took approximately 10 minutes to complete the survey form. This data collection process was preferred because it allows data to be collected quickly, reliably and with minimal loss compared to the traditional paper-and-pencil format.

2.5. Analysis Method

SPSS v26 software was used in the analyses conducted in the study. Frequency analysis was performed to reveal the demographic statistics of the participants. Cronbach alpha coefficients

were analyzed to evaluate the reliability of the scales used in the study. Skewness and kurtosis values were examined to evaluate whether the data fit the normal distribution. Analysis results are presented in Table 6. As the results of the analysis showed that the skewness and kurtosis coefficients were within the range of ± 3 , it was accepted that the data fit the normal distribution (Kline, 2008) and parametric analysis techniques were preferred in the study.

Table 6

Normality Analysis Results

Varianle	Skewness	Kurtosis
DEI Training	-.133	-2.001
Organizational Commitment	-.357	-.558
Affective Commitment	-.513	-.508
Continuance Commitment	-.229	-.397
Normative Commitment	-.205	-.841
Perceived Inclusion	-.903	.117
Belongingness	-.816	-.026
Uniqueness	-.920	-.068

Pearson correlation analysis was performed to examine the linear relationships between the research variables. Analysis results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Pearson Correlation Analysis Results

Varianle								
(1) DEI Training	1							
(2) Organizational Commitment	.487**	1						
(2.1) Affective Commitment	.469**	.832**	1					
(2.2) Continuance Commitment	.323**	.766**	.364**	1				
(2.3) Normative Commitment	.435**	.925**	.721**	.598**	1			
(3) Perceived Inclusion	.537**	.703**	.676**	.438**	.652**	1		
(3.1) Belongingness	.517**	.719**	.689**	.445**	.673**	.965**	1	
(3.2) Uniqueness	.521**	.642**	.620**	.403**	.591**	.969**	.870**	1

Note. DEI Training: 0 = Did not receive, 1 = Received

**p < .01

Receiving DEI training showed a moderate positive correlation with organizational commitment ($r = .487, p < .01$). Significant relationships were also found between receiving DEI training and the subdimensions of organizational commitment, namely affective commitment ($r = .469, p < .01$), continuance commitment ($r = .323, p < .01$), and normative commitment ($r = .435, p < .01$).

Similarly, a moderate positive correlation was found between receiving DEI training and perceived inclusion ($r = .537, p < .01$). Significant relationships were also observed with the subdimensions of perceived inclusion, namely belongingness ($r = .517, p < .01$) and uniqueness ($r = .521, p < .01$).

On the other hand, a strong positive correlation was found between organizational commitment and perceived inclusion ($r = .703, p < .01$). The relationships between the subdimensions of organizational commitment and the subdimensions of perceived inclusion also ranged from .403 to .719, all being significant and positive.

These results indicate that receiving DEI training is positively associated with both organizational commitment and perceived inclusion, and that these two variables also have a strong relationship with each other. In addition, these results show that the linearity assumption is met.

Finally, within the scope of hypothesis testing, Hayes Process Macro Model 1 was used. This model investigates whether the linear effect of predictor X on outcome variable Y is linearly affected by a moderator W (Hayes, 2017).

2.6. Ethical Issues

This research was conducted entirely on a voluntary basis. The purpose and scope of the research were thoroughly explained to all potential participants. It was emphasized that participation was voluntary and participants could withdraw at any time without consequence.

The researchers ensured strict confidentiality and privacy of all participants. It was clearly stated that all data collected would be kept confidential and used solely for research purposes. To protect anonymity, no personal identification information was requested or collected throughout the study.

All participants were provided with an informed consent form, outlining the nature of the research and measures taken to protect their privacy. After carefully reading and understanding this information, participants made an informed voluntary participation declaration.

CHAPTER 3

FINDINGS

3.1. Predictive Effect of DEI Training on Organizational Commitment

A simple linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the predictive effects of DEI training on organizational commitment. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 8. The results indicated that diversity training significantly and positively predicted organizational commitment ($\beta = .487$, $t = 8.091$, $p < .001$). The model was statistically significant ($F(1, 210) = 65.464$, $p < .001$) and accounted for 23.8% of the variance in organizational commitment ($R^2 = .238$). These findings suggest that employees who received diversity training demonstrated higher levels of organizational commitment.

Table 8

Predictive Effect of DEI Training on Organizational Commitment

Independent Variable	Coefficients			Model	
	β	t	p	F	R^2
DEI Training	.487	8.091	.000	65.464**	.238

Note. DEI Training (0 = Did not receive, 1 = Received), Dependent Variable = Organizational Commitment
** $p < .01$

In order to reach more detailed results, simple linear regression analyses were conducted separately for each dimension to examine the effects of DEI training on organizational commitment dimensions. The results of the analysis are combined and presented in Table 9. Results indicated that DEI training had a significant and positive effect on affective commitment ($\beta = .469$, $t = 7.695$, $p < .001$). The model was statistically significant ($F(1, 210) = 59.217$, $p < .001$) and accounted for 22% of the variance in affective commitment ($R^2 = .220$). Similarly, DEI training also significantly and positively predicted continuance commitment ($\beta = .323$, $t = 4.953$, $p < .001$). The model was statistically significant ($F(1, 210) = 24.536$, $p < .001$) and explained 10.5% of the variance in continuance commitment ($R^2 = .105$). Lastly, DEI training was found to have a significant and positive effect on normative commitment ($\beta = .435$, $t = 7.003$, $p < .001$). The model was statistically significant ($F(1, 210) = 49.045$, $p < .001$) and

accounted for 18.9% of the variance in normative commitment ($R^2 = .189$). These findings suggest that DEI training positively influences all dimensions of organizational commitment, with the strongest effect on affective commitment.

Table 9

Predictive Effects of DEI Training on Organizational Commitment Dimensions

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Coefficients			Model	
		β	t	p	F	R^2
DEI Training	Affective Commitment	.469	7.695	.000	59.217**	.220
DEI Training	Continuance Commitment	.323	4.953	.000	24.536**	.105
DEI Training	Normative Commitment	.435	7.003	.000	49.045**	.189

Note. DEI Training (0 = Did not receive, 1 = Received)

**p < .01

According to these results, H₁ hypothesis of the study was supported.

3.2. Predictive Effect of DEI Training on Perceived Inclusion

A simple linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the predictive effects of DEI training on perceived inclusion. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 10. The results indicated that diversity training significantly and positively predicted perceived inclusion ($\beta = .537$, $t = 9.219$, $p < .001$). The model was statistically significant ($F(1, 210) = 84.983$, $p < .001$) and accounted for 28.8% of the variance in perceived inclusion ($R^2 = .238$). These findings suggest that employees who received diversity training demonstrated higher levels of perceived inclusion.

Table 10

Predictive Effect of DEI Training on Perceived Inclusion

Independent Variable	Coefficients			Model	
	β	t	p	F	R^2
DEI Training	.537	9.219	.000	84.983**	.288

Note. DEI Training (0 = Did not receive, 1 = Received), Dependent Variable = Perceived Inclusion

**p < .01

In order to reach more detailed results, simple linear regression analyses were conducted separately for each dimension to examine the effects of DEI training on perceived inclusion

dimensions. The results of the analysis are combined and presented in Table 11. Results indicated that DEI training had a significant and positive effect on belongingness ($\beta = .517$, $t = 8.745$, $p < .001$). The model was statistically significant ($F(1, 210) = 76.471$, $p < .001$) and accounted for 26.7% of the variance in belongingness ($R^2 = .267$). Similarly, DEI training also significantly and positively predicted uniqueness ($\beta = .521$, $t = 8.852$, $p < .001$). The model was statistically significant ($F(1, 210) = 78.355$, $p < .001$) and explained 27.2% of the variance in uniqueness ($R^2 = .272$). These findings suggest that DEI training positively influences all dimensions of perceived inclusion, with a slightly stronger effect on uniqueness.

Table 11

Predictive Effects of DEI Training on Perceived Inclusion Dimensions

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Coefficients			Model	
		β	t	p	F	R^2
DEI Training	Belongingness	.517	8.745	.000	76.471**	.267
DEI Training	Uniqueness	.521	8.852	.000	78.355**	.272

Note. DEI Training (0 = Did not receive, 1 = Received)

** $p < .01$

According to these results, H_2 hypothesis of the study was supported.

3.3. Moderating Role of Age in the Relationship between DEI Training and Organizational Commitment

A moderation analysis using Hayes Process Macro Model 1 was conducted to examine the moderating role of age in the relationship between DEI training and organizational commitment. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 12. The results indicated that the model was statistically significant ($F = 29.152$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .296$). DEI training was found to have a significant and positive effect on organizational commitment ($b = 1.292$, $SE = .257$, 95% CI [.785, 1.798], $p < .001$). Age also had a significant and positive effect on organizational commitment ($b = .292$, $SE = .074$, 95% CI [.146, .438], $p < .001$). Importantly, the interaction term between DEI training and age was statistically significant ($b = -.202$, $SE = .101$, 95% CI [-.402, -.002], $p = .047$). This result indicates that age moderates the relationship between DEI training and organizational commitment. The negative interaction coefficient suggests that the

positive effect of DEI training on organizational commitment decreases as employees' age increases. According to these results, H₃ hypothesis of the study was supported.

Table 12

Moderating Role of Age for Organizational Commitment

Independent Variable	Coefficients				Model		
	Estimate	SE	95% CI		p	F	R ²
			LL	UL			
DEI Training (X)	1.292	.257	.785	1.798	.000	29.152**	.296
Age (M)	.292	.074	.146	.438	.000		
Interaction (X * M)	-.202	.101	-.402	-.002	.047		

Note. DEI Training (0 = Did not receive, 1 = Received), CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit, Dependent Variable = Organizational Commitment

**p < .01

In order to reach more detailed results, a separate analysis was conducted for each dimension to examine the moderating role of age in the relationship between DEI training and organizational commitment dimensions. The results of the analysis are combined and presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Moderating Role of Age for Organizational Commitment Dimensions

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Coefficients				Model		
		Estimate	SE	95% CI		p	F	R ²
				LL	UL			
DEI Training (X)	Affective	1.408	.313	.792	2.025	.000	24.793**	.263
Age (M)	Commitment	.297	.090	.120	.475	.001		
Interaction (X * M)		-.200	.123	-.443	.044	.107		
DEI Training (X)	Continuance	1.024	.321	.390	1.658	.002	9.356**	.119
Age (M)	Commitment	.170	.092	-.013	.352	.068		
Interaction (X * M)		-.174	.127	-.424	.076	.172		
DEI Training (X)	Normative	1.443	.327	.799	2.087	.000	25.573**	.269
Age (M)	Commitment	.408	.094	.223	.593	.000		
Interaction (X * M)		-.223	.129	-.487	.021	.072		

Note. DEI Training (0 = Did not receive, 1 = Received), CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit

**p < .01

For affective commitment, the model was statistically significant ($F = 24.793$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .263$). DEI training ($b = 1.408$, $SE = .313$, 95% CI [.792, 2.025], $p < .001$) and age ($b = .297$, $SE = .090$, 95% CI [.120, .475], $p = .001$) had significant positive effects on affective commitment. However, the interaction term was not statistically significant ($b = -.200$, $SE = .123$, 95% CI [-.443, .044], $p = .107$).

For continuance commitment, the model was significant ($F = 9.356$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .119$). DEI training had a significant positive effect on continuance commitment ($b = 1.024$, $SE = .321$, 95% CI [.390, 1.658], $p = .002$). The effect of age ($b = .170$, $SE = .092$, 95% CI [-.013, .352], $p = .068$) and the interaction term ($b = -.174$, $SE = .127$, 95% CI [-.424, .076], $p = .172$) were not statistically significant.

For normative commitment, the model was significant ($F = 25.573$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .269$). DEI training ($b = 1.443$, $SE = .327$, 95% CI [.799, 2.087], $p < .001$) and age ($b = .408$, $SE = .094$, 95% CI [.223, .593], $p < .001$) had significant positive effects on normative commitment. However, the interaction term was not statistically significant ($b = -.223$, $SE = .129$, 95% CI [-.487, .021], $p = .072$).

These results suggest that age does not have a significant moderating effect on the relationships between DEI training and the dimensions of organizational commitment.

3.4. Moderating Role of Age in the Relationship between DEI Training and Perceived Inclusion

A moderation analysis using Hayes Process Macro Model 1 was conducted to examine the moderating role of age in the relationship between DEI training and perceived inclusion. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 14. The results indicated that the model was statistically significant ($F = 34.205$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .330$). DEI training was found to have a significant and positive effect on perceived inclusion ($b = 1.538$, $SE = .320$, 95% CI [.907, 2.169], $p < .001$). Similarly, age also had a significant and positive effect on perceived inclusion ($b = .299$, $SE = .092$, 95% CI [.118, .481], $p = .001$). However, the interaction term between DEI training and age was not statistically significant ($b = -.161$, $SE = .126$, 95% CI [-.410, .088], $p = .203$). This result indicates that age does not have a significant moderating role in the

relationship between DEI training and perceived inclusion. According to these results, H4 hypothesis of the study could not be supported.

Table 14

Moderating Role of Age for Perceived Inclusion

Independent Variable	Coefficients				Model		
	Estimate	SE	95% CI		p	F	R ²
			LL	UL			
DEI Training (X)	1.538	.320	.907	2.169	.000	34.205**	.330
Age (M)	.299	.092	.118	.481	.001		
Interaction (X * M)	-.161	.126	-.410	.088	.203		

Note. DEI Training (0 = Did not receive, 1 = Received), CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit, Dependent Variable = Organizational Commitment

**p < .01

In order to reach more detailed results, a separate analysis was conducted for each dimension to examine the moderating role of age in the relationship between DEI training and perceived inclusion dimensions. The results of the analysis are combined and presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Moderating Role of Age for Perceived Inclusion Dimensions

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Coefficients				Model		
		Estimate	SE	95% CI		p	F	R ²
				LL	UL			
DEI Training (X)	Belongingness	1.495	.326	.853	2.137	.000	32.224**	.317
Age (M)		.323	.094	.139	.508	.001		
Interaction (X * M)		-.160	.129	-.414	.093	.214		
DEI Training (X)	Uniqueness	1.581	.346	.898	2.263	.000	30.038**	.302
Age (M)		.276	.100	.079	.472	.006		
Interaction (X * M)		-.163	.137	-.432	.107	.236		

Note. DEI Training (0 = Did not receive, 1 = Received), CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit

**p < .01

For the belongingness dimension, the model was statistically significant (F = 32.224, p < .01, R² = .317). DEI training (b = 1.495, SE = .326, 95% CI [.853, 2.137], p < .001) and age (b =

.323, SE = .094, 95% CI [.139, .508], $p = .001$) had significant positive effects on belongingness. However, the interaction term was not statistically significant ($b = -.160$, SE = .129, 95% CI [-.414, .093], $p = .214$).

For the uniqueness dimension, the model was significant ($F = 30.038$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .302$). DEI training ($b = 1.581$, SE = .346, 95% CI [.898, 2.263], $p < .001$) and age ($b = .276$, SE = .100, 95% CI [.079, .472], $p = .006$) had significant positive effects on uniqueness. The interaction term was not statistically significant ($b = -.163$, SE = .137, 95% CI [-.432, .107], $p = .236$).

These results indicate that age does not have a significant moderating effect on the relationships between DEI training and the dimensions of perceived inclusion.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION REMARKS

This study aimed to examine the effects of diversity training on organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness, as well as the moderating role of age in these relationships. The research results showed that diversity training has a positive and significant effect on both organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness. These findings are consistent with previous studies in the literature (Yap et al., 2010; Sohail et al., 2011; Eshiteti et al., 2017; Rokaya & Al-Ghazzawi, 2018; Thakur & Dhar, 2022; Oloo, 2023).

The positive effect of diversity training on organizational commitment can be explained within the framework of social exchange theory (Blau, 2017). Employees may perceive the organization's investment in diversity training as a positive gesture and, in return, may show greater commitment to the organization. This finding suggests that diversity training can be an effective tool in increasing employees' organizational commitment.

The positive effect of diversity training on perceived inclusiveness can be evaluated from the perspective of social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Diversity training can contribute to the formation of a more inclusive organizational culture by increasing employees' awareness of differences and reducing prejudices. This, in turn, can lead employees to feel more valued and accepted within the organization.

An interesting finding of the research is that age has a moderating role in the relationship between diversity training and organizational commitment. This finding indicates that the positive effect of diversity training on organizational commitment decreases as employees' age increases. This suggests that employees in different age groups may have different perceptions and expectations of diversity training. For example, younger employees may be more open to diversity issues and may respond more positively to such training, while older employees may have more traditional perspectives and may value these trainings less.

On the other hand, it was found that age does not have a moderating role in the relationship between diversity training and perceived inclusiveness. This finding suggests that the positive effect of diversity training on the perception of inclusiveness is independent of age. This indicates that inclusiveness is an important concept for all age groups and that diversity training may have similar effects on all employees in this regard.

The findings of this study offer important practical implications for organizations. First, diversity training appears to be an effective tool in increasing organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness. Therefore, organizations should consider investing in diversity training programs. Second, given the moderating effect of age, organizations may consider developing customized diversity training programs for different age groups. This could increase the effectiveness of the training and better address the needs of employees from all age groups.

In conclusion, this study has revealed the positive effects of diversity training on organizational commitment and perceived inclusiveness and shed light on the role of age in these relationships. These findings can help organizations develop their diversity management strategies and increase employee commitment and perception of inclusiveness.

Limitations and Future Implications

This study has several limitations. First, the research has a cross-sectional design, which makes it impossible to draw definitive conclusions about causal relationships between variables. Future research could examine the long-term effects of diversity training using longitudinal designs.

This study is limited to companies in Turkey, and therefore the generalizability of the results may be limited. Future research could test the cross-cultural validity of the findings by conducting similar studies in different cultural contexts and different countries.

This study used self-report measures, which carries the risk of common method variance. Future research could overcome this limitation by using multiple data sources (e.g., manager/peer evaluations).

This study focused on the moderating role of age, but other demographic factors (e.g., gender, education level, tenure) may have similar effects. Future research could contribute to the literature by examining the role of these factors.

Finally, future research could examine factors that could increase the effectiveness of diversity training (e.g., training methods, training duration, training content). Additionally,

it would be valuable to investigate the effects of diversity training on other organizational outcomes (e.g., job performance, innovation, employee turnover rate).

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APPENDIX**QUESTIONNAIRE FORM**

Dear Participant,

We invite you to take part in a research study titled "The Impact of Diversity Training on Employee Commitment: A Comparative Study of Companies in Turkey with and without Training, and the Moderating Role of Age." This study is conducted as part of my MSc thesis at Padua University in Clinical, Social, and Intercultural Psychology. The purpose of this study is to explore how diversity training affects employee engagement and to examine whether age plays a role in moderating this effect. Your responses will provide valuable insights into how different approaches to diversity training impact employee experiences and organizational outcomes.

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and your responses will remain confidential. The survey should take approximately [10 min.] to complete, and you can withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

If you agree to participate in this study, please indicate your consent below.

Thank you for considering participation in this study.

If you have any questions or need further information, please do not hesitate to contact me at alazhan.canbolat@studenti.unipd.it.

Best regards,
Alaz Han Canbolat
MSc Student, Clinical, Social, and Intercultural Psychology
Padua University

Do you agree to participate in this research?

- Yes
 No

Socio-Demographic Information Form

Please complete the following questions. Your responses will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes.

1. **Age:**

- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55 and above

2. **Gender:**

- Male
- Female
- Other
- Prefer not to say

3. **Marital Status:**

- Single
- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed

4. **Education Level:**

- High school
- Associate degree
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Doctorate

5. **Job Title** (if employed):

6. **Years of Experience:**

- Less than 1 year
- 1-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 11-15 years
- More than 15 years

7. **Monthly Income** (optional):

- Less than \$1,000
- \$1,000 - \$2,999
- \$3,000 - \$4,999
- \$5,000 and above
- Prefer not to say

8. **Sector of Employment:**

- Public
- Private
- Non-profit

9. **Do you have any children?**

- Yes
- No

10. **Have you received any diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) training?**

- Yes
- No

11. **If yes, how many hours of DEI training have you received in the past year?**

12. **Was the training you received based on experiential learning methodologies?**

- Yes
- No

13. **To what extent did your training involve practical, hands-on activities?**

Not all- A great deal

14. **Did your training include real-world scenarios or simulations?**

Not all- A great deal

15. **How much reflection and discussion were encouraged during your training sessions?**

Not all- A great deal

Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer et al., 1993)

Please fill in the following items according to yourself

1=Strongly disagree

2=Disagree

3=Neutral

4=Agree

5=Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
1. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.					
2. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)					
3. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization. (R)					
4. I feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.					
5. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.					
6. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.					
7. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.					
8. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
9. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
10. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice.					
11. I feel an obligation to remain with my current employer.					
12. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.					
13. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.					
14. This organization deserves my loyalty.					
15. I owe a great deal to my organization.					

Perceived Inclusion Scale (Chung et al., 2020)

Please fill in the following items according to yourself

1=Strongly disagree

2=Disagree

3=Neutral

4=Agree

5=Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
1. I am treated as a valued member of my work group.					
2. I belong in my work group.					
3. I am connected to my work group.					
4. I believe that my work group is where I am meant to be.					
5. I feel that people really care about me in my work group.					
6. I can bring aspects of myself to this work group that others in the group don't have in common with me.					
7. People in my work group listen to me even when my views are dissimilar.					
8. While at work, I am comfortable expressing opinions that diverge from my group.					
9. I can share a perspective on work issues that is different from my group members.					
10. When my group's perspective becomes too narrow, I am able to bring up a new point of view.					