2nd Edition

Managing DIVERSITY AND INCLUSION M INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

edited by JAWAD SYED and MUSTAFA ÖZBILGIN







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Foreword to the First Edition

Professor Stella Nkomo

The field of diversity management had its origins in the United States. Over the years the field developed with a focus on diversity issues within that country and the business interests of its organisations. The large body of knowledge developed during the past several decades evolved from an earlier focus on US employment discrimination and the need for theories and practices to overcome workplace exclusions based on race, gender, national origin, sexual orientation and physical ability. This was also the case for textbooks. A number of articles can be found critiquing the US-centric nature of diversity theory and practice. Despite the growing critique, it is only recently that scholars have begun to develop theoretical frameworks to guide thinking about how contexts, particularly national contexts, shape and influence questions of diversity and difference. It is so easy to be unaware of how one's own context, values, assumptions and interests affect how we perceive and understand diversity. Managing Diversity and Inclusion: An International Perspective could not have come at a better time. In tandem with an increasing emphasis on the globalisation of organisations, products and services, there is a critical need for a book that will expand how students and managers alike understand diversity and inclusion beyond the context of the US. Multinational organisations have become a dominant feature across the globe and today they are not only US based. Thus, it is important to understand both intra-country and inter-country diversity issues.

It is clear from the chapters in this book that national context shapes not only the salience of particular categories of diversity but also policy and organisational practices. While issues of diversity in Europe are central to this book, it also provides valuable insight into other important national contexts ranging from the BRICS countries (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) to Poland, Greece and Australia. The contrasts between regions illuminate how historical, social, cultural, economic and demographic factors influence diversity. For example, increasing immigration in European countries,

particularly immigrant populations from former colonies, underscores the lingering effects of colonialism on current diversity issues and tensions. New immigrants are not finding a warm welcome despite labour force shortages due to ageing populations in many European countries. Debates also exist about the national status of ethnic minorities who are native born citizens. The book's inclusion of BRICS countries provides additional insight into the contextual effects on diversity. As transitional economies, issues of diversity, difference and inclusion are closely linked to aspirations for economic transformation. There is a strong desire by emerging market countries like India, Brazil and South Africa to ensure economic transformation which also contributes to a reduction in poverty and inequality. The magnitude of demographic diversity in BRICS countries presents complex ethnic, race, gender and class dilemmas with significant implications for doing business in these countries. For example, South Africa's focus on transforming the country from legislated racial segregation and deeply embedded patriarchy has resulted in robust legislation for preventing discrimination and ensuring economic empowerment for the black majority population and women. All companies wishing to do business in the country are subject to these laws and have to learn quickly how to navigate the lingering effects of historical racial and ethnic faultlines.

In writing an international text that seeks to overcome universalism, it is sometimes easy to over-particularise the unique aspects of diversity in different countries. The authors deftly avoid this by illuminating the macroeconomic and historical forces that determine salient diversity dimensions in different countries. This approach provides a valuable lens for understanding why diversity and organisational practices differ across the globe. Further, students will recognise that diversity issues are not fixed in time but evolve as the context changes. The cases in each chapter contain complex contemporary diversity issues ranging from religion in the workplace to intersectionality challenges. They provide an opportunity for students to consider how managers and leaders should approach difficult diversity issues. The chapters are written by prominent scholars in the field, ensuring that students and other readers will have access to the most current knowledge and debates.

I believe *Managing Diversity and Inclusion: An International Perspective* will be a valuable resource for acquiring a different perspective on diversity and inclusion. Moreover, its critical and analytical treatment of the dominant theories of diversity provides an opportunity to seriously ponder their applicability in different contexts. The book is a welcome volume for those of us who teach diversity in regions of the world featured in the text. It is also an important resource for those in the US who teach international human resource management courses. *Managing Diversity and Inclusion: An International Perspective* will help students gain a much-needed comparative understanding of diversity and its management.

Professor Stella Nkomo University of Pretoria, South Africa

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I would like to thank all the authors for their valuable contributions to the book and also for their engagement with the spirit of diversity and inclusion, my academic and professional colleagues for their dedication and support of my research endeavours, and my ever cooperative and challenging children, Haider, Pernian and Dara, wife Faiza, mother Khalida, and sisters Sajida and Zahida, who continue to inspire and enthuse me. Special thanks are also due to the editors at SAGE Publications, for their faith in this book project right from its conception to the second edition. Thanks are also due to the production team for their hard work and professionalism in making this project possible.

Jawad Syed

Guided Tour of the Book

Intended learning outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

- · Reflect on workforce replacement strategies worldwide that address skill short-
- ages and changing demographics Understand how economic and cultural barriers influence older-worker
- Understand how economic and cultural barriers influence older-worker participation.
 Distinguish the needs of older workers and the differences in attudes between younger and older colorus.
 Critically reflect on how base and stereotypes influence hiring solutions and what to 6 about them
 Derelop a range of age-diversity HR policies and practices in places of work



Intended learning outcomes

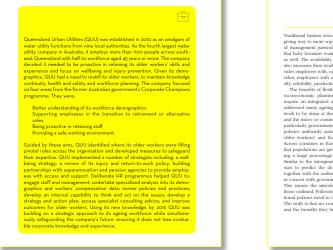
Each chapter starts by setting out clearly what key information you should soon understand, so you can easily track your progress.

Discussion activities

These activities are designed to get you to think about key issues and interesting scenarios and will hopefully provoke constructive debates between you and your classmates.

Guided tour of the book

XXV



Organisational insights

These boxes provide examples of how companies and organisations confront diversity issues in a huge variety of ways, sometimes successfully and sometimes generating problems.



Summary and recommendations

These sections at the end of each chapter summarise the content and outline the key lessons to which readers and organisations should pay attention.

Kev terms

Gender equality: This refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men in employment (UN, 2013).

Gender pay gap: This refers to the difference in earnings between men and women in the workplace (Kirton and Greene, 2005).

Gender segregation: It is the tendency for men and women to be employed in different occupations across the entire spectrum of jobs (Hakim, 1979).

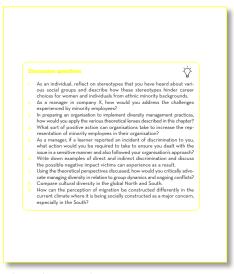
Glass ceiling: This refers to an 'invisible barrier' which inhibits progression to higher levels of an organisation's hierarchy for women and other disadvantaged minority groups (Weyer, 2007).

Inequality: Inequality in the workplace refers to discriminating behaviour towards people not due to their incompetence or inability to do tasks as per the job requirements but due to other factors which are not related to employment directly, such as race, colour, religion, gender, social class and political association (Kaushik et al., 2014).

Workforce diversity: Diversity is a multidimensional term. When people of different ages, genders, races, cultures, ethnic backgrounds and abilities, etc. work together in an organisation it means that the organisation possesses a diverse workforce (Shore et al. 2009).

Key terms

A helpful guide to any important or new terminology introduced in the chapter. All the terms from the book can also be found in the handy glossary.



Discussion questions

Pull your learning from the chapter together to determine how you think the scenarios and conundrums presented in these questions should be dealt with.



Case studies and mini cases

All chapters cover a major diversity issue in depth in at least one case study, some have mini cases as well.



Further reading

This section highlights books and articles that will help to broaden your understanding of that chapter.



References

A wealth of further reading material is available here, as all the sources that have collectively informed the writing of the chapter are gathered in one place.

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Online Resources



In addition to the wealth of information and activities contained in this book, further useful resources for both lecturers and students are available online. Simply head to **http://study.sagepub.com/syed2e** to discover the following resources:

For instructors

- Instructor's manual containing key points and indicative answers to questions in each chapter
- PowerPoint slides

For students

- Videos of the contributors discussing their research and chapters
- Links to useful websites relevant to each chapter
- Access to SAGE journal articles cited in the book

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Introduction

Understanding and Managing Diversity and Inclusion in the Global Workplace

Jawad Syed and Mustafa Özbilgin



Welcome to the second edition of *Managing Diversity and Inclusion: An International Perspective*. This edition builds on the contributions of the first edition and provides an up-to-date review of literature and country and organisational examples of diversity and inclusion from across the globe. The existing chapters have been updated while, addressing a gap in the first edition, a new chapter on social class has been included.

The original idea of this book surfaced at the 2011 Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management in San Antonio. The aim was to publish a textbook which would capture worldwide organisational and national examples of gender, race, sexuality, age and other dimensions of diversity, taking into account important elements of societal and relational context, and integrating the theory of diversity with its organisational practice. In view of wide adoption of this book either as a core text or additional reading by universities across the globe, it may be stated that the first edition was able to achieve its objective. However, many developments have taken place since 2014 when chapters for the first edition were finalised. The world today faces new complex issues related to diversity, particularly in the aftermath of the UK's planned exit from the EU (known as Brexit) and Mr Donald Trump's election as the US president. Moreover, political and military conflicts in the Middle East have resulted in new waves of migration to Europe, North America and other parts of the developed world. Concurrently, reactionary movements against human rights and equality such as Islamist radicalism and Islamophobia, white supremacism, misogyny, xenophobia, homophobia and transphobia have received new impetus (Vassilopoulou et al., 2018).

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In other parts of the world, including Latin America and Africa, ethnic, regional and class tensions are evident in local politics and governmental approaches to diversity. From a diversity and inclusion perspective, all of this represents a new array of challenges resulting in issues of discrimination, prejudice and violence, which threaten the diversity gains on a global scale. These challenges need to be better understood and tackled on multiple fronts, not only politically and socially but also through academic scholarship and discourses.

Chapters in this edition have been revised in the light of reviews and comments by noted diversity scholars and instructors on the first edition, and with a pronounced focus on key dimensions of diversity and integration of theory with organisational and country examples. The volume is packed with fresh insights, new theorisation and empirical evidence on diversity management (DM).

More formally, the book offers an authoritative text on current theories, issues, practices and developments in managing diversity, equality and inclusion in organisations in a broad European and international context, with a special focus on BRICS countries, Australia and the UK, along with other countries. The book will provide the reader with an in-depth and contextual understanding of workforce diversity and its relevance to managing people and organisations.

The demographics of the population and the workplace are changing worldwide because of factors such as an increasing number of ethnic and religious minorities, women, people with disabilities, out LGBTI+ individuals, older persons and single people with caring responsibilities in the workforce (Bisin et al., 2011; Jonsen et al., 2019). Accordingly, there is a need to understand and effectively manage workforce diversity, not only to enhance business outcomes but also to create an inclusive workplace in a socially responsible manner (Syed and Kramar, 2009; Harjoto et al., 2015). There is also a need to create institutional and organisational structures and cultures to enable employee inclusion in the work group as involving the satisfaction of the needs of both belongingness and uniqueness (Brewer and Silver, 2000; Syed and Boje, 2011).

Bringing together eminent international scholars, this book places a premium on critical thinking and analytical abilities that can be successfully applied to DM. Our take on the theory and practice of DM is far from US-centric; our choice of topics as well as geographies covered in the text is an attempt to situate and understand DM in the European context and beyond.

What we know of diversity at work predominantly emanates from the industrialised democracies of the world (Syed and Özbilgin, 2009; Tatli et al., 2012; Ozbilgin et al., 2015). While some industrialised countries have adopted a voluntary approach to issues of diversity at work, others have developed sophisticated regulatory measures (Özbilgin and Tatli, 2011). One significant example is the European Union (EU). Diversity in the workplace is an issue which is coming to the fore in all EU member states and the EU is undertaking legislative initiatives in the area of diversity. The EU legislation banning discrimination on grounds of racial or ethnic origin, gender, religion, disability, age and sexual orientation is bound to have a major impact on businesses across the EU. Article 13 of the European Community Treaty states:

Without prejudice to the other provisions of this Treaty and within the limits of the powers conferred by it upon the Community, the Council, acting unanimously on a proposal from the Commission and after consulting the European Parliament, may take appropriate action to combat discrimination based on sex, racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation (EUR-Lex, 2002).

The above provision is quite empowering as it enables the EU to take action against diverse forms of discrimination and inequalities. The EU has, pursuant to Article 13, adopted several directives to combat discrimination. For example, Council Directive 2000/43/EC prohibits racial discrimination in the fields of employment, education, social security, healthcare and access to goods and services; Council Directive 2000/78/EC establishes a framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation on the grounds of religion or belief, disability, age and sexual orientation (EC, 2014). While each member country has developed its own national anti-discrimination law, issues, challenges and trajectories of DM in each country remain different.

However, legal measures are not popular internationally. In parts of Europe, not unlike the US, currently there seems to be a movement away from equal opportunity (or in German *Chancengleichheit*) and affirmative action towards a more voluntary, organisational approach geared towards business outcomes of diversity. This approach, however, is not easy to put into practice. In the absence of legal enforcement, diversity officers would find it difficult to convince organisational leaders to support diversity interventions. There is heterogeneity of political positions and discourses such as multiculturalism, integration, assimilation, tolerance, national values and citizenship which currently shape DM policies and practices across Europe. These debates and related economic and social issues obviously cannot be overlooked as they are embedded in complex macro-national, global and industrial contexts. This complexity entails understanding and assessing each unique diversity constellation of any particular organisation, community or country. For example, the different historical and social roots of diversity in organisations in Turkey and France cannot be dissociated from the actual management of equality and diversity in the workplace. At the same time, examples of best practices (positive action for gender equality in Scandinavian countries, attention to older workers and pensions in Germany, etc.) are equally relevant and important.

Consistent with the business case paradigm, the European Commission (EC) has encouraged employers to put DM more firmly on their strategic business agendas and has supported their activities across the EU through numerous actions over the past few years. Such actions include: (a) launching and maintaining a platform for EU-level exchange between diversity charters in Europe; (b) developing and implementing a European diversity award in the workplace; and (c) developing a diversity benchmarking system for and in association with businesses. Previously, the EU's EQUAL

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Community Initiative (2000–6) focused on supporting innovative, transnational projects aimed at tackling discrimination and disadvantage in the labour market (EC, 2011). Despite these initiatives and policies, it is a fact that organisations in the EU, as elsewhere, remain deeply gendered and racialised. Concepts such as multiculturalism and diversity are currently subject to much criticism and debate. Social stereotypes, prejudices and tensions, which are not unusual in the political and media landscape, are also visible in the workplace, thus posing a major challenge to leaders and managers of a diverse workforce.

Similar attention to DM as a governmental policy is evident in other countries, e.g. Australia. The Australian government's Multicultural Australia Policy (DSS, 2014) clearly states the government's emphasis on the country's multicultural character and the competitive edge it offers in an increasingly globalised world. For example, the Australian government's Department of Human Services (DHS, 2019: para.6) thus expresses its commitment to workplace diversity and inclusion:

We are committed to providing an inclusive workplace culture where all our staff are valued and recognised for their unique qualities, ideas and perspectives. We acknowledge the skills and perspectives that people may bring to the workplace by gender, race, ethnicity, disability, age, sexual orientation, gender identity, intersex status or other difference. We are committed to providing a working environment that values diversity and inclusion which supports all employees to reach their full potential.

A similar commitment is expressed by the British government's Home Office: 'We incorporate equality into our core objectives, making every effort to eliminate discrimination, create equal opportunities and develop good working relationships between different people' (HO, 2019: para.1). However, commitments neeed to be assessed in light of evidence from practice.

There are cross-cultural and cross-country variances in terms of approaches to and outcomes of DM. For example, women's advancement into senior management roles globally is quite low in the G7 group of developed economies, according to research from the Grant Thornton (2018) *Women in Business* report, which reveals that globally, less than 24 per cent of senior management roles are filled by women and 75 per cent of companies had at least one woman in senior management in 2018. In 2013 a Grant Thornton report identified that in the G7 economies just 21 per cent of senior roles were occupied by women, compared to 28 per cent in the BRICS economies and 32 per cent in South East Asia. The US ranks in the bottom eight performing countries for women in senior management at 20 per cent, along with Japan at 7 per cent and the United Kingdom at 19 per cent. Considering the wide variance among regions and across countries, it is, therefore, important to develop a contextual understanding of policies and outcomes of DM.

Similar attention to DM is evident in India, China and other emerging economic giants, e.g. in Ye et al.'s (2010) study of Chinese listed firms on the impact of gender on earnings, and Cooke and Saini's (2010) and Syed and Pio's (2013) studies of diversity

management in South Asia. In 2017, the central government of India amended the Maternity Benefit Act of 1961 to increase the period of maternity leave from 12 to 26 weeks for women with fewer than two surviving children. Moreover, employers with 50 or more employees are also required to provide daycare facilities to women returning to work following maternity leave (Wijekoon et al., 2018). China remains strong on gender diversity with 32 per cent of its management roles filled by women (HR in Asia, 2016); however, it faces challenges in terms of its treatment of ethnic minorities such as Uighurs in the the Xinjiang Uighur Autonomous Region.

Each chapter in this book addresses a core topic and reflects the current state of scholarly activity in the field, highlighting some enduring theories and approaches, and then pushes the boundaries of DM to critically situate such theories and approaches in the global context. The book identifies and challenges assumptions, develops an awareness of the context, seeks alternative ways of seeing a situation and relates these to real-world examples of DM in contexts as diverse as the UK, Germany, Turkey, Poland, Australia and the BRICS countries.

While the book has been designed and written primarily for students, we believe it will be equally useful to academics, research scholars and practitioners who want to understand and meet the increased challenges facing DM in the current global crisis and beyond.

Overview of chapters

Chapter 1, 'Social and psychological perspectives on diversity', deals with the development of diversity from a psychological and social perspective as an arena of discourse and managerial practice. It highlights the key ideas and debates that have characterised the field, aiming to develop a common conceptual vocabulary through which relationships between different diversity categories can be explored in greater depth. The chapter presents several major theories with particular attention to understanding what happens when groups with different identities come together in an organisation. It explains the dominant social and psychological theories utilised by scholars in understanding diversity. These theories are then illustrated in the context of cultural diversity and practices in Africa. The chapter also identifies progressive diversity practice initiatives within organisations.

Chapter 2, 'Leadership and diversity management in a global context', explores the interplay between diversity and leadership in its contextual specificity. Theoretically, it provides a critical review of the academic literature on leadership, explores competing definitions of leadership, introduces key approaches to leadership and discusses these approaches in relation to workforce diversity. In order to highlight the link between theoretical debates and real-life situations, it presents country-specific examples derived from the UK, South Africa and Saudi Arabia. The UK has a long-standing equality and diversity tradition both in terms of the public debate around the issue as

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well as anti-discrimination legislation. South Africa has a unique history of apartheid, which was followed by a significant legal, political and economic push towards promoting equality, diversity and inclusion. Empirical evidence from Saudi Arabia demonstrates the challenges related to the application of Western-centric conceptualisations of leadership in non-Western contexts. Yet, these three countries experience leadership challenges in terms of diversity of leadership, i.e. lack of diversity in corporate leadership as well as in relation to leadership for diversity, i.e. commitment to diversity from the organisations' leaders. These country examples will help the reader to understand the convergence and divergence of diversity and leadership issues internationally.

Chapter 3, 'Policy and practice of diversity management in the workplace', examines the policy approach to DM in the workplace and its persistent tension with forces and factors of discrimination. The chapter defines diversity management by situating it in a fluid, highly contested and often contradictory discourse. It discusses how different approaches to DM have influenced non-discrimination legislation in the EU and the US, and organisational policies and practice, and how these have changed across space and over time. It outlines temporal changes in the meaning of diversity, and in particular critically explains the business case for DM.

Chapter 4, 'Gender equality in the workplace' discusses and critically evaluates theories of gender segregation at work and the related ideologies of gender equality, and contrasts them with organisational practice. It examines how these theories approach employed and unemployed workers, men and women, in a society. The chapter presents a case study on gender at work in a South Asian country, Pakistan, to explain the role of prevailing employment norms in a society and gender segregation of the labour force arising from those norms. The chapter also offers an overview of Marxist, radical feminist theories, dual system theories and their critique from a post-structuralist and human capitalist perspective. The chapter also discusses change ideologies related to issues of gender equality within employment contexts.

Chapter 5, 'Belonging: race, intersectionality and exclusion', explains the notions of race and ethnicity and their implications for DM in organisations. In particular, the chapter explains why there is racial or ethnic discrimination, and how issues of racism and stereotypes affect equal opportunities at work. Issues of institutional racism, racialised organisations, intersectionality and migrant workers will also be discussed. It also examines how legislative, historical and demographic contexts in a specific country affect organisational approaches to race and ethnicity. The chapter also offers cross-national examples, particularly from South African, Malaysian, British, Canadian and American contexts.

Chapter 6, 'Age diversity: concepts, strategies and cases', presents a number of facts and key reflections relating to the importance of older workers (those aged 45 years or more) in the overall labour market. Here, the focus is largely on Australia, with worldwide implications noted. The chapter outlines cross-cultural issues within the context of research on ageing and the importance of policy debates and strategies for ageing. It explains how classical approaches to age diversity have evolved to more contemporary approaches adopted in modern organisations. It takes into account various socioeconomic, legal and demographic factors in determining age diversity policies, analyses and applies age diversity principles to practical case problems and specifies how to develop age diversity practices in contemporary settings.

Chapter 7, 'Disabled people in the workplace', provides the reader with an overview of the research and practice relating to disabled people in the workplace, with a view to promoting evidence-based understanding and practice as well as stimulating new thinking. It presents classic theories and key concepts underpinning the study of disability in the workplace, and also explains the key obstacles disabled individuals face when gaining and maintaining effective employment. The chapter presents data from several countries demonstrating the extent of the issue relating to disabled persons at work, and provides real-world case examples of disabled persons at work.

Chapter 8, 'Religious diversity in the workplace', deals with religion and spirituality in the workplace through theoretical and empirical studies. In order to understand religious diversity and discrimination with regard to DM, the chapter focuses on Turkey and the UK as specific cases in terms of religious diversity and discrimination in a legislative-based approach. The value of creating such a comparison between those countries is due to their differences in state and legislative structures. This chapter also indicates the secular conservative thought of Turkey and non-secular liberal thought of the UK in accordance with content analysis of the legislations of both countries, and international research centres' reports on religious minorities in both countries.

Chapter 9, 'Sexual minorities in the workplace', deals with sexual minorities, i.e. lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) persons, in the context of workplace relations. It reviews the contributions made by a range of theoretical traditions to our understanding of the type and extent of discrimination faced by LGBT employees. It also explains how the impact of context on the workplace experiences of sexual minorities is useful in understanding that sexual stigma and prejudice do not exist in a vacuum. Rather, they take particular forms and expressions depending on a range of social, legal, political and organisational contextual factors. The chapter argues that an analysis of the employment experiences of sexual minority employees remains incomplete without adequate attention being devoted to underlying relations of sexual and gendered power within the workplace, which may constrain or encourage the development, shape and purpose of organisational practices designed to give sexual minority employees a voice in the workplace, and which may allow them to participate openly as LGBT in organisational life. The chapter ends with recommendations for good practice in addressing the inequalities experienced by sexual minority employees at work.

Chapter 10, 'Work-life balance', discusses the issue of how organisations and employees can manage this in an increasingly global competitive environment. It discusses

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the notion of work-life balance (WLB), examines the factors that have caused an increase in attention to WLB and how the issue is addressed within DM. It identifies important changes within society and organisations which have contributed to an increased focus on WLB within organisational policies. The chapter explores organisational examples in order to assess how DM policies address WLB and how this affects employees and organisations. The chapter offers a critical review of the literature and identifies some gaps in diversity policies surrounding the issue of WLB.

Chapter 11, 'Intersectionality in the workplace', discusses the development of intersectionality as a concept (including the three types of complexity that inform work in the area) and discusses some of the current critiques of intersectionality research. It then considers the EU and US context vis-à-vis intersectional analysis, focusing on the forms anti-discrimination legislation takes and how an intersectional approach would be a useful addition to existing legislation and regulation. Illustrated by a case study focusing on veiled Muslim women in the EU, the chapter discusses approaches to using intersectional analyses in organisations and concludes with a set of recommendations. The revised chapter includes updated literature and country examples, and a new mini case on lookism, transgender employees and gender presentation has been added.

Chapter 12, 'Social class and diversity', is new to the book. It explains the importance of social class in the context of diversity management and discusses its implications for power and employment. The chapter discusses how organisations can support individuals from marginalised or disadvantaged backgrounds. It also provides international examples and an overview of current issues and debates on this topic.

The final chapter, 'Conclusion: future of diversity management', provides a critical overview of the key themes presented in the book. It also presents a number of elementary questions to contextualise the management of diversity in different international spaces and situations. The chapter outlines a number of key challenges and possibilities for the future expansion and enhancement of DM.

Unique features of the book

- 1. An international text, written for audiences in Britain, Europe, Australia and the BRICS countries, which can be applied to other countries.
- 2. Suitable for undergraduate and graduate teaching programmes on general human resource management (HRM) as well as specialist modules on gender, diversity, work psychology and cross-cultural management.
- 3. Provides a contextual approach to DM. Each chapter offers a substantive section on contextual insights, evaluation and recommendations.
- 4. Detailed case studies and organisational examples in each chapter.

- 5. The book takes into account diverse issues and challenges facing DM in public, private and voluntary sectors, and also in large and small-to-medium organisations.
- 6. Critical text integrating theories of DM with organisational practices and examples. Jargon free but cutting-edge research; easily accessible to scholars from non-English-speaking backgrounds.
- 7. Contributions by eminent scholars and academics in the field.
- 8. Equally valuable for academics, students, researchers and practitioners.
- 9. A similar structure for all chapters.

Structure of the book

Comprising 13 chapters (excluding this Introduction), the book is divided into three parts – Concepts (three chapters); Dimensions of Diversity (six chapters); and Future of Diversity Management (four chapters).

The chapters share the following similar elements:

- 1. Intended learning outcomes
- 2. A brief introduction to the chapter and its contents
- 3. A critical overview of theories and key concepts
- 4. Contextual (demographic, sociocultural, legal, institutional, macroeconomic) information about a specific dimension of diversity in a specific country or organisation
- 5. In addition to the provision of the country-specific contextual information and examples, cross-cultural comparison with other countries comprising information about regulatory measures, institutions, organisational interventions, etc.
- 6. Attention to issues of power, voice, hegemony and silence
- 7. Practical examples of a company or country
- 8. In-text discussion activities, which raise questions designed to encourage critical thinking
- 9. Critical analysis and discussion
- 10. Summary and recommendations, including the identification of good practice directed at organisations, managers, employees and policy makers
- 11. Further reading: up-to-date, easily available books, journal articles and online resources
- 12. Questions and class activities
- 13. Case study: a major part of each chapter focuses on one or more organisational or country case examples. The aim is to provide detailed information about how the issues have been applied or handled in a specific situation
- 14. References: all cited material is fully sourced and acknowledged

Instructor's manual and slides

The book is accompanied by an instructor's manual providing key notes per chapter and PowerPoint slides for instructional and exercise purposes.

Online resources

Online resources include access to free full-text SAGE journal articles linking to relevant chapters. Each chapter and case study has web links and additional case studies where applicable. There is also a section on policy and law updates.

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Social and Psychological Perspectives on Diversity

Lilian Otaye-Ebede and Loliya Akobo



After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

- Define the concepts of equality, diversity and inclusion from multiple perspectives
- Understand the key sociological and psychological concepts of diversity
- Explain the dominant social psychological theories utilised by scholars in understanding diversity
- Discuss cultural diversity and its practices in Africa
- Identify good diversity practice initiatives within organisations

Introduction

Diversity as a concept has evolved over decades from affirmative action in the United States to present day inclusion strategies to ensure every individual is treated with respect and dignity. Its evolution as a concept and practice has been tumultuous and remains a controversial topic.

In this chapter, we will explore the concept of diversity from a social and psychological perspective (i.e. the affect, behaviours and cognitions relating to diversity). More specifically, we will look to explore how feelings, thoughts, beliefs, intentions and goals

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are constructed and how they in turn influence the behaviours of individuals towards diverse social groups (such as ethnic minorities, women, individuals from varying social classes). By so doing, we aim to develop our understanding of the concept of diversity through historically linking it to equality. Of particular interest is understanding diversity within the workforce and exploring how individuals across different diversity categories (such as race, gender, age, class) could be disadvantaged as a result of belonging to these groups. Psychological processes such as prejudice, unconscious bias, stereotyping and microaggression that contribute to discriminatory attitudes and behaviours towards diverse individuals in and out of the workplace are explored. Next, we present the dominant underpinning social psychological theories of diversity (e.g. social identity theory, social categorisation theory, similarity-attraction theory and embedded intergroup relations theory) that help us to understand how differences in groups are created, managed and affected by workplace policies and practices, and their implications. The chapter concludes with an introduction to cultural diversity within an African context and explains how culture differences shape individual behaviour, influence intergroup relationships and affect thought and actions.

What is 'diversity'?

Scholars and practitioners have defined the term 'diversity' in a variety of ways. Nkomo and Cox (1996) reviewed the broad range of diversity research and looked at the various ways in which diversity has been conceptualised. They concluded that there were broadly two ways in which diversity has been defined - narrow and broad/expansive. While narrow definitions mainly focus on race, gender, religion, etc., broad or expansive definitions tend to look at both visible and non-visible characteristics and differences in individuals. Examples of narrow definitions include Cross et al. (1994: xxii), who defined diversity as focusing on issues of racism, sexism, heterosexism, classism, ableism and other forms of discrimination at the individual, identity group and systems levels. Similarly, Lai and Kleiner (2001: 14) define diversity as 'not only formed by sex, but also by race, color, religion, and national origin'. Conversely, examples of broad/expansive definitions include Thomas (1991: 10), who defined diversity as '... everyone, it is not something that is defined by race or gender. It extends to age, personal and corporate background, education, function and personality...'. And Shackelford (2003: 53) noted that 'the new definition of *diversity* includes the traditional categories of race and gender, in addition, it includes people with disabilities, gays and lesbians, and other nontraditional categories ... such as - diversity of thought'.

What unites both the narrow and broad forms of definition is the concept of 'difference'. Hence, diversity can be defined as the variety of visible and non-visible differences (e.g. gender, ethnic, social class, age, religion) inherent amongst individuals and groups (Otaye-Ebede et al., 2017). However, an evaluation of extant diversity research shows more emphasis given to social groups that have been historically subjected to discrimination such as by gender, age, ethnicity, race, disability, sexual orientation and hence have been protected by laws across the globe. An example is the UK's Equality Act 2010, which offers protection to people with 'protected characteristics' – race, age, sex, disability, gender reassignment, marriage and civil partnership, pregnancy and maternity, sexual orientation and religion/belief. These social characteristics are amongst the dominant diversity strands protected by law in the majority of countries such as the USA, Australia, South Africa, the Netherlands (see Mor Barak, 2014: 48–51 for an extensive overview), and hence will be the focus of this chapter.

Historical underpinning concepts

Extant theorisation of diversity is built on the foundations of certain concepts. They include social constructivism, universalism versus cultural relativism/historical specificity, and postmodern and postcolonial insights.

Social constructivism versus essentialism: Social constructivism is a term based on Peter Berger and Thomas Luckmann's (1991) work where they state that 'social order is not part of the "nature of things", and it cannot be derived from the "laws of nature". Social order exists only as a product of human nature' (p. 52). Their argument is that our perception of reality is based on our social interactions. Within the context of diversity, these social interactions determine the social construction of groups/categories such as race/ethnicity, class, gender and sexuality. Simply put, we learn about social categories through our interaction and are given meanings of these categories through our social institutions such as families and friends. On the other hand, essentialism is a belief that 'human behaviour is "natural", predetermined by genetic, biological or physiological changes, hence not subject to change' (Kyriakidou, 2015: 15).

Universalism versus cultural relativism: The universalism view has its origins in human rights law and is based on the principle that all human beings share a set of fundamental interests and values that should be protected (Steiner and Alston, 2000: 366). Universalists believe that inherent in our human nature are our human rights and fundamental freedom; hence, there should be a set of basic universal ethical standards and principles acceptable to all cultures (Sybesma-Knol, 2013). Conversely, the cultural relativism perspective is that the world consists of a huge diversity of cultures, standards and views, which are relative to the culture from which they derive. The cultural relativists argue that although every human being is entitled to respect, it should entail respect for people's culture as a form of their identity (Freeman, 2010).

Postmodern and postcolonial insights: Postmodern insights stem from the understanding that human understanding alone does not mirror reality; rather, it is constructed by individual minds. Hence, postmodernism argues against explanations that claim to be valid for all cultures, groups, races, etc., suggesting that there should be a focus on the relative truth of each individual. On the other hand,

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postcolonial insights place emphasis on the experiences of various social groups such as those based on race, gender, slavery and the responses to these 'minority' discourses after the historical end of colonialism.

Key diversity concepts

In this section, we explore key concepts that underpin psychological processes through which behavioural and attitudinal judgements are made about individuals from certain social categories and how these judgements influence intergroup relations. It is important to understand these concepts as they help to clarify central aspects of diversity and inclusion.

Stereotypes (cognition), prejudice (affect) and discrimination (behaviour)

Stereotypes (cognition)

Stereotypes are seen as biased generalisations about a social group – i.e. making assumptions or assigning overgeneralised traits to a particular social group. For example, we may decide that 'children who wear glasses are geeks, not good at sports', or that 'blonde women are unintelligent'. We may then use those beliefs to guide our actions towards people from those groups. Social psychological research has found that in some cases these assumptions may lead to *stereotype threat* – a situation in which there is a negative stereotype about a person's group, and he or she is concerned about being judged or treated negatively on the basis of this stereotype (Spencer et. al., 1999). Findings from Spencer et al. (1999) revealed that when women were reminded of the (untrue) stereotype that 'women are poor at math' they performed more poorly in maths tests than when they were not reminded of the stereotype.

Stereotypes are learned or obtained by various means such as our communication with parents and peers (Aboud and Doyle, 1996) or what we hear, see or read in the media (Brown, 2011). Stereotyping, like any cognitive process once established, is difficult to change.

Prejudice (affect)

In addition to stereotyping, individuals may develop prejudice. Prejudice comes from the Latin word for 'prejudgement', is often based on stereotypes and affects the way we think, communicate and behave with others. Most definitions of prejudice are founded on Allport's (1954: 1) definition, which states that prejudice is 'antipathy based on a faulty or inflexible generalization'. According to Taylor and Pettigrew (2000), Allport's definition consists of two elements: a negative emotion or affective feeling towards a particular social group (antipathy), and a poorly formed belief about members of that group (stereotype). Prejudice can take the form of disliking, anger, fear, disgust, discomfort, and even hatred – the kind of affective states that can lead to negative behaviour (Sunhee and Seoyong, 2014).

In the workplace and in society, it has become evident that certain groups are the enduring victims of prejudice because they have been formed by the social categorisation of individuals who have historically been discriminated against. These groups are those based on race/ethnicity, gender, age, sexual orientation and disability.

Stereotyping and prejudice often operate outside of individual awareness and only when they are acted upon does the individual become aware of them. Because of this, social psychologists have developed indirect methods to assess them. One popular approach is the Implicit Association Test (IAT). The results from the IAT brought to prominence, in the early 2000s, the concept of 'unconscious bias'.

Unconscious bias

Unconscious bias is a form of social stereotyping that occurs outside an individual's consciousness about certain groups of people. Hence, the individual is unaware of these biases as they happen outside their control. These biases are influenced by the individual's background, cultural environment, personal experiences and interactions, and are triggered by our brains making quick judgements and assessments of people and situations.

Unconscious bias can occur when a person favours others who look like them, sound like them or share similar values to them over others who do not. For example, a person may be drawn to a someone who is from a similar gender, race or ethnic background to them. There are various forms of unconscious bias (see Table 1.1).

Example	Description
Halo and horns	Shorthand for positive or negative first impressions. Halo around the head, the person cannot put a foot wrong; horns, they cannot do anything right. The halo effect occurs when a positive trait is transferred onto a person without anything really being known about them
Affinity bias	Favouring people who share the same social background, who look and sound like 'one of us'
Confirmation bias	Noticing or looking only for evidence that confirms our ideas, good or bad, and ultimately reinforces our original viewpoint
Social comparison bias	Having feelings of dislike and competitiveness with someone, or groups of people, that are seen as physically, or mentally, better than you
Stereotype threat	Fearing being viewed through the lens of a negative stereotype and of doing something that would confirm it
Gender bias	Including viewing others as less competent, over-protecting them and asserting dominance over them

Table 1.1 Examples of types of bias

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As noted earlier, the IAT was developed to measure unconscious/implicit bias. The IAT was developed by a team of social psychologists at the University of Washington and Yale in 1998, in their groundbreaking paper 'Measuring individual differences in implicit cognition: the implicit association test'. Greenwald et al.'s (1998) IAT aimed to test implicit and hidden bias as a way to explain why discrimination persisted. The goal of the IAT was to educate the public about implicit social cognition and to provide a virtual laboratory where data can be collected, analysed, and results generated to test and valuate individuals' bias (Nosek et al., 2005). In the IAT, participants are shown two comparable attributional objects (such as the faces of a male and a female) and are asked to assign certain concepts to them as quickly as possible. Participants' reaction time was then measured, and it was postulated that by measuring reaction times in tests like the IAT, scientists are able to measure individuals' association of positive words (with flowers for example) and negative words (with insects for example). Scholars have called this positive association 'a preference' and the negative association 'a bias'. Implicit bias, as measured by the IAT and other tools, has been found to predict behaviour accurately outside of the computer setting. Greenwald et al. (2009) found statistically significant links between people's implicit bias scores and their daily behaviour. The implicit bias scores were also found to be better predictors of discriminatory behaviour than explicit self-reports.

Within the workplace, research has shown that acting on unconscious/implicit bias could have a negative effect on organisational culture, recruitment, selection and promotion (e.g. Wood et al., 2009), leadership roles and promotion (e.g. Ryan et al., 2011), performance management interactions, social policy, etc. For example, a study carried out by business psychologists Pearn Kandola in 2009 looking at the associations between senior and junior positions, and men and women, found a bias towards associating men with senior jobs and women with junior ones. This bias was as true of the women in the sample as of the men. Similarly, economists at the University of Bristol (Burgess and Greaves, 2009), found that teacher assessments of their black students marked them lower than did external examiners' assessments. This difference was not present in the assessment of white students. Research has also questioned if, and to what extent, these biases are actually unconscious, particularly as we become more aware of them.

There are various ways in which one can overcome unconscious bias, some of which include the following:

- Be aware of unconscious awareness.
- Endeavour not to take decisions in a hurry; evaluate and consider the situation properly.
- As a check, justify and record the reasons for decisions made.
- Pay more attention to people's positive behaviours rather than stereotypes.
- Widen your thinking through relating and working with a range of people from different cultural backgrounds, social class, gender, etc.

Within the workplace, certain practices have been adopted to minimise the effects of unconscious bias on selection, recruitment and promotion. These are some examples of such recruitment practices:

- Allow for flexibility in terms of screening and selecting only criteria necessary for the job should be listed as required.
- Consider use of language avoid stereotypical language, like go-getter, people person, results driven.
- Examine evaluation tools have a clear list of relevant criteria.
- Use name-blind shortlisting remove personal information such as name, gender, age from their application form before it is shared with the shortlisting and recruitment panel.
- Consider the recruitment panel how diverse is it?

Although discrimination can have non-prejudicial causes, in most cases, prejudice is seen as the main motivating force behind discrimination.

Facebook is a leading tech giant that specialises in connecting individuals around the world through their apps and services. Facebook recognises that diversity is central to their mission of creating an open and connected world. To promote diversity in the workplace, one of the tools Facebook uses is 'unconscious bias training'. Working with leading researchers, Facebook developed a training course that helps people recognise how bias can affect them and gives them tools to interpret and counter for bias when they see it in the workplace. The course consists of case studies, workshop sessions and presentations. In 2015, as part of their strategic plan to embed diversity and inclusion into their structure and to help other organisations do the same, Facebook announced that they will be releasing their 'Managing unconscious bias, internal training program' to the public. Their aim of publishing this portion of their managing bias training course was to help achieve broader recognition of the hidden biases we all have, and to highlight ways to counteract bias in the workplace. As with a lot of organisations, Facebook knows the importance of managing bias as it helps build stronger, more diverse and inclusive organisations which in the long-run drive better business results.

Source: https://managingbias.fb.com

Discrimination (behaviour)

Discrimination is defined as what happens when someone who belongs to, or is perceived to belong to, a certain social group is treated less favourably because of characteristics which associate him/her with that group. These can include age, colour, disability, social class, religion, and race/ethnicity. Discrimination can be direct or indirect and can appear in the form of harassment or victimisation.

Discrimination	Definition	Example
Direct discrimination	This is when a person in a group is treated less favourably than others not in that group	Two candidates are equally qualified for a post. The department, however, offers the job to the male candidate, and not the woman, because most of the staff are men and they think the man will fit in better
Indirect discrimination	This is when an apparently neutral rule or practice is applied to everyone, but it puts people who share a particular characteristic or are in a certain social group at a particular disadvantage	A higher education institution does not allow dogs at all on the premises. This will inadvertently put individuals with vision impairments who use guide dogs at a disadvantage
Victimisation	This occurs where a person is treated badly because he or she has, in good faith, taken action or supported someone else's actions relating to an equality or discrimination claim	A person is denied promotion or training avenues at work because they filed a sexual harassment complaint against their boss
Harassment	This is when someone conducts himself/ herself in an unwanted manner, which has the purpose or effect of creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment, or of violating dignity	In a seminar, two students complain loudly that disabled students who have extra time in exams get an unfair advantage, and that they're just stupid students making an excuse who don't really deserve the degrees they are awarded. This creates a hostile and humiliating environment for a disabled student in the seminar group

Table 1.2 Definitions and examples of forms of discrimination

Microaggression

According to Sue (2010: 3), microaggressions are the 'everyday verbal, nonverbal, and environmental slights, snubs, or insults, whether intentional or unintentional, which communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative messages to target persons based solely upon their marginalised group membership'. The term was coined in 1970 by psychiatrist Chester M. Pierce, who wrote, 'One must not look for the gross and obvious. The subtle, cumulative miniassault is the substance of today's racism'. These forms of discrimination, though very common, are subtle and harder to detect. They include statements that repeat or affirm stereotypes about minority marginalised groups (such as racial minorities, women and persons with disabilities). Although they are often committed unintentionally, they are seen to grow out of unconscious bias. In most cases, it is individuals who are well intentioned, and hence unaware that they have engaged in detrimental and harmful conduct towards a socially devalued group, who deliver microaggressions. Research has indicated the impact of microaggressions on the psychological wellbeing of individuals from these groups and the negative effect they have on creating inequality in employment and the workplace.

Forms of microaggression

There are two dominant forms of microaggression noted in existing research – racism and sexism. Microaggressions, however, are experienced by other marginalised groups as noted above. We discuss these two dominant forms below.

Racism: Sue et al. (2007: 272) describe microaggressions as 'the new face of racism'. Although we have seen a slight improvement in the incidence of overt expressions of racism over time, there has been an increase in racial microaggressions expressed in more subtle forms. According to Sue et al. (2007), there are three forms of microaggression that occur towards racial minority groups:

- Micro-assault: an explicit racial derogation, verbal/nonverbal, e.g. name-calling, avoidant behaviour, purposeful discriminatory actions.
- Micro-insult: communications that convey rudeness and insensitivity and demean a person's racial heritage or identity.
- Micro-invalidation: communications that exclude, negate or nullify the thoughts, feelings or experiential reality of a person belonging to a particular group.

Sexism: Gendered microaggressions against women are visible in our day-to-day experiences, whereby women are bound to restrictive gendered roles, sexually objectified and sometimes made to feel inferior (Shaffakat and Otaye-Ebede, 2016). A recent example was when a company in a staff deal offered laptops, computers, cameras and headphones 'for him', while the 'for her' alternative offered different vacuum cleaners and appliances.

In pairs, think about all the existing stereotypes about men and women. Write down at least five for men and five for women. List the sort of jobs one would choose if they acted like the stereotype descriptions you have listed.

(Continued)

Discuss the following questions as they relate to stereotyping:

How and where do we get our ideas about gender stereotypes and our perceptions of male and female roles?

Do these roles and descriptions limit or improve women's life choices?

Reflect on your discussion and the effects of gender role stereotyping on career choices for both males and females.

Managing diversity in the workplace

As noted earlier, diversity as a field of study explores ways of understanding people's identities, gender differences, ethnic heritage, disability status and culture. It reflects on how people are seen as different from and similar to one another. It also considers best ways to manage differences in order to improve creativity and innovation. Managing diversity seeks to develop proactive equal opportunity strategies that aim to eradicate conflicts, which can lead to injustice, discrimination and exclusion at the micro, meso and macro levels (cf. Otaye-Ebede, 2016). These different levels include individuals, organisations and national contexts. Hence, in order for organisations to succeed, there has to be a comprehensive overview of the demographic characteristics of the workforce that reflects a diversity hybrid. Indeed, with the nature and dynamics of the workplace in contemporary organisational studies changing, there is a growing desire to examine the diversity component of the workforce in relation to planning, recruitment, HR management and development, organisational performance and growth, and turnover. In organisational studies, research on diversity (Crenshaw, 1991; Sweetman, 2004; Goodman, 2011; Ozturk, and Tatli, 2016) has explored demographics like gender, disability, age, salary, education and marital status. These demographic characteristics influence the social construction of the workforce dynamics and are reflected in intergroup relations, working progression and performance.

Research (Crenshaw, 1991; Sweetman, 2004; Goodman, 2011) on gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, class and race, especially from a Global North perspective, explores ways to foster effectiveness in diversity management practice. Arguments from Western discourses on the concept of diversity suggest it is driven from a national agenda, where the government's equal employment opportunity (EEO) policies and diversity affirmative action, guide organisational practices, thereby creating a form of interwoven diversity partnership that reproduces a national– organisational diversity fit. In the Global South, though diversity exists as an organisational conceptual reality, explicit diversity management practices within