

Equality, Diversity, and Inclusion: Careers Perspective

9

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Define equality, diversity, and inclusion
- Distinguish between a variety of diversities
- Identify the advantages and possible pitfalls in managing diversity and inclusion
- Understand the impact of diverse individual backgrounds on careers
- Distinguish between the legal and managerial arguments in managing diversity
- Understand the role of diversity in career systems management

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What is diversity?

No two people are the same. We all have unique qualities. Each person possesses a distinctive combination of internal and external characteristics that makes them different from any other person. Yet we share many characteristics with certain other people, forming collectives of groups with specific common characteristics (e.g. gender, skin colour, etc.).

Within the work-realm, organization and career context, 'diversity' relates to the existence of a variety of subgroups in the workforce. The dominant group in Western countries and many others are White men. In the past White men comprised most of the workforce, but this has changed, as they now form less than 50% of the workforce; for example, in the USA, only some 60% of the population are (non-Hispanic) White, and half of them only are males. Despite this, White males still hold the majority of managerial positions, and this disproportionate representation increases the higher up the organizational echelons one travels. White males' salaries are higher than those of women and other under-represented, most often disadvantaged groups. The substantial earnings gap between men and women varies in level, according to the country, the profession, and the sector. It is not unusual to find a 20%, 30%, or higher pay gap.

Under-represented groups include women (being the largest group that suffers discrimination) ethnic minority groups, people with a physical or mental disability, minority religion groups, older and younger people (although discrimination against older people is more prevalent in labour markets), LGBT+ people and people with different nationalities. And the list is not conclusive. Most of these sources of diversity are observable or easily detectable

(e.g. an accent that reflects a national origin), whereas some are not clearly identifiable (e.g. sexual orientation, religion, some disabilities). Harrison et al. (1998) and Harrison et al. (2002) refer to 'surface-' versus 'deep-'level diversity. Surface-level diversity refers to demographic, mostly visible characteristics, whereas deep-level diversity refers to attitude or approach. They claim that the effect of time will mostly neutralize the effect of surface-level diversity, and will enhance the effects of deep-level diversity.

Box 9.1: Ethnicity, gender, and earning variations: The case in the USA

Among the major race and ethnicity groups, Hispanics and Black people continued to have considerably lower earnings than White and Asian people. The median usual weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers in 2019 were \$706 for Hispanics, \$735 for Black people, \$945 for White people, and \$1,174 for Asian people. The earnings for White men (\$1,036), Black men (\$769), and Hispanic men (\$747) were 78%, 58%, and 56%, respectively, of the earnings of Asian men (\$1,336). The median earnings of White women (\$840), Black women (\$704), and Hispanic women (\$642) were 82%, 69%, and 63%, respectively, of the earnings of Asian women (\$1,025).

Source: BLS Reports, 2020

What is inclusion?

The distinction between diversity and inclusion is that *diversity* refers to differences within a group, and *inclusion* is about how those different members are treated and how they feel (Puritty et al., 2017). When inclusion does not happen, people from less-represented groups may feel excluded, and opt out of the system, for example, quit or withdraw. A stream of the literature focused on the question whether women tend to 'opt out' or are 'pushed out' of leadership positions by the dominant male leadership (Kossek, Su, & Wu, 2017).

Inclusion may be considered as the extent to which specific employees are accepted and treated as an insider by others. This influences the degree to which individuals can access resources, gain information, be involved in work groups, and have the ability to influence decision-making processes. It is focused on the level to which individuals feel a part of critical organizational processes. The outcome of true inclusion is the ability of employees to contribute fully and effectively to an organization, no matter what their background is: 'There is a critical difference between merely having diversity in an organization's workforce and developing the organizational capacity to leverage diversity as a resource' (Roberson, 2006, p. 234).

Shore et al. (2011) studied inclusion and diversity at the work group level, and presented a typology based on the level of belongingness perception and the level of value in uniqueness (see Table 9.1).

Table 9.1 Levels of belongingness perception and value in uniqueness

	Low belongingness	High belongingness
Low value in uniqueness	Exclusion: The employee is not treated as an insider and not as offering unique value	Assimilation: The employee is treated as an insider when conforming to the dominant values, norms and culture
High value in uniqueness	Differentiation: The employee is not treated as an insider but as one offering unique value	Inclusion: The employee is treated as an insider and as one who is allowed or encouraged to be unique

What is discrimination?

Discrimination means treating people unfavourably because they belong (or are perceived to belong) to a certain subgroup. This discrimination will usually be illegal if it is not anticipated that their belonging to the subgroup will influence performance in the job. A typical example is of women being overlooked when a promotion becomes available, or having significantly lower salaries than men in equivalent roles. Discrimination can apply in many ways, even against White males. In practice, though, it is usually people from minority groups that suffer from discrimination, and when intersectionality – belonging to more than one minority – for example, non-White people with a disability (Crenshaw, 2017), then the discrimination can be even stronger (Baruch et al., 2016b).

Most discrimination on the basis of diversity is illegal, but not all of it. Discrimination on the grounds of nationality means that one cannot gain employment because of one's nationality – nationals of some countries may need to have a work permit, and gaining this requires substantial efforts. Within the EU, however, EU nationals can work in any country without the need for a work permit. For some employers, sexual orientation is a cause for legal discrimination (e.g. this was the case in many armed forces, though by now some have changed their recruitment procedures to allow for it). The legality of these kinds of discrimination is highly contentious and misaligned with many organizational cultures and human rights perspectives.

Discrimination does not need to be direct. Indirect discrimination occurs when one condition or requirement for a job or a position implies that the person belongs to a certain group which is then discriminated against. For example, a job advertisement may state that candidates with disabilities are encouraged to apply, but the office in which they are expected to work might not be fully accessible. A different case in the UK found that relying solely on referrals or recommendations for hiring in a plant where most of employees were White males constituted indirect discrimination against Black people.

Terminology counts too. It is important to use the right language to avoid causing offence. For example, in the USA, it is preferable to use the term 'African-American' to 'Black'. It is also more appropriate to refer to 'people with a disability' instead of the previously used term 'disabled people'.

The outcomes of discrimination can be in terms of poor representation of minority groups in the higher echelons (promotion), or in lower pay. The pay gap is a well-documented issue. For example, in the context of gender discrimination, there are four recurring themes related

to the gender pay gap (Bishu & Alkadry, 2017). The first is about various estimations of the extent of the magnitude of the gender pay gap. The second investigates disparities in access to workplace authority as a driver of the pay gap. The third focuses on the HRM aspect of access to hiring and promotion practices as moderators of the pay gap. The fourth relates to the relationship between pay gap and gender representation (agency, occupation, and position segregation).

What is management of diversity?

'Management of diversity' means working systematically towards a workplace where the composition of the employees' diversity will reflect that of the general society. This involves taking proactive steps to promote a culture and atmosphere of equality and to ensure that there is no unjustified discrimination in the selection of people – both entering the organization and in promotional decisions. These can be the practice of recruitment and selection of new entrances, education and training of the existing workforce, career development initiatives (e.g. ensuring promotional opportunities for all), and specific practices such as mentoring – all with the aim of increasing and retaining workforce heterogeneity within the organization.

Inclusion would be the outcome of effective diversity management. By 'diversity' we refer to demographic differences among staff members. These can be observable, such as gender, race, age, or non-observable attributes such as culture, cognition, education, or a combination. Some can be hidden or open, for example, religion or sexual orientation. Diversity is considered a characteristic of a work group or organization. 'Inclusion', in contrast, refers to employee perceptions that their unique contribution to the organization is appreciated and their full participation is encouraged (Mor Barak, 2015). The relationship between these concepts indicates certain similarities but also distinctions (Roberson, 2006).

The issue of discrimination and diversity research is longstanding, and is covered by different streams of literature. Some are within the specific domain (e.g. gender studies, disability, etc.), and others are related to human resource management, for the context of people management and mismanagement (Triana et al., 2021).

Why manage diversity?

Aside from ethical and human rights perspectives, two of the key business reasons why organizations should manage diversity are: the legal aspect; and organizational performance, effectiveness, and outcomes. To be more explicit, Cox and Blake (1991) presented six managerial arguments to support the management of diversity in organizations:

1. *Cost*: the organization needs to be able to manage the full spectrum of the workforce, including segments that in the past were marginal, but are now becoming more dominant. Failing to do that will be costly and will prevent organizations from achieving full productivity.

2. *Resource acquisition*: Organizations with a favourable reputation for positive management of diversity (e.g. being in the Fortune 100 Best Employers list) will attract the most talented members of diverse groups.
3. *Marketing*: Organizations serve and produce for multicultural and diverse societies. A diverse workforce will have better insights and sensitivities to the needs of a diverse customer base.
4. *Creativity*: A diverse workforce should enhance the level of creativity and innovation.
5. *Problem solving*: A diverse workforce should produce high-quality decisions and solutions.
6. *System flexibility*: The better the management of diversity means more flexibility and faster and more efficient responsiveness to environmental changes.

Organizations are moving towards using the business case rather than the legal arguments in adopting alternative approaches to managing diversity. More specifically, the prospects of attracting ethical investors and government support are greater for organizations that practice positive management of diversity (Cassell & Kele, 2020). The ideas presented by Cox and Blake (1991) have been echoed by many. Organizations which apply practices to help tackle discrimination, for example flexibility practices (such as work–life balance or flexible work policies), are supporting diversity, but might be insufficient to enhance gender equity (Lewis & Humbert, 2010).

These arguments should help organizations, not just to note the issue of managing diversity through the eyes of the legal adviser, making sure they comply with the law, but to value diversity as a source of strength and competitiveness. Combining ethical and moral perspectives with cost-effectiveness and managerial best practice will result in recognition of the need to manage diversity for both strategic and pragmatic reasons.

Greenhaus et al. (2019) present two schools of thought on why organizations should manage diversity. One approach recognizes that the world and the workplace are becoming increasingly diverse. This trend is inevitable, therefore organizations must accept this new demographic reality, that is, hire and develop the most talented individuals from varying backgrounds in an effective and fair manner. Diversity is a fact of life and here to stay (and expand). The other approach goes further than seeing diversity as a necessity, and argues that diversity is inherently healthy and beneficial in its own right. This approach assumes that employees from different backgrounds will bring different strengths and perspectives, which, in turn, will enhance effectiveness.

In line with the first approach is the fact that certain changes in the composition of the workforce in Western societies are making the management of diversity even more acute and complex (Syed & Ozbilgin, 2019). Already in the last century it was noted that three groups have increased representation in the workforce: first, women; second, ethnic minorities (some of this increase was due to immigration and some to lack of parity in internal growth rates); and third, older workers, as we witness the phenomenon of the ageing of the working population (Syed & Ozbilgin, 2019). Other groups include people with disabilities and varied religious and cultural backgrounds. Following societal changes, the diversity of sexual orientation is

becoming more prominent, as people today are less reluctant to hide their sexual orientation. It was found that within organizations, individuals who are actors for social movement can change organizational policies, though implementing such commitments or policies is challenging. LGBT+ advocates have developed resources to ensure that diversity policies were increasingly relevant for sexual minorities, as found for the case of France (Buchter, 2020). She found that LGBT+ rights activists increased their influence by developing implementation resources that corporations could readily use to introduce or revise their diversity policies and practices to promote the inclusion of LGBT+ employees.

Are the arguments presented in the second approach (the business case) valid? Studies on diversity in top management teams (Opstrup & Villadsen, 2015) indicated that diversity leads to more effective decision-making processes and better organizational performance. This may be due to the process of sharing and benefitting from a variety of perspectives and ideas. Promoting women and members of other under-represented groups into top managerial jobs is not always simple, but can be done with the right attitude and managerial support. In the end, the outcomes for the organization will be positive, as found by Harel et al. (2003) (see later in this chapter for elaboration of this point).

Whether one adopts the first approach, the second, or both, the consequences are that diversity should be managed.

A pause for reflection

How much of managing diversity is truly aimed at inclusion and how much is addressing political correctness?

Are there risks?

Is diversity inherently good? Should we expect only positive outcomes from diversity? It is argued that there can be some negative aspects of increasing diversity, and these are more severe if diversity is not introduced properly into the organizational culture. For example, sexual harassment is a serious misbehaviour (Fitzgerald & Cortina, 2018), yet, in a hypothetical single-gender workplace there would be no cases of men (or women) harassing women (or men). While earlier studies suggested negative outcomes of a lowered attachment of white people and males (Tsui et al., 1992), later work identified positive organizational outcomes (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2001). As for decision making, evidence does not suggest that heterogeneous teams make better decisions (Martin-Alcazar et al., 2012).

Are the risks strong enough to discourage organizations from managing diversity? The answer is clearly negative. As indicated, diversity should be embraced. However, risk should be managed too, and awareness will help in prompting the setting of mechanisms to tackle any possible negative outcomes.

Awareness, toleration, and change

Lack of inclusion and respect is no longer tolerated by populations that have been oppressed and undermined in many ways throughout history. This is exemplified in Table 9.2 with the two cases of #MeToo and BlackLivesMatter. These are two influential movements; the focus of the former is more on work-related issues, whereas the latter is more about the basic element of life and resilience. Other forms of institutional fighting of discrimination exist at many national levels and globally, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, which was adopted in December 1979 by the United Nations General Assembly. The Convention establishes not only an international bill of rights for women, but also an agenda for action by countries to guarantee the enjoyment of those rights. Whereas the principles and ideas are sound and accepted by many (though not all – see the case of Turkey), the reader should realize that over 40 years later, discrimination against women is far from being eliminated.

When it is not recognized, women suffer even more. In 2021, the Turkish President Erdogan issued a decree, annulling Turkey's ratification of the Istanbul Convention on violence against women. The protest that followed has not changed much at the time of publication.

Table 9.2 An overview of #MeToo and BlackLivesMatter

#MeToo	Black Lives Matter
<p>#MeToo is a social movement set against sexual abuse and sexual harassment. Under this movement, people publicize allegations of sex offences and crimes. It varies with context, for example local or international.</p> <p>It is a movement set to improve social justice and empower individuals to break silence (mostly but not just women), doing so through empathy and solidarity and strength in numbers. The idea is that by making sexual abuse and harassment visible and showing how many women have survived sexual assault and harassment, especially in the workplace, the phenomenon will no longer be accepted as a reality.</p>	<p>BlackLivesMatter was founded in 2013. It is a global organization in the US, UK, and Canada, whose mission is to eradicate white supremacy and build local power to intervene in violence inflicted on Black communities by the state and vigilantes.</p> <p>The organization states: "By combating and countering acts of violence, creating space for Black imagination and innovation, and centering Black joy, we are winning immediate improvements in our lives."</p> <p>It is a movement striving for a world where Black lives are no longer systematically targeted for demise. It aims to contribute to society, and to resilience in the face of deadly oppression. The call for Black lives to matter is a rallying cry for ALL Black lives striving for liberation.</p> <p>Taken from: https://blacklivesmatter.com/about/</p>

Managing diversity – releasing the hidden talent

Today, we live in a society that is, on the one hand, more conscious of diversity, but on the other hand, much more litigious (Baruch, 2001a). This means, amongst other things, that people have learned to safeguard their rights. The American phrase 'see you in court' means that an increasing emphasis is being put on being legally sound. Thus, one of the major impetuses for discussing the management of diversity is the possibility of discrimination and the means of preventing it in order to avoid litigation. The issue that should, however, take precedence,

and was only recognized in the last few decades, is that of performance, as mentioned above. The effective use of the diverse competencies of a diverse workforce makes good business sense. Managing diversity should take the form of a holistic approach to creating a corporate environment that allows a variety of people to reach their full potential in pursuit of organizational goals and targets.

There are several interventions that organizations can adopt to tackle and manage diversity in an effective manner. These are strategic approaches, which are translated into practices for dealing with diversity, some positive, others negative (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2012). The most positive ones are inclusion, building relationships, and fostering mutual adaptation. Inclusion can follow AA programmes, when organizations may actively work to increase numbers of diverse employees at all levels. Fostering mutual adaptation happens when people recognize and embrace differences, and agree that everyone is free to be themselves and to grow, thereby allowing the greatest accommodation of diversity. Less positive interventions are trying to deny that differences exist, thus ignoring any possible impact of demography, trying merely to tolerate differences, or trying to assimilate minority groups so they learn to fit in and become like the dominant group. Worst are suppressing, discouraging differences to maintain the status quo, or isolating, maintaining the current way of doing things by pushing diverse people onto the sidelines.

Hybrid or multiple approaches can be applied simultaneously within any specific organization. Applying a positive response can be taken as a best-practice approach, leading to a general positive view of life and work thinking, such as positive psychology (Hart, 2021).

The first stage in managing diversity is recruiting a diverse workforce. Therefore, specific attention to diversity should be reflected in the selection process, for both the performance and legal arguments. Typically, employers focus on compliance with equal employment opportunity (EEO) and affirmative action (AA) legislation in the context of diversity – for both recruitment and promotion. In a complementary way, valuing, developing, and making use of diversity can lead to better performance. Diversity can be managed through effective HRM and specific career practices (Shen et al., 2009).

Diversity-oriented selection and recruitment practices in organizations can improve diversity, but needs to go beyond the formal application of HRM (Rivera, 2012). Organizations should ensure that their selection practices are non-discriminatory and continue their goals of increasing diversity. An analysis of such practices would include validating tests (e.g. use of CVs/resumes that show a person's age, gender, or photo) and performing job analyses to ensure that potential candidates were not unnecessarily and unjustifiably excluded. Interviewers would be diverse, including members of the population to which the pool of applicants belonged. Interviewers would be aware of potential biases that might exclude diverse workers or which might alienate diverse workers during recruitment and selection processes.

To reach a successful inclusion agenda, organizations should start with awareness, move to appreciation, and end up with an effective management of diversity. Valuing diversity is crucial (McMahan et al., 1998). It refers to the desire to include and use the assets of workers from various groups as potential employees, rather than excluding or limiting contributions of any potential employee because of any factor related to diversity.

Organizational approaches to tackling discrimination and improving inclusion

Many HR managers put an increasing emphasis on tackling all possible kinds of discrimination. EEO and AA legislation are high on the agenda, especially in relation to gender. Towards the end of the 20th century the phenomenon of the ‘glass ceiling’ effect was recognized. It means that women were often not promoted above a certain managerial level (Morrison et al., 1987a). According to Morrison et al., the glass ceiling is ‘a transparent barrier, that kept women from rising above a certain level in corporations’ (1987a, pp. 13 & 124). By the start of the 21st century, most of the glass ceilings were at least shattered, namely by women managed to reach top positions – yet, in many cases, those who made it were one-off cases or ‘token’ appointments, and the majority of top management teams, certainly CEOs, comprise men.

Many programmes are meant to support the population discriminated against, sometimes even to create ‘positive discrimination’. It is important, though, that such ‘positive discrimination’ does not imply abandonment of selection according to skills, competencies, and suitability for the job. There is always a danger that positive discrimination could result in choosing someone with lower skills and qualifications, reducing future prospects of success for under-represented populations. One well-documented phenomenon is the ‘glass cliff’ (Ryan et al., 2016), where women are disproportionately represented in leadership positions that have low chance of success.

Problems of discrimination exist for many groups, not just for women. Ethnic background, disability, age, and religious belief can prevent appropriate people from making their full contribution. For example, mass early retirements accepted by or imposed on people in their 50s might deprive organizations of a pool of talented and experienced people. People with disabilities can be disadvantaged where they are not supported with the right practical adjustments to enable them to fulfil their role. Organizations that recognize these issues will benefit from pursuing different career management practices for particular groups with specific needs.

Special programmes are not necessarily concerned with discrimination. The case of the single parent family brings up another issue that may require special attention, such as alternative work arrangements. The HR system must recognize this, especially where international relocations become necessary as part of career progress (Baruch et al., 2016a). The trend of globalization continues, and managing expatriates is still a crucial issue alongside other types of global mobility.

Beyond demographic factors

Diversity is not limited to demographic characteristics such as race, age, and gender, but has many not-so-obvious facets. First, there are the attitudes of employees, in line with the concept proposed by Harrison et al. (1998), of surface- as opposed to deep-level diversity; and second, the diversity may relate to variables such as work arrangements (contingent as opposed to the core workforce) in the organizational context and social status in the social-level context.

Research has shown that diversity affects group processes and performance (Chatman et al., 1998). While here, I will focus mostly on personal characteristics as a source of diversity; other types of diversity exist, and will be discussed too.

The most obvious negative outcome of diversity mismanagement is the possibility of people being discriminated against, not because of performance, attitudes, or other job-related factors, but because of an irrelevant personal background (Triana et al., 2021). It is important to realize that in both selection and career decisions the aim is to ‘discriminate’ – between the right people (who should be selected, promoted, etc.) and the wrong ones. The ‘discrimination’ that takes place should be undertaken according to fair, accepted, and relevant criteria, and should comply with the law and with principles of management (best practice). If the ‘discrimination’ is based on irrelevant factors (e.g. gender, race, etc.), this is a real discrimination.

What is a real and relevant difference, and what is a stereotype? A stereotype is ‘a preconceived perception or image one has of another person based on that person’s membership in a particular social group or category’ (Greenhaus et al., 2019). Some stereotypes can be positive; others are quite negative. Nevertheless, organizational career decisions should not be based on stereotypes but on merit.

Procedural justice and distributive justice

Procedural justice refers to the process by which norms are implemented. *Distributive justice*, on the other hand, refers to the actual outcomes of such procedures. Procedural justice can be viewed as the degree to which the rules and procedures specified by policies are properly followed in all cases under which they are applied. In an organizational context, procedural justice concerns the means (rather than the ends) of social justice (Furnham, 2005). For example, ‘pay procedures are more likely to be perceived as fair (1) if they are consistently applied to all employees, (2) if employee participation and/or representation is included, (3) if appeals procedures are available, and (4) if the data used are accurate’ (Milkovich & Newman, 1996: 62). The underlying assumption is that employees will accept and comply with organizational policies and decisions if they are based on fair and just procedures.

Justice refers not just to being treated with dignity and respect, but also to being given adequate information regarding these procedures (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Vermunt & Törnblom, 2016). Therefore, organizational career systems should ensure that the process is transparent. HRM practices, and in particular career-related decision processes, are highly relevant to the evaluation and acceptance of procedural justice, which engenders a culture of trust.

Procedural justice as reflected in HRM-related decision making has a strong effect on employees’ attitudes and behaviours (Gilliland, 1994; Konovsky & Folger, 1994). People need to know that a fair rule exists, and that it is applied to all. Then, of course, there is the issue of whether the rules and procedures are translated into actual fair distribution (distributive justice).

A pause for reflection

Question 1

Think of ways in which the traditional management system can pretend to apply rules justly, but refrain from doing so.

Question 2

Will people accept and believe such a system, or will they realize what is going on and resent the system or even quit because it fails to deliver?

The virtuous versus the vicious cycle of diversity

The starting point for the model presented in Figure 9.1 is the current labour market in most industrial societies. Many populations that once were not represented in the workforce (people of different ethnic origin) or in the managerial workforce (women and people from deprived social classes) now have the opportunity to become equal partners. The question remains whether this right, though legally valid, is only on paper, or whether it is a reality, and if the latter, the effect of this reality for organizations and individual employees.

The first question to be considered is how far the wide diversity in the workforce is reflected in any specific workplace. Can we expect a similar distribution of diversity? What should be the reference level? For example, sometimes national statistics should provide guidelines, whereas in specific regions regional statistics should do so. As another example, the representation of Roman Catholics in the management or organizations in Northern Ireland should be higher than that in Wales, as there are more Roman Catholics in Northern Ireland than in Wales. Similarly, the expected percentage of Hispanics in the managerial workforce in San Antonio, Texas, should be higher than that in Seattle, Washington, whereas in Seattle one may expect to find more managers of Far Eastern national origin due to the geographical proximity.

On the other hand, one can and should learn from industries where diversity has been proven to work effectively. Such is the case of women and ethnic minorities in the legal profession, though gaps still persist in representation (Aulack et al., 2017). Different people bring different qualities, different perspectives and different inputs. This is what makes variety so beneficial, on the one hand, but also so challenging, on the other.

Following Harrison et al. (1998), we can refer to visible as opposed to invisible diversity. Some types of diversity are clearly visible (e.g. colour of the skin, gender), others less so (e.g. religion, sexual orientation). In the latter cases, it is up to the person whether or not to reveal these aspects of their identity. In a study that empirically tested deep-level and surface diversity, Harrison et al. (2002) investigated the impact of time on both types of diversity. Their data supported the model presented in Figure 9.2, showing that, as time passes, integration reduces the impact of surface-level diversity (mostly demographic factors), but increases the relevance of deep-level diversity, as a factor that is considered in recruitment decisions (Casper, Wayne, & Manegold, 2013).

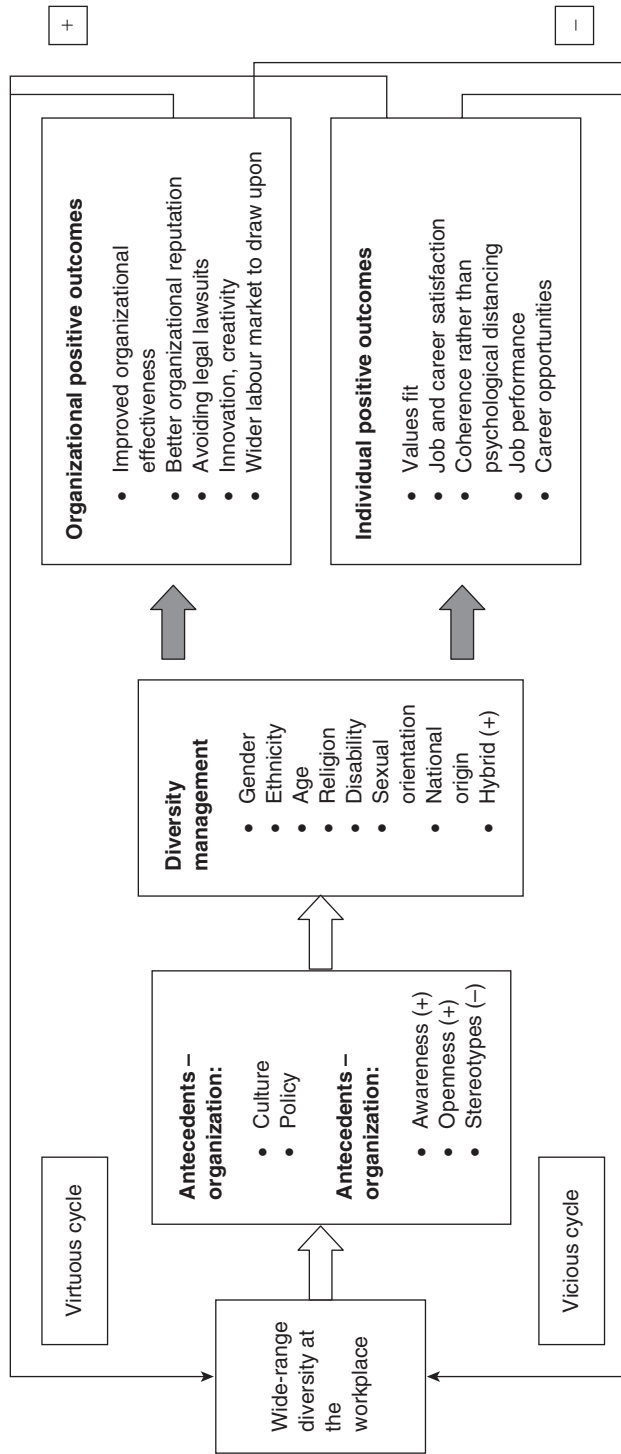


Figure 9.1 The virtuous versus the vicious cycle of diversity

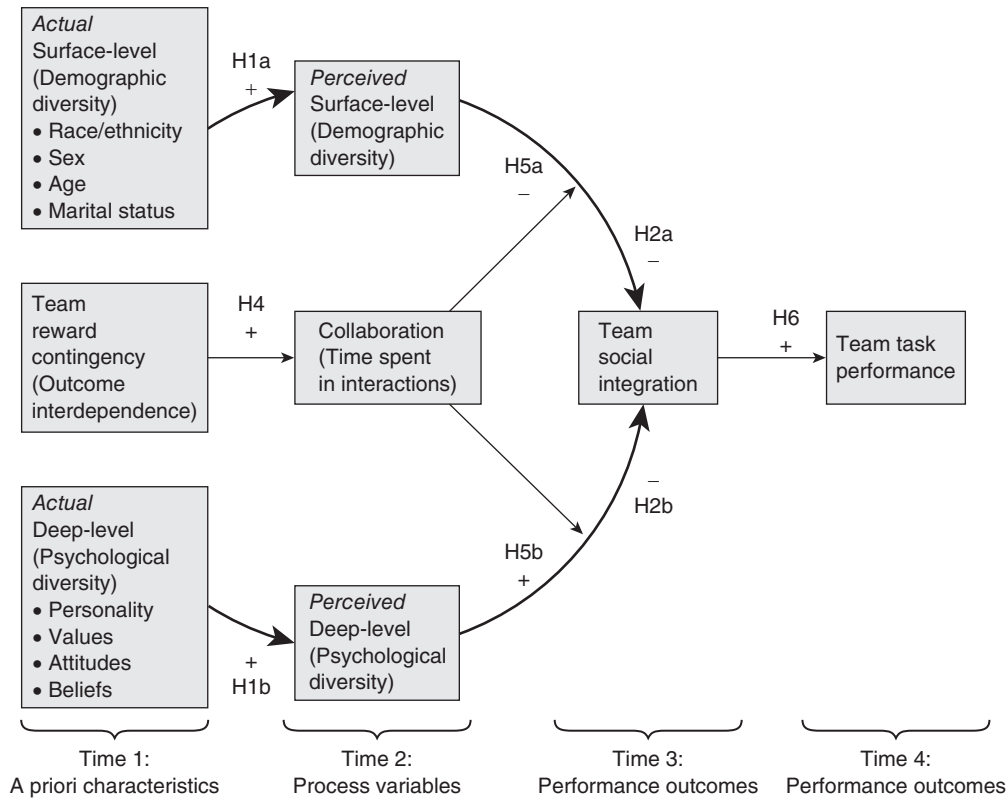


Figure 9.2 Intervening and interactive temporal mechanisms translating team surface- and deep-level diversity into social integration and performance (Harrison et al., 2002, p. 1030)

Clair et al. (2002) discuss the types of strategies people use to either reveal or ‘pass’ (i.e. hide) their invisible differences at work, the motives that lead people to reveal or pass, and the moderating effect of social and organizational context on the relationship between motives and strategies people use.

Building on social identity theory, Clair et al. (2002) identified several strategies for managing invisible, potentially stigmatized social identities at work. There are two basic strategic choices that individuals with potentially stigmatized social identities can make as they interact with someone at work: to hide (pass) or to reveal their invisible social identity. Within these two choices, there are a number of particular strategies that people may apply to pass or reveal their invisible difference during a workplace interaction. Passing is a category of identity management strategies, the outcome of which is to allow a person to be incorrectly classified by another person as someone without a discrediting or devalued social identity. Note that passing may also be unintentional. Individuals can rely on two different types of passing strategy: counterfeiting and evading. Counterfeiting is an active strategy of concealing part of the self

to assume a false identity. An evading strategy results in passing because the individual evades all queries related to the invisible identity or social group membership in question.

Much has changed in society's attitude towards LGBT+ rights, and it is now much more frequent for individuals to be open about their sexual orientation, even in cultures where this was historically difficult (Papadaki & Giannou, 2021). This has implications, both positive and negative: the positive include improved psychological wellbeing and interpersonal relations, whereas the negatives are associated with social avoidance and disapproval as key costs by people holding homophobic views (Corrigan & Matthews, 2003). National and cultural differences play a crucial role in the actual outcomes of inclusion of LGBT+ people (Ozeren & Aydin, 2016).

While 'passing' is a category of strategies designed to conceal a potentially stigmatized identity or social identity group membership, revealing strategies are tactics designed to disclose to others an identity that would otherwise be invisible or unrecognizable. The three different revealing strategies Clair et al. (2002) propose are: signalling, normalizing, and differentiating. Individuals who signal are attempting to disclose their hidden identity, but rather than explicitly 'going public' and fully disclosing their difference, they send messages, drop hints, and give clues to those to whom they wish to disclose their full identity. Individuals employ a normalizing strategy by revealing their hidden, potentially stigmatized identity to others and then attempting to make their difference seem commonplace or ordinary, within the social norms of the organization, essentially denying that their identity matters. Differentiating means seeking to underscore difference, and this is sometimes done in an effort to change others' attitudes and behaviour.

The motives for choosing a strategy can be personal, instrumental, or both. For example, instrumental motives for revealing may be to obtain social support, to obtain accommodation, to create awareness, and to attempt creating social change. Of course, the organizational and cultural context will influence people's choice of a particular strategy.

A pause for reflection

What strategy would you adopt if you felt you were different? Why? How would you practice your strategy?

Specific groups and relevant issues

This section examines specific groups in terms of the following factors:

Demographic: gender, ethnic origin, age (young, old), disability, sexual orientation, religion.

Presence: deep-level diversity.

Intersectionality: existence of hybrid diversity (combining more than one possible source of diversity).

At its narrowest, the management of diversity refers to the propensity of an organization to have an appropriate EEO system of policies and practices to ensure that people are treated according to their abilities, competencies, contribution, and performance, rather than being judged by irrelevant factors. Therefore, gender discrimination and racial discrimination come into the so-called management of diversity. This is indeed a narrow approach. Unfair and unlawful discrimination can have a variety of grounds, as listed above. There is also a lawful discrimination when people of a different nationality face higher hurdles when applying for a job in a different country. With the rare exception of job searches within the European Union, countries actively discriminate against people of foreign nationality, refusing them employment unless they have a work permit (e.g. the US 'green card').

Box 9.2: Meet our first ...

The presence in senior management positions of members of groups that were previously the object of discrimination is often the result of the efforts of pioneering people. Many of the female executives studied by Morrison et al. (1987a) were the first women to reach that rank in their organizations. The same is true in relation to the first Black person in the job: Colin Powell was the first non-White Secretary of State in the USA, then came Barack Obama, the first non-White US President, and now Kamala Harris, the first female non-White Vice President. It can be about disability: the first blind person in a top political post was David Blunkett, a leading politician in the UK, an example that blindness does not prevent people from being able to lead, make tough decisions, and be part of the government. In many cases, the presence of these pioneers paves the way for the next generation of a diverse workforce.

It remains the case, however, that such appointments are sometimes made for reasons of image or publicity or to comply with legal requirements. 'Being there' as the first non-White male in a top role imposes a heavy burden on that person, who is put under strong scrutiny, knowing that if they are seen to fail, this will have a long-lasting impact for many future generations of non-White-males in the managerial ranks, in terms of public perception, rather than anything implicit. In other words, this could reinforce discriminatory views, rather than challenge them.

Gender variety

Women form some half of the population, but not half of the workforce. For two reasons it is difficult or impossible for women to make up exactly half of the labour force. First, in many countries women are forced or allowed to retire at an earlier age than men. Second, for biological reasons, many women do leave the workforce for a period to give birth and to care for their infants. Nevertheless, and to some extent affected by the greater involvement in recent years of fathers in caring for children, the trend is towards near-equality in terms of male and female participation in the labour force.

The negative aspect of this trend is that, in terms of the pay gap between men and women and promotion to top positions, the movement towards equality is much slower. Women still earn significantly less than men. The unadjusted gender wage gap varied from around 2% to 32% among OECD countries in 2018 (OECD, 2018), and the World Economic Forum (2020) reports a 31.4% gap globally – albeit women represent half of the world's population and human capital.

Representation at the top is even less equal, but, again, there are some improvements. When Morrison et al. published their seminal book, *Breaking the Glass Ceiling* (1987b), only 1.7% of corporate officers of Fortune 500 companies were women, and only one woman was a CEO. Among the 'very big names' in the early 2000s, Carly Fiorina was a pioneer female CEO when leading the merged HP/Compaq company. Now, 20 year later, many top leaders are women: Marissa Mayer as the CEO of Yahoo!, Susan Wojcicki of YouTube, and Mary Barra leading General Motors are just some prominent examples.

According to the Global Gender Gap Report 2020 of the World Economic Forum (2020), the average global (population-weighted) pay gap completed to parity is at 68.6%, which although is an indication of continuous improvement on recent years, is a major gap. It means that there is still a 31.4% average gender gap that remains to be closed globally. Unfortunately, the same report states: 'Projecting current trends into the future, the overall global gender gap will close in 99.5 years, on average, across the 107 countries covered continuously since the first edition of the report.'

The Scandinavian countries led the way in introducing women as equal partners into the employment realm and are top of global league table for the lowest gender pay gap (World Economic Forum, 2020). The origin for these achievements are rooted in developing new social models of gender equality at the end of the 1960s and in the 1970s (Moen, 1989). Much of the trend towards gender equality was supported by legislation (Enquist, 1984), and there is still considerable legal action to enable and encourage EEO in Western societies. Hull and Nelson (2000), for example, explore three different theoretical models of gender differences in professional careers. They discovered, in line with other scholarly findings (cf. Hall-Taylor, 1997), that differences in career path and achievements cannot be fully explained by career choice, and that there are constraints affecting women's development. Conversely and controversially, Hakim (2000) suggested that part of the lack of equality is due to women's self-defeating approach to careers.

Although more women start professional careers now than in the past, they often begin in lower-prestige jobs than, and make slower career progress than, their male counterparts. A better picture is found where more diversity exists, such as in the civil service (Barnett et al., 2000; Riccucci, 2018). However, both the employment world (i.e. the labour market and employers' attitudes) and personal factors create and maintain the glass ceiling. Nevertheless, diversity is not restricted to the issue of gender, as will be discussed later in this chapter.

The stereotype of women is that they are more caring and better in teamwork and at creating relationships than men. Women can bring different and beneficial skills to leadership roles. In certain roles these qualities are more important than others. However, in the tough current business environment, such qualities are not necessarily advantageous. It could be said that

this argument is based on a stereotypical view of women; more studies are needed to identify if this is indeed the case for women in management.

Box 9.3: The Formula One story

Imagine that you are about to participate in a car race, and that all participants have quite similar cars, but some, including yours, need to have a pit stop about half-way through the race. The other cars do not need to stop. What influence would that knowledge have on you?

You may decide that it is not worthwhile to race at all, with such different conditions. Alternatively, you may be highly motivated to be faster on the first leg, to reach the pit stop as soon as you can.

Now imagine that you have reached the pit stop, and have experienced the hardships, the dangers, the risks, and rough fights that characterize such a race. Now you have some time to think, and you are given a choice: to return to the race, or to take a different route. If you rejoin the race you return to the stress and competition, but your car is heavier with fuel and more difficult to steer, and you have lost much time in comparison with your competitors. The other route will give you a lot of satisfaction and you will earn appreciation from the crowd. Thus, although it is different from the route taken by Formula One winners, it does provide a good incentive. It is not hard to imagine that many will choose the alternative option.

The kaleidoscope career model calls it 'opting-out' (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006).

Let us clarify the car race metaphor. The drivers that have to stop in the race are women who have had children and taken maternity leave. And during and following the break, when they experience motherhood, many realize that there are other incentives and different appreciations for people that are not in the 'fast lane' of the rat race of organizational life. If this metaphor reflects reality, studies will show that young women develop faster than men in their early career stages, but after a time leave the race.

While metaphors can clarify matters and provide clearer insights, they are not always perfect (Inkson et al., 2015). One clear difference between Formula One racing and the rat race of organizations is that when cars pull into the pit stop, they do so in order to receive (petrol, tyres), whereas women who have children stop in order to give birth and while men can now take paternity leave, the majority of cases of child-care are still taken by women. Some may raise a moral question about the role of society in general in ensuring equity and fair play for all. A similar metaphor was presented by Lyndon Johnson, the then American president, in 1965, when he compared the race between men and women to a 100-yard dash in which the legs of one of the participants are shackled together. In view of the fact that the other has a clear advantage, the race is then declared unfair. What is the appropriate course of action in such a situation – is removing the shackles enough? In a race the answer is clearly no. In the business world, positive discrimination might produce some other injustice.

Initially, it was felt that the way forward was to legislate to ensure equal terms of employment, with the hope that succeeding generations would overcome the old gap. However, thinking on equality issues progressed, and in the UK the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 helped to prevent gender-based discrimination (the Act was extended in 1986). Similarly, the Equal Pay Act 1970 was enacted to ensure equal pay for similar work. When it came into force many organizations tried to 'beat the system' by offering women only lower-level jobs (and more poorly paid). Heavy fines, however, make it not worthwhile for companies to try to avoid the law.

CASE STUDY 9.1: SUPPORTING WOMEN

The Center for Development and Population Activities (CEDPA) in Washington, DC aims to support women worldwide. In line with the idea that weaker groups deserve special support, the Center has been running the Women in Management (WIM) programme with the aim of preparing women to lead development efforts for several decades. The results are impressive. Among the thousands of alumnae in 138 countries there are parliamentarians, ministers, NGO presidents, and network coordinators. As women's roles in public life have expanded, these CEDPA alumnae have been at the forefront in identifying and addressing the critical issues that women face in the 21st century.

The programme helps women to develop personal and organizational strategies to bring about sustainable development in their countries. It covers the following topics:

- *Leadership*: How to cultivate a constituency and a committed team of staff members.
- *Visioning*: How to develop shared goals and garner support from the grassroots to policy makers.
- *Management*: Techniques for effective resource management (including human, financial, and other institutional resources).
- *Communication*: How to use strategic communication to educate, motivate, and energize the public and institutions.
- *Donor relations*: How to engage donors in a long-term partnership.
- *Participation*: Methods to involve the community and other stakeholders in programme design.

A variety of other support and developmental programmes to help women in management exist, leading to positive results in developing women leaders (Debebe et al., 2016).

Women and entrepreneurship

Women are active in the business community, accounting for a growing number of business start-ups. Yet, current discourse of entrepreneurship fundamentally disadvantages women (Marlow, 2019). Starting one's own business can be seen as 'an easy way to escape', although it only appears easy, as many entrepreneurs will testify.

CASE STUDY 9.2: START-UP AS A CAREER SOLUTION

Adriana was a broker in the City of London. After working for a number of years in a large multinational investment bank, she and her husband decided to raise a family. Less than two years after her first son was born, Adriana felt she needed the action of business life, but did not want to give up her family responsibilities.

Her husband remained employed in another job in the city, the type she would

have had if she had continued her career. As a result, she decided to start her own small business, from home. She opened a business importing hair accessories and manages it all from the convenience of her home, close to London. After a shaky start she is beginning to see that the business should survive and grow while her family benefit from her being at home.

There is support for the effectiveness argument in a number of studies. Drawing on the literature of HRM, women in management and organizational effectiveness, Harel, Tzafrir and Baruch (2003) suggested a model (see Figure 9.3) bringing these perspectives together into a single framework. Their model, based on an empirical study of 102 Israeli organizations, indicates a significant and positive association between high-quality HRM and fairness in promotion of women in organizations. Fairness in the promotion of women into managerial ranks was also found to be associated with higher organizational effectiveness.

Davidson and Burke (2011) summarize prominent research findings about women in management:

- There has been progress in the number of women entering management, but the pace is slow, and attention to this issue is still needed.
- Managerial job segregation by gender persists (women are found in HR, public affairs, communication, and law, but less in line management). One problem with such segregation is that such jobs rarely lead to executive-level positions.

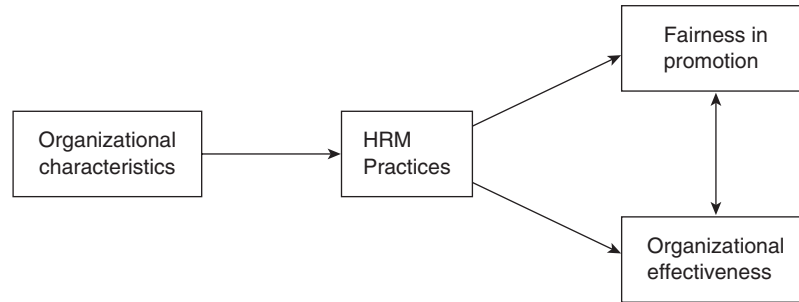


Figure 9.3 Fairness in promotion and organizational effectiveness (Harel et al., 2003)

- Intersectionality (hybrid diversity) (in their case, women of ethnic minorities) is even harder to overcome.
- Affirmative action is important for making progress towards closing the gap, although it might create problems such as tokenism and backlash.
- A new trend towards lean-and-mean business management may contrast with the (archetypal) qualities women bring to the workplace. Being mostly in mid-level management, they will be more dispensable than men.
- Flexible and alternative work arrangements might be superficial mechanisms that, in fact, limit women’s career prospects.
- Women still carry higher responsibility than men in their ‘second shift’ work at home.
- Organizational culture tends to be mostly male culture, and this can work against women.
- The best argument for women in management should be the business case of implementation of resources.

Therefore, organizations should promote a culture where women and other minorities can succeed.

Gender identity

In the past, there were generally viewed to be two genders, male and female, but there is now greater recognition of other gender identities. There is still a long way to go on this front, and people who do not identify as exclusively male or female, who are non-binary or transgender, can face many forms of workplace discrimination; from not being able to access gender-neutral toilet facilities, to incorrect use of pronouns, or direct harassment. People may feel the need to ‘pass’ for fear of discrimination (Miller & Grollman, 2015).

Ethnicity

Race and ethnicity also produce a rich variety, and in many countries, the minorities comprise a combination of many different minorities. In the USA, the major groups of ethnic minorities

are African-American, people of Asian origin (with Chinese, Indian and South-East Asian immigrants the source of this variety), Native Americans, and the fast-growing Hispanic people (mostly from Central and South America). It is estimated that by the mid-century, White people (non-Hispanic) will form less than 50% of the population (Craig & Richeson, 2018).

The racial issue goes beyond employment and careers. The Black Lives Matter movement has gained strong attention as it is concerned with the worth not only of the labour, but of the life of Black people (Szetela, 2020).

In the UK, many immigrants came from the former British Empire, including many from India and Pakistan, but other places too. In Germany, there is a growing community of Turkish-born immigrants. Other Western countries also have significant sub-populations of different ethnic origins. There have been continuous waves of migration from Africa to Europe, some for humanitarian motives, others are economic migration, which increases diversity minorities in Europe (Giménez-Gómez, Walle, & Zergawu, 2019), making countries like France and Sweden have significantly large sections of the population descended from Africa and the Middle East. Some of them arrived unauthorized, leading to further obstacles to enter the labour market (Carling & Hernández-Carretero, 2011).

In marketing and creative activities, ethnicity has to be taken into account. Some people may put greater trust in people of the same origin, when they encounter them in business situations, for example, representing companies in sales, negotiations, and deal making. Moreover, consumer companies that target the whole population should be aware of the specific needs and tastes of various groups within the population. Ensuring that the teams which make decisions about products and markets are representative and will make such targeting more effective. Such team members may also be a source of valuable (e.g. local) information.

Age

Age diversity in the workforce derives from the fact that those in work range in age from about 18 to 65, the formal retirement age in most countries. The two possible forms of age-related discrimination are that against young people and that against older people, with the latter gaining more attention from legislators and the media. The numbers of people of each age are easily identifiable, and trends are relatively simple to recognize.

There are several trends in relation to the age composition of people in the labour market. The age at entry has been rising as the proportion of school leavers who go on to university has increased, thus delaying their entry to the labour market (more than one-third of the current population in developed societies attend university, and the proportion will continue to grow). At the other end of the spectrum, we find people aged about 65 years are retiring from employment. So the main input for understanding age trends is the past birth rate. To take just one example, following the Second World War there was a large increase in births. People born in the late 1940s and the 1950s (termed 'baby boomers') entered the labour market in the 1960s, and these people are now approaching retirement. In contrast, in the following years the birth rate declined, so fewer people entered the labour market.

Developments in the age profile of workers have profound implications for the management of careers. Career structures that suited the traditional work attitudes of older generations do not suit the needs of more recent generations. Remuneration systems that reward seniority and tenure may prove too costly to maintain if there is a surplus of ageing employees in mid-level management, and might hamper a firm's competitiveness (Johnston, 1991). Another apparent problem is the tendency to perceive older people as reluctant to change, less creative, and with declining ability to undertake physical tasks. In many cases this is nothing more than a stereotype distortion. Some of these possible perceptions are invalid or irrelevant. Most older staff are not employed in manual labour, so the expected reduction in physical ability is irrelevant for them. For the few who are so employed, their wider experience may compensate for their declining physical power.

In managerial as well as clerical jobs, older employees are likely to possess wide knowledge and experience, and may prove to be more loyal and committed than younger personnel – qualities that will benefit their employees. On the other hand, as we saw in Chapter 2, these qualities are not always required in a world of redundancies, restructuring, and rightsizing.

Discrimination against young people may backfire too, as depicted in Case study 9.3. Such discrimination is problematic at the society level, as it might create a generation of people who will never enter the labour market.

CASE STUDY 9.3: TOO YOUNG, TOO INEXPERIENCED?

FinCorp is a large, established, and leading UK financial corporation. For generations they were known as a workplace that invested in their new talent, recruiting many graduates and training them as professionals in accounting, insurance, and so on. However, the firm realized that there was a consistent trend whereby young graduates who gained their first job with FinCorp tended to quit the company after some two to three years. They benefited from the investment and training provided, were able to put the name of FinCorp on their CVs, and were then happy to look elsewhere for jobs.

As a result, FinCorp decided to stop or reduce significantly their graduate recruitment and instead to hire people with a few years' experience. This way they would benefit from the investment that other companies put into their graduate recruits. But this also discriminated against young people entering the labour market.

The argument is clear, and to a certain extent the change in policy was effective. But are there flaws in the argument?

First, FinCorp should have checked *why* those graduates were leaving them. Maybe their compensation scheme was inappropriate? Even if it is an employer

(Continued)

who provides the training that makes an employee more valuable, the employer should recognize and reward that value. Maybe the roles offered to young managers were not challenging enough? Maybe they saw no future career prospects?

Second, by opting for this strategy, looking for people who are inclined to leave their employers, FinCorp would be able to recruit only people with a high tendency to quit their employers, that is,

less committed staff. This may have been FinCorp's intention, but not necessarily. With their ethos of being an established firm, they need a core of able and committed people who are well integrated into their culture. By leaving it to other firms to provide professional training for those who may become FinCorp's future managers, FinCorp also has no control over the culture they may absorb – and it may be a culture that is not appreciated in FinCorp.

When formulating strategy and policies, organizations need to understand national-level trends. An ageing population, with falling participation rates amongst older workers, will adversely affect the labour market. The need to increase employment rates amongst older working-age women will become more and more important as employers face growing skill shortages.

The general ageing trend of the population in most developed countries is complicated due to increasing life expectancy, coupled with low birth rates. If older people will be excluded from the workforce, there will be fewer people to bear the burden of financing pensions for future generations. It is not merely for those over retirement age, but also many aged 50–65. This has led, amongst other factors, to the logical conclusion of abolishing retirement age or extending it (Baruch et al. 2014).

One challenge, which is a national rather than a company-level issue, is how to retain within the labour market the huge number of people forced to take early retirement, preventing them from becoming an unproductive, declining, and frustrated group. This trend is exacerbated by the 4th industrial revolution (Schwab, 2017), which may cause older generations to be in a position of lack of employment opportunities. Moreover, many of these people need to work in those final ten years or so of their working life in order to secure a reasonable level of pension income, otherwise they will become a burden on their close family and community. People forced to leave employment after a certain age will find it hard or practically impossible to rejoin the labour market. In some industries such as IT being over 40 means 'old'. Not employing these people is a waste to both organizations and society.

On the other side of the coin there are young people who feel that they cannot get proper job offers because they are too young, although they may be well qualified and trained for the jobs they apply for. One indirect impact of age on careers is that older workers may not hold

the work attitudes and career perceptions an organization may expect its employees to hold. Attitudes are part of the 'deep' level of diversity discussed earlier in this chapter.

Disability

To benefit from a wider talent pool, as well as to act with social responsibility, organizations should employ people with disabilities (PWDs) (Kulkarni et al., 2016).

A significant share of the population has a mental or physical disability, and their employment levels are far below those with no disability. According to the US Bureau of Labour Statistics (2020), in 2019, 19.3% of PWDs were employed. For those without a disability, the figure was 66.3% employed in 2019 (US Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2021).

PWDs suffer lack of employment opportunities and career growth options available to their counterparts without disabilities (Bonaccio et al., 2020). They experience discrimination, stereotyping, and barriers to the employment (Mackelprang & Salsgiver, 2016). As a result, many tend to end with low employment, low-pay, job insecurity, and poor quality of life (Shantz, Wang & Malik 2018).

Due to past moral pressure, there are both legislative and government obligations on employers to recruit people with disabilities. The argument for doing so is not, however, merely ethical: PWDs prove to be highly loyal members of the workforce, with much lower turnover rates than others (e.g. Pogrund, 2018).

Physical disability

Physical disabilities are often visible. Managing diversity based on physical disability should in theory be simpler than managing other types of diversity. It is relatively easy to identify whether the physical problem would prevent, hinder, or interfere with the performance of the job. If the answer is negative, people should not be discriminated against on the grounds of that disability. In fact, organizations may benefit from the stronger level of commitment of such people, who have been accepted in spite of their disability. Further, the effects of physical disability are felt more in the realm of manual work than in managerial positions. The higher the level of managerial responsibility, the less the physical dimension matters.

Mental disability

There are plenty of jobs which people with learning difficulties are entirely capable of performing well. People with an intellectual disability are often extremely well motivated, loyal, and appreciative of their employers. Other learning difficulties may not prevent people from taking on managerial roles (e.g. dyslexia, a problem of reading/writing that is not concerned with intelligence or ability to communicate).

One additional challenge for an organization employing people with any disability or difficulty is to facilitate their induction so that appropriate adjustments and support systems are

in place and their colleagues and managers feel equipped to discuss and support their requirements. As stated above, both on moral grounds and from the business case argument, employing people with disabilities may be best practice.

Religion

Religion can be a very highly emotionally charged issue. However, there are very few jobs or careers that require membership of a particular religion, and these are not found in business firms. In places like Northern Ireland, however, there is clear segregation between the communities, which is reflected also in the labour market and in the composition of the workforce in workplaces.

Sexual orientation

Sexual orientation can be an even more emotionally charged issue than religion, as some individuals object to people of non-conventional sexual orientation on moral grounds. No matter whether a person is an accountant or bricklayer, what they do in their private life remains their own business. Again, companies that will not recruit such people lose a wide pool of talent. The true number of non-heterosexual people is not clear, and can be anywhere between 2 to 13% (Day & Greene, 2008), as it is not easily disclosed.

When people feel that they are forced to keep their sexual orientation secret, their job satisfaction and commitment will deteriorate (Day & Schoenrade, 1995) because of the stress and negative feelings that accompany the need to hide something of such importance from close colleagues. On the other hand, companies may make changes to their policies so that benefits usually provided only for the spouses of employees will be made available also to same-sex partners. Otherwise they might find themselves in court, as was the case with El Al, the Israeli airline, which was forced to provide free flights to partners of stewardesses.

Deep-level diversity

Deep-level diversity mainly comprises attitudes and personalities. Different attitudes lead to different work behaviours, as discussed in Chapter 1 (the Fishbein–Ajzen model). Beliefs influence attitudes, and therefore organizations can and should train and educate people to value differences and to have beliefs based on facts rather than prejudice. When the various attitudes that exist in the community are reflected in the variety in an organization, the match between people and the organization, and between the organization and the environment, is greater.

People have different personality traits and factors. Cattell's 16PF model (discussed in Chapter 2), for example, shows 16 dimensions according to which people differ, and different roles require different personality profiles. For example, toughmindedness may be needed for a police officer, whereas tendermindedness is more required of a social worker. However, the

best negotiation team may be one that comprises people who can lead tough discussions but can also be tender and who can understand the other side's point of view.

Attitudes to careers have changed in recent years, and as a result the new generation have different views about employment. People with a traditional, old-fashioned viewpoint may lament the death of *lifelong employment*. Others claim that this status never really existed, being merely a self-fulfilling illusion. The younger participants in today's labour markets (Generation X and those that have followed them) seem to be less interested in a lifelong job, and more interested in challenging and meaningful assignments for their self-development.

The Y and Z Generations (Generation Y born between around 1980–1995 and Generation Z between 1996–2010) are considered 'digital natives', and have high level of individualism. Like Generation X before them, they have high level of corporate skepticism, even cynicism. To attract them, companies should be perceived as ethical, green, and acting in the community interest as they did for Generation X (Tapscott, 1998), and in order to keep an individual orientation where work–life balance is more important than in the past to both men and women (Agarwal & Vaghela, 2018; Sánchez-Hernández et al., 2019). Should companies treat employees as capital, and if so, what would be the reaction of Generation X/Y/Z workers?

Belonging to a special type of family

Dual-career couples

Up until the late 20th century, the typical Western family comprised a father, a mother, and two or three children. The mother would have children in her 20s, and would not work outside the home thereafter. Many changes in society mean that people today tend to work, not merely for money, but for interest and challenge. Women may delay having children for many reasons, including the damaging effect of a career break on their progress. Many choose not to have children or to have one or two at most.

One of the most problematic issues in relation to dual-career couples is relocation. Whereas once this would have meant that the male would be moved to work in another place and the family would move too, now this requires that two people, with separate careers, have to move, or that one employer would have to accept an alternative working arrangement (e.g. telecommuting) for one of the partners, or to try to find a job for the partner in the new location, which may be in a different country (see Chapter 8). Career development now needs to take into consideration the whole family.

Single parents (mostly single mothers)

For social and political reasons, governments do not wish single parents to drop out of the labour market. In the UK, the government initiated programmes to help teenage mothers to return to education and enter the labour market (<https://www.education-ni.gov.uk/articles/school-age-mothers-programme>).

However, for such families, support mechanisms such as childcare facilities are essential. It has been found that married or cohabiting women are more likely than single women to be in employment. Employment rates are higher for women without children. For those with children, employment rates are much lower for lone mothers than for mothers who are married or cohabiting.

Intersectionality/hybrid diversity

Women may be discriminated against; Black people may be discriminated against. What happens to Black women? This is the case of intersectionality (Crenshaw, 2017). The glass ceiling becomes a concrete ceiling, according to some accounts (Bell & Nkomo, 2001), which is even more difficult to crack (Johns et al., 2019). Bell and Nkomo pointed out that it is not just ethnicity and gender, but social class that determines and hinders career development for people who are different in more than one way from the dominant group of White males. Legislation usually refers to a single factor, as is the case with the UK's Sex Discrimination Act 1975, Equality Act 2010 and the Race Relations Act 1965, but not to more than one. Recent evidence suggests that discrimination due to multiple factors is far stronger than that due to a single factor (Baruch et al., 2016b).

Organizational policies and their importance in managing diversity

The CAST model presented earlier in the book indicated that organizations should have clear policies for HRM and career issues. These policies translate the business philosophy and strategy into practice. When devising diversity policies, organizations must incorporate both the legal issue (stemming from the *compliance* strategy) of EEO and the business interest, which means getting the best out of the best people (stemming from the *valuing diversity* strategy). Such policies can include equal opportunity monitoring and fair procedures to ensure selection for recruitment into all levels of the organization (such as eliminating gender and age as selection criteria). A more proactive approach may be manifested, for example, in ensuring that there are no access problems for people with physical disabilities, setting recruitment targets for women, ethnic minorities, and so on. Once these people are in the organization, similar policies should regulate and monitor selection for training and development and nomination and selection for promotion. A different set of policy directives should relate to relationships and the prevention of harassment on various grounds. At a further stage of policy development, organizations can introduce steps to encourage – not just to enable – people of diverse backgrounds to apply and to work for the firm, and to promote wide mentoring programmes. Flexible work arrangements (teleworking, flexi-time, childcare facilities, job sharing, etc.) can be introduced. The COVID-19 pandemic gave a significant boost to the implementation of working from home (Dubey & Tripathi, 2020).

Nelson and Quick (2013) listed five main benefits organizations can reap from diversity:

- The ability to attract and retain the best available human talent.
- Enhancing marketing efforts.

- Promoting creativity and innovation.
- Improved problem solving.
- Enhanced organizational flexibility.

To balance the picture, Nelson and Quick also presented five main problems associated with diversity, factors that arise mostly because people are attracted to and feel comfortable with others like themselves:

- Resistance to change.
- Lack of cohesiveness.
- Communication problems.
- Conflicts.
- Decision making.

Summary

In this chapter we learned the nature of diversity, distinguished it from discrimination, and identified the meaning of the management of diversity. We explored the expected benefits as well as the possible pitfalls of managing diversity, focusing on a wide variety of organizational initiatives. We discovered that diversity does not end with demography, and explored the issue of organizational justice and fairness.

Specific sources of diversity analysed included gender, ethnicity, age, disability, sexual orientation, religion, deep-level diversity, belonging to a different type of family, and hybrid diversity (meaning more than a single diversity). The chapter concluded with some advice on organizational policies and their importance in managing diversity and inclusion.

KEY TERMS

Deep-level diversity

Discrimination

Distributive justice

Diversity

EEO (equal employment opportunity)

Inclusion

Organizational diversity policies

Organizational initiatives

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Procedural justice

Surface diversity

Valuing diversity

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

LESSONS AND FOOD FOR THOUGHT

1. *For HR managers:* Using the CAST concept, how would you develop practices, policies and strategies to tackle and manage diversity?
2. *For the HR consultant:* What would be your advice to HR managers in developing a comprehensive policy for managing diversity? How will your policy be influenced by the specific environment in which the organization operates?
3. *For the HR teacher:* In what way would you integrate new forms of diversity into existing career systems?
4. *For the student:* Do you belong to any of the above listed diverse sub-groups? Have you experienced discrimination in the past (see Exercise 1)?

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the major impetuses for organizations to manage diversity?
2. In what ways does your university encourage students from diverse backgrounds to apply for places? What practices does the university apply to support people of diverse backgrounds during their studies? If you had a disability (e.g. dyslexia or impaired hearing), how would your university help you?

EXERCISE

Did you encounter any discrimination *before* your present studies; for example, did you perceive different attitudes towards you as compared with your work colleagues of other backgrounds?

Gender	Race/ethnicity	Disability	Religion	Age	Sexual orientation	Other
Not at all						
Very minor						
Minor						
Significant						
Very significant						

Please specify from whom (e.g. managers, peers, administrators, etc.) and in what connection:

Do you encounter any discrimination *as a student* (relate to your present studies)? For example, do you perceive different attitudes towards you as compared with your class colleagues of other backgrounds?

Gender	Race/ethnicity	Disability	Religion	Age	Sexual orientation	Other
Not at all						
Very minor						
Minor						
Significant						
Very significant						

Please specify from whom (e.g. academics, peers, administrators, etc.) and in what connection:

Would you anticipate any discrimination *after* you finish your present studies? Will it be stronger or milder than that before your studies, that is, do you think that having a formal degree such as advanced degree in management can reduce or eliminate discrimination?

Source: This exercise is based on Cocchiara et al., 2010 and Baruch et al., 2016b.

