Diversity within Diversity Management: Where We Are, Where We Should Go, and How We Are Getting There

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Abstract

Purpose — The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the research presented in this edited volume.

Design/Methodology — This report is based on 17 chapters, which vary in terms of research approach, design, and method, yet aims to present different country perspectives on diversity within diversity management.

Findings — The chapters present new insights on how the national and macro-social environment impacts the institutional approaches to diversity management across the world. Findings indicate the need for organizations to focus on deep-level diversity, rather than choosing a tick-box policy on surface-level diversity. Empirical studies reveal that every institution can adopt a diversity-friendly approach in a way that best fits their structure, culture and the mentality of their top management team.

Originality — The report summarizes and integrates novel insights on country perspectives and approaches on diversity management.

Keywords: Diversity; diversity management; country perspectives; macro-environment; social factors; under-researched national contexts

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Introduction

The dominant business tendencies for globalization provoke questions on the capability of top management teams to retain and motivate their employees toward higher productivity and satisfaction, while respecting and further promoting diversity (Georgiadou, 2016; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999). Kandola and Fullerton (1994) suggested various definitions of diversity focusing primarily on the notion that diversity consists of both visible and non-visible differences, including gender, age, background, race, and personality traits. A plethora of researchers have emphasized the positive contribution of employees coming from diverse backgrounds to effective organizational decision-making (Cox & Blake, 1991; Jackson, May, & Whitney, 1995; Simons, Pelled, & Smith, 1999), whereas others argue the possibility of diversity compromising group performance through social categorization processes (Guillaume, Dawson, Otaye-Ebede, Woods, & West, 2017).

Scholars have been notably intrigued in assessing the impact of demographic features on individual and group organizational behavior (Ely & Thomas, 2001), highlighting that beneficial outcomes go hand in hand with employees of diverse background sharing common ambitions and values with the rest of their colleagues (Weeks, Weeks, & Long, 2017). House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta (2004, p. 5) stated that "as economic borders come down, cultural barriers could go up, thus presenting new challenges and opportunities in business. When cultures come into contact, they may converge on some aspects, but their idiosyncrasies will likely amplify."

This edited volume, consisting of an introduction and 17 contributed chapters, is a collective attempt at examining the increasing relevance of studying diversity management in various country, national, and wider societal levels.

The Migratory Process and the Formation of Ethnic Minorities

Research on migration and ethnic relations is intrinsically interdisciplinary: sociology, political science, history, economics, geography, demography, psychology, and law are relevant. Within each social scientific discipline, there are a variety of approaches, based on differences in theory and methods (Castles & Miller, 1998; Foner, Rumbaut, & Gold, 2000).

A detailed survey about all the various social scientific paradigms is not possible here, but a distinction between the main approaches may be useful for a general understanding. Hugo (1993) identified neoclassical economic equilibrium theory, the historical-structuralist approach, and migration system theory as the three main approaches used in contemporary debates.

The neoclassical economic equilibrium perspective is based on Ravenstein's statistical laws of migration in the nineteenth century, which were the antecedent of the systematic theory of migration (Castles, 1998). This theory emphasizes the individual decision to migrate, based on a rational comparison of the relative costs and benefits of remaining in the area of origin or moving to various alternative

destinations. This theory is essentially individualistic and ahistorical. Borjas (1989) described the model as an immigration market, saying that neoclassical theory assumes that individuals maximize utility: individuals "search" for the country of residence that maximizes their well-being. Competing host countries make "migration offers" from which individual compare and choose. In the immigration market, the information is exchanged and the various options are compared (Castles, 1998). This approach categorizes immigrants as individuals searching for the "best" country in which to be. Castles and Miller (1998) criticized this theory as simplistic and incapable of explaining actual movements. Empirical study shows that it is rarely the poorest people from the least-developed countries who move to the richest countries; more frequently, the migrants are people of intermediate social status from areas which are undergoing economic and social changes (Portes & Rumbaut, 1996).

Stark and Taylor (1991) provide an alternative economic approach. These authors argue that migration cannot simply be explained by income differences between two countries, but also by factors such as chance of secure employment, availability of capital entrepreneurial activity, and the need to manage risk over long periods. The idea of individual migrants who make free choices, which not only maximize their well-being but also lead to a balance in the marketplace, implies that migration is a collective phenomenon, which should be examined as a subsystem of a global economy and political system (Castles, 1998).

The historical-structuralist approach is an alternative explanation of international migration in which migration is seen mainly as a way of mobilizing cheap labor for capital (Gos & Lindquist, 1995). This approach has its roots in Marxist political economy and stresses the unequal distribution of political and economic power in the world economy. Historical-structuralist analysts criticize the neoclassical perspective because its assumption of free choice for individuals is unrealistic (Castles, 1998; Hugo, 1993). The availability of labor was both a legacy of colonialism and the result of war and regional inequalities within Europe (Castles, 1998).

But the historical-structuralist approach was criticized by migration scholars, questioning the fact of the constant breakdown of migration policies, such as the shift from labor migration to permanent settlement in certain countries, if the logic of capital and the interests of Western states were so dominant (Castles, 1998).

Equally, the neoclassical perspective and the historical-structuralist approach seemed too one-sided to analyze adequately the great complexity of contemporary migrations. The neoclassical approach neglected historical causes of movements and downgraded the role of the state; however, the historical-structuralist approach often saw the interests of capital as all-determining and paid inadequate attention to the motivations and actions of the individuals and groups involved.

The migration systems theory emerged out of such critiques. A migration system is a system of transactions which involved migrants between two or more countries. Migration systems theory emphasizes international relations, political economy, collective action, and institutional factors (Zlotnik, 1992). This theory suggests that migratory movements generally arise from the previous existence of links between

sending and receiving countries based on colonization, political influence, trade, or cultural ties (Castles & Miller, 1998).

The migration systems approach implies that any migratory movement can be seen as the result of interacting macro- and micro-structures embracing the networks, practices, and beliefs of the migrants themselves (Gurak & Caces, 1992). The macro-structures refer to large-scale institutional factors such as the political economy of the world market, relationship between states, and the legislation to control migration settlement in the receiving countries, while the micro-structures embrace the networks, practices, and belief of the migrant themselves, developed by the migrants in order to cope with migration and settlement. The family and community are crucial in migration networks (Fawcett, 1989). Family linkages often provide both the financial and the cultural capital which make migration possible. Generally, migratory chains are started by an external factor, such as recruitment. Networks based on family or on *paisanaje* (Latin American expression which means "came from a common geo-cultural place of origin, commonly same town"; from the Spanish *paisano*, fellow country-person) help to provide shelter, work, and assistance in coping with bureaucratic procedures and support in personal difficulties (Portes & Rumbaut, 1996).

The migratory process as a concept sums up the complex sets of factors and interactions which lead to international migration and influence its course. There is no single cause to explain why people decide to leave their country and settle in another. Castles and Miller (1998) defend that although each migratory movement has its specific historical patterns, it is possible to generalize on the way migration evolves and find certain internal dynamics in the process. For example, most migrations start with young, economically active people. They are "target earners," who want to save enough in a higher-wage economy to improve their conditions at home, by buying land, building a house, setting up a business, or paying for education or dowries (Castles & Miller, 1998).

Castles and Miller (1998) summarize the pattern of the migratory process in a four-stage model:

(1) temporary labor migration of young workers, remittance earnings, and continued orientation to the homeland;
(2) prolonging of stay and the development of social networks based on kinship or common area of origin; the need for mutual help in the new environment increases;
(3) family reunion, growing consciousness of long-term settlement increasing orientation toward the receiving country, and emergence of ethnic communities with their own institutions (as associations, shops, cafes, agencies, professions);
(4) permanent settlement which, depending on the actions of government and population of the receiving country, leads to secure legal status and eventual citizenship, or to political exclusion, socioeconomic marginalization and the formation of permanent ethnic communities.

The long-term effects of immigration on society emerge in the fourth stage of the migratory process: permanent settlement. There are two extremes of outcomes depending on the actions of the state and population of the receiving country. Most of the countries fit somewhere between these two extremes. At one extreme, openness to settlement, granting of citizenship and gradual acceptance of cultural diversity which may allow the formation of ethnic communities, which are seen as part of a multicultural society. At the other extreme, denial of the reality of settlement, refusal of citizenship and rights to settlers, and rejection of cultural diversity may lead to the formation of ethnic minorities, enclaves, and even ghettos. In the first case, immigrants and their descendants are seen as an integral part of a society willing to reshape its culture and identity. In the second case, immigrants are excluded and marginalized.

The concept of ethnic minority always implies some degree of marginalization. Ethnic minorities are therefore a product of both "other definition" and self-definition. Other definition refers to various forms of exclusion and discrimination. Self-definition has a dual character. It includes assertion and recreation of identity, centered upon pre-migration cultural symbols and practices. It also includes political mobilization against exclusion and discrimination using cultural symbols and practices in an instrumental way.

As conclusion, the migration process has different theoretical explanations. One central argument is that migration and settlement are closely related to other economic, political and cultural linkages being formed between different countries in an accelerating process of globalization, in which international migration must be seen as an integral part of the world developments. A second argument is that the migratory process has internal dynamics based on the social networks. And a third argument concerned the nature of ethnic minorities, and the process by which they are formed is based on a cultural identity which defines themselves.

Types of Immigrant Workers

There are significant differences in migration goals and their relative fulfillment. There are socioeconomic origin and reason for departure characteristics, which could be organized to present a typology of migrants that tend to be associated with different courses of adaptation.

Portes and Rumbaut (1996) classify immigrants in four types: Labor Immigrants, Professional Immigrants, Entrepreneurial Immigrants, and Refugees and Asylees.

Labor Immigrants

Low-skill labor immigration is the most closely related category to stereotypes about contemporary immigration. Whatever their motivations, low-skill workers could not immigrate if there were not a demand for their labor. Employers value immigrant workers' diligence, reliability, and willingness to work hard for low pay (Portes & Rumbaut, 1996). They argue that native workers are either unavailable or unwilling to perform hard menial jobs (Waldinger & Lichter, 2003).

There are no recruitment or other costs in hiring immigrant laborers because they come on their own and bear all the dangers and expenses of the journey. In the case of the United States (US), some labor immigrants do stay and attempt to carve a new life in the Americas. Many return, however. Because although US wages are higher, the crop of these wages in terms of consumption, investment, and social status is often greater back home. Having accumulated enough savings, most immigrants seek to re-establish or gain a position of social respectability accomplished in their home communities.

Manual labor immigration is thus not a one-way flow away from poverty and want, but rather a two-way process fueled by the changing needs and interests of those who come and those who profit from their labor (Dundon, Gonzalez-Perez, & McDonough, 2007; Portes & Rumbaut, 1996).

Professional Immigrants

Unlike the labor workers, professional immigrants come legally not destined to the bottom echelon in the labor market. Known as "brain drain" in their countries of origin, this flow represents a significant gain of highly educated, trained, and experienced personnel in many countries. In several countries, work visas or work authorization allows a person to enter employment and become a medium- to long-term, legal resident. They also have the right to travel if a reentry visa is obtained before a person leaves the country. However, in most cases, they do not have the right to free medical care and other social welfare entitlements. Furthermore, they are often deprived of the right to free education. Foreign professionals often migrate because of unemployment back home or attracted by offers by the host country recruiters.

In the case of the United States, the gap that generally makes the difference in their decision of immigrating is not the individual income differential between prospective US salaries and work conditions in their home countries and those regarded there as acceptable for people with their education. Professionals who earn enough at home to sustain a middle-class standard of living and who are reasonably satisfied about their possibilities for advancement seldom migrate.

Because they do not come to escape poverty, but to improve their careers, immigrant professionals rarely accept menial jobs. They tend to enter at the bottom of their respective occupation and to progress according to individual merits. This is usually the case of medical doctors, nurses and information technology professionals.

Entrepreneurial Immigrants

In the case of the US, areas of concentrated entrepreneurship, known as ethnic enclaves, can be found. Their emergency has depended on three conditions: first, the presence of a number of immigrants with substantial business expertise acquired in their home countries; second, access to sources of capital; and third, access to

labor. In many countries, there is an established process to apply for a business permit.

Refugees and Asylees

Being a refugee is not a matter of personal choice, but of governmental decisions based on a combination of legal guidelines and political expediency. Depending on the international context, a particular flow of people may be classified as a political exodus or as an illegal group of economically motivated immigrants.

The official label of refugee conceals differences not only between national groups but within each of them as well. There are two categories found in most refugees' flows. First, there is the category of elite refugees, namely the ones who left their countries due to ideological and political oppositions to their countries' regime. Usually, they have little difficulties in validating their claim of political persecution, and they tend to be among the earlier arrivals. Second, there is a mass of individuals and families of more modest backgrounds who left at a later date because of the economic exactions and hardship imposed by the same regimes.

Labor Market Impacts of Immigration

Immigrants are, in a strict economic sense, a factor import, and the impacts of immigrants on incomes in destination countries are inextricably linked with trade. *Neoclassical trade theory* offers clear predictions about the impacts of immigration on destination-country workers. In general, it predicts that immigration has negative effects on workers for whom immigrants are substitutes in production. The neoclassical view's main competitor in the economics literature is the *dual labor market perspective* that immigrants do not compete with native workers for the same jobs, and immigration, therefore, does not have adverse wage and employment effects on destination-country workers (Dundon et al., 2007).

Stolper and Samuelson (1949) considered the effect on factor prices (wages and the return on capital) of an import tariff that increases the domestic price of the import-competing good relative to that of the export good. Under the Heckscher–Ohlin assumptions and the assumption that the basic trade pattern is not altered by the tariff, an import tariff increases the price of the relatively scarce factor relative to the prices of the other factor and both goods. Thus, a tariff levied against labor-intensive imports in the US will increase the US wages relative to other factor and good's prices, compared with the free-trade case.

Both Stolper–Samuelson and the Heckscher–Ohlin theorem on which it is based lack consideration of international factor movements, including migration. However, if migration responds positively to international wage differentials, then protectionism in the US and Ireland should encourage migration from countries with disadvantages.

The same migration result should follow from protectionism (of capital-intensive industries) in other countries (e.g., Eastern European countries in the case of

Ireland, or Mexico in the case of the US). Even if trade in goods is restricted, labor will flow across borders to equalize wages, at which time economically motivated migration between the two countries will cease. According to this theory, "labour mobility [can] fully compensate for the non-traded good," for example, the good for which barriers to trade exist (Krauss, 1976, p. 474).

In this admittedly simple scenario, trade permits the capital-rich and labor-rich countries to specialize in producing the goods in which they have a comparative advantage and to satisfy their demand for other goods through trade. Trade barriers increase wages in capital-rich relative to labor-rich countries, triggering more migration. The arrival of immigrants depresses wages in the labor-scarce country, whereas the departure of emigrants raises wages in the labor-abundant country. Trade liberalization (e.g., through NAFTA) has the same effect. In the presence of trade barriers, migration continues until wage differences across borders equal the cost (economic and psychic) of migrating. In short, according to trade theory, only in the presence of trade distortions that inflate wages in destination countries relative to migrant-sending countries will international migration take place, and this migration will cause the wage gap to revert back toward its free-trade level. Immigration increases the total income of the two countries. However, it adversely affects wages in the labor-scarce country (US/Ireland), by increasing the supply of labor there.

Consider two countries with different factor endowments. For example, country A (e.g., Switzerland) is capital-rich, and country B (e.g., Serbia) is capital-poor but has an abundance of labor. Assume that the two countries share the same technologies (production functions) and that the same two factors of production, capital and labor, are used in each country to produce the two goods. If the two countries engage in free trade, each country will export (import) the good more intensive in the factor that is relatively more (less) abundant in that country. That is, Switzerland will import labor-intensive goods from Serbia, and Serbia will import capital-intensive goods from Switzerland.

Diversity, Equality, and Multiculturalism: United Nations' Perspective

> Je suis nécessairement homme […] et je ne suis français que par hasard.[1]

The founders of the United Nations (UN), in the aftermath of World War II, were motivated by a desire for international cooperation to ensure peace, development, and respect for the rights of individuals. Based on the stark evidence of the experiences of Jews, Gypsies, and other ethnic minorities who were the victims of genocide during World War II, they were also aware of the need to address the treatment of ethnic minorities (Glendon, 2001; Lauren, 1998).

[1](I am necessarily a man […] and I am French only by chance.) The antinomic stance is the one formulated by the nineteenth-century conservative thinker Joseph de Maistre (1980).

According to the UN, human rights are neither abstract nor some remote set of aspirational principles. They are dependent on everyone in society understanding their duty to ensure their visibility. They have a tangible meaning and a relevance to everyday life; they are to be practiced and experienced. They have clear implications for what needs to be done toward the effective and free participation of all stakeholders (Carroll, 2002, p. 34).

The UN position is framed within three manifestations of liberal political theory. The first is pluralism, espoused in the writings of John Rawls (1973) in his seminal work, *A Theory of Justice*, and Robert Nozick's (1974) *Anarchy, State and Utopia*. The second is individualism, set out in a work by Robert Paul Wolff (1970), *In Defence of Anarchism*. The third is elicited from the broad body of work of John Stuart Mill and is exemplified in the works of Joseph Schumpter's (1943) *Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy* and Robert A. Dahl's (1956) *A Preface to Democratic Theory*.

For example, John Rawls argued that "justice is the first virtue of social institutions, as truth is of systems of thought" (Rawls, 1972, p. 3). He attempted to define an ethical basis for an egalitarian form of liberalism based on the notion of justice as fairness, by reviving the eighteenth-century idea of a social contract. Having served as an infantryman in the Pacific during World War II, his experiences left him with a keen awareness of the capacity of human beings – even in supposedly liberal, democratic societies – to offer justifications for acts of terrible cruelty and destruction. Rawls argued that in a just system, the liberties of equal citizenship are taken as settled. He added that the rights secured by justice are not subject to political bargaining or to the calculus of social interests.

Rawls (1972) presented as a viable alternative to the prevailing utilitarian tradition of liberal thought to the philosophical tradition the idea of justice as fairness underpinned by a bond of mutual rights and obligations. Rawls contended that in modern moral philosophy, the prevailing systematic theory of justice has been a form of utilitarianism. He sustained his argument giving reference to David Hume and Adam Smith, as well as Bentham and Mill, who were first-rank social economists and theorists. They developed a moral doctrine with the objective to frame their wider interests.

Implicitly, the UN asserts that human rights do not constitute an option; they are not open to a free and arbitrary interpretation. Also, human rights are not neutral. They stand for clear values and require a commitment to make them work: a commitment to act and promote actions to ensure their realization and a commitment to express concern, voice, criticism, and foster change (Carroll, 2002, p. 30).

An important challenge within new global realities requires an urgent recognition of the fact that the whole array of rights can only be secured with the collaboration of those who need them. It is within the context of all groups and individuals accepting their duty to work toward transforming the vision of rights into social, economic, and political reality that full development of the human person can be achieved (see Article 29 UNHRC). As Robinson contends, it is the major innovation of today to discover the route maps which human rights can give to the establishment of an ethical globalization (Robinson, 2001).

The European Union's Perspective

The European Union (EU)'s overall structure, which was formally established by the Treaty on EU (Maastricht Treaty), came into force in 1993. The Maastricht Treaty established the formation of the EU by the European Communities, supplemented by the policies and forms of cooperation established by this Treaty. Three communities, each developed a separate treaty in the 1950s: the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) 1952, the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom) 1957, and the European Economic Community (initially EEC, now EC) 1957. The EU was created and shaped by a series of treaties between member states, which act as a "constitution" for the Union. In the mid-1960s, it was agreed to merge the separate institutions of the three communities. This "Merger Treaty" came into effect in 1967. Since then, the three communities have had a single set of institutions (Council, Commission, Parliament, Court of Justice, and Court of Auditors). Three additional states – Denmark, Ireland, and the UK – first applied for membership in 1961 and were admitted to join the original six (Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands). Greece joined in 1981, Spain and Portugal in 1986, and Austria, Finland, and Sweden in 1995 (Mulholland, 2002).

The institutions of the EU are an expression of the will to create "an ever closer union of the people of Europe" based on the sharing of political responsibilities: the Commission's proposed, the Parliament advises, and the Council of Ministers and the Court of Justice rule (European Communities, 1999).

The International Labour Organisation's (ILO) Perspective

The International Labor Organization (ILO) was founded in 1919 to advance the cause of social justice, and in so doing, to contribute to universal and lasting peace. The ILO was later incorporated into the UN's system as a specialized agency. A unique feature of its structure is that representatives of workers and employers take part with government representatives in ILO governance and activities. The ILO International Migration Branch focuses on three major areas of activity. These include provision of technical assistance and policy advice to governments toward effective labor migration management, protection of rights and dignity of migrant workers, and research and documentation on international labor migration, including maintenance of the online International Labor Migration Database (Taran, 2002).

The ILO has elaborated several conventions addressing equal opportunity and non-discrimination in most aspects of employment, such as recruitment matters, contract conditions, vocational training, promotion at work, and job security. The ILO has also established two conventions covering the many issues affecting non-national migrant workers. These issues include entry procedures, alternative employment, freedom of movement, medical services, assistance on settling into the host society, participation in the cultural life of the state as well the maintenance of their own culture, transfer of earning and savings, family reunification and visits,

termination of employment, expulsion, and assistance in coping with return to the home country (Taran, 2002).

From 1991 to 1999, the ILO conducted a research project titled "Combating discrimination against migrant and ethnic minority workers in the world of work." The project aimed to demonstrate and document how discrimination occurred through a comparison of the different remedial measures and activities in place in the countries' surveys. The research project focused on a number of countries in Western Europe and North America.

The project's findings showed evidence that migrant and ethnic minority workers faced numerous problems in the labor market. Some of these problems were connected with objective disadvantages such as inadequate education and training, lack of access to networks and connections with employers, and for migrants, nonrecognition of qualifications gained abroad or inadequate command of the host country's language. Moreover, migrants and ethnic minorities experienced discrimination on the grounds of their actual or perceived nationality, color, religion, "race,"[2] or ethnic origin. In addition, overrepresentation in the ranks of the long-term unemployed further increased their risk of marginalization and social exclusion (Taran, 2002).

The situation of migrant workers, and of members of their families, has been a subject of international concern since 1939, when the first ILO Migration for Employment Convention (No. 66) was adopted. Taking into account the principles and standards set in the ILO instruments and those set in the basic human rights instruments of the UN, the UN General Assembly adopted the draft convention on December 18, 1990, without recorded vote and opened it for signature, ratification, and accession.

The 1990 (UN) International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families includes a considerable number of provisions that effectively inhibit discrimination against migrant workers. It requires 20 ratifications to enter into force. At present, it has 19 ratifications and 10 additional signatories and is expected to enter in force in 2002 (Taran, 2002).

Diversity Management

According to Pitts, Hicklin, Hawes, and Melton (2010), diversity management is an organizational response to the existing workforce diversity and the related challenges and opportunities. Diversity management initiatives have traditionally attempted to address the concerns of underrepresented groups of individuals, due

[2]The concept of "race" has long been exposed as a fallacy and as scientifically void. The term "race," however, continues in wide usage, and its derivative "racial discrimination" has come to mean discrimination on the ground of perceived race, as opposed to factual race (which does not exist). Acknowledging that "race" is a subjective concept, the term "race" should be read as "perceived race" and "racial discrimination" as "discrimination based on the grounds of perceived race" (Taran, 2002, p. 12).

to race, gender, religion, etc., but various initiatives are also centered around other dimensions of diversity, such as age, professional background, religion, and sexual orientation, which in turn could potentially affect work-related outcomes.

Literature indicates a plethora of benefits associated with the recruitment, retention, and promotion of a diverse workforce, which is representative of today's multicultural society. What seems to still puzzle organizations, though, is how a company can manage diversity, while ensuring inclusion and safeguarding equality. Additionally, organizations must identify practices that are aligned with its culture and vision, so as to implement effectively a business strategy that incorporates and promotes diversity as an asset and an ultimate competitive advantage, not just another tick on a box that legislators and/or policymakers imposed.

Diversity in the workplace is often seen as a double-edged sword, as it can stimulate both benefits and hindrances for organizations (Shen, Chanda, D'netto, & Monga, 2009). Among the benefits, we could report the easier access to a dynamically evolving customer market by satisfying the needs of the ever-increasingly diverse markets and "better-quality solutions to brainstorming tasks and displaying more cooperative behaviors" (Shen, D'netto, & Tang, 2010, p. 2159). Pertinent literature suggests that the disadvantages of diversity are generally related to the assumption that it fundamentally bears a negative impact on the overall organizational performance (Richard, Barnett, Dwyer, & Chadwick, 2004). Shen and colleagues (2009) contribute to this argument by arguing that the negative effect that has been attached to workforce diversity is not actually due to workforce diversity itself, but rather of poor diversity management. "Hence, business organizations face growing challenges to develop effective human resource diversity management, to pre-empt legal sanctions and to capitalize on diversity" (Shen et al., 2010, p. 2156).

Empirical research, therefore, addresses the effect of diversity to be either positive or negative: on the one hand, it can enhance creativity and prompt higher innovation (Bassett-Jones, 2005), while, on the other hand, it was reported as a source of conflict, mistrust, poor decision-making, and communication (Richard, Ford, & Ismail, 2006).

By and large, our perspective on the significance of effectively dealing with diversity is aligned with Dreachslin's viewpoint:

> Manage diversity. If left unmanaged, demographic diversity will interfere with team functioning. Identify a common ground among diverse groups, because similarity can pull different team members together. Invest in professional development so that team members have the tools they need to navigate their differences. Other elements that can improve team and organizational decision-making include group-process and conflict-management skills, self-awareness and understanding of cultural style differences, ability to validate alternative points of view, and efforts to surface and manage implicit bias. (Dreachslin, 2007, p. 84)

Cultural Diversity in Management

Various theories have been applied and many results have emerged regarding diversity management depending on the level and focus of the cultural analysis. In

particular, it has been reported in specific national cultural contexts that a diverse top management team more easily attracts minority groups and women in the organization (Kalev, Dobbin, & Kelly, 2006) and that an ethnic and racial similarity between employees and leaders influences positively the employees' perceptions on the organization's diversity approach (Avery, McKay, Wilson, & Tonidandel, 2007). Nevertheless, it is essential for researchers to consider the macro-social and national context when assessing the impact of diversity, as national-level characteristics have been found to foster organizational adoption of diversity-friendly practices and policies (Georgiadou & Farndale, 2019).

The cultural analysis of the macro-environment of the organization is mainly aiming to identify factors generating cultural diversity within the institution. These macro-level contexts include the following: the national culture (Stone, Stone-Romero, & Lukaszewski, 2007), the professional sector (occupation) (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007), the industry (Goodman, Field, & Blum, 2003), the legal framework (Kalev et al., 2006), the economy (Fields, Goodman, & Blum, 2005), and local communities with which the organization and employees interact (Ragins, 2008). Obviously, each of these dimensions can have various effects on individuals, teams, and ultimately organizations.

When seeking to manage cultural diversity effectively, the attitudes and perceptions toward difference and multiculturalism can play the ultimate role. First, special attention should be paid on decoding individuals' definitions of what they perceive as culturally different and then identifying what their attitude toward this difference is. For example, the top management team should be aware of how people perceive and react toward homogeneous and heterogeneous groups, what their overall perception of diversity is, and how they perceive someone as different. Furthermore, Ferner, Almond, and Colling (2005) emphasize that effective diversity management can only be achieved only when the cultural context to which it relates is taken into consideration.

Cox (1994) and Ely and Thomas (2001) argue that employees should be encouraged to express their own cultural identities within the organization and claim that the most positive results from implementing practices for managing diversity are found in organizations that do so. Kossek and Pichler (2007) expand these findings and highlight that the most effective diversity management strategies are those that achieve the following three objectives: they (1) promote organizational justice and inclusion, (2) eliminate discrimination, and (3) improve the firm's financial robustness.

Rationale and Structure of the Volume

Nowadays, managing and promoting diversity is of paramount importance to the future of sustainability and henceforth gain increasing importance on the political and business agenda. Even though diversity management scholarship has grown tremendously over the past years, a strong tendency has emerged on existing theories to focus on a single level of analysis, on a limited range of usually Western research

settings, and, despite the agenda around intersectionality, on a relatively narrow range of types of diversity. Diversity research has insofar focused on prioritizing visible forms of diversity, such as gender diversity or disability, with less emphasis placed on diversity in culture and values and across countries.

The need for this volume has emerged due to the lack of understanding as to how diversity and equality are managed in different national contexts. Focusing on workplace equality, diversity, and inclusion, the collection of chapters brings together a unique blend of scholarly research and professional practice, evidenced through an array of individuals both outside and inside organizations.

This edited book provides new practical and strategic insights for practitioners, managers, students, and policymakers; it delves on the strategic nature of policy intervention with thought-provoking contributions written by experts from around the world. Contributors aim to provide critical reflection of current debate areas on diversity and equality in under-researched countries to inform and support evidence-based decision-making for a wide variety of academic and practice-oriented stakeholders.

In chapter "Managing Diversity in Nigeria: Competing Logics of Workplace Diversity," Ifedapo Adeleye, Yomi Fawehinmi, Toyin Adisa, Kingsley Utam, and Vivian Ikechukwu-Ifudu provide an understanding of the factors that outline diversity management operating in a challenging context such as the Nigerian and present the problems and prospects of establishing a highly diverse and inclusive workplace in a weak institutional environment. Their study sheds light on the significance of underlying mechanisms and perceptions on the effectiveness of diversity policies and argues that the top management team needs to be able to balance competing logics and manage that paradox effectively.

"Diversity Management: The Case of the United Arab Emirates" focuses on exploring diversity management in the public and private sectors of the United Arab Emirates (UAE), being the sixth country in the world for hosting the largest number of international migrants in 2017. Racquel Warner and Immanuel Azaad Moonesar explore and present the views and perceptions of public and private sector stakeholders on diversity management aiming to uncover the multiple approaches that are evident within the UAE context.

In chapter "Diversity Management in Sustainability Reports: A Case Study from Turkey," Arzu Özsözgün Çalışkan and Emel Esen provide a qualitative case study of diversity management in Turkey, being an emerging economy with a complex and multi-ethnic society. Their study intends to contribute toward diversity management by examining how a specific organization promotes diversity and reflects that value in their sustainability reports. Through a qualitative study of single organizational context, this study presents that diversity is not only to be found and managed at surface-level diversity, but there are also efforts to focus on deep-level diversity.

In chapter "Managing Diversity in Australia – A Viable Career Option, Social Change Agents, or Corporate Stepping Stone?", Santina Bertone and Sanjeev Abeynayake critically analyze the role of diversity and inclusion practitioners and the legislative and policy framework for managing diversity and inclusion in Australia and propose an enhanced framework in order to improve the outcomes for disadvantaged groups in the workplace. This chapter argues both from a

philosophical and from a pragmatic perspective that the role of diversity and inclusion practitioner is often transient and fragmented, offering a limited base to advance the diversity and inclusion cause. The authors would argue that in the absence of any disposition among Australian policymakers for a radical overhaul of diversity and anti-discrimination legislation, and the predilection for a more voluntaristic regulation, a "corporate crusader" model can be combined with existing regulation to enhance the reach and eminence of organizational diversity and inclusion practices and, hopefully, intensify the impact of the essential changes.

In "Diversity in the Czech Republic," Eva Abramuszkinová Pavlíková investigates diversity management in the Czech Republic. She argues that the interest on diversity management, as part of human resources management, in the Czech Republic has amplified after the integration of the latter into the EU. Pavlíková's analysis points to the benefits of the business case of diversity in Czech Republic.

Drawing on their research on diversity management in Slovenia, Vlado Dimovski, Sandra Penger, Judita Peterlin, and Barbara Grah (chapter "Diversity Management in Slovenia") provide a strategic orientation of establishing diversity management through business education. Dimovski et al.'s chapter underlines the significance of introducing a conceptual model of diversity management curriculum, thus enabling universities to develop the much-desired culture of inclusion. Their recommendations are centered around the notion that universities should include diversity management in their curricula and engage accredited teachers to deliver diversity management within the business curricula so as to cultivate in their students – and future managers – a fundamental knowledge of the value of effective diversity management.

In chapter "Managing Diversity in South African Higher Education Institutions," Sharon Thabo Mampane critically reviews the efficacy of diversity management in higher education institutions (HEIs) aiming to highlight the context-specific challenges. For this purpose, this chapter critically reflects on current research related to diversity and integration in South Africa, as well as on its benefits for institutions, academics, and policymakers in HEIs. The argument in this chapter is that diversity and social inclusion are interrelated and that the discrimination of people on any grounds should be eliminated. Institutional strategic plans, based on collected and analyzed data, should promote the integration of diverse committees.

In chapter "Gastronomy as a National Identity Element: The Peruvian Case," Oswaldo Morales Tristan and Carlos Cordova Chea outline the cultural richness of the Peruvian racial mix, its influences on local dishes, and the effect of these aspects on national identity and social development. They explain that people feel identified with a country's culinary diversity and that a gastronomic revolution can actually qualify as a form of identity. In this light, they present Gaston Acurio as one of the heroes in the Peruvian gastronomy revolution, who triggered feelings of national pride by enhancing the profile of the country's cuisine and highlighting the diversity of cultures that Peru consists of.

In "Gender in Venezuelan Board of Directors and C-level Positions: Current Balance of Gender Diversity for Twenty-first-century Socialism," Carlos Baldo, Kyle Hull, and Carmen Aurora Matteo review and assess the degree to which organizational changes related to gender parity, adopted within Venezuela since 1999,

have affected the C-level positions and Board of Directors among banking institutions. This chapter indicates that, besides some parity in lower positions, middle management and some C-level positions, at the Board of Directors level, there remains a gender imbalance. Government-owned institutions show improved gender balance, but still there is a necessity for progress.

Chapter "Diversity Management in Poland" identifies and critiques dominant approaches and applied practices in the field of diversity and diversity management in Polish companies in the context of trends on labor market. Anna Rakowska argues that the concept of diversity management has not gained ground yet among Polish organizations. What is observed are some rather declarative activities concentrating upon image-related benefits and centered around the fundamentals of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act.

In "A Changing Country: Diversity Management in Greece," George Kyparissiadis seeks to inspire companies and other organizations to acknowledge the need for establishing and promoting anti-discrimination and inclusion practices. The diversity management practices and policies that implemented by the two companies presented in the chapter indicate that every institution can adopt a diversity-friendly approach in a way that fits best their structure, culture, and the mentality of the top management team.

Chapter "Insights from Workplace Diversity and Inclusion Policies of a Foreign Firm in the Nigeria Banking Sector" demonstrates the influence of inclusion, equal opportunity, and anti-discrimination policies on the impact of diversity in a foreign firm operating in a developing country, such as Nigeria. Osaro O. Agbontaen revealed that inclusiveness is essential to strengthen the effectiveness of diversity in foreign organizations in a developing economy, along with cultivating a culture of equal opportunity and culture awareness.

Jacqueline H. Stephenson discusses diversity and discrimination within Trinidad and Tobago (in a meso-organization and macro-wider societal level) and critically evaluate the findings of the extant literature as it relates to such small island developing states. In "Managing diversity in Trinidad and Tobago," she explores race, sex, disability, and sexual orientation, specifically examining present accepted practice, and the effect of the recently enacted anti-discrimination legislation. The chapter relies merely on secondary data, mainly studies that focus on Trinidad and Tobago, in the fields of management, psychology, and sociology, as well as country reports published by international agencies such as the UN, the World Health Organization, and Trinidad and Tobago's Equality Commission.

In "Shifting Landscapes of Diversity in India: New Meaning or a Contextual Shift?" moving from Trinidad and Tobago's context to the Indian one, Richa Saxena and Vibhav Singh focus on four dimensions of diversity, namely caste, gender, disability, and generation in an Indian context. The overarching lens of this chapter is to look at the past and existing diverse practices, and the way forward. Saxena and Singh highlight that Indian organizations need to revisit their human resources' culture and practices in order to effectively address the issues related to diversity and to synchronize with the rest of the world with respect to the ever-changing needs of the different segments of the multicultural, diverse society.

In "Diversity Management in Taiwan," Jennet Achyldurdyyeva, Christina Yu-Ping Wang, Hsien-Tang Lin, and Bih-Shiaw Jaw argue that Taiwan companies' diversity management approach is driven largely by the business case and social responsibility objectives. They experience a need for proactively introducing diversity management policies. The value of the chapter lies in the fact that Taiwan is a historically culturally homogeneous society, which undergoes massive demographic changes under the influence of low birth rate and high rate of immigration. In light of this, Taiwan situation creates a unique economic, cultural, and political context for diversity management that contrasts with other Asian, European, or Western societies.

In "Indigenous Entrepreneurship, Society, and the Dimensions of Diversity: An Overview of the Canadian National Context," Francesca Croce offers an overview of Indigenous Entrepreneurship (IE) in the national Canadian context. The chapter aims to investigate how the diversity among the aboriginal peoples of Canada in society is managed with regard to entrepreneurship. This chapter critically analyzes the indigenous entrepreneurship in Canada, considering the historical background, the process of colonization and its outcomes, and the underlining diversity within its own diversity.

Finally, in "Diversity Management and Inclusion in Afghanistan," Bahaudin G. Mujtaba turns our attention to the need for Afghan leaders to foster an inclusive culture that promotes diversity consciousness. Furthermore, he calls for Afghan leaders and government officials to implement diversity training, ethics awareness, and open communication in all their discussions with others in their offices and communities in order to reduce the existence of pluralistic ignorance. In doing so, he points to the significance of decreasing their level of tolerance for unfair, biased, and discriminatory practices by introducing transparency and disclosure laws that will be both practical and enforceable.

We are grateful to each and every one of these colleagues, whose intellectual contributions shed light on this increasingly important subfield of management. We strongly believe that their work will inform researchers and practitioners within the equality, diversity, and inclusion realm around the world. It has been our distinct privilege to work together to inspire and improve each other's work through this project.

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