# Diversity and Inclusion in the Global Workplace:

*Aligning Initiatives with Strategic Business Goals*

*Edited by*
Carlos Tasso Eira de Aquino
*and* Robert W. Robertson

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*An individual has not started living until he can rise above*
*the narrow confines of his individualistic concerns*
*to the broader concerns of all humanity.*
— Martin Luther King, Jr.

*This book is dedicated to every and each person that makes this wonderful and complex world a constant source of challenges and opportunities for discovering better ways to understand each other and live together.*

# Acknowledgements


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# Introduction: The Twenty-First-Century Workplace D&I Challenge

In today's workforce, employees belong to different age groups, races, and ethnicities are of different genders and have different sexual orientation, besides leading, managing, thinking, and learning in diverse ways. There are people in full command of their physical abilities working side by side with other employees with disabilities. And people with different values from different cultures are responsible for leading and moving companies and organizations through survival and success employees are more likely than ever before to work with other employees with different demographic or functional backgrounds. When not managed correctly, with respect to diversity and through the exercise of inclusive processes and procedures, such diversity can undermine employee social integration and performance, resulting in a sizeable reduction in the company's potential for success and profitability. If managed effectively, however, diversity can not only booster performance, but also promote creativity and innovation.

Clearly, a comprehensive understanding of how employees react toward diversity at the workplace, and how this in return affects their work-related outcomes is encompassed by the vision of any company/organization that wants to succeed in today's extremely competitive and globalized marketplace. The purpose of this book is to provide individuals, companies, and organizations with a viable way to address *Diversity Management* through the discussion of the many dimensions of diversity and the presentation of different applications of D&I, not only in the marketplace, but also in the academic environment in charge of

preparing the professionals who will have the responsibility to make this a more inclusive workplace.

It is almost impossible to find a company's workforce and customer base that are not influenced by diversity, but many organizations fail to harness the full potential of their diverse workforces. In recent years, companies and organizations have been aggressively seeking new ways to create inclusive workplaces with a better understanding of how diversity and inclusion (D&I) can boost performance, innovation, and satisfaction of current customers, while attracting new ones.

Recent research indicates the need for D&I programs that go much deeper than traditional training. Instead, these more robust programs unveil unconscious biases, understand and embrace the perspectives of internal and external stakeholders, develop processes and professional development that address the specific needs of each individual organization, and help measure progress in these areas, while being aligned with the strategic D&I goals.

This book is divided into two major parts. The first one, entitled *Diversity and Inclusion in the Workplace*, discusses the multiple dimensions of D&I and their relevance to provide awareness and a better understanding all possible challenges that can be faced by individuals or companies participating in the global and diverse marketplace. The second part, *Applying D&I in the Workplace*, is devoted to providing readers with different perspectives on how to embrace diversity and increase inclusion in their workplace environments. A framework to address D&I initiatives in a more effective and efficient way is also introduced in this second part.

Whenever possible, real-world examples representing diverse industries are included at the end of each chapter to illustrate achievements and provide readers with the possibility of expanding discussions and gaining experience for potential applications in their workplace.

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PART I

# Diversity and Inclusion in the Workplace

CHAPTER 1

# Diversity Across Cultures

*Kelley A. Conrad PhD, Herman van Niekerk PhD, Subodh Simon Karmarkar, Susanne Beier PhD, Francisco Javier Reyes Avila DBA, Debra Jenkins and Violet Nxedhlana*

## Overview (Dr. Kelley A. Conrad)

Diversity management is growing steadily as the Internet and global communications have been clearly increasing the role of multicultural factors in many environments. Awareness and appreciation of diversity vary according to cultural milieu. What is effective in one culture can be counterproductive in another. Understanding diversity parameters and developing effectiveness with them can help individuals and organizations create strategies that support culturally appropriate diversity and enhance productivity.

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Yukl (2010) described the need of managers to be effective leaders in different cultures as a "difficult but important responsibility" in this century. This importance has also been recognized by the emergence of cross-cultural research known as holo-cultural studies (Kinzer and Gillies2009). Our research-based knowledge of cross-cultural effects is still limited. In a comprehensive review of "Cross-cultural and Global Issues in Organizational Psychology," Erez (2011) noted the issues of cross-cultural influences in organizations are underrepresented in research literature. Today, managers are often part of multinational organizations (MNOs) and integrated in virtual and face-to-face multicultural teams (MCTs). These roles require managers to develop shared meaning systems that overcome geographical and cultural differences. Erez identified three important perspectives considered in cross-cultural studies: the multilevel model of culture (Hofstede 1980, 2001; de Mooij and Hofstede 2010), the cross-cultural comparisons of the dimensions describing two or more cultures (House et al. 2004; Schwartz 1992, 1994), and the broad global and multicultural focus on social entities and multigovernmental organizations (Brunsson and Jacobsson 2000; Drori 2006; Erez and Drori 2009; Meyer 2002). In the conclusion to Erez's chapter, the author proposed:

> … that cultures are converging at the global level but maintaining their uniqueness at the national and local levels. Underneath the surface of globalization, there is high variance in cultural values, histories, political regimes, religions, and external physical and climatic conditions that differentiate among cultures and require different patterns of cultural

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> adaptation. Therefore, people are likely to live in more than one cultural sphere, and to do this they are likely to use more than one language, more than one code of behaviors, and more than one social identity. (p. 841)

This chapter will explore co-cultural diversity in terms of continental specifics with contributions from residents in South Africa, India, Germany, Mexico, and the USA. Key variables explored will be historical perspectives, commitment to the organization, perceptions of fairness and respect, and frustrations in the work environment. Understanding of, respect for, and positive incorporation of ideas from diverse cultures around the world while remaining flexible in approach and oriented toward people can support improved workplace and social dynamics.

## South Africa (Dr. Herman van Niekerk)

South Africa provides an interesting perspective into a study of diversity management. The motivation for diversity management is largely driven by globalization, the subsequent demands of an expanding multicultural workforce, and to a lesser extent the need for innovation. However, the necessity for diversity management in South Africa was not so much driven by globalization as by political pressure and labor laws which were introduced during the last 20 years. The country has several different ethnic groups, which the late President Nelson Mandela referred to as the rainbow nation. The country has eleven official languages, and although English is the dominant language used in the business environment, Afrikaans is also prominent in specific regions of the country.

This mixture of languages and cultures had its origin more than 300 years ago, when the first Europeans settled in the Cape of Good Hope to establish a halfway station between Europe and the Far East. The original settlers were Dutch which were later joined by French Huguenots and Germans, who fled religious persecution in Europe. The early years of trade with the Eastern countries and the importation of slaves from Malaysia during the late 1600s defined the beginning of the diversity that exists today in South Africa. Furthermore, in the early 1900s, many laborers were brought from India to work on the sugar plantations of the country's east coast. This potpourri of different nationalities, complemented by the four major African ethnic groups in the country, made up the population of the country today known as South Africa.

In 1994, the country made a peaceful transition to a fully democratic and socially integrated society after nearly 30 years of social and political struggles. Although the political dispensation provided the legal basis for a multicultural and integrated society, huge changes were required to ensure a fully inclusive business environment. Businesses had to adapt quickly to the new reality of a workforce that had to be increasingly diverse. Subsequently, with the emergence of legal requirements such as Affirmative Action (AA) and Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), significant demands were placed on diversity management to ensure that an integrated, multicultural workforce become optimally productive and to maintain a competitive advantage.

## Diversity Management and Competitiveness

The question that remains to be asked is what impact diversity management had on competitiveness during the last twenty years with the implementation of the various laws mentioned in the previous paragraph? One way to answer it is by referring to the data from the Competitive Business Reports, published by the World Economic Forum (WEF).

Those studies have been published since 1979, ranking the competitiveness of countries based on predetermined criteria. During the last twenty years, the report has become increasingly more sophisticated and the measurement criteria have been refined over time. Initial reports only considered a couple of competitive criteria, which were used to determine the Business Competitive Index (BCI). Since the early 2000s, the report has used seven competitive drivers, or pillars, which have been increased to twelve drivers in the latest reports. These twelve pillars were further refined to include specific indicators that are used to determine the competitive nature and capability of nations.

A comparative analysis of the WEF reports, over a 20-year period, had clearly showed that South Africa's competitiveness has fallen nearly 20 positions, from being ranked at number 29 in 1998 to number 49 in 2014/2015. These overall data are reflected in Fig. 1.1. During this time, the WEF also increased the number of countries from an initial 101 in 1998 to 140 in 2015. Admittedly, while there are 12 key pillars of overall competitiveness, as indicated by the World Economic Forum data, the following factors may directly and indirectly be related to diversity management and labor force practice. To understand how diversity management relates to competitiveness and organizational commitment and workplace

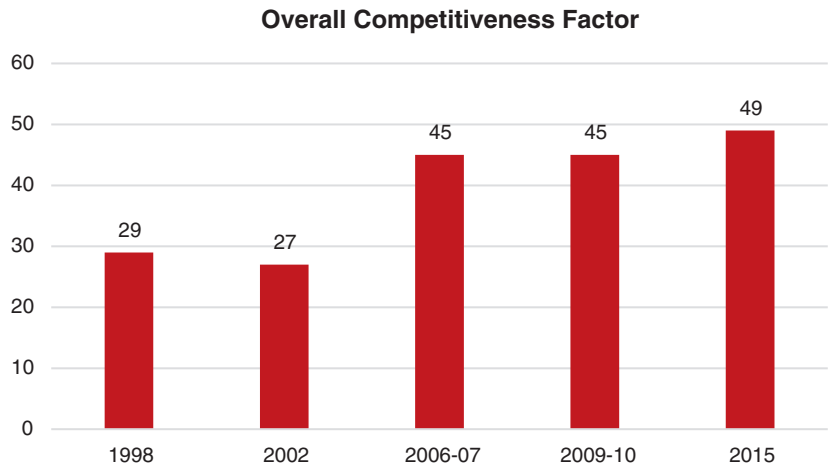


**Fig. 1.1** South Africa's global competitiveness ranking 1998–2015

frustrations, the following four criteria were pulled from the WEF reports, namely: (1) Pay and Productivity, (2) Brain drain, (3) Nature of competitive advantage, and (4) Availability of Scientists and Engineers.

The Fig. 1.2 presents data related to the four individual criteria. Fluctuations in three of those four drivers show a spike in 2009–2010. In contrast, the "Pay and Productivity" driver shows a sharp rise and South Africa has dropped 33 places in pay and productivity competitiveness in global terms, ranking now 127 out of 140 countries. Considering that the country's overall competitiveness dropped 20 places and is now ranked in position 120 out of 140 countries, a question should be raised: *How effective was diversity management in this situation?*

Political reality and necessities in South Africa required companies to commit themselves too quickly to a more diverse workforce, while not necessarily having the necessary skills and training to meet job requirements. Richard et al. (2003) found that the impact of workforce racial diversity on organizational performance is linked to the type of strategy, which is followed, and may not necessarily have a simple direct positive or negative relationship. In South Africa's case, the strategy was mostly defined to meet legal and labor requirements and affirmative action targets. This can be clearly seen in the significant drops that were experienced in the availability of engineers and scientists between 2006 and

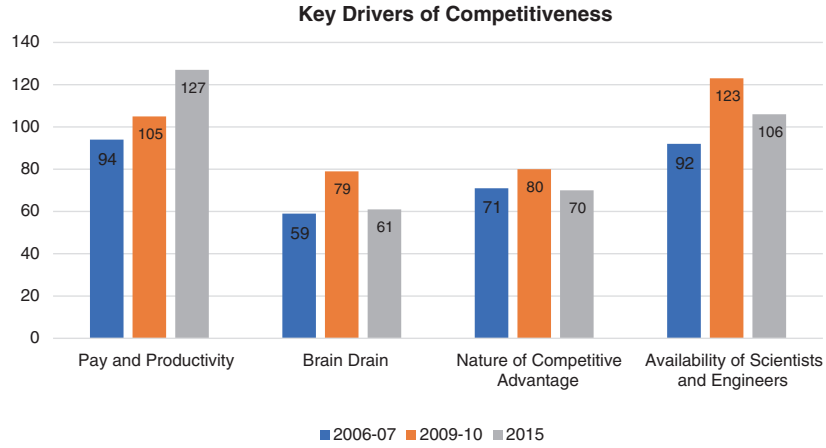


**Fig. 1.2** Key drivers of competitiveness in South Africa 2006–2015

2010. This is a time when many engineers opted to leave the country as part of the brain drain that occurred.

During this time of tumultuous change, a general perception existed that collaborating and sharing relevant information in an ethnically diverse workforce would have been extremely challenging. Based on the history of the country, it was also believed that high levels of mistrust among the different groups would permeate the environment.

A consultancy study undertaken in one of the major parastatals in the country—in which significant changes were made in terms of Black Economic Empowerment—found that in a sample of over 200 employees, only 14% indicated that they shared knowledge and expertise to a great or very great extent, while 48% indicated that very little sharing was taking place. It was also found that collaboration among employees and different departments was generally low, with only 24% of the sampled individuals indicating that it was great and/or very great. For 38% of the sample, no or very little collaboration was evident. Nearly 86% of the employees indicated that sharing knowledge means no or very little loss of power.

This is a very strong statement by employees that they are willing to share knowledge, but that sharing is not taking place (van Niekerk 2005). *Why is that happening?* Reasons could be that there is no

technological platform available and that no organizational knowledge of management processes, such as After Action Review (AAR), is in place to facilitate information and knowledge sharing. Additional research of these specific issues concluded that employees did not mind sharing their expertise and knowledge, but that they wanted to be remunerated for doing so. It was, thus, not a case of mistrust, but rather a rewarding issue, where employees wanted to be rewarded for their skills and expertise.

## Learning, Change, and Reward Structures in a Multicultural Work Environment

The demands of a high-intensity knowledge-based environment characterize current workplaces, in which enhancing the success of workplace learning is the responsibility of both managers and employees (Harteis 2012). In a multicultural business environment, global leaders need, therefore, to improve their interpersonal skills to deal with racial conflict and to create opportunities for individuals and groups to learn and collaborate in the workplace.

van Niekerk (2005) also found that the current organizational climate for effective learning within the sample group was generally at a low level. This held true, even in the presence of positive aspects, such as change acceptance and embracement by employees, existence of performance agreements emphasizing learning and development, and company's encouragement of lifelong learning by providing tuition reimbursement and other incentives. From these responses, it was clear that employees wanted to be rewarded when sharing knowledge, but that it was not happening, with 75% indicating that no or very few rewards were received and that only 2% responded that this occurred to a great or very great extent.

## India (Subodh Simon Karmarkar, MBA)

One needs to view India as a subcontinent more than a country. The social context of diversity and inclusion needs to be understood prior to addressing organizational context with respect to diversity management. India has a distinctly different societal context on diversity than any western or eastern country. With a population of 1.2 billion, the

subcontinent is challenged with a plethora of diversity issues, including religion, languages, gender, caste, social disadvantage (e.g., scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, and other depressed classes), lifestyles (vegetarian versus non-vegetarian), ethnicity, regional background, and age. India is home to most of the world religions, including Hinduism, Islam, Catholicism, Christianity, Judaism, Sikhism, Jainism, and Buddhism. The subcontinent has constitutionally recognized 18 official languages (each listed on paper currency) with over 100 dialects.

Gender inequality remains high, with ancient customs, like dowry payments for marriage. The resulting loss of post-marriage human capital serves as a deterrent for parents to invest in girls' education and health. Women make up 20% of the workforce. Many opt out of the workforce by age 30, due to societal, family, and personal reasons. Although India has been in the path of becoming an economic powerhouse, religion, caste, and language remain major determinants of social and political organizations.

The government's continued effort to pass laws protecting the lower end of the class structure has created resentments for the higher caste (typically senior leadership and managers) toward reservation policies and concessions created to allow socially disadvantaged people to enter organizations. Although three sweeping legislations have been passed since 1955, caste stratification philosophy pre-dates, by centuries, any formal affirmative action policy. Different forms of business ownership have different views of cultural diversity and inclusion. Cultural diversity is viewed completely differently in public versus private sectors. Across different industries, within the private sector, trumpeting merit-based hiring to ensure affirmative action has created deep resentments. Larger multinational corporations are taking on more global socially responsible approaches. Although the USA has been credited with diversity management and inclusion concepts, better understanding of managing cultural diversity is gaining traction in IT and knowledge-intensive sectors in India.

## Diversity Influences on Commitment to the Organization

The ample social diversity in India impacts learning processes, attitudes, perceptions, and work relations (Rai 2012). In most organizations, leadership views D&I as being embedded in the organizational culture, and as not warranting a formal policy based on social context of the

subcontinent's inherent diversity. One manager stated India has a diverse population, which means a workforce that is inherently tolerant. Several studies (Bartlett et al. 2002; Bjorkman et al. 2008; Rao 2007) suggested that senior leadership's perception concerning the degree of empowerment of the labor force and the relative value of human resources is positively related to an organization's diversity strategy. A manager's background and organizational profile play significant roles in effectively implementing diversity management practices. For example, a female manager will champion a gender-specific promotion platform.

Another factor to consider is the form of business ownership. In India, public sector and private sector firms tend to lag considerably behind both foreign and domestic multinationals in diversity management and inclusion. Younger, entrepreneurial companies are more in tune with diversity management compared to companies with long histories. Companies with long histories are entrenched with cultural forces and lean toward paying more attention to employee's age and tenure, gender, and social hierarchies, when compared to younger companies, founded on the spirit of entrepreneurship and merit-based reward system.

For small to midsize companies, the ideas of diversity management and inclusion are new. There is a paradox in that individuals from the same city but different castes, languages, or practicing different religions, ride along in public transportation and come together at one workplace; yet there is no awareness in terms of identification or a formalization of diversity policy. In small to midsize sectors, a relationship has not been drawn between diversity management and performance enhancement. New initiatives, like campus recruiting of local talent, are being sure to use recruiters that speak the local language and are familiar with local customs as a good source for regional hiring.

In larger, multinational knowledge-based organizations, such as Infosys, an established, dedicated organization for diversity and inclusion exists. As of 2016, Infosys has a workforce present in all continents. Women make up approximately 32% of the workforce, compared to the national average in India of 20%. Infosys' vision is to create an inclusive workplace and to leverage diversity for a sustainable competitive advantage. The principles and goals of The Universal Declaration of Human Rights are at the epicenter of its diversity and inclusion strategy. Another idea embraced by Infosys is the "flat world" notion—suggesting that the world is "flat" in the sense that the competitive playing fields of

developed economies and emerging economies are leveling; similarly, this concept is applied to diversity and inclusion. Religion, cultural awareness, and language training are provided to enhance staff cohesion and understanding. To support an inclusive environment, the firm and staff have encouraged the creation of organized events with culturally representative groups, which include bringing families and observing customs and rituals of various ethnicities and religions.

## Perceptions of Fairness and Respect

India's information technology and knowledge-intensive services sector has been most of the world's focus. Large companies (e.g., Infosys, Wipro, Tata, Reliance) with multicontinental presence are demonstrating desire to adopt strategic human resource management practices. Not all private firms are employing strategic HRM thinking in making various business decisions. Several factors influence the adoption of Diversity Management (DM) practices, including senior managers' characteristics, a company's strategic intent, and company's positioning in terms of its product/industrial market and labor market. In cases where an entity maintains a monopolistic position, due to government protection and/or high entry barriers, there is no incentive to adopt progressive HRM practices like DM.

The high-performing culture of information technology typically has a highly educated and younger workforce. Merit-based recruitment and merit-based promotions create an imbalance for the disadvantaged groups (lower castes). The gross underrepresentation occurs due, in part, to underrepresentation in higher education.

One midsize knowledge-based company's line manager stated he still views topics like diversity management as a HR function and readily admits it is has nothing to do with line management. When an issue crops up, the individuals are sent to HR to resolve the matter. Companies that are embracing strategic diversity management focus on equal opportunities for all. The inherent challenge is how to satisfy diverse individual needs without being perceived as "unfair" by other employees who might demand similar treatment.

Males highly dominate the industrial sector, with only 4% of workforce consisting of women. For women to be equal participants at work, they will need to attain equal partnership in society. Due to the nature of the work, women and other disadvantaged members are not proactively

recruited. The banking sector, like IT sector, boasts much higher levels of women in the staffing ratio. Organizations in the banking sector provide gender-specific DM initiatives to accommodate women's family care commitments.

## Frustrations in the Work Environment

For domestic multinational corporations (MNCs), diversity and inclusion policies have become a salient HR strategy for recruiting and retention purposes, as well as for exhibiting corporate socially responsible image of the organization. If a company did not have D&I policies, it could lose talent to competitors; hence, innovations in this area created a competitive advantage. Competitive advantage was short-lived as competitors would easily replicate new ideas. Strategic D&I initiatives not only help with staff recruiting and retention, but also help in getting more clients and work.

The IT and the knowledge-based sectors, known for their younger workforces, face an ongoing challenge specific to generation-related expectations and aspirations. Generation Y employees have different value systems and loyalties, when compared to previous generations. Historically, people would join a company and, perhaps, retire from that company; today, the youth may change jobs as frequently as every six months. Creating an inclusive environment is very difficult. Long-tenured employees are perceived as relics and holding an outdated knowledge base.

Diversity and inclusion strategies specific to gender vary with age. In the IT sector, female participation equals the one in the USA, making up approximately 27% of the workforce. However, there is a huge drop in that percentage when women reach the age of 30 and decide to pursue personal goals, like getting married and raising a family. Voluntarily or involuntarily, women are silently leaving the workforce to pursue expectations placed either by society or family.

## Summary

In a country like India, diversity is a way of life, wherein facets of racial, ethnic, religious, and linguistic diversity are incorporated in the social fabric of the subcontinent. Although India has made great strides since the globalization movement and is no longer viewed as spiritual, mystic,

and fatalistic, D&I interventions will be necessary to overcome centuries old philosophy of the caste system that remains quietly persistent. The Indian subcontinent has had its own philosophies deeply rooted in traditions, cultural beliefs, and behaviors that dominated its human resource management functions and strategies. Great effort has been made by MNCs in IT sector to reach out to women, underprivileged, and disabled, while progress in other sectors remains to be seen.

## Germany (Dr. Susanne Beier, LPC, NCC, NCCC)

In the nineteenth century, Germany, Kaiser Willhelm II defined the role for women as "Kirche, Küche, Kinder" (church, kitchen, children) (German Culture, n.d.). In German society, today, this is considered derogatory. However, for girls growing up in the 1950s this was still engrained. Career opportunities for girls were not discussed or encouraged.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, women began to make more progress in their struggle for equal rights. The Weimar Republic (1919–1933) gave women many freedoms (as compared to the past) and a chance to expand their privileges in German society. The most significant gains at that time were access to secondary education and the right to vote.

Work diversity is an area of interest to this author since, as a child in Germany, she had faced a future without any opportunities for growth in employment or future education. This author grew up in that era and attended German schools until the 6th grade, when she emigrated to the USA with her parents. Prior to leaving for the USA, she was groomed to work in the factory upon completion of the 8th grade, as were her female classmates at the time (German School System, n.d.).

The decisions about female children took place at completion of 4th grade, with a review of academic records and discussion with the parents. The author's family history was that it was the woman's duty, first and foremost, to take care of the house and children. Career aspirations were not considered realistic or achievable.

Transitioning from the German school system to the American system was difficult because the author did not speak English when arriving in the USA. At that time, bilingual education or ESOL was not available. Consequently, her academic history was average, including high school years. She was told by the Guidance Counselor that she was "not college material" and should consider being a secretary. Following the

plan ingrained from her childhood, she got married at age 20. She had two children and became a single mother at age 28. At that time, there was a local college program available to single mothers, and she entered college for the first time. She attended part-time and graduated college seven years later, continuing her studies on to earn a Masters and a doctorate. While attending college, she worked in a retail setting while working toward professional position, and was offered a volunteer capacity of teacher's aide in an Alternative School setting. From there, she was offered a permanent teacher's aide position and earned her teaching certification. She taught at the Alternative School, where she started out as an Aide for three years, and then was offered an opportunity to move over to administration. Three years later, she was the Executive Director. She obtained licensure as a counselor and opened a practice, providing consulting services to corporate relocation clients. When her second husband passed, she closed her practice and accepted an adjunct faculty position at an online university, teaching counseling courses. She was later offered and accepted a full-time faculty position.

Though diversity has not garnered nearly the same attention in Germany as in the USA, recently it is becoming more of an issue. In 2006, Germany passed the General Equal Treatment Act (German Federal Anti-Discrimination Agency 2015), ensuring that employers must make sure discrimination does not take place. To the extent diversity plays a role in Germany, the global market has proven to be a driving force for meeting diversity guidelines in German subsidiaries of American companies. Before 2006, although companies sought advice about what impact diversity plays in Germany, the concept of diversity was unknown. Typically, a flat-out response was diversity does not play a role in Germany, as "it is not needed" (Rehder and Day 2007).

To develop a current perspective of German approaches, the author interviewed six German citizens (three males and three females). Two of the men are entrepreneurs (two private practice engineers), and one owns two restaurants (one in Germany and one in the USA) and has been a manager in a corporate setting. One of the engineers has a bachelor's degree in engineering, and the other is a licensed engineer with the equivalent of an associate degree. Two of the women are department managers, one in a retail setting, and one in an office setting in the Customer Service Department. None had clear answers to interview questions discussing diversity at the workplace. As part of the interviews, the author also introduced the topic of the recent influx of refugees in

Germany and the possible effects on diversity in the workplace. The answer was, "they will be able to speak German and will work along with the rest of us completing our work assignments." All participants made statements indicating there was little difference in how the "background of the people and where they came from" affected employment. The conclusion communicated was, "they all know that they just need to do the job. It doesn't matter who they are. All six stated they expected anyone who worked for or with them, "to carry their workload and get the job done right, no matter who they were or where they came from." The emphasis with all six interviewees was that the primary focus is on "getting the job done. Period."

### Summary

As Germany continues to experience diversity because of outside influences (Pastel 2006). Specifically, in addition to the 1.1 million Syrian refugees accepted by Germany in 2015, there is also an influx of immigrants from Ireland, Poland, Spain, and other European countries because of labor shortages in their home countries. Some of these adjustments are unwelcome by some Germans, while cheered by others. However, as Germany changes and adapts to the new cultural norms, it is evident diversity will be part of the tapestry of the country.

## Mexico (Dr. Francisco Javier Reyes Avila)

Nowadays, globalization has led to a worldwide diversity in different areas, such as economic, political, social, psychological, technological, cultural, and geographical. This has an obvious impact on societies and enterprises. Mexico, a traditional "macho man" country, has gone through some drastic changes. An example of that could be seen, for example, during the national parade in September 2016, when the national armed forces lined, side by side, female and male soldiers as equals. Both genders were represented in key positions in the parade. Regarding the political environment, President Peña Nieto has recently asked to all public candidates to treat females and males as equals. In the economic environment, changes are also clear: The increase in real estate value, the movement of workers into different areas, and the economic development and consequent increase in employment opportunities.

In enterprises, the change is a constant, caused by the evolution in technology, foreign direct investments, movement of labor, and outsourcing. Companies use outsourcing as means to reduce the cost of their products. The low cost of labor in Mexico has been the opportunity for multinational enterprises (MNEs) to do business in this country. In the middle of the 1960s, the Mexican government established the so-called maquiladoras, factories in Mexico run by a foreign company and exporting its products to the country of that company. The maquiladora triggered an increased diversity in Mexico, because country people emigrated to different cities along the border with the USA, namely the states of California, Sonora, Chihuahua, and Tamaulipas, where the maquiladoras were originally concentrated. Now, the maquiladoras have expanded to the entire Mexican territory.

The author has met students who work in maquiladoras in Reynosa and Matamoros, in the state of Tamaulipas, and Saltillo, in the state of Coahuila. They have shared problems with their managers who were expatriates and came from the headquarters of MNEs. These managers arrived speaking their own languages, as if they were at home and demanded locals to understand and speak their languages in the workplace. This was a negative manifestation of diversity and the ethnocentric behavior. Other students who worked in the Human Resources department have reported incidents with LGBT workers that were not accepted in female or male restrooms. In another issue, this one related to religious choice, Muslim employees have a special schedule and need a private space to pray, what create the need for special accommodations. Diversity requires a special attention by enterprises to manage their diverse employees.

The personal and professional interest for the diversity topics as a researcher, and the natural curiosity to search for answers and create a better understanding about this topic in his country, made the author survey several managers of human resources, by asking three questions about diversity:

(1) ***How are diversity management issues understood and managed at workplaces in this country?***

Most executives answered that enterprises are immersed in a process of total renovation of the administrative system; creating an equilibrium concerning gender, religion, education, social class, and different cultural values. The common objective is to develop equal opportunity for all the employees under the values and policies of

the enterprise. This includes consideration of the three generations: Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials, currently sharing the workplace. Executives agreed that most companies are approaching diversity with an open mind.

(2) ***To what extent have business organizations in this country developed a strategic approach to managing diversity to enhance their performance?***

Most MNE executives believe there has been a great advance in diversity management. Domestic enterprises are also working on it, but having a slower progress. Mexican domestic enterprises are ruled by the Ley Federal del Trabajo. There exists an enormous gap between real labor diversity and as defined in the law. This is a major challenge. In response to this legal problem, executives are using their creativity and special agreements to address these issues.

(3) ***Are there any differences in the perception between managers and non-managerial employees in the way workforce diversity is and should be managed in their organization?***

Most managers think that there is more awareness of diversity among managers than among non-managerial employees. Some managers attribute this difference in perception to the generational gap. Most managers belong to Baby Boomers generation, while non-managerial employees are mostly Millennials.

### Summary

Managers and executives in Mexico have had to change the way they communicate job vacancies, removing sex, age, gender as information required in the applications because asking about them is considered discriminatory. Today, Mexican executives should be more creative in dealing with labor reform, focusing on new ideas, technology, and staying updated on diversity circumstances.

## African Americans—Continental USA (Debra Jenkins, MS, MA)

The 40,695,277 African Americans in the continental USA make up 12.6% of the total US population and 12% of the US labor market (US Census 2016). Sixty-two percent of all African Americans are employed

with half those in managerial or professional positions (US Bureau of Labor Statistics 2016). Most African Americans reside in the continental states of Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, and North Carolina (US Census 2016). African Americans by 2050 will be less than 15% of the total US population (US Census 2016).

African American perspectives and responses regarding workforce diversity are connected to history in the Continental USA. Most US African Americans have ancestors brought to the Continental USA through the slave trade beginning in 1669. One of the first recorded business managers was an African American manager named Benjamin Thornton Montgomery (Jones et al. 2012). A former slave, Montgomery applied Robert Owen's business management strategy to plantation management (Jones et al. 2012). Montgomery's plantation owner recognized his managerial skills and eventually sold him the plantation in 1866 (Jones et al. 2012). African Americans have historically demonstrated a dedicated work ethic, high levels of responsibility, and a strong sense of commitment to the organizations they work in (Jones et al. 2012).

Negative effects from the slave trade remain within society and the workforce today (DeGruy 2005). After the emancipation proclamation, legal efforts were put in place to hinder the education and economic advancement of African Americans. In the twentieth century, African Americans experienced de jure segregation and discrimination based on Jim Crow laws (Parrillo 2013). The Civil Rights Act of 1964 was implemented to eliminate overt discrimination in the workplace that primarily impacted African Americans; however, continual diversity efforts remain needed to improve how African Americas are treated within the workplace (Bond and Hayes 2014).

## Diversity Management Issues

Diversity management issues are multilayered and need to be addressed with intentional efforts. Workplace connectedness both within the community and organizations is one such issue for organizations. Harambee is a Swahili term that means to be connected, all for one, and unified (Ujamaa Family 2009). Kaplin and Lee (2014) recorded accounts of legal issues demonstrating that workplace disconnect and covert discrimination continue to impact "harambee" in the workplace. African American emotional, cognitive, and behavioral well-being, sense of belonging, and safety in the workplace are now being recognized as

priorities (Bond and Hayes 2014). Sue (2010) completed a study showing how external hostilities and negative societal messages stemming from isolation, exploitation, and discrimination on the job caused psychological stress, micro-aggressive stress, and stereotype stress.

African Americans experience discrimination and unfair societal treatment, critical factors in diversity management (Bond and Hayes 2014; Darder 1991; McCray 1994; Whaley and Ford 2007). Members of an organization benefit from establishing culturally appropriate relationships with the African American community. Relationships are important when implementing external diversity efforts such as where to post job announcements and how to encourage participation in programming. Pairing with African American community organizations through employee volunteer efforts and philanthropic endeavors can also form connections (Bond and Hayes 2014).

It is important for an organization to connect through internal diversity messaging efforts, including consideration of how current societal events for African Americans impact them outside and within the organization (Aamodt 2007). Darder (1991) found people of color responded to unfair treatment, external hostilities, and negative societal messages in the workplace within four cultural response patterns (alienist, dualist, separatist, and negotiation). African Americans experiencing negative messages may utilize an alienist response pattern and view their own group as a deficit model. Those using a dualist response pattern may choose to keep work and home cultures separate. The choice to associate only with people most like themselves is an African American separatist response to negative treatment in the work environment. The response pattern that developmentally maintains authentic self and the ability to bridge with those least familiar is a negotiation response pattern. Organizational awareness of the messages can either hinder African American employee desires to manage or remain in non-managerial positions (Tomkiewicz et al. 2001).

## Strategic Approaches to Managing Diversity

How diversity is managed within a workplace is essential to an African American non-managerial employee's sense of belonging and sense of safety (Bond and Hayes 2014). Organizations recognizing a need to create supportive environments for their diverse employees by providing

internal and external culturally responsive resources notice a change in messaging about organizational climate (Prasad 2001). Although business organizations are reframing efforts to address what is happening outside and inside of the organization for African Americans, there remains a lot of work to do in the area of climate (Bond and Hayes 2014).

Iwata (2004) believes the difficulty of connecting is due to the focus on executive level or managerial voices instead of the voices of diverse employees. Iwata (2004) recommended that organizations begin their diversity work by understanding the cultural values and perceptions of their non-managerial employees. African Americans have a myriad of values connected to symbolic rituals, customs, and rules (Parrillo 2013). Kwanzaa is one such tradition in the African American community (Karenga 2013). The challenge with the philosophy of incorporating cultural values to manage diversity is that the same ethnic representations are not equally valued by all members of the same group (Parrillo 2013). For examples, see Table 1.1 extracted from Jenkins (2014). These are data from a field study of African American perceptions of and suggestions for management of workforce diversity. The study was based on the seven principles of Kwanzaa (Karenga 2013).

### Summary

Culturally responsive messaging on the part of the organization that gauges both external and internal messages African Americans receive is an essential component to diversity management. Such intentional efforts should continue (Bond and Haynes 2014).

## Asian Americans—Hawaii, USA (Violet Nxedhlana, MHA)

Hawaii is a multicultural state characterized by different ethnic and cultural groups. Based on the US Census data obtained in 2015, the state of Hawaii consists of a 42.3% Asian American (AA) population as opposed to 4% found in the entire USA (Zhang et al. 2010). However, the term AA is not as commonly used in Hawaii as it is in the mainland. Hawaii uniquely differs from other states because no individual racial or ethnic group can claim a majority in that state (Oliveira et al. 2006). For example, 32% is White, 19% is Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islanders, 2.9% is Black or African American, 1.9% is American Indian and Alaska

**Table 1.1** African American perceptions of and suggestions for management of workforce diversity

| *Umoja (unity)* | *Kujichagulia (self-determination)* | *Ujima (collective work and responsibility)* | *Ujamaa (cooperative economics)* | *Nia (purpose)* | *Kuumba (creativity)* | *Imani (faith)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Remove barriers, including hidden agendas | View diverse non-managerial employees as competent and capable | Provide mentoring and peer support | Provide new managers with the tools, mentorship, training to effectively navigate within the organizations culture | Value and promote the ideas of diverse group members. Believe that their ideas are for the greater good and not self-serving | Diverse non-managerial employees recognize what they value. If managers recognize it, then managers should also reward it | Give diverse non-managerial employees a reason to trust managers and the organization |
| Use cluster hiring of employees to be able to see the diversity within a group | Encourage perspectives that do not align with the norm or perceived status quo | Managers should model the collective work and responsibility they desire to see in their employees | Provide adequate budgets and funding to support the work required | Reach out to diverse employees to see where talents can be best utilized | Take an interest in both the differences and uniquenesses that diverse | Leaders must trust their diverse non-managerial employees |
| Create inclusive environments that reflect the culturally responsive lives of diverse employees | Refuse to micromanage diverse non-managerial employees because they are capable of | Provide retreats and professional development that will connect diverse employees to all levels of the organization | Be proactive and inclusive in how programs and services are delivered | Allow employees to recommend new workflows or processes to improve program outcomes and measures | Create an agency culture where to think outside of the box becomes the norm | Expect that diverse non-managerial employees are integral rather than assume they are dishonest or with evil intent |

(continued)

**Table 1.1** (continued)

| *Umoja (unity)* | *Kujichagulia (self-determination)* | *Ujima (collective work and responsibility)* | *Ujamaa (cooperative economics)* | *Nia (purpose)* | *Kuumba (creativity)* | *Imani (faith)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ask for the perspectives of diverse non-managerial employees, listen, and apply | Value the independent contributions made by diverse non-managerial employees | Reward collective work | Provide same access to resources that are provided for systemically dominant employees | Demonstrate to diverse employees that what they bring is valuable and purposeful. | Welcome the creativity that diverse Non-managerial employees bring | By combining all of the above, I would experience Imani |

Native, with 23.6% of all Hawaii residents of multiethnic backgrounds (two or more races) (US Census 2016).

Although the AA population consists of nearly 50 distinct ethnic groups, there is a disregard for that AA diversity (Suh 2008). For example, in some Hawaiian workplaces, racial and ethnic harmony exists within the population groups despite the presence of cultural diversity. Also, the fact that society regards those of Asian origin as a monolithic group, a "model minority," and one that expects a mutual outcome (Suh 2008), fuels the notion that diversity is not much of a factor among working AAs in Hawaii. AAs in Hawaii, like other Asians, believe in the spirits of their ancestors. Different ethnic groups in Hawaii have faith in the spirit of ohana or family, which symbolizes a family that does not forget or leave anyone behind (Lindo 1980). Ohana is a word that originated from "oha" or the bulb of the taro plant. The plant provides a connection link between the people in Hawaii and the heritage of their people (Lindo 1980). It is not so important how many branches stemmed from the "oha." Even if people are not closely related, they still relate as brothers and sisters to each other as part of the ohana family.

## Commitment to the Organization

Organizational commitment involves an individual's feeling of loyalty to an institution and an eagerness to exert oneself to enhance a company's objective (Pennsylvania State University World Campus (PSUWC) 2013). AAs in Hawaii show their dedication by suppressing the needs and desires of each racial group and encouraging cohesiveness within the various subgroups. In addition, AAs show a willingness to fulfill an institution's goals and interests to help further the welfare of the organization. Different AA subgroups display a strong sense of commitment to the institution. The AA workforce in Hawaii does not create a workplace environment where one race has superiority over another. Rather, it seems that ethnicity does not matter as subgroup concerns take precedence over individual cultural desires and rights. Even the word AA is rarely used in Hawaii or by the Hawaiian workforce.

Hawaii organizations embrace the cultural diversity and inclusion views that bring in work experiences and diverse perspectives. Promoting and hiring individuals with different cultural backgrounds also help in establishing a collaborative work environment that creates business value and a way for AA employees in Hawaii to achieve their full potential.

However, in some rare cases, AA workers demonstrate less commitment toward their organization because of low levels of trust in management caused by unfair work practices. Such instances include occasions where some employees are not respected or valued for their contributions.

## Perceptions of Fairness and Respect

"Aloha" is a spirit of love in Hawaii that accepts and welcomes everyone and treats different ethnic groups with respect. The aloha spirit is no exaggeration; it is real in the Hawaiian workplace. Management values and promotes cultural diversity in its workforce and thrives to treat all ethnic groups with consistency and impartiality. Wood (1993) stated that to show respect for others does not mean one must personally accept someone's point of view. Instead, respect surpasses sheer tolerance and gets to a point where one admires someone for doing a good job that they were not capable of doing or would do. AAs in Hawaii feel that cultural diversity is a non-issue, because ethnic groups show mutual respect based on the unique skills and capabilities of all ethnic groups, rather than race or culture. Although management does not show cultural bias toward its treatment of the AA population, it still demonstrates unfair practices such as failure to listen and engage some of its employees, whether AA or non-AA, leading to a failure in responding to their needs.

## Frustrations in the Work Environment

In Hawaii, AAs from different backgrounds and ethnicities can work well together and feel accepted in their places of work. Being part of the majority also adds to the ease of acceptance. Although AA workers organize themselves into various ethnic groups, they do so to acknowledge the differences in their culture not to treat each other along racial lines. Cultural bias, institutional discrimination, and stereotyping, often associated with multicultural groups in the workplace, are the least of their worries, because AAs in Hawaii feel that such behaviors hardly exist in their workplaces. AA workers are more frustrated with top management who lack leadership potential and charisma than they are with an ethically diverse workforce. To AAs in Hawaii, workplace diversity fosters creativity and new ideas and establishes an environment in which employees acknowledge each other's differences.

## Afterword (Dr. Kelley A. Conrad)

In past years, the focus of cultural diversity was on the shift in work context from organizations, moving from being local in focus to being international in focus. What formerly worked within one's own country worked less well when the organization had to operate across international boundaries as co-cultural organizations. Internationalization has been exacerbated by acquisitions of major local companies by foreign firms (in the USA and elsewhere). However, many organizations have been able to cope reasonably well through cultural awareness training and other awareness and sensitivity-related efforts. Then, the Internet happened. By creating a near instantaneous communication network, virtual management of organizations, teams, and individuals quickly became a reality. Today, many organizations find themselves operating in a global work context, often including major parts of their workforces located outside the country of origin. Managers now manage multicultural, virtual teams.

This is a radically changed global environment requiring better shared meaning systems for all parties. We will continue to see the convergence of work cultures; however, individual national and local areas will retain some uniqueness. This uniqueness will require considerable skill from corporations, managers, and employees as they respond to the interplay of global and local work identities and the cultural diversity these will represent.

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CHAPTER 2

# Age Diversity in the Workplace

*Pamela Ann Gordon PhD*

## Overview

The twenty-first-century workplace presents new trends while challenging formerly accepted behavioral paradigms. Original efforts to manage diversity resulted more from the need to comply with legal requirements (Harrison et al. 1998). Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 became federal laws enacted to protect individuals against employment discrimination and age bias (Lynch 2015). Even having formal equal opportunity policies has not necessarily led to outcomes resulting in equality and inclusion (Riach 2009). The US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (2016a, b) reported that in 2015, age discrimination charges totaled more than 20,144 with several awarded judgments of more than a million dollars. The continuing emphasis on inclusion within the organizational setting acknowledges the growing awareness of value-added benefits offered by embracing a mix of diversity components. Gaining insight into organizational inclusion implications requires a detailed analysis of viewpoints. Age diversity is one of the key components since the current workforce offers a unique generational mix (Boehm et al. 2014).

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Butler (1980) first coined the word ageism as prejudice, discrimination, and harmful practices based on a person's apparent age. This chapter explores perceptual, as well as evidenced-based information regarding workplace age diversity and the practical applications for managing an age-diverse workforce.

## Aging Workforce

Numerous demographic and socioeconomic changes promote an aging workforce in the new millennium. People are healthier and living longer than in the past. Older workers who find fulfillment in their work and enjoy being a productive member of society want to remain active in the workplace. Financial constraints due to inadequate savings, increased healthcare costs, or supporting other family members cause older workers to delay retirement. The declining birthrate means fewer younger workers entering the workforce (Boehm et al. 2014; Drabe et al. 2015). Each of these factors impacts changing workforce patterns and contribute to continuing bias, stereotyping, and mistreatment.

## Life Span Aging Theories

Developmental psychology research examines aging from an interconnected, multidisciplinary, life span development framework (Baltes 1987). The goal is to explore how and why a person changes during each phase of life. The emphasis for younger adults is on growth and development, while a focus on retention and minimizing decline spans the progression from middle age to old age. Researchers determined that this theoretical process leads to a realistic outlook as prospects and goals change throughout life (Ebner et al. 2006). Trends in life span psychology focus on between-person age differences, within-person age differences, and a combination of the two (Baltes et al. 1999; Hofer and Piccinin 2010). Closely aligned with life span development is the capability approach (CA), which focuses on what people aspire to and achieve (Robertson 2015). Another theory examines life span development regulation. The assumptions in this research viewpoint target meta regulation or pairing goals with opportunities, goal engagement or pursuing goals, and goal disengagement or changing the importance of a goal (Hasse et al. 2013). Outcomes from these theoretical perspectives yield valuable

information related to the mental, physical, and motivational changes experienced throughout the life span (Kanfer and Ackerman 2004).

## Age Stereotypes and Biases

Age stereotypes exist for younger as well as older workers and are both positive and negative. These stereotypes have profound effects on workplace decisions, especially if these decisions lead to prejudice and discrimination (Bertolino et al. 2013; Rauschenbach et al. 2012). Many of these stereotypes emerge due to the generational issues from the three generations currently comprising the workforce. Segmenting into cohorts may add to the problem and actually promote unintentional discriminatory behaviors (Barrett and Bourke 2013; Cox and Coulton 2015). While different perceptions exist between the generations, it is important to note that variations also occur within the generations. Just as not everyone follows the same developmental path, not everyone matches the perceived generational differences. What is most surprising is that expressing generational stereotypes is viewed as acceptable behavior, while mentioning other demographic stereotypes is deemed socially intolerable (Deal et al. 2010).

### *Baby Boomers*

The perception of the Baby Boomer generation, born between 1946 and 1964, is one that exhibits a solid work ethic with an emphasis on individual growth and development, as well as being more stable than younger workers (Bertolino et al. 2013; Riach 2009). Many older workers, however, have limited offers for growth or promotion opportunities due to contrasting perceptions regarding lower productivity levels, limited technology skills, or because the older worker may not match the organization's customer demographic profile (Ilmakunnas and Ilmakunnas 2011). DeArmond et al. (2006) confirmed from study results that older workers are perceived as less adaptable: interpersonally, culturally, and physically.

Baby Boomers are also the first generation where women strived for equality in the workplace. In 2008, during an exceptionally high period of unemployment caused by the economic downturn, older female workers were the most adversely affected group (Ghilarducci 2016). A more recent

study by Neumark et al. (2015) revealed that "based on evidence from over 40,000 job applications, we find robust evidence of age discrimination in hiring against older women" (para. 1).

Trends show that due to increases in life expectancy, Baby Boomers want to continue working, either full- or part-time, beyond the traditional age of retirement (Bell and Narz 2007; Paggi and Jopp 2015). In contrast to the stereotypical viewpoint that older workers are not adaptable interpersonally, a study by Matz-Costa et al. (2012) verified that older workers experienced the highest levels of inclusion when they were members of an age-diverse team. Alternately, younger workers felt the highest levels of inclusion when team membership was more homogeneous.

### *Generation X*

Born between 1965 and 1980, many Generation X members were latchkey children of dual career Baby Boomers and as adults, the Xers tend to be more self-reliant (Crumpacker and Crumpacker 2007). Due to their early environment, this generation of workers tend to exhibit less loyalty to employers and are more concerned with a better balance between work and family life (Bell and Narz 2007). The turbulent economic conditions negatively impacted Generation X members as they first joined the workforce. Thus, they are perceived as cynical and demonstrating distrust in authority figures (Crumpacker and Crumpacker 2007).

### *Millennials*

The Millennial generation members were born between 1981 and 2000. Workers in this generation are perceived to be technologically savvy and embrace various forms of diversity more than other generations. Unlike the Baby Boomers who are perceived as workaholics and gain motivation from intrinsic rewards, the Millennials are recognized as wanting more flexibility in work schedules, value their personal time, and need extrinsic rewards (Bell and Narz 2007; Paggi and Jopp 2015). As children, this generation received constant praise and therefore as adults, the Millennials appear to need continuous feedback and recognition (Crumpacker and Crumpacker 2007). Due to an over-reliance on technology, the Millennial workers are perceived as having poor communication and problem-solving skills (Backes-Gellner and Veen 2013; Crumpacker and Crumpacker 2007).

## Age Discrimination

The scholarly literature presents several different reasons why age discrimination occurs and whom it impacts. Older workers are considered those who were aged 55 years or older and approaching the more traditional age of retirement (James et al. 2013). This age group may face age discrimination because employers mistakenly believe that eliminating these potentially higher paid individuals may resolve company budget issues. What is not considered when devaluing older workers is the abundance of knowledge and skills acquired through years of experience (Duncan and Loretto 2004). A study by Smeaton et al. (2009) presented evidence that employees working past the traditional retirement age benefit the economy. Older workers are also mistakenly viewed as less productive than younger workers. Employers may be reluctant to invest in training and developing older worker due to a perceived diminished return on investment (Urwin 2006). Older female workers may be particularly vulnerable, as stereotypes encourage the perception that they have less education than younger female employees (Schuman and Kleiner 2001). "Older workers may face greater discrimination because they are perceived to be compliant and thus willing to put up with more" (Glover and Branine 1997, p. 285). Additionally, study results indicated that older workers who are consistently subjected to age stereotypes tend to conform to those lower expectations, resulting in a self-fulfilling prophecy (Grima 2011).

Even middle-aged workers are not immune from age discrimination. Failure to achieve what is considered sufficient job-level progression tends to foster feelings of discrimination in middle-aged workers (Arrowsmith and McGoldrick 1997). Discrimination in this age group may also be linked to industry standards. "In advertising and IT, a worker as young as 40 can be considered too old" (Duncan and Loretto 2004, p. 96).

Reverse age discrimination is equally prevalent. With fewer jobs available, younger workers experience difficulties when competing against older, more experienced colleagues (Choi et al. 2011; de Guzman et al. 2014). At CVS retail store, customers reported feeling much more comfortable discussing their health concerns with older employees rather than sharing these issues with younger employees (Clark 2004). Instances of reverse age discrimination may also be industry-related. When hiring a consultant, corporate leaders tend to use age

and experience as indicators to determine the credibility of the consultant (Choi et al. 2011). In the university setting, tenure practices inhibit younger educators' teaching staff opportunities, which may lead to intergenerational conflict (Barrett and Bourke 2013).

## Cat's Paw Theory

Age discrimination needs to be avoided to prevent legal consequences. Numerous management personnel throughout a hierarchical organizational structure retain input into the hiring and firing decision process. This decision-making process requires objectivity to ensure fairness. Due to continuing instances of workers filing claims of age discrimination, it becomes increasingly important to examine each manager's motives. An employer is now held liable if one manager with biased motives influences another manager to take negative action against an employee (de Guzman et al. 2014). This is a confusing and frequently debated point of law and is known as the cat's paw theory or subordinate bias liability (Covel 2011).

Judge Richard Posner used a children's fable to create an analogy in deciding the outcome of the Shager v. Upjohn Co. influenced-based liability case (Powderly 2012). In the children's fable, a cat's actions were unknowingly influenced by a monkey with negative, ulterior intentions ("Aesop for Children" 1919). In the lawsuit, the Career Path Committee from Upjohn, Co. fired 53-year-old Ralph Shager. The Committee based their decision on a recommendation submitted by Shager's 38-year-old supervisor. At the time, the Committee did not know that the supervisor preferred younger employees (Powderly 2012).

Another legal case, Staub v. Proctor Hospital, explored a hospital radiology technician who also served in the Army Reserves. Vincent Staub's supervisor, Janice Mulally, openly criticized his military obligations, which required regular training sessions and, on occasion, conflicted with scheduled work shifts. When Staub complained to the department head, Michael Korenchuk, he received no support and further criticism from that leader, as well. While the Vice President of Human Resources actually fired him, Staub claimed that Ms. Mulally and Mr. Korenchuk directly influenced HR personnel in the decision to terminate him (Covel 2011; Powderly 2012). After lower court reversals, the Supreme Court ultimately issued a final ruling on this case and upheld the validity

of the cat's paw liability theory to find in favor of Staub (Pipal and Robbennolt 2011).

"Since 1990, plaintiffs have asserted claims premised on the cat's paw theory under various federal anti-discrimination statutes" including age discrimination (Covel 2011, p. 160). This point of law is controversial because it is not easy to determine the amount of influence one party needs to exert over another party to actually claim liability (Covel 2011). A review of the case outcomes led to the following recommendations for management and HR personnel:

1. Conduct investigations using a qualified independent person to ensure company personnel follow established legal practices.
2. Clearly document all process steps so that this information may be used as evidence of ethical practices.
3. Strive to uncover the truth by interviewing all parties and witnesses (Powderly 2012).

## Diversity Climate

It is important to establish the difference between affirmative action and diversity. These are not interchangeable words. As Calloway and Awadzi (2010) posited "diversity is the springboard that leads to the need for affirmative action, while the controversy and race-based focus of affirmative action spurs the need for diversity and inclusion" (p. 67). Prior affirmative action initiatives instituted to favor the hiring of women and minorities unfortunately led to a focus on meeting quotas and, in many instances, resulted in reverse discrimination practices (Velazquez 2006). Diversity refers to a wider spectrum of organizational inclusion rather than a need for initiatives promoting preferential treatment (Barak 2000).

Promoting a workplace climate that embraces diversity requires "employees' shared perceptions of the policies, practices, and procedures that implicitly and explicitly communicate the extent to which fostering and maintaining diversity and eliminating discrimination is a priority in the organization" (Gelfand et al. 2005, p. 104). Placing an emphasis on promoting age diversity becomes an important subset in the development of the overall organizational climate. The world of work changes and evolves at a constant rate. The workplace in previous decades exhibited a clear chain of command with older workers in senior-level

leadership positions. Current organizational structures are less hierarchical, and many promote leaderless team approaches where even the young and less experienced workers contribute valuable input and challenge the status quo (Stanley 2010).

An employee's age should not produce any barriers to achieving organizational opportunities or demonstrate signs of preferential treatment. Older employees, with breadth and depth of work experience, should not be overlooked for upward mobility and younger employees, who are eager to learn, should not be limited due to lack of work tenure (Gelfand et al. 2005). Having an age-diverse workforce may provide more upward mobility for everyone. Backes-Gellner and Veen (2013) noted that a homogeneous workforce leads to situations where workers may remain in job positions for many years and limit promotion opportunities for others. A heterogeneous workforce provides a more dynamic environment with continuous movement. Research study results demonstrated that while age diversity may not directly correlate to bottom-line profitability, an age-inclusive workplace may impact the work environment, which leads to positive performance outcomes (Kunze et al. 2013; Wegge et al. 2012). Innovative organizations reap the most benefit from age diversity and tend to show increases in productivity outcomes (Backes-Gellner and Veen 2013).

Managing this age-diverse workforce presents challenges related to retaining experienced and highly skilled older workers, maintaining the work motivation for middle-aged workers, and recruiting high-potential younger workers. It becomes vitally important to understand age-related differences in preferences related to factors such as pay, meaningful work, advancement and development opportunities, recognition, and autonomy. Bright's (2010) cross-sectional study discovered that age diversity influenced the above-mentioned work factors based upon three different perspectives rather than a single overall causative factor. The three factors were as follows: generational differences, access to opportunities or job level, and organizational socialization. Study results from Bright indicated that generational cohort preferences determined the differing needs for recognition. Actual access to opportunities or job level explained the differences regarding the importance of pay, meaningfulness of work, and autonomy. Organizational socialization was the most influencing factor for differences related to the importance of advancement (Bright 2010). Organizational leaders should, therefore,

continually foster the HR practices in recruiting, training, evaluating, and promoting that encourage diversity inclusion (Avery and McKay 2010).

Although building a diverse workforce creates many workplace advantages, it is also important to consider and properly manage the incurred challenges and additional costs related to productivity. Cross-generational communication and socialization challenges may inhibit successful problem-solving (Gevers and Peeters 2009). Continuing confrontational communication issues cause increased frustration and absenteeism and, ultimately, may result in a turnover (Richard and Shelor 2002). Differing values, attitudes, and perceptions between different age groups lead to challenges in effective team performance (Backes-Gellner and Veen 2013). Awareness of these potential issues allows managers to proactively take measures to diminish the chances of age diversity-related problems (Avery and McKay 2010).

## Practical Applications for an Age-Inclusive Workplace

A strategic approach appears to be an effective way to utilize the labor force and harness the desired benefits of fostering age diversity. An evaluation of current policies and practices may generate the implementation of newer, innovative strategies to meet organizational goals. Success factors that advance a more inclusive work environment include an audit of the current organizational culture and policies, job analysis, training initiatives, and finding commonalities.

### *Analysis of Organizational Culture and Practices*

Promoting organizational age diversity initiatives inspires favorable internal and external stakeholders' viewpoints of the firm and can be used as a benchmark by other organizations (Stankiewicz 2015). Implementing HR policies that foster equal opportunity and promote zero tolerance for discrimination suggests to employees that their employer is open-minded, fair, and responsible (Kunze et al. 2013). As a first step to assess the age diversity climate, company leaders and HR personnel may want to analyze the current age alignment within the organization. This establishes the present status and reveals any potential for discriminatory practices (Kunze et al. 2013). An evaluation of the existing values and norms

is also prudent in order to establish the current organizational culture (Crumpacker and Crumpacker 2007).

Incorporating the use of auditing and assessment tools helps to analyze the current organizational culture regarding age acceptance. Voelpel and Streb (2010) developed a balanced scorecard monitoring approach based upon creativity and productivity in relation to five components: (a) "enabling managerial mindset, (b) facilitating knowledge management, (c) implementing health management, (d) adapting HR practices, and (e) cultivating the appropriate work environment" (p. 86). The Age Audit Tool uses a red, yellow, green traffic light rating process to help leaders and HR personnel determine the current organizational climate and direct organizational leaders toward action steps, such as immediate action required, plan to take future action, or the current climate meets standards (Broughan 2013).

### *Communication Initiatives*

Improving organizational communication practices becomes a powerful tool to combat ageism in the workplace. Lagacé et al. (2016) presented new evidence that supports the argument that "non-ageist communication practices, including intergenerational contacts, multi-age perspective and non-patronizing/ageist messages …. reduces bias" (p. 72). Managers play a vital role in fostering an organizational climate that promotes fairness and understanding. De Guzman et al. (2014) recommended that organizational leaders provide more opportunities for employee interaction, such as meetings and group forums to cultivate an age-friendly workplace. All communication practices should foster two-way, transparent exchanges (Panaccio and Waxin 2010).

### *Recruitment Practices*

Implementing objective recruitment practices establishes an age-diverse candidate pool. Panaccio and Waxin (2010) recommended a thorough analysis of the organization's reputation and image in order to showcase an age-friendly workplace as part of the recruitment advertising process. When interviewing potential job candidates, the US Department of State (2005) suggested the use of patterned interview questions in the form of hypothetical situations and past behavior examples to uncover potential

age biases. HR personnel must fully evaluate the referral system currently in place to ensure that it does not further promote discriminatory practices (Panaccio and Waxin 2010). Conducting routine statistical analysis to evaluate recruiting and hiring practices ensures that decisions are based upon the established job dimensions (Mishra and Mishra 2015).

### *Job Dimension Analysis*

As diminished adaptability is a perceived stereotype of older workers, HR personnel may want to examine job design and structure to garner work components as a means to predict the actual dimensions needed for the job (DeArmond et al. 2006). "As suggested by lifespan aging theories, different job characteristics will differentially affect job outcomes of older and younger workers" (Zaniboni et al. 2014, p. 509). Offering flexible work schedules and working conditions, such as telecommuting, job sharing, and compressed work weeks, benefits all employees (Ciutiene and Railaite 2015).

### *Training and Mentoring*

Offering multigenerational training programs, for management and non-management personnel, is imperative in order to reinforce the legal ramifications of discriminatory practices (Panaccio and Waxin 2010). Training initiatives also diminish negative stereotypes, minimize destructive conflict, and encourage the synergy that results from group diversity (Van Vianen et al. 2011; Ciutiene and Railaite 2015; Wegge et al. 2012). Opportunities exist to create an organizational competitive advantage by utilizing the specific skill sets and knowledge of workers of all ages through mentoring initiatives (James et al. 2013). "The ability to learn and remember new skills can continue into a person's 70s, 80s, and beyond …. creativity of a person continues across the lifespan" (de Guzman et al. 2014, p. 397). Implementing traditional mentoring and reverse mentoring processes supports the important practice of knowledge transfer between workers and diminishes individual information silos (Achar 2016; Schrobsdorff 2015). Reverse mentoring offers a younger worker an opportunity to pair with an older employee to share technological expertise while gaining leadership skills (Lankau and Scandura 2002). General Electric is one example of an organization

that paired 500 older, senior leaders with younger, lower level employee to analyze technology usage. Members of each pair reported gaining insights from their partners, with senior leaders gaining valuable technology information while junior members established important networking contacts (Ciutiene and Railaite 2015). Learning from mentoring and reverse mentoring practices produces cognitive improvement, skill-based knowledge, and positive motivational outcomes (Schrobsdorff 2015).

### *Assessment of Commonalities*

Many of the work-related concerns expressed by each generation of workers may have cross-generational appeal. For example, interest in more flexible work schedule options and better work-life balance practices transcends workers of all ages (Bell and Narz 2007). In addition, managers want every employee to feel engaged with his or her work, and it becomes important to overcome age bias or workers tend to feel disengaged (James et al. 2013). Health and wellness concerns are vital at every age; however, one disturbing trend shows that "if current health-related behaviors do not improve, it is realistic to expect that Millennials will have substantially worse health as a result of obesity than did older cohorts at the same age" (Deal et al. 2010, p. 195). Finding shared commonalities while appreciating the significant differences between age groups promotes a respectful work environment that values every employee's contribution.

## Summary

Organizational leaders face numerous challenges in today's dynamic workplace that require experiential, technical, and analytical skills that are only achieved with an age-diverse workforce. A combination of life span development theories, perceptions of generational differences, and legal ramifications presents the challenges faced by HR personnel and organizational leaders in order to manage the span of age groups at work. Positive HR applications of age-inclusive initiatives have an impact on creating an effective work environment, changing negative age stereotypes, and dispelling earlier misconceptions and mistreatment.

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CHAPTER 3

# Race, Ethnicity, and Religion in the Workplace

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## Overview

Hiring and managing a racially, ethnically, and religiously diverse workforce are critical to achieving strategic business goals in an increasingly global business environment. It is also crucial to advancing equal access and opportunity for members of minority populations in the workplace through inclusionary practices. Globalization and distributed workforces around the world have changed the makeup of the workforce domestically and internationally. International demographic trends indicate that in many developed nations, an aging population coupled with a low birthrate forebodes workforce shortages that will be impossible to fill without hiring migrants and immigrants, thus further diversifying the workforce.

The concept of racial and ethnic diversity in the United States has expanded from an initial focus on racial, ethnic, and linguistic minority groups based on US Census categories, such as Black/African American, Asian, indigenous peoples (American Indian/Alaskan Native, Hawaiian

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Native/Pacific Islanders), and native Spanish speakers—to include peoples from the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) regions and practicing Muslims. Open borders and migration in the European Union has brought together people from a broad array of races, ethnicities, religious beliefs, and languages, resulting in diversified workplaces across the European continent.

Given an increasingly racially, ethnically, and religiously diverse workforce in the USA and internationally and the globalization of business and industry initiatives, governmental and organizational leaders and managers must be proactive, not just reactive, in creating and implementing strategies to recruit, manage, retain, and promote workers of diverse races, ethnicities, and religions. An equally important imperative is providing equal access and opportunity for racial, ethnic, religious, and linguistic groups heretofore underrepresented in the workforce. This chapter has a global focus, highlighting demographic changes, challenges, and successful policy and strategic initiatives to support a racially, ethnically, and religiously diverse workforce in the UK/Europe, Asia, North America, and elsewhere.

## Drivers of Diversity

### *Demographic Changes*

Organizations are becoming increasingly diverse due to changing demographics, legislation and legal actions, globalization, and increasing migration. According to trends reported by US Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS 2012) data, since 1990, the percentage of White workers has decreased steadily, while the percentage of Hispanics in the workforce has increased. BLS projections for 2020 indicate that White, non-Hispanic workers will comprise just over 60% of the workforce, down from more than three quarters in 1990 (Table 3.1).

The United Nations (2015) projects that between 2015 and 2050, the working-age population—those persons, aged 15 to 59—will grow by 20%. Most of the growth will be in developing nations. In developed nations, such as Germany, Italy, Japan, the proportion of the working-age population will decrease, leading to a deficit of younger workers to fill available jobs (Farnsworth Riche and Mor Barak 2017; SHRM Foundation Economic Intelligence Unit 2015).

**Table 3.1** U.S. workforce demographics from 1990 to 2020

| *Frequency* | *1990* | | *2000* | | *2010* | | *2020 (projected)* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *No.* | *%* | *No.* | *%* | *No.* | *%* | *No.* | *%* |
| White, non-Hispanic | 97,818 | 77.7 | 102,729 | 72.0 | 103,947 | 67.5 | 102,731 | 62.3 |
| Black, non-Hispanic | 13,740 | 10.9 | 16,397 | 11.5 | 17,862 | 11.6 | 19,676 | 12.0 |
| Hispanic origin | 10,720 | 8.5 | 16,689 | 11.7 | 22,748 | 14.8 | 30,493 | 18.6 |
| Asian and other, non-Hispanic | 4653 | 3.7 | 6270 | 4.4 | 7248 | 4.7 | 9430 | 5.7 |

*Source* US Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review, January 2012, http://www.bls.gov

At the same time, the older population is swelling in developed nations (OECD 2016). In OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) member countries, the elderly dependence rate, calculated as the ratio of the elderly to the working-age population, is increasing steadily (OECD 2016). The elderly dependency rate is an important indicator of the balance between the retired and economically active populations in a given country. The overall elderly dependency rate in 2014 was 24% across OECD countries, with large discrepancies among members. For example, Turkey's elderly dependency rate in 2014 was 11%, compared to Japan's rate of 42% (OECD 2016).

Several factors create a push-and-pull effect that contributes toward a more global workforce (Farnsworth Riche and Mor Barak 2017). The pull factors are low birthrates, increased longevity, and low ratios of retired persons to workers in developed countries; the push factors are high birthrates, decreasing mortality, and high unemployment in developed countries (Farnsworth Riche and Mor Barak 2017). These factors trigger the growing deficit of workers in developed countries that can only be addressed through migration or immigration and the desire of workers in developing nations to emigrate or migrate in search of work (Farnsworth Riche and Mor Barak 2017; SHRM Foundation Economic Intelligence Unit 2015).

### *Demographic Changes*

Immigrant and migrant workers contribute to racial and ethnic diversification of the workforce in their host country by raising the proportion of the

host country's foreign-born population. OECD (2016) data show that the proportion of the foreign-born population is particularly high in Australia, Canada, Israel, Luxembourg, Switzerland, and New Zealand; the share ranges from 20 to 44%. Several countries have a foreign-born population exceeding 13%, including Austria, Belgium, Ireland, Norway, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, and the USA (OECD 2016). The available data show that in the last decade, the rate increased for all OECD countries except Estonia and Israel, doubling in 13 years in Ireland, Norway, and Spain (OECD 2016). In 2011, births to parents of non-European ancestry comprised about 30% of total births in the United Kingdom (Coleman 2013).

According to the OECD (2016), total permanent immigration is increasing slowly overall among OECD countries. Denmark, Germany, and Korea had the highest increases; in contrast, Italy, Spain, and the USA had the largest decreases (OECD 2016). Displacements for work via free circulation in the European Economic area accounted for about 30% of migration to European countries in 2014 (OECD 2016). Free circulation accounted for more than three quarters of permanent international migration in Austria, Switzerland, and Germany in 2014 (OECD 2016). Family reunification accounted for more than one-third of all permanent migration to OECD countries in 2013 (minus 1% compared to 2012) and free movement for 30% (up 4% compared to 2012) (OECD 2016).

### *Need for Skilled Workers*

The need to acquire talent to fill positions is an important management challenge driving diversity efforts, particularly in Europe (Hunt et al. 2015a). Legal requirements, such as mandated diversity targets, also drive diversity efforts (Hunt et al. 2015a). Leaders of global and multinational companies can look beyond their national borders when recruiting, selecting, and hiring people to fill positions in an increasingly competitive and innovative global workforce (SHRM Foundation Economic Intelligence Unit 2015).

Developing countries are matching or even exceeding developed countries in their production of workers with skills and education (SHRM Foundation Economist Intelligence Unit 2016). Educational attainment has increased markedly in developing countries. By 2010, the number of people with postsecondary degrees was about equivalent in non-OECD and OECD countries (SHRM Foundation Economist Intelligence Unit 2016). Foreign workers often hold desired skills and

credentials in high-demand fields such as engineering and technology (SHRM Foundation Economist Intelligence Unit 2016).

Migration for temporary and permanent employment opportunities provides access to jobs that might not be available in their home country. Highly skilled workers in emerging economies provide a valuable talent source. These workers often enhance racial, ethnic, religious, and linguistic diversity in their new workplace, providing challenges and opportunities to foster inclusion. Managers must learn how to manage such diversity effectively.

### *Benefits of a Racially and Ethnically Diverse Workforce*

Hunt et al. (2015b) examined secondary data obtained for 366 public companies in the United States, Canada, Latin America, and the United Kingdom, focusing on metrics pertinent to assessing the effects of diversity. The results appeared in the McKinsey report, "Diversity Matters" (Hunt et al. 2015a). Compared to companies in the lower three quartiles, the financial returns for the most racially and ethnically diverse companies were 35% more likely to exceed the national industry median (Hunt et al. 2015a, b). The data revealed a positive relationship between racial and ethnic diversity among senior executives and financial performance in the USA (Hunt et al. 2015a, b). Reflecting racial diversity at the top remains a challenge; according to the data, 97% of American companies, 91% of Brazilian companies, and 78% of companies in the United Kingdom did not have senior leadership teams reflective of their country's workforce or population (Hunt et al. 2015a, b). A diverse workforce helps companies to do well financially and remain competitive (Tulshyan 2015).

A diverse workforce also has economic development benefits for geographic locations, with Toronto, Ontario, Canada a case in point. Toronto, the commercial center of Canada, is a highly diverse city, with more than 45% of its population foreign-born (SHRM Foundation Economist Intelligence Unit 2016; Spoonley 2014). Unlike the city of Miami, which has a higher percentage of foreign-born residents, no one ethnicity, culture, or national origin is dominant in Toronto. In Ontario, local government leaders responded to a skills shortage and an aging population by implementing policies to attract highly skilled immigrants. As a result of the diversity of their workforce, Toronto ranked 10th in 2013 on the EIU City Competitiveness Index (SHRM Foundation Economist Intelligence Unit 2016).

Empirical research indicates that higher diversity benefits local communities and regions by fostering increased productivity and innovation (Spoonley 2014). However, research has also revealed that higher ethnic, religious, and linguistic diversity can also create anxiety for government and business leaders as well as members of the workforce (Spoonley 2014). These challenges affect the implementation of efforts to foster racial, ethnic, and religious diversity and inclusion in the workplace.

## Challenges

Despite an upward trend in the last 25 years, US workforce data indicate a general underrepresentation of African Americans, Hispanics, and Asians in executive positions and in several occupations, including management, health and allied health professions, architecture, law, and communications (DeNisi and Griffin 2016). Immigrant and migrant workers, such as Turkish workers in Germany and Africans and North Africans in France and the United Kingdom, face challenges similar to non-white workers in Canada and American workers in the USA who are members of minority groups (Farnsworth Riche and Mor Barak 2017).

### *Discrimination Based on Race and Ethnicity*

According to the International Labor Office (ILO 2011), despite progress made, discrimination based on race and ethnicity persists, affecting indigenous peoples, members of ethnic minorities, and persons of Asian and African heritage; women within these categories face even more barriers due to the intersectionality of race/ethnicity and gender. Race-related employment discrimination complaints include access to employment, securing employment, and retaining employment. In France, the Haute Autorité de Lutte contre les Discriminations et pour l'Égalité (HALDE 2009) reported that race discrimination was the primary reason given for discrimination complaints. Types of claims included discriminatory recruitment advertising and refusals to recognize foreign credentials, among others (HALDE 2009). An emphasis on employee heterogeneity is unusual in France, where it is illegal to register employees as members of an ethnic group (ILO 2011).

Research has revealed that candidates with ethnic-sounding names may be discriminated against (ILO 2011). For example, research

involving correspondence testing, where the same application is sent out for review using randomly assigned names associated with various ethnicities, revealed race discrimination in the United Kingdom in favor or names that were more typically British (ILO 2011). A similar study conducted in Sweden revealed discrimination against applicants whose names evoked Arabic or African heritage (ILO 2011).

Migrants and immigrants typically contribute to the linguistic diversity of the host country. In the United Kingdom and Ireland, two different sets of laws apply to linguistic diversity (McDonagh 2011). One set of laws applies to ethnic languages indigenous to the region and another applies to languages spoken by immigrants (McDonagh 2011). A wide range and a high number of minority languages are indigenous to regions within the United Kingdom and Ireland, such as the Celtic languages of Welsh, Scots-Gaelic, and Irish. These indigenous languages are protected by language-specific legislation (McDonagh 2011).

**Example: ROMAS in Europe**

The Roma comprise an ethnic minority found in many countries throughout Europe. Roma people in Europe tend to have low educational attainment, resulting in low literacy and numeric skills; they also have low rates of labor market participation (ILO 2011). While systematic discrimination based on ethnicity may be contributory to labor market barriers, the skills deficit among Roma is likely the larger barrier (ILO 2011). Throughout Europe, several approaches have been implemented to advance the inclusion of Roma people into the labor market. An array of labor market measures has been adopted in an effort to improve the inclusion of Roma people. According to the Council of Europe (2009), these efforts have included incentives for skills development, internships, and economic activity in Ireland and Bulgaria; microcredit and vocational training in Spain; and training or subsidized employment in Hungary, Serbia, and Poland. Finland created a National Policy on Roma (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health 2009) to mainstream inclusion and equal treatment of the Roma in education, the workplace, and Finnish society.

In contrast, the second set of laws focusing on immigrant languages does not contain language-specific legislation. Instead, the laws support provision of interpreting services and ban discrimination based on language. Thus, the two approaches to linguistic diversity are not equitable and do not provide equal rights both groups—speakers of indigenous languages and speakers of immigrant languages—in terms of linguistic diversity (McDonagh 2011).

### *Indigenous Peoples*

Estimates from ILO (2011) show that the world population of indigenous persons is approximately 370 million, accounting for more than 5000 distinct groups across more than 70 different nations. The current population of indigenous people in the USA is 5.2 million, which is projected to reach 8.6 million by the middle of the twenty-first century (DeNisi and Griffin 2016). Native Americans and Alaskan natives are a heterogeneous group, the largest of which are the Cherokees, with a population above 80,000 (DeNisi and Griffin 2016). Although highly entrepreneurial, Native Americans are vastly underutilized in the workplace (DeNisi and Griffin 2016). The historical treatment of Native Americans and the role of religion in their lives present unique challenges to diversity initiatives, as employers must be cognizant of the importance of tribal rites. At Oglala Lakota College, employees are entitled to five days of paid leave to celebrate their Sun Dance ceremony (DeNisi and Griffin 2016).

Even when accounting for geography and educational differences, wage inequality between indigenous and non-indigenous peoples in Latin America persists (ILO 2011). A review of Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) data revealed similar unemployment rates but important disparities in the types of jobs held (ILO 2007). Indigenous workers and persons of African descent were underrepresented in wage and salaried positions and more likely than other workers to hold informal positions without benefits or stable remuneration (ILO 2007).

### *The Case of Migrant Workers*

ILO (2011) reported that migrant workers comprise 8–20% of the workforce, more in some regions. Migrant workers face barriers to accessing

employment opportunities and may face discrimination in the workplace. World political and economic events in the past 15 years have exacerbated economic conditions that may adversely affect migrant workers, who are often exposed to xenophobia and discrimination (ILO 2011). The ILO called for rapid and comprehensive action in response to ensure equal access, opportunity, and treatment for minority and foreign-born workers. Initiatives suggested include bolstering current measures against discrimination, addressing political rhetoric that enflames xenophobia and stigmatization, creating policies to support an economic recovery that includes good jobs, and leadership of worker and employer organizations

### *Religious Diversity*

Cases referred to equality commissions reflect that employment discrimination based on religion has been growing in many places across the globe, including in the USA, France, the United Kingdom, and elsewhere in Europe (ILO 2011). Muslims, in particular, face employment disadvantages in the European Union and North America (King and Ahmad 2010; ILO 2011; Sheridan 2006). In some countries, religious discrimination is exacerbated by anxieties pertaining to labor migration.

Specific legislation exists to protect religious beliefs in the workplace. For example, in the USA, Canada, Peru, and New Zealand, employers are legally required to accommodate the religious beliefs and practices of their employees (ILO 2011). In some countries, anti-discrimination laws protect manifesting religious beliefs, such as in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, and Italy. In Britain, ethnic and religious diversity has led to tension between assimilation and litigation, spurring laws to prevent discrimination, and respect for differences and valuing pluralism (Shah 2011).

Prospective and current employees should have the right not to disclose their religious beliefs to their employer (ILO 2011). When workers choose to disclose their religion, their rights must be respected. For example, the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (2008) published a “best practices” guide for employees and employers alike with regard to religion. In the United Kingdom, the Equality and Human Rights Commission also published guides pertaining to implementation of the 2010 Equality Act, addressing dress codes and equal time accommodations, if offered (ILO 2011).

IMS Entreprendre pour la Cité (2009), a French employers' organization, published a guide for how to manage religious diversity in the workplace. The guide includes an overview of pertinent French laws on workplace religious discrimination in the workplace. It also includes information on dietary rules, religious holidays, and religious dress.

**Example: Differing Perspectives on Wearing Religious Attire in the Workplace**

North America and Europe differ markedly on perspectives about wearing prominent religious attire in public places, as characterized by debates about the practice in Canada, France, and Turkey (Mor Barak 2017). Some countries, such as the USA and Canada, have policies protecting the right to don religious symbols and attire—skullcaps, headscarves, veils, etc., whereas in some European countries, prominent religious attire is banned. For example, Turkey banned wearing of the hijab, a headscarf—the hijab—in the twentieth century. The ban applied to schools, worksites, and other public places. The policy has been relaxed to allow women to wear the hijab in public universities and most state establishments, with notable exceptions being the military and justice and police organizations (Mor Barak 2017). In Turkey, secularism drives the ban on prominent religious attire, whereas in France, the ban is justified as freedom from religion in a secular society (Mor Barak 2017). In the USA and Canada, freedom of religion serves as the principle driver in support of wearing the attire and symbols seen as problematic in other countries (Mor Barak 2017).

## International Perspectives

### *France*

Migration and immigration from former colonies in North African and sub-Saharan Africa has created racial and ethnic diversity in France, where immigrants comprise more than 22% of the population (Bacouël-Jentjen and Castro Christiansen 2015; Bender et al. 2012). When several former French colonies in Africa gained their independence in the mid-1960s, black immigration to France increased (Bender et al. 2012;

Ndiaye 2008). Unlike in the USA, to be Black in France means to be seen as a foreigner (Ndiaye 2008).

Members of ethnic minority groups in France experience workplace discrimination (Bender et al. 2012). Some immigrant groups experience the effects of the intersectionality between race/ethnicity and religion. For example, in France, immigrants from the Maghreb (North Africa) differ from the predominant French population both ethnically and religiously (Merriweather Woodson and Ollier-Malaterre 2015). All French workers are precluded from public display of religious symbols and garb, which means Muslim women are banned from covering their heads or wearing a veil.

Differences in French and American political and historical contexts influence diversity management in these two countries, despite their common goal of increasing workplace diversity and reducing discrimination groups (Bacouël-Jentjen and Castro Christiansen 2015; Merriweather Woodson and Ollier-Malaterre 2015). In France, a universal, assimilationist model of citizenship excludes recognizing differences or the existence of minority groups (Bacouël-Jentjen and Castro Christiansen 2015; Merriweather Woodson and Ollier-Malaterre 2015), unlike in the United States, where these differences are acknowledged. France is guided by the fundamental principal of laicity (laïcité), which means that ethnic origin and religion are private concerns, not public information (Merriweather Woodson and Ollier-Malaterre 2015). For example, in France, employers cannot ask employees to report their ethnicity or religion (Merriweather Woodson and Ollier-Malaterre 2015).

The French approach to diversity management is based on protecting rights, driven by the goal of reducing discrimination and the advantages members of the in-group hold (Bacouël-Jentjen and Castro Christiansen 2015; HALDE 2009). In France, diversity efforts focus on avoiding discrimination (Défenseur de droits, n.d.; HALDE 2009). The Haute Autorité de Lutte Contre les Discriminations et pour l'Egalité (HALDE), like the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), investigates discrimination complaints (Défenseur des Droits, République Français, n.d.)

### *Legislative Approaches—Brazil, South Africa, and the USA*

Brazil and South Africa share with the USA historical roots of discrimination—slavery in Brazil and apartheid in South Africa. Their approaches to addressing discrimination in the workplace have similarities in terms of legislative efforts, along with important differences (Booysen et al.

2015). In Brazil, prohibition against discrimination is codified in the Federal Constitution of 1988 and includes punishments for discrimination by race, religion, color, and national origin (Booysen et al. 2015). Brazilian Federal Law 7716, codified in 1989, makes it a criminal offense to discriminate in the public sector in selection or promotion based on race, color, religion, ethnicity, or nationality, or to discriminate regarding benefits or provision of work-related equipment (Booysen et al. 2015). The Statute of Racial Equality of 2010 specifically provides equal opportunity and support to Brazilians of African origin, along with affirmative action in education and employment, and public policy intended to address social inequalities and decisions with historical roots (Booysen et al. 2015). The Statute involves use of some race-based quotas.

Several legislative efforts followed the dissolution of apartheid in South Africa. These efforts included the South African Constitutions of 1994 and 1996; the Labour Relations Act of 1995, amended in 2014; and the Employment Equity Act of 1998, which called for equal representation and fair treatment for African Black, Colored, and Indian South Africans, as well as women and people with disabilities (Booysen et al. 2015). The Black Economic Empowerment Act of 2003 aimed at increasing business ownership among Black South Africans and speeding up to increase Black ownership of businesses and hastening their representation in management positions.

The South African Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Codes of Good Practice were created in 2007. The purpose of these best practices was to standardize measurement of Black Economic Empowerment across all work sectors (Booysen et al. 2015). The B-BBEE was amended in 2013, along with the Black Employment Equity Amendment Act of 2014, which was brought into alignment with ILO standards (Booysen et al. 2015).

One important difference between Brazil, South Africa, and the USA is the use of quotas for race and ethnicity, which are unconstitutional in the USA, common in South Africa, and allowed to an extent in Brazil (Booysen et al. 2015). The use of quotas is also common in many European and Asian countries (Turner and Suflas 2014). Title VII of the US Civil Rights Act (1964) does not permit the use of quotas for race, gender, or other factors.

The 2010 Census does not reflect the ethnic diversity of the US population of persons whose heritage is from the Middle East or North Africa, as they may have self-identified as White, Black, or other given the limited

choices presented to them (Chow 2016). The US Census Bureau may revise the form to be used for the 2020 Census to include a new category for people of Middle Eastern or North African (MENA) descent (Chow 2016). If used, the MENA category will include the option to check subcategories corresponding to specific identities within MENA (Chow 2016).

In the USA, federal legislation protects equal opportunity in the workplace. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (1964) first authorized protections based on race, color, religion, gender, and national origin. Consistent with states' rights, each state has separate diversity rules and regulations that are either consistent with or exceed federal requirements (Turner and Suflas 2014). In the USA, an important distinction pertains to identical vs. equitable treatment (DeNisi and Griffin 2016). Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (1964) pertains to equitable rather than identical treatment.

One example is religious holidays. Some countries, including the USA and France, offer paid work holidays for major Christian religious celebrations, such as Christmas, but not for major holidays of minority religions. Equitable treatment means that leaders should be sensitive to the needs of employees who celebrate different religious holidays (DeNisi and Griffin 2016). The workforce of Whirlpool in Nashville, Tennessee, is about 10% Muslim, accounting for about 200 employees. Whirlpool accommodated the religious needs of these employees by providing a place to pray and adjusting dress codes, cafeteria offerings, and work schedules (DeNisi and Griffin 2016).

### *India*

India is a highly diverse country in terms of ethnicity, religion, and language (Vaidya et al. 2013). More than 120 million Muslims reside in India, along with about 450 different ethno-linguistic groups. Employers must consider the implications of such a heterogeneous workforce for recruitment, retention, and training (Vaidya et al. 2013).

A review of current diversity management practices in Indian organizations revealed a majority of employees were diversity realists who felt able to manage working in a diverse environment (Vaidya et al. 2013). A small number of employees were diversity optimists, who meet diversity with enthusiasm and understanding. Employees identified top barriers to accepting workplace diversity as discrimination, prejudice, and ethnocentrism (Vaidya et al. 2013).

Leaders in Indian organizations adopted several strategies to increase inclusiveness in the workplace. These strategies included sensitivity training for employees about cross-cultural, ethnic, and religious differences; encouraging overseas assignments to build exposure to differences; and options to learn a foreign language (Vaidya 2013). Some Indian companies accommodate employees' religious needs (Layak 2015). For example, companies may waive or revise the dress code during religious periods to accommodate customary garments. They may provide prayer rooms to accommodate the needs of different faiths, or offer food accommodations, such as halal meat (Layak 2015).

## Strategies

Equal employment opportunity and diversity management are two different approaches to addressing racial and ethnic diversity issues. Equal employment opportunity pertains to equitable and fair treatment and avoiding discriminatory actions, whereas diversity management focuses on recognizing and appreciating the differences that exist in the company's workforce (DeNisi and Griffin 2016). Government programs and policies are not sufficient to remedy workplace discrimination and promote inclusion. Fostering diversity and inclusion must also occur in the workplace itself. Developing, implementing, and evaluating effective workplace strategies and policies can reduce discrimination, enhance inclusion, and sustain diversity in the workplace.

The ILO (2014) developed a guide for a participatory process to promote racial ethnic diversity in the workplace, based on practical experience and international research, that is applicable to a broad array of companies and diverse groups of employees. For example, the plan can work for companies with refugee and migrant workers, workers from indigenous and tribal groups, or other workers reflecting any type of racial or ethnic diversity. The steps ILO outlined in the guide include undergoing an ethnic diversity audit, creating, and then implementing a policy for an ethnically diverse workplace, and overseeing and evaluating the effectiveness of the policy.

Organizational strategies for managing racial and ethnic diversity must go beyond drafting and implementing policies to incorporate practices that create and sustain an organizational culture to support diversity (DeNisi and Griffin 2016). For example, organizational practices can take the form of offering workers flexible work hours to accommodate religious holidays and cultural events. Leaders can model racial and

ethnic diversity through appointments and membership in key committees and through hiring and promotions that reflect diversity in executive positions (DeNisi and Griffin 2016).

The ILO (2014) stressed the roles of workers and employers' organizations in supporting racial and ethnic diversity and inclusion efforts. Workers' organizations, such as unions and syndicates, can lobby for strong policies to ensure equal opportunity and access for selection, hiring, training, and promotion. Workers' organizations can also incorporate diversity efforts into collective bargaining (ILO 2014). Employers' organizations can identify and disseminate best practices to their members. They can assist their members in diversity policy development and implementation, provide training, and build capacity (ILO 2014).

In Europe, several countries, including Belgium, France, Germany, and Spain, have instituted diversity charters to encourage companies to create and support a diverse and inclusive workforce (European Institute for Managing Diversity, n.d.). Signing a diversity charter is a voluntary act; leaders who sign the charter make a commitment to foster and abide by basic principles of equality within the workplace (European Institute for Managing Diversity, n.d.). They also commit to valuing the rights of all workers to inclusion. Companies with a diversity charter support diversity and inclusion through developing and executing targeted policies to prevent discrimination against members of minority groups and promote their inclusion (European Institute for Managing Diversity, n. d.).

Forbes/Insights (2011) surveyed a geographically diverse sample of more than 300 executives, responsible for their global organizations' diversity and inclusion programs, about their companies' diversity initiatives. Key findings from the survey and follow-up individual interviews indicated diversity and inclusion strategies were used in almost all the organizations, although the strategies differed (Forbes/Insights 2011). For example, while 50% of the respondents indicated that their companies' global diversity plan supported varying strategies and programs to meet local needs or differences, about 33% indicated the global strategies in their organization supported minimal deviation on a regional level (Forbes/Insights 2011). Gender diversity was the most common focus of programs, followed by ethnicity, age, and race. Similarly, respondents indicated that their companies had been most effective in implementing programs targeted toward gender, ethnicity, and race (Forbes/Insight 2011).

Aperian Global (2016) identified five lessons about diversity learned from top global companies recognized as leaders in diversity

and inclusion: BASF, Ford Motor Company, Sodexo, AIG, L'Oréal, Deutsche Bank, Bayer, and Johnson & Johnson. The first lesson is that organizational leaders must acknowledge changes in global conceptions of diversity and inclusion, including religious diversity and the need to adapt global policies to meet local needs (Aperian Global 2016). Lesson 2 is the need to construct an environment that is inclusive. The third lesson is that leaders should employ an array of practices and measurement approaches (Aperian Global 2016).

Lesson 4 is the need for leaders to model diversity and inclusion. Lesson 4 involves seeking diversity in hiring, which necessitates preparing hiring managers to implement an inclusive selection and hiring process (Aperian Global 2016). Lesson 4 also warrants creating inclusion by addressing unconscious bias, and empowering accountability. The final lesson is acknowledging the relationship between diversity and inclusion and innovation (Aperian Global 2016).

## Summary

Hiring and managing a racially, ethnically, and religiously diverse workforce are critical to achieving strategic business goals in a global business environment and to advancing human rights of members of minority populations in the workplace through inclusionary practices. The chapter reflected a global focus, highlighting demographic changes, challenges, and successful policy and strategic initiatives to support a racially, ethnically, and religiously diverse workforce in the UK/Europe, Asia, the Americas, and elsewhere. Given an increasingly racially, ethnically, and religiously diverse workforce in the USA and internationally and the globalization of business and industry initiatives, governmental and organizational leaders and managers must be proactive, not just reactive, in creating and implementing strategies to recruit, manage, retain, and promote workers of diverse races, ethnicities, and religions. Organizational leaders can apply lessons learned from top global companies with successful diversity and inclusion practices in their own companies.

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CHAPTER 4

# Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity in the Workplace

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## Overview

To be more inclusive and affirming of the diverse identities within the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) community, it is imperative for the workplace to evolve and align with contemporary schools of thought around language that more accurately captures those who identify as part of the community. In fact, the National Institutes of Health (NIH) have taken significant strides in setting some general parameters for those nuances. In their efforts to remain inclusive and consistent, NIH suggests considering "sexual and gender minority" (SGM) as an umbrella phrase that encompasses lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender populations as well as those whose sexual orientation, gender identity and expressions, or reproductive development varies from traditional, societal, cultural, or physiological norms (2016, p. 1).

Despite the rapid social advancements for the SGM community, many barriers still exist. Stigma and homobigotry are pervasive issues affecting sexual minorities in the workplace. Most social progress is met with

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opposition, barriers, and setbacks before it is widely accepted; however, even then, those who continue to oppose the progress forward attempt to create barriers making it difficult for change to occur. People who identify as a sexual and/or gender minority must find ways of dealing with the stigma attached to their identity. Unfortunately, some organizations and businesses represent the opposition, so for the SGM employees working for them it can be uncomfortable and psychologically challenging. "Many marginalized groups are fearful about honestly and openly speaking about race, gender, and sexual orientation because they fear retaliation or negative consequences" (Sue 2008, p. 167).

Many SGM employees frequently work in difficult and sometimes hostile environments where others merely tolerate rather than accept their sexual orientation and/or gender identity. These barriers create disparities and leave SGM individuals vulnerable, especially in those US states, where sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression non-discrimination laws do not exist. A study prepared by the Williams Institute reported that LGBT individuals living in the southern region of the USA face increased disparities compared to LGBT people in other regions of the country, as a result of a more difficult and challenging social climate (Hasenbush et al. 2014). The global implications are even more troubling for LGBT individuals, as they could face criminal charges in some parts of the world, up to and including the death penalty for identifying as a sexual or gender minority.

The inability to live authentically in all aspects of one's life leads to shame, internalized homophobia, internalized transphobia, and other significant mental health concerns. Given the amount of time spent working over a lifetime, the effects of stigma, discrimination, and LGBT microaggressions in the workplace create toxic and unsafe environments. These experiences fuel internalized homophobia, biphobia, and transphobia, and negatively impact job performance. It is imperative employers understand the concept of intersectionality among sexual minorities and its implications in the workplace. Corporations with progressive social justice policies for LGBT employees create safe and accepting workplaces.

## Role of Intersectionality

Intersectionality has become a diversity buzzword over the past several years. It also provides context to power and privilege within organizations and creates even more complexity to the experiences of those who

are most impacted by systemic and organizational oppression. Marsiglia and Kulis (2015) define intersectionality as

> the multidimensionality and complexity of the human cultural experience and describes the place where multiple identities come together or intersect. Individuals hold positions within multiple systems of inequality based on race, ethnicity, gender, social class, sexual orientation, age, and disability status; particular set of identities carry important social implications. (p. 52)

For example, a woman who identifies a both Muslim and lesbian faces a unique set of challenges due to her multiple minority statuses. Because she has three minority identities, she is subject to all the prejudices toward each. Intersectionality exists simultaneously for most individuals. At any given time, this woman could experience discrimination based on her gender, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. She quite possibly will also experience internalized shame regarding her identities, which is often rooted in the beliefs and values central to her cultural identity. From the lens of intersectionality, inequities are rarely the result of single, distinct factors. In fact, they are usually the product of intersections of different social locations, connected systems and structures of power, and experiences (Hankivsky 2014).

### *Microaggressions*

Microaggressions are considered "brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, or environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, communicates hostile, derogatory, or negative slights and insults, particularly toward those of historically oppressed groups (Sue et al. 2008, p. 271). Sue identified three types of microaggressions: microinvalidations, microinsults, and microassaults. More often than not, microaggressions are rooted in implicit biases and are not used consciously; however, microassaults are blatant and targeted insults (overt racism). Microinvalidations are typically seen as the subtlest of the three and a common example is viewing race from a colorblind perspective where the individual may say, "I don't see color." This perspective on race further oppresses and ignores the racism people of color have had to regularly endure. Microinsults etch away at one's culture or heritage and a typical response to a person of color may be "How did you get this job?" The

implications of that statement could lead one to feel they only got a job to fill a quota.

Microaggressions are frequently committed by those closest to us or in positions of power, which creates a challenging dynamic when a supervisor or manager microaggresses against an employee. It places an unfair burden on the minority employee because challenging their supervisor could result in remediation or coaching. The internal psychological struggle and dialogue lead to increased self-doubt and general disbelief that a microaggression was used. A common question is, "Should I say something and risk them invalidating my experience and making me feel as though I did not hear them correctly?" The person who microaggresses will often become defensive and usually says, "That's not what I meant," which is further invalidating. The impact is more damaging than the intent in each of the aforementioned scenarios.

According to Sue et al., "Gender, sexual orientation, and disability microaggressions may have equally powerful and potentially detrimental effects on women, gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender individuals, and disability groups" (2007, p. 284). The assumption that someone is heterosexual is a common microaggression toward SGM individuals. For example, a coworker asks her colleague about his wife because he was wearing a wedding band. Nadal (2013) highlighted eight categories of microaggressions against LGBT people: use of heterosexist or transphobic terminology, which is similar to overt racism (e.g., she-male, dyke, fag); endorsement of heteronormative or gender normative culture (e.g., making a transgender person dress according to sex-assigned at birth, a heterosexual person telling a lesbian not to act so butch in public); assumption of universal LGBT experiences (assumption all gay men are hair stylists); exoticization, which involves treating LGBT people as less than or objectifying them (e.g., "I have a gay friend"); discomfort with or disapproval of LGBT experience (e.g., being told they are going to hell); denial of the reality of heterosexism or transphobia, which invalidates the reality of SGM individuals (e.g., telling a transgender female she is being paranoid about the risk of her being murdered); assumption of sexual pathology, which means LGBT people are viewed as deviant or sick (e.g., assumption that all gay men have HIV/AIDS); and denial of individual heterosexism, which commonly occurs (e.g., someone says "I am not transphobic, I have a transgender friend").

### *Power and Privilege*

Privilege is a challenging concept to fully understand and significantly impacts diverse and marginalized communities of color, sexual and gender minorities, individuals living with disabilities, and impoverished communities. "Privilege exists when one group has something of value that is denied to others simply because of the groups they belong to, rather than because of anything they've done or failed to do" (McIntosh 1988). Privilege is ascribed to the dominant group and is often referred to as White privilege. Until one recognizes or is made aware of his or her privilege, it often goes unnoticed and can have a harmful effect on those who identify as part of a marginalized group. Power and privilege are intertwined because the power one has to affect change is often a result of privilege. This power is tied to oppression and communicates to minority employees, often in very subtle ways, that unspoken rules or lack of upward mobility exists. A flawed system keeps the privileged at the top.

For SGM individuals, there are often clear penalties for being out in the workplace. Those organizations with more conservative policies or corporate climates create difficulties for SGM employees. For example, if the CEO has moral or religious beliefs that interfere with him or her accepting or working with sexual and gender minorities, messages can directly or indirectly communicate to employees that it is not safe to be openly gay at work. Those with privilege, typically heterosexual and Caucasian individuals, do not have to worry about coming out at work; in fact, they can talk openly about their vacations, relationships, and do not have to censor themselves in most situations. However, in companies where tolerance of SGM employees is limited, it is likely SGM employees are forced to hide their identities and change the pronouns of their partners to avoid backlash from their employers. The act of changing pronouns can go on for years and years, which has detrimental psychological implications and reinforces the stigma already associated with being a sexual and gender minority. The ability to walk down a street while holding hands with one's partner or spouse affords safety to those living with privilege; unfortunately, it is not always safe for gay or lesbian couples to do the same. The general ability to be authentic is a something those with privilege often take for granted; however, sexual and gender minorities are subjected to stigma and shame. This shame and invalidation create more stress that impacts functioning of SGM individuals.

### *Heterocentrism*

Heterocentrism, heterosexism, and homonegativity are all similar concepts in contemporary research that simply describe subtler forms of discrimination toward SGM individuals. Walls, as cited in Nadal (2013), "claimed that modern heterosexism involves all aspects in society in which same-sex oriented people are marginalized while heterosexual people are celebrated" (p. 29).

## Stigma and Minority Stress

Stigma is one of the defining differences between sexual and gender minorities and heterosexual individuals. Those who have intersecting identities experience even greater marginalization and added stress specific to their minority status in addition to the general stress all people experience. According to Meyer (2003), minority identity is linked to a variety of stress processes, and he posits that SGM people may be more cautious in interactions with others (expectations of rejection), remain closeted or keep their identities private out of fear of being harmed (concealment), or internalize invalidation and shame (internalized homophobia).

Workplace discrimination continues to be a source of stress for SGM employees. "Waldo (1999) demonstrated a relationship between employers' organizational climate and the experience of heterosexism in the workplace, which was subsequently related to adverse psychological, health, and job-related outcomes in LGB employees" (Meyer 2003, p. 680). The SGM community is one of the most discriminated against populations in the world today. According to the UCLA Williams Institute, 52% of the LGBT adult population in the USA (estimated to be about 9.5 million as of February 2016) is not protected, by any state law, from discrimination related to their sexual or gender minority status (Mallory and Sears 2016). The lack of protection exacerbates internalized stress related to sexual and gender identity concerns in the workplace.

The stigma associated with remaining closeted in the workplace, for some, is a constant reminder of the limits to their freedom. Those who fear retaliation in the workplace have to keep significant parts of their identity closed off from colleagues and employers. In fact, SGM employees often are not able to keep personal items or photographs of their significant other on their desk or in their workspace out of fear. Fidas and

colleagues at the Human Rights Campaign (HRC) suggest the ability to be authentic with one's sexual or gender identity in the workplace is striking because employees frequently share important aspects of themselves to others over the course of a typical workday, and they reported over half (53%) of all LGBT employees nationwide hide their identities in the workplace (2014). Consequently, "to not [hide one's self] can isolate a person and erode valuable rapport with co-workers, managers and would-be mentors" (Fidas et al. 2014, p. 8). The findings of this HRC study are fairly consistent with what youth report in the educational settings in regard to discrimination and intolerance of sexual and gender minorities. The 2014 study by the HRC also found that 43% of SGM hear jokes about bisexual people, 62% of SGM employees reported hearing jokes about lesbian or gay people, and 40% reported hearing jokes about transgender people.

## Global Implications

Sexual and gender minorities are subjected discrimination, harassment, and murder around the world. These incidences of violence perpetuate stigma, fear, and invalidation of SGM individuals. According to Carroll (2016), "Studies around the world have shown that when compared with non-LGBT people, LGBT people earn less, have fewer job opportunities, live in poverty, experience poorer health outcomes, face obstacles to education, and experience violence and family rejection" (p. 25). Globally, sexual and gender minorities are typically the primary targets when traditional values are solicited; in fact, SGM people are often described as being deviant, deplorable, sick, or abnormal.

Same-sex marriage is not recognized globally, so in areas of the world where it has not been legalized, SGM individuals are likely to experience increased levels of depression, anxiety, and isolation—especially when they have a desire to get married. The International Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans and Intersex Association conducts surveys on world, state-sponsored homophobia. The results of the 2016 survey show 73 countries/states around the world criminalize SGM people, and they identified 13 United Nations States where the death penalty can be enacted for same-sex acts or violations against morality clauses (Carroll 2016). Criminalization further communicates SGM people are not deserving of the same rights of the privileged, heterosexual community.

## Case Examples

**Case 1**
Michael is a 40-year-old, Latino male. He has been with his partner for just over 18 years. He has worked for his company for just over 15 years and has never come out to his coworkers or manager. He has listened to coworkers and management make jokes about LGBT individuals on occasion; in fact, out of fear he has laughed at the jokes as a means of staying closeted. Michael lives in a state where there are no protections from discriminatory practices and the city and county do not have human rights ordinances to protect him either. He recently developed a close relationship with one of his colleagues and felt he could trust her with his secret, and one evening he invited her over to his home where he introduced her to his husband. She seemed to enjoy their company and began to spend more time with them in the months that followed. One afternoon at work, her boss asked her to come into his office. He said he had seen her out with Michael and his partner and was curious to know if the two of them were dating. She was apprehensive but felt pressured to tell him the truth. Michael had never received a negative evaluation and was respected by his coworkers and other management. He had just applied for an upper-level management position and had the support of his colleagues; however, he was overlooked for the position. A lesser-qualified internal candidate who identified as a heterosexual, Caucasian male was given the position. As a result, Michael left the company.

**Solution**: *Embrace inclusivity practices within the organization to allow SGM employees an opportunity to serve in upper-level positions with the respect of the organization. Inclusive workplaces have been shown to increase job satisfaction and productivity.*

**Case 2**
Julie is a 21-year-old, transgender female. When she was hired to work at the bank, she has not yet started her transition process; thus, she still presented as male. About a year into her employment with the bank, she had reached a decision to begin transitioning from male to female. While the company proclaimed to have very solid diversity and inclusion practices, the employees and

management were not as supportive of her decision to move forward. She has been harassed by coworkers and did not feel supported. Due to her limited resources and lack of support from family, she decided to quit her job because she did not have the means to pursue legal action. Unfortunately, the company missed the mark and an opportunity to provide a safe, inclusive experience for one of its employees.

**Solution**: *Companies would benefit from a transgender advocate or transition coordinator to facilitate the process and provide supports to employees thinking about moving forward with gender affirming transition.*

## Summary

Although the world is evolving and becoming a more tolerant and accepting place for sexual and gender minorities, prejudice and discrimination continue to permeate the workplace. Logically, one could conclude these challenges related to SGM inclusion simply be addressed by enforcing stricter policies and have procedures or protocols in place. Fidas et al. (2014) found that only 67% of SGM employees felt "very welcomed" by their Employee Resource Group (ERG) and 31% felt "somewhat welcomed" by their ERG (p. 18). The same study found that up to 30% of SGM employee engagement suffered due to unwelcoming environments, which ultimately negatively impacted productivity. Thus, having a supportive and inclusive environment yields better rapport with SGM employees and improves the likelihood of more productive work environments—it certainly helps with overall mental health of SGM employees to know their workplace accepts them.

We have a considerable amount of work ahead of us to break through pervasive systems of oppression. Because change is difficult for some, it will take time; however, those at the helm of an organization have an obligation to its employees. It is imperative necessary steps be taken to create safe and welcoming environments for SGM employees. The data illustrate the impact of homobigotry on companies' bottom lines. The impact of minority stress and lack of acceptance directly affects the health of SGM people; thus, the cost of insurance goes up and sick-day leaves increase. The Williams Institute (2013) suggests "voluntarily enacted

sexual orientation and gender identity nondiscrimination policies, domestic partner benefits, transition-related health care benefits, and other related policies are said to be sound business decisions, in addition to be the fair or right thing to do" (p. 4). Other findings regarding organizational outcomes were indicative of lowered legal costs often related to litigation as a result of discriminatory practices, greater access to new clientele, and increased business from those who want to engage in business with socially accepting and responsible companies (Badgett et al. 2013).

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CHAPTER 5

# Diversity and Workplace Spirituality

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## Overview

The relatively recent emergence of Spirituality in the Workplace as a discipline within Management Theory suggests an alternative approach to understanding and dealing with diversity in Corporate America. On the one hand, research has demonstrated that business corporations have served as effective engines of positive social change. On the other hand, many of the social ideals emerging from religious and spiritual movements have historically managed to unmask institutional abuses and reclaim the value, wholeness, and dignity of the human person at work. It is then possible to explain reactions to diversity, not as just a "problem" requiring an immediate solution to acquiesce legal concerns or as just an urgent training necessity, but as a relational indicator articulated by the voices within the organization capable of identifying equality biases and suggesting a more harmonious view of corporate performance. In this sense, these voices can be recognized as a phenomenon of what some scholars call "organization conscience." It is at the "organizational conscience" where diversity and spirituality in the workplace intersect.

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The topic of this chapter is fundamentally dialogic in nature and function, meaning that its cause and effects are best understood within the realm of interpersonal dynamics, both internal and external to the organization. Thus, two contextual principles are necessary to properly frame and study the relationship between diversity and Spirituality in the Workplace. The first contextual principle is recognizing the value of institutions in general—and business organizations in particular—to the positive development of society. Businesses are not entities that operate in isolation from the realities that afflict societies. In fact, the impact of business and society is becoming more evident as a business model by means of the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) mindset, and therefore, businesses are becoming more aware of the implications of social issues that affect their employees, stakeholders, and social communities. This closer relationship between business and society has also made businesses more sensitive to a variety of relational performance indicators, that although some of these "soft" indicators may not necessarily be directly linked to more traditional operational performance indicators, they still have an impact on the success or failure of a business enterprise. Because these two contextual principles are decisive in characterizing the type of organizational culture that can make evident this study of the relationship between diversity and spirituality in the workplace, discussing them in more depth is an essential first task to the topic at hand.

## Businesses as Engines of Social Change

Foundational to the rationale of spiritual values at work as an alternative approach to diversity is establishing the fact that business organizations are influenced by and are contributors to positive social transformation (Ute et al. 2013). Whether by design or by accident, businesses in many ways have been acting as positive change agents within the US society and in other countries (Bies et al. 2007; Smith et al. 2013). The abolition of slavery, the treatment of children as workers, health and safety concerns, discriminatory practices, right to unionize and strike, society's views on fair trade, promoting equal pay for women, addressing issues for workers with disabilities, recognition of LGBTQ rights, accommodations for Islamic believers, the emphasis on consumer protection, recycling, no smoking zones, and environmental pollution are just some of the well-known issues that define a social agenda for organizations across all economic, educational, governmental, commercial, and industrial

sectors. Business organizations large and small no longer possess the ability to be secluded from the realities of social ideals, tensions, and conflicts. In fact, just as other social institutions, businesses are called to resolve recurring problems in society (Knight 1992). Unsurprisingly so, many of these social issues become mandated by legislation. Yet, there are an increasing number of businesses that are becoming more sensitive to many of these social issues and, moreover, are able to convert them into competitive advantages.

Over the past two decades, there have been a growing number of corporations, both within and beyond the USA, engaging in activities that promote positive social change. Evidence of a social change role for businesses entities can be observed primarily with the emergence of social-responsibly constructs. The more obvious contributions to social change come from models of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), where companies commit resources to promote social expectations, attend to interest group voices, and foster positive relationships with closely related communities resulting in outcomes such as better corporate image, customer loyalty, and trust, as well as more access to financial resources (Aguilera et al. 2007; Aguinis and Glavas 2012; Carroll 1999). Specific illustrations of businesses furthering social change seen in the literature are the role in promoting peace (Fort and Schipani 2004), upholding equality in business and communities (Franceschet and Piscopo 2013), sustaining social moral values (Prooijen and Ellemers 2015), emphasizing the dignity of the human person (Pirson and Dierksmeier 2014), recognizing the value of spirituality (Brophy 2015), and showcasing inclusion (Sanyal et al. 2015) and diversity (Ortlieb and Sieben 2013), to mention just a few.

More specifically, the topic of diversity and inclusivity illustrates a clear case of how external society issues become relevant to internal business operations and vice versa. Specifically, within US society, diversity sensitivities increased dramatically primarily driven by extremely high rates of immigration (Healey 2013). Consider, for example, that the years between 2000 and 2010 was the highest decade of immigration in American history, with 40 million immigrants entering the USA in just 2010 alone (Camarota 2011). A significant portion of these immigrants are Hispanics. Comparatively, in 1988 over 9,000,000 Hispanics were actively employed in the US workforce. By 2011, there were 23,000,000, and by 2020, it is projected that 30.5 million or 19% of the labor force will be Hispanic, which historically tend to have

a higher labor force participation rate than other groups, according to the US Department of Labor report, US Bureau of Labor Statistics, Latino Labor Force at a Glance (2012). While it has been anticipated that Hispanics will account for 74% of new workers from 2010 to 2020 (Kochhar 2012), it is also expected that Hispanic social values of power structure, gender, formality in the workplace, meaning of time, communications styles, culture and customs, religion, and interpretation of ethics would become crucial factors to an effective diversity management within a Hispanic-influenced workforce (Castaneda et al. 2013; Holmes 2005; Offermann et al. 2014; Peppas 2006). Concurrent to this wave of social adaptation for a large influx of Hispanic immigrants are other ethnic groups and social sectors claiming their own rights, such as those of the disabled (Fleischer et al. 2012), of age and generational differences (Costanza et al. 2012), of LGBT persons and communities (Ayoub 2014), of women (Reger 2014), of African Americans (Marable 2015), veterans (Bowling and Sherman 2008), and from the rise of Islamic influence in the USA (Wiktorowicz 2004). Predictably, how these external social issues are managed and addressed in society also affect business activities be it through the lens of their workforce (Burns et al. 2012) or by means of their customers (Ortieb et al. 2014). In any case, the business setting has become a venue where the tensions of working relationships and personal values are inevitable intertwined, even though—in general—workers are recruited primarily for their talents and abilities. Along with each worker comes the social awareness, desires, ideals, and perceptions from many of the diversity and inclusivity influences mentioned above that can benefit or derail operational performance. Along with the social turbulence created by the influx of immigrants, there seems to be an awakening for businesses to recognize a more comprehensive human development agenda as both a competitive advantage and contribution to society (Giovanola 2009). Subsequently, a series of theories and models follow, which explains the emergence of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), a business mindset that emphasizes social development (Körner 2005; Turker 2009).

As this mindset of the "social purpose of business" CSR continues evolving, additional related theories and constructs follow. Among the CSR offspring is the theory of Humanistic Management, which argues for management research and practices that promote human development through economic activities (Melé 2003). Another extension of CSR is the trend of for-profits to partner with non-profits, where

the business partner by proxy benefits in promoting a social agenda as a competitive advantage and the non-profit partner has access to additional streams of revenues (Dees and Anderson 2003; Seitanidi and Crane 2009). In a more elaborate model, Basu and Palazzo (2008) argue that a better understanding of a firm's Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) possibilities is achievable by means of an organizational sense-making that is guided by cognitive, linguistic, and conative dimensions. Still other constructs stemming from the CSR mindset are "corporate citizenship" (Burchell amd Cook 2006) and "Social Enterprising" (Nicholls 2006), where entrepreneurial organizations acquire a deliberate mission to change certain aspects of society, such as poverty (Seelos and Mair 2005).

The impact of CSR on poverty—for example—is TOMS, a for-profit business founded in 2006 by Blake Mycoskie, where by every pair of shoes bought, another is donated to needy children. So far, TOMS has donated over a million pair of shoes. This business–mission combination was so successful that in 2011 the company initiated a comparable social effort that for every pair of eye ware sold, another was pair was donated (Buchanan 2016). In this example, a social issue ignored by other institutions including non-profits and NGOs has become a competitive advantage and even has the potential to allow TOMS a global presence. In effect, the rise of social concerns—diversity included—and the evolution of the CSR mindset illustrates the influence of social issues on business organizations and its ensuing relevance to sustainability, development, and competitiveness.

Yet the effects of the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) mindset are not only about social issues related to diversity. CSR brings into the workplace an ethical—and expectedly—a religious and spiritual angle. The emergence of the ethics discipline and practice in business is attributed to religion's social and individual interest in ethical behaviors (De George 2005), which in turn has further evolved into areas of spiritual significance (Zsolnai 2015). In fact, research is available demonstrating that religious and spiritual persons tend to be more ethical in their business dealings (Conroy and Emertson 2004; Giacalone and Jurkiewicz 2003) and seem more willing to denounce unethical behaviors (Lewis and Geroy 2000). As presented later, the appreciation for upholding ethical behaviors in business provides a pathway for the study of diversity and organizational conscience as a spirituality value.

At this point, it should be evident that some business organizations willingly espouse a deliberate contribution to social change, although

the dynamics of how exactly social issues emerge and eventually become intertwined with business objectives remain subject of ongoing research. As an example of this area of research, Carroll (1979) posits that organizations must take initiatives to reflect and ask themselves what are the social issues they must address as their philosophy of social responsiveness. As a second example, Wartick and Cochran (1985) argue that economic responsibility, public responsibility, and social responsiveness are the relevant sources that drive the need for social issues within a corporation. In a third case, Athanasopoulou and Selsky (2015) propose an integrative model where the elements of (a) institutional social views arise from an external social influence, (b) a cultural view informs the organizational level, and (c) the cognitive view that relates to the individual level explain the advent of social matters in business. Likewise, Butterfield et al. (2000) propose a model where the social purpose in business originates from the interplay of moral issues and social context within the organization, in this case offering some tangential references to religion and spirituality. From these models, it can be inferred—in general—that social issues in business organizations seem to surface among the tension between an awareness of current external factors prevalent in society and internal factors associated with the business that relate to competitive opportunities.

Certainly, as the CSR models, theories and constructs continues to advance, a key question comes to the forefront of research and practice—which is—are economic activities always in conflict with human development as social change? And in the case of diversity and inclusion, can a business support human development activities without fully recognizing the implications of the dignity of the human person regardless of ethnicity, age and generational differences, religion, sexual orientation, and other social concerns? Furthermore, how complete is this humanistic and social endeavor if spiritual values are excluded from the CSR landscape? Essentially, the advancement of the CSR agenda is challenging the prevailing paradigm that "business-has-no-business" in human development as misguided as the converse prevailing paradigm within the non-profit sector, that organizational economic activity has a minimal role in servicing social needs. The assumption that business models exist for the sole purpose of profit is as incorrect as assuming that non-profit models exist solely for the purpose of social welfare. Albeit in different degrees by sector, both economic and social endeavors are interconnected.

The relationship between business and society has made businesses more sensitive to the need and value of attempting to measure the interconnection by means of relational performance indicators, not only as an internal performance factor but also as a competitive advantage. Because these two contextual principles—social agency and interpersonal relationships—are decisive in characterizing the type of organizational culture that can make evident this study of diversity and spirituality in the workplace, discussing them in more depth is an essential first approach to the topic at hand. Hence, having presenting a landscape of the first contextual principle defining the boundaries of the connections between diversity and spirituality—that is, business organizations as positive change agents—what follows is a discussion on the significance of relational performance indicators.

## Valuing a Culture of Relational Performance

As external society concerns and agency expectations—such as the case of diversity, equality, and inclusivity—become relevant and rouse expectations within the business setting, the next contextual principle to address in order to appreciate the potential contributions of organizational conscience as a spiritual value is to recognize the significance of relational dynamics. Just as organizations have operational performance indicators, they also have relational performance indicators (Moran 2005). It is particularly through relational framing that spirituality becomes more relevant to the diversity topic. So, what follows is a discussion on the relevance of interpersonal relationship measurements in contrast with the operational or process-related measurements of a business organization.

On the one hand, the importance of operational performance to business is quite evident especially if profits remain driving force. In the general case of a business firm, operational performance refers to the execution of tasks defined by the organization's structure to achieve its profitability (Neeley 2002; Rodriguez et al. 2009). Thus, for a retail business, typical measures of operational performance include sales and gross margin, sales per square foot, sales by categories, units per transaction, average customer spending, sell through rate, to mention just a few. In the case of manufacturing facilities, typical performance indicators are productivity, task times, yield, rejection rates, equipment uptime and downtime. For a hospital, some examples of operational indicators are

occupation rates, bed-turnover times, average cost per discharge, total operating margin, claims denial rates, days of cash on hand. These are indicators or "hard metrics" of process outcomes primarily quantitative in nature that track performance against specific goals and objectives.

Conversely, relational performance indicators measure interpersonal factors that also influence the effectiveness of a business, although they are more difficult to measure. Relational factors are more likely to be measured by qualitative methods (Becker and Gerhart 1996; Ramani and Kumar 2008; Sun et al. 2007). Granted some relational indicators such as satisfaction surveys, employee turnover rates, complaints, participation in events, absenteeism, are quantifiable but they tend to measure manifestations or consequences of deeper relational unrests. Some of these difficult-to-quantify relational indicators include work–family balance, innovation, resilience, adaptability, conflicts in values—including spiritual values—organizational climate, and tension levels among workers. A clearer explanation of relational performance follows the central concept of "guanxi," a Chinese society construct which integrates an organism of relational networks into business activities to complement operational performance (Luo et al. 2012). In a traditional business setting, the internal relational performance indicators (i.e., soft metrics, human capital metrics) are traditionally the responsibility of the Human Resources function (Wright et al. 2003).

Given the possible combinations of "hard" and "soft" performance indicators against a scale of their intensities, it is possible to create a matrix to illustrate the conditions where relational performance is as relevant as operational performance, an organizational state which defines this second contextual principle. Consider the four stages of the operational–relational performance Matrix illustrated in Fig. 5.1, where business performance is characterized by the categories of operational (hard) and relational (soft), expressed in degrees of emphasis (high-low). A low operational–low relational category of organization is fundamentally dysfunctional (P1) and unable to adequately assess performance, which suggests a business in distress. The high relational-low operational stage (P2) exemplifies the typical non-profit organization where relational activities are at the forefront of organizational activities and operational considerations are secondary. P2 organizations are considered relationally skewed. Contrariwise, the for-profit organization presented as P3 is a business for which operational performance is the principal driving force and is resistance to relational performance indicators. The highly

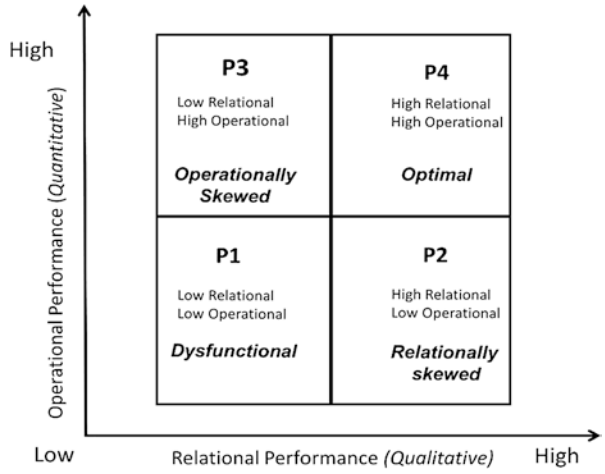


**Fig. 5.1** Operational–relational performance matrix

operational–highly relational (P4) organization represents a business both where operational and relational performances are equally relevant to business development. Consequently, P4 characterizes a business with a well-defined collaborative culture and where the CSR mindset exists as a natural component of the business (Kennerley and Neely 2003). In this stage, the mix of relevant quantitative and qualitative performance indicators is an optimal performance setting and sustains the cultural mindset (Bontis and Fitz-Enz 2002; Petty and Guthrie 2000; Ramlall 2003).

Within this matrix, the discussion of diversity and spirituality occurs within the context of a relational environment that sustains operations—P4 stage of the operational–relational Performance Matrix—where a dialogical environment captures voices that surface the organization's conscience and social agency expectations. While social agency carries an implicit responsibility beyond the businesses self-serving interests (i.e., CSR mindset), it also creates a level of within-organization expectations that coalesces into "issue-specific" voices (i.e., diversity, inclusivity, and equality). The relational context allows the organization to be permeable to these voices of social concern, enables the voices to emerge within the workplace, and allows the business to ponder their implications.

From these two contextual principles—a social agency contribution and a relationally mature culture—one can envision how the voices of

diversity, as a social concern, enter the workplace and, eventually, managed within the "raison d'etre" framework of the business. However, what needs to be addressed next is the connection of these two contextual principles with organizational conscience as a spiritual value.

## Organizational Conscience

The concept that connects diversity and spirituality within the context of social agency and relational dynamics is "organizational conscience" (Goodpaster 2007). To explain the concept of "organizational conscience" as a spiritual value and its effects on diversity, it is necessary to present a background on some of the scholarly literature generated within the Spirit at Work discipline, and then present the definition of "organizational conscience."

First, Spirituality in the Workplace, as a relatively recent management and leadership discipline, has evolved beyond the boundaries of religious traditions where now its presence is purported as a contributor to organizational performance and foundational for ethical behaviors (Garcia-Zamor 2003). Spirituality—as well as religious traditions—has been recognized as a source of values that employees bring into the workplace and provides a mindset for behaving morally, for a sense of mutuality, and for pursuing social responsibility (Jurkiewicz and Giacalone 2004). Although there are organizations where religion frames the business model and is also influential in forming organization conscience—such as the case of Chick-Fil-A (Schwartz 2006)—the emphasis here is delimited to recognizing collective spiritual values that are reactive to social issues (McGinty 2006) since this aspect of conscience directly relates to the diversity topic.

In more secular language and for purposes of the discussion relating to diversity, Spirituality in the Workplace refers to the values promoting a deeper sense of personal and social identity characterized by a worldview framed around morality, stewardship, and community, enacted within the work environment (Fairholm 1996). Although most of the Spirit at Work literature has focused primarily on the worker's personal spiritual values (Vallabh and Singhal 2014), there is a values-sharing phenomenon that resonates with the dynamics of business organizations as social change agents (Leigh 1997; Neal, Bergman-Lichtenstien and Banner 1999). Inherent to most mainstream forms of spirituality is an idealistically driven "reforming–forming–transforming" cycle that promotes constant

introspection and self-improvement efforts at personal as well as social levels of day-to-day activities through reflection and dialogue (Waaijman 2002). At the core of this continuous improvement cycle is the dignity of the human person and its implications in daily endeavors at personal and social levels (Bolton 2010). In this sense, evolving conversations in mainstream American society about the relevance of spirituality as a source of institutional transformation that respects, values, and fosters the dignity of the human person (Williamson 2014) are echoed within the business setting and eventually influence businesses (Trott 2013).

The concept of organizational conscience is well established in the literature. Conscience is commonly represented as the "moral compass" of the organization (Rasberry 2000; Sullivan 2009; Thompson 2010), a factor of business success (Khomba et al. 2013; Sulmasy 2008), as foundational to a moral organizational culture (Sims and Brinkman 2003), as a precondition of organizational information security (Thompson 2010), and as a moderator of human rights against institutional abuses (Forcese 1997). The subject of "organization conscience" is recognized in the interdisciplinary literature by other names, such as "corporate conscience" (Bowen 2008), "community conscience" (Fairholm 1997), "social conscience" (Fitzpatrick 1996), and "public conscience" (Fitzpatrick and Gauthier 2001). Purposely, "organization conscience" is the preferred term used here since it is intended as a key construct for connecting diversity and spirituality in the workplace within the business setting. Yet the term "institutional conscience" is a better characterization of the topic as it is described in the literature since it is more inclusive of all forms of social structures, be them business, non-profits, government, or multiple forms of civic communities. Regardless, the common thread among these definitions is the recognition and articulation of organizational concerns that reflect social interests (Bowen 2008; Bivins 2004). Goodpaster (2007) has published a comprehensive analysis of the origins, value, and tensions regarding organizational conscience as a phenomenon that reacts to what he calls unbalanced pursuits of operational performance goals and objectives. Although some researchers conceptually recognize institutional conscience as a phenomenon analogous to personal life (Nairn 2013), the recent mandates of the Affordable Care Act upon religious-oriented healthcare institutions regarding contraceptive services have brought to the forefront some legal considerations as to whether organizations have a conscience (Flynn and Wilson 2013).

Conceptually, organizational conscience is defined as a construct having two interrelated parts: (a) a commitment to morality and (b) and judgments on actions and omissions (Sulmasy 2008). Organizational conscience occurs at the intersection of institutional will and institutional judgment and manifests itself at organizational level by dialogical means. "The conscience of an institution is rooted in the fact that it professes a set of fundamental moral commitments and it must act in accord with them" (Sulmasy 2008, p. 143). Either directly or indirectly an organization's identity defines its "will", or said differently, a set of principles and commitments that guides intentionality. Again, the "will" or intentionality of a business organization is typically expressed by its identity or "raison d'être" albeit within certain boundaries set by social expectations and legislation. Therefore, despite any business-specific vocabulary used to describe the mission and vision of a business, it is still subject to broader social realities. This is why although the mission of some businesses does not specifically state any reference to diversity or inclusivity, that same business still has an implicit responsibility inflicted by society, that if not acknowledged will be imposed by legislation. The judgment component of organization conscience occurs in the assessing of business actions or inactions stemming from its intentionality. The judgment of leadership actions and decisions contrary to its intentionality or specific social expectations such as the case of equality and diversity result in a variety of pressures claiming for corrective actions. For example, in 1996 a recording of Texaco executives using derogatory language in addressing African American workers although not directly related to its mission was a direct affront to worker's and society's expectations, resulting in a $130 million settlement (Dobbin et al. 2007). Whether social expectations are explicitly enacted within the business or not, judgment and corrective actions will increasingly apply pressure for corrective actions.

The conscience of an organization manifests itself by means of the formal (structural) and informal (community) "voices" that articulate the dynamics between the "will" and "judgments" of business actions. To illustrate in terms of diversity, business organizations recognize by either social, legal, or competitive pressures that bias towards diversity and inclusivity in the workforce are detrimental to its performance (deVries et al. 2012), which relate to the principles that guides its intent (institutional will). The "voices" of employees, stakeholders, or customers—as a whole—offer judgments regarding the adequacy of its diversity and inclusion efforts (Blank and Slipp 1994). Said differently, when decisions

or behaviors contrary to the dignity of the human person are present—such as inequities, discrimination, artificial exclusions—the conscience reacts, coalesces, and manifests concerns by means of social voices, here called "voices of conscience." Consequently, external (society) voices of transformation and respect for factors contrary to the dignity of the human person are intertwined with the internal (organizational) voices that react to business pursuits and assessment of the actions that result from those actions. Hence, the role of organizational conscience is to recognize troubling issues, articulate these concerns, and prompt leadership into analysis and action (Aldrich and Herker 1977; Bivins 2004; Bowen 2008).

Organizational conscience is dialogical in nature and resides within the institution's web of formal and informal interpersonal relationships that react to incongruities or threats to the dignity of the human person emerging from the unbalanced pursuit of operational objectives, themes that resonate with spiritual values in the workplace. Essentially, the distinction of whether internal and external voices of organizational conscience originate from spirituality or not is relatively unexplored in the business literature and intuitively quite complex, although there is sufficient evidence across interdisciplinary literature to suggest that conscience in effect is a spiritual value (Keenan 2015; Madden 2002; Wright and Antonaccio 2016). Note that within the literature "conscience" is for sure about recognizing right from wrong, but it is also about choosing "better" over "good". Therefore, organizational conscience can be a significant pressure for deterring unmoral behaviors within the business, but it also has the potential to offer "better" diversity and inclusive interventions over just "good" ones. What matters is that spirituality promotes sensitivity to issues of conscience (McGinty 2006), which implies that having adequate capacity to collect and analyze these "voices of conscience" should be an organizational objective within the portfolio of relational performance indicators. Accordingly, these "voices of conscience" need the right "spaces" to exercise discourse and deliberation, which are settings in which a cacophony of diverse reactions can be concretized into a coherent, meaningful message for the organization.

The immediate practical implication is that voices related to organizational conscience are accessed easier from organizational cultures that are participative and relationally oriented, since these there is a risk that "voices of conscience" could potentially be disregarded by the power of hierarchical structures (Neill and Drumwright 2012). Consequently,

being able to sustain organizational conscience as a spiritual value for diversity becomes a priority within the CSR mindset. Sustaining organizational conscience for diversity means pursuing affinity spaces where open dialogue allows the voices of concerns to coalesce and inform organizational actions.

## Sustaining Organizational Conscience

At this point, it would help to illustrate how some businesses collect, analyze, and take action on the voices that articulate their organizational conscience as a relational indicator of performance. Some examples of approaches to sustaining and eliciting voices of conscience within the organization include climate surveys, establishing affinity groups, seeking external relationships with the community, and establishing positional responsibility with the organization's hierarchy. Notwithstanding measurements of effectiveness, these approaches represent a step forward in capturing social concerns and assessing their implications to business actions.

As mentioned above, one way to capture the voices of organizational conscience is by means of climate surveys applied to either a sample of an entire population of a business organization. Although intended specifically for the climate construct—meaning workplace conditions from the workers' perspectives—they do carry a social opinion with the potential to capture voices of organizational conscience (Lux 2009). In fact, there are surveys available to specifically focus on diversity climate (Herdman and McMillan-Capehart 2010). Yet these surveys in many ways also carry the classic advantages and disadvantages of quantitative research in that collected data are easy to generalize, there is a better reduction of extraneous variables, they are less time-consuming to utilize, they can be applied to a larger set of participants, and the issues of validity and reliability are easier to address (Vogt 2007). Still, structural biases may affect these surveys and make them be less capable of grasping deeper levels of interpersonal motives, attitudes, or behaviors related to diversity. For instance, a climate survey may be able to elicit female discontent with biases in equality of pay and promotion but would doubtfully recognize the "dwelling" and "nourishing" stages of women's spiritual development and their potential contribution to diversity and workplace performance. Just as the spirituality construct is best assessed by qualitative methods (Hodge 2001), so are the spiritual contributions

to organizational conscience that influence diversity and equality in the workplace.

A second example of how some businesses collect, analyze, and take action on the voices that articulate its conscience as an expression of spirituality at work is by means of forming affinity or special interest groups within the organization, such as Employee Resource Groups (ERG). These are informal, affinity-driven, voluntary gatherings that address common concerns and share experiences related to the workplace and are intended to manifest an organization's commitment to diversity, equality, and inclusivity (Welbourne and McLaughlin 2013). In the literature, there is evidence of Employee Resource Groups for women, Hispanics, Asians, LGBT, disabled workers, religion, generational groups, and veterans (Welbourne and Schlacher 2015). In forming "affinity groups" at work, employees are in effect offered settings where conversations of values are conducive to developing personal and social identities that either conform or react to the organization. In a broader context, it could be argued that in promoting organic (internal) affinity groups, businesses are in effect creating small communities within the organization that allow them to live out and articulate concerns particular to their identity and corresponding moral values and, in doing so, allow for voices of organizational conscience to coalesce around the organization's intentionality (will) and the appropriateness of its actions–inactions (judgment). For example, a millennial Employee Resource Group maintains that one of their central beliefs is "Career lubricated by conscience" a value explaining their tendency to purchase from brands like Apple, TOMS, and Chipotle (Harris 2015). Inasmuch as spirituality in the workplace promotes personal and social identity within a worldview framed around morality, stewardship, and community enacted within the work environment (Fairholm 1996), then employee affinity gatherings comparable to employee resources groups also sustain the conscience that connects diversity and spirituality in the workplace.

Although there are immediate benefits in sustaining organization conscience through organizational affinity forums as a resource to moderate diversity interests within the broader umbrella of a Corporate Social Responsibility mindset, the contribution of external affinity groups cannot be overlooked. External groups are not bound by the businesses' identity and therefore are able to articulate a wider choice of diversity concerns. Direct involvement of business in cause-oriented endeavors provides a public forum for demonstrating social engagement but at the

same time serves as a mirror of the organization's own voices of conscience. For instance, Starbucks has a core principle of being a place for public conversation that nurtures their sense of responsibility, and therefore, their corporate conscience. Starbucks specifically displays its diversity interests with non-profit organizations such as the Association for the Advancement of Mexican Americans, the Los Angeles Urban League, the National Urban League (NUL), and the Multicultural Foodservice & Hospitality Alliance (Our Relationships, Starbucks Coffee Company). In similar fashion, other businesses volunteer to be monitored by external agencies to demonstrate sustainability of conscience and transparency of social responsibility (Rosenberg 2011). In the past, the Council on Economic Priorities—a US non-profit research organization—would assess businesses and issue Corporate Conscience Awards to businesses that publicly demonstrated to be guided by their conscience (Corporate Conscience Awards 1988). Similar awards are granted to businesses in other countries. Additional ways to sustain conscience by means of external organizations include establishing partnerships with non-profits (O'Regan and Oster 2000). Business partnerships with non-profit organizations is another way in which issues of conscience, as well as of truth, transparency, credibility provide ethical guidance to both forms of institutions (Bonk et al. 1999). Other approaches include cause-related marketing (Brønn and Vrioni 2001), interactions with labor unions (Servais 2005), and even involvements with social movements (Soeters 1986). Effectively, by embracing the tension between economic and broader social objectives, external affinity groups sustain the internal voices of conscience (Margolis and Walsh 2003). In visibly engaging external socially driven organizations, the business explicitly recognizes its social agency and implicitly accepts a moral responsibility that nurtures its conscience.

Finally, sustaining voices of conscience for diversity without some form of influence in the hierarchical power structures of an organization carries the risk of muting significant outcomes of affinity groups. The ability to align business objectives with social concerns into a competitive advantage presupposes a CSR mindset and collaborative culture that is embodied by the organization's leadership. In this fourth approach, the responsibility for sustaining voices of conscience can be distributed or delegated to a specific position within the organization's structure. If the responsibility is distributed, the assumption is that leadership styles throughout the organization consider dialogic dynamics—with

emphasis on listening skills—as a central value (Johnson and Bechler 1998; Lloyd et al. 2015). Examples of leadership models that hinge on listening skills include Ethical Leadership (Mayer et al. 2012), Servant Leadership (Chan and Mak 2014), and Spiritual Leadership (Thompson 2013). Under distributive conditions, if dialogic models of leadership prevail within the organization's culture, then the effects of conscience to power structures are available not only at executive level, but even by frontline managers and supervisors (Lloyd et al. 2015). The second way organizations secure the voices of diversity conscience is by creating a position within the hierarchy to manage the diversity responsibility. Although typically this task falls under the Human Resources function (Bierema and D'Abundo 2004), other positions include the public relations functions (Bowen 2008), diversity officers (Williams and Wade-Golden 2007), and even corporate chaplains (Meyer and Davis 2002). In particular, the chaplains seem better suited for representing the voice of conscience given their expected roles as spiritual advocates (Aldridge 2006; Morgan 2010).

The four approaches to sustaining organizational conscience as a spiritual value for diversity listed above are just a few proven ways that allow the voices of conscience to coalesce and inform organizational actions. Organizational conscience—that is, the organization's intentionality and judgment of actions—is a value within the Spirit at Work milieu, and although latent in many business cultures, it is especially vital to cultures that are participative and dialogic in nature. Voices of organizational conscience embody a value that is fundamentally spiritual, that is, a shared worldview based upon the dignity of the human person. Whether a business officially employs a program for Spirituality in the Workplace or not, organizational conscience is still a spiritual value, qualitative in nature, and a relational performance indicator.

Granted there is value in considering these approaches independently, but applying more than one offers an opportunity to triangulate these voices into a more reliable result, more so if all four approaches are enacted within an organization. The synergistic effects of applying these four approaches to sustaining organizational conscience for diversity as a spiritual value of the workplace are exemplified by Pacific Gas and Energy Co. (PG&E). As of 2016, a leading publication on diversity and business has recognized Pacific Gas and Energy Co. (PG&E) for eight consecutive years for its success in hiring, promoting, and developing women, minorities, the disabled, LGTB, and veterans (MENA Report

2016). Specifically, PG&E strives for a corporate culture that exemplifies inclusivity, social responsibility, and a collaborative work environment. PG&E implements internal (Career Development and Learning, PG&E 2012 Corporate Responsibility, and Sustainability Report) and external surveys (MENA Report 2016) that gage its conscience (i.e., intentionality or will and the judgments of its outcomes) as they are interpreted by the workforce. Affinity groups are actively engaged by means of Employee Resource Groups, Employee Associations, labor unions, and a Corporate Diversity Council (see Diversity and inclusion, PG&E 2012 Corporate Responsibility and Sustainability Report, Sect. 3). PG&E also sustains equality and diversity conscience through relationships with a variety of non-profit organizations in local and state levels that are directly engaged in community social development (see Volunteerism and Community Support, PG&E 2012 Corporate Responsibility, and Sustainability Report). The responsibility for diversity and inclusion is a value that is both distributed by nature of its organization's culture and, as well, is assigned to a specific position, the Diversity and Inclusion Chief Diversity Officer, which also chairs the Corporate Diversity Council (PG&E 2012 Corporate Responsibility and Sustainability Report). As a result of these other measures, PG&E has earned multiple awards by third-party assessments, including the Human Rights Campaign, Careers and the Disabled Magazine, Women's Business Enterprise National Council, National Veteran-Owned Business association, Hispanic Business Inc., and Black Enterprise magazine, to mention a few (See Awards and Recognition, PG&E).

## Summary

*Spirituality in the Workplace* refers to the values promoting a deeper sense of personal and social identity characterized by a worldview framed around morality, stewardship, and community, enacted within the work environment (Fairholm 1996). As a spiritual value, organizational conscience occurs at the intersection of institutional will and institutional judgment and manifests itself at organizational level by dialogical means (Goodpaster 2007). The study and application of this spiritual value are best understood within two contextual principles, positive social change agency and relational performance. The more evident expressions of these principles come from theories, models, and constructs of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), where companies commit

resources to promote social expectations, attend to interest group voices, or foster positive relationships with closely related communities (Aguilera et al. 2007; Aguinis and Glavas 2012; Carroll 1999).

Organizational conscience is dialogical in nature and resides within the organization's interpersonal dynamics. It expresses itself in the form of collective voices that react to incongruities or threats to the dignity of the human person. When organization actions are contrary to the dignity of the human person—such as inequities, discrimination, artificial exclusions—the conscience of spiritual persons individually and collectively reacts, coalesces, and manifests concerns for the leadership's consideration.

As a result of *Spirituality in the Workplace*, the practical implication of organizational conscience is to recognize its existence as a relational indicator and sustain its contributions to the organization's culture as another potential competitive advantage. Sustaining organizational conscience for diversity means pursuing affinity spaces where open dialogue allows the voices of concerns to coalesce and inform organizational actions. Some examples of approaches to prompting and sustaining voices of conscience within the organization include climate surveys, establishing affinity groups, seeking external relationships with the community and establishing positional responsibility with the organization's hierarchy.

Whether business organizations establish or not formal Spirituality in the Workplace initiatives, for sure organizational conscience exists as a moral compass for diversity, equality, and inclusion. The concept of organizational conscience as a spiritual value within the evolving CSR mindset remains controversial—especially from a legal view—and can benefit from continued qualitative research. Despite its shortcomings and elusive nature, listening to the internal and external voices of conscience has proven in practice to be a relevant resource for nourishing diversity as a competitive advantage, especially within the global market.

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CHAPTER 6

# Design Thinking: Problem Solving in the Diverse Workplace

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## Overview

Numerous studies have been conducted on the growing worker diversity of corporate, nonprofit, educational, and other workplace settings over the last two decades. However, even as the need for workplace culture to embrace change is recognized, the question arises how are vital decisions made to promote diversity throughout departments as decisions are made for new innovative products, solutions, and resources? The provision of a diverse and thriving workplace is the primary concern of most conscientious mangers. To promote this change, Design Thinking (DT) principles can be implemented so a variety of perspectives are utilized for strategic problem-solving.

Managerial levels of thriving innovative corporations, nonprofits, and government workplaces aim to immerse their employees in DT principles and implementation for enduring positive change and problem-solving. This chapter provides the definition, highlights, and discussion of DT implementation in the corporate, educational, governmental, and

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nonprofit workplaces. Through practical scenarios, readers are guided through the human-centered ventures of DT principles for problem-solving and the planning and implementation of transforming recommendations revealed through the process.

## Design Thinking for the Diverse Workplace

The term Design Thinking (DT) in this chapter refers to a human-centered, structured process for innovation that can be applied to product, service, and business design. DT is also used for problem-solving in social services, such as developing promising urban youth futures, or funding well-digging ventures in Africa, or improving the delivery of science lessons for fifth graders. As Fig. 6.1 indicates, DT employs a continuous evolving process through the following stages: Empathize, Define, Ideate, Prototype and Test. Within each stage, problems are framed; questions emerge, along with more ideas, until the best answers are chosen. The steps can be simultaneous or linear and they are repeatable (Mickahail 2015).

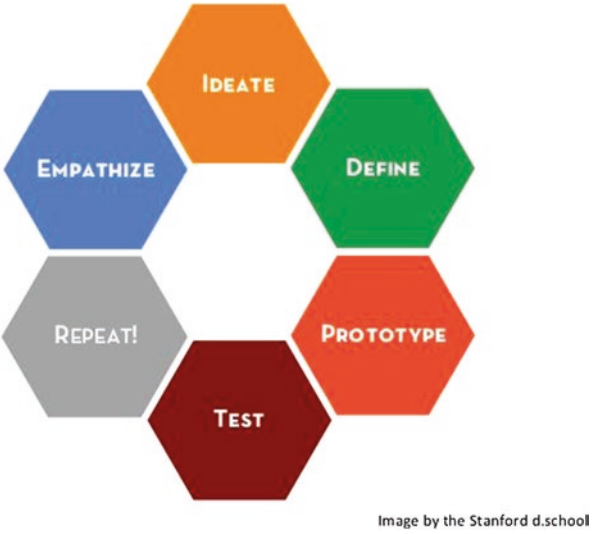


**Fig. 6.1** Stages of the design thinking process (d School 2015)

### *Definition*

The popular term of "design thinking" refers to a human-centered, structured process for innovation that can be applied to product, service, and business design as well as problem-solving in social services. The success of Design Thinking is found in situations that call for creativity and innovation. In business, DT needs team collaboration and a balanced consideration of product desirability, feasibility, and viability to work. Within each DT stage (see Fig. 6.1) is the framing of problems, then the emergence of questions with more ideas until the clarity of answers become apparent. The steps can be simultaneous or linear and they can reproduce the same process until a solution is found. Many valuable design thinking business trainings during the last 10 years are attributed to DT guru David Kelley and his brother Tom Kelley of IDEO. David helped to launch Stanford's d School and established executive and educator DT boot camps around the world. These DT boot camps emphasize leader and team application of DT principles while also nurturing each participant's creative brain. The Kelley brothers declare that all can activate their creativity in their book, Creative Confidence.

### *Human-Centered Design and Wicked Problems*

The human-centered approach or ***human-centered design (HCD)*** overlaps with and reinforces the DT process, because DT always begins with empathy toward the customer or target population's needs. DT cannot exist without considering the human element that the "problem-solvers" seek to address. Whether the goal is to create a hospital system that is more sensitive to meeting patient needs and comfort or to invent a user-friendly computer software application, DT requires the use of human-centered considerations to be successful. Often the terms (DT and HCD) can be used interchangeably when innovation teams gather to solve wicked problems. A ***wicked problem*** as defined by Kolko (2012) is as follows:

> a social or cultural problem that is difficult or impossible to solve for as many as four reasons: incomplete or contradictory knowledge, the number of people and opinions involved, the large economic burden, and the interconnected nature of these problems with other problem.

HCD is a DT-related innovative problem-solving method that seeks out custom-made solutions to problems people need to solve. Creative empathy is at the core of IDEO's HCD trainings for educators, social entrepreneurs, and nonprofit organizations (Stanford d school 2015) (Fig. 6.2).

### *Human-Centered Design and Wicked Problems*

When we think of empathy, we may remember what Atticus Finch said in To Kill a Mockingbird (Lee, 1960, p. 85).

> If you can learn a simple trick, Scout, you'll get along a lot better with all kinds of folks. You never really understand a person until you consider things from his point of view, until you climb inside of his skin and walk around in it.

Without empathy, it is difficult to have design or human-centered thinking. Empathy is the cornerstone of all positive change and innovation. Empathy is worth time and effort to ensure empathy is nurtured and rewarded in organizations seeking effective change and problem-solving.

Rather than hammer out and describe examples of bias and other behaviors lacking empathy, it is best to embark on group exercises, which may elevate the empathy awareness of group participants. The group activities in this chapter are created to cultivate the empathy of those who participate with an open mind.

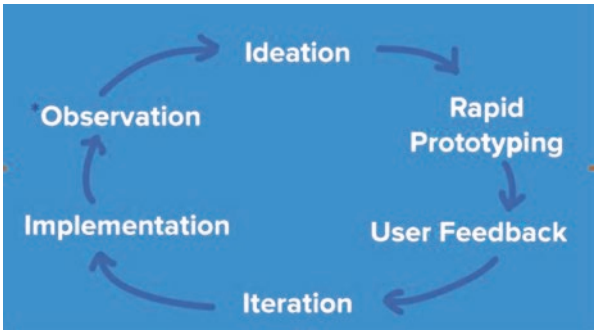


**Fig. 6.2** The process of human-centered design (d school 2015)

Group Activity: Building Empathy
Begin with the goal in mind: a satisfied consumer. Discuss in groups of 3–4 people:

1. How does a consumer experience the delivery of a service? What quality should the service be?
2. Share with your group a memory of an epic product failure. One example is the recently recalled Samsung Galaxy Note 7 cell phones for flaming batteries.
3. What caused the failure? Was it widespread? Was anyone hurt? Why is product failure a challenge? How is it overcome? Did the company reach out to you or a friend as a consumer? Were or weren't you or your friend satisfied?
4. Refer to the above questions for a diversity scenario in the workplace. Consider a recent misunderstanding in your workplace, such as a cultural conflict. Discuss this misunderstanding; What went wrong? Who was offended? Did the parties try to mediate? How did it affect the work environment?
5. How did this exercise build empathy?

Group Activity: Problem-solving
Form small groups of 3–4 people and discuss the following problem-solving exercise and questions. The greatest benefit of applying DT approaches is learning teaming skills to solve wicked problems. Select a common problem of diverse workers, such foreign accent comprehension/cultural challenges, or employee bias

1. How can your team make the new worker feel welcome?
2. What empathy building background do you discover?
3. How can this be a learning experience for the new and existing employees?
4. Will this change the company workplace in any way?

Summarize the findings of your group and share with all participants of this activity.

## Design Thinking Case Studies

Harnessing innovation to meet people's needs is part of the history of the Industrial Revolution. Countless important inventions, such as the steam locomotives, the Model T, telephones, telegraphs, electricity, the light bulb, the phonograph, and telephone and film industry changed agrarian and urban communities into thriving modern centers. Along with these inventions came new problems to solve with early design failures and fallout, such as pollution from coal fired factories and the migration of populations from family farms to city-centered jobs. All these changes required more problem-solving and innovation to meet the changing needs of people and communities impacted by rapid development. The twenty-first century is no different and society is changing

more rapidly than the inventions created to manage the change. As the world is literally a Global Village, the merging and meshing of diverse people is the norm in the workplace and all realms of life. This unleashed series of everyday change is altering the world and workplaces faster than leaders can plan to address the impending issues.

When businesses need collaboration for team building and multi-faceted perspectives for product planning, development, and sales, DT can assist. Work Scenarios that call for creative thought and inventiveness can benefit from the DT and the human-centered approach. Many managerial levels of thriving innovative corporations, nonprofits, and government workplaces aim to immerse their employees in DT principles and implementation for enduring positive change and problem-solving. Design Thinking implementation developed through the process of historic inventions to twenty-first-century human-centered space age design utilizing diverse collaborative team building. DT for problem-solving in product innovation includes all team members' skill sets to see the entire spectrum of ideas that contribute to invention and/or problem-solving.

### *Design Thinking and Collaboration: Edison*

***Thomas Edison*** accessed early DT strategies to create a collaborative model for product development. Caldecott (2013) writes that the success of inventor Thomas Edison's collaborative culture nurtured twentieth-century innovation. Edison promoted a growing culture of team communication and collaboration. This same type of collaboration is used by business innovation leadership to meet the consumer needs of the twenty-first century and beyond (Mickahail and Andrews 2015).

### *A Corporate Commitment: Infosys in India Trained 97,000 in DT*

Is design thinking thriving? We only have to read the headline *97,000 Infosys staff is trained in design thinking methods* (Sen 2016). The Infosys chief executive officer Vishal Sikka planned to actively encourage design thinking processes through his company. Corporate executives that lack understanding and training in this vital collaborative approach to development may miss out. To ignore DT as a workforce resource is to forgo the opportunity to impress twenty-first-century consumers with human-centered services and products.

### *Exercises in Culture Learning*

New learning takes place when we can reference or access a connection to the new concept, such as having a reading skill in one's heart language makes to easier to use the same skills to learn to read in a second language. This is called ***language transference*** (Carlo et al. 2004; Echevarria et al. 2004). In the same way, we can begin to appreciate previously unknown aspects of learning cultural diversity through cultural reference or transfer exercises. Group participants can learn at least to appreciate some diverse features of cultures by first accessing what they know of their own culture. The following exercises will take participants into a cultural self-reflection and appreciation for another culture (Fig. 6.3).

Group Activity: Roots
Form small groups of 3–4 people and discuss the following problem-solving exercise and questions: Share about your ancestral roots.

- From where did you family immigrate?
- How long ago?
- What special foods do you eat during the holidays?

Think of your favorite food.

- How would you feel if you could no longer make or eat this dish?
- Do you have any friends who are from another culture?
- What new things, custom, or information have you learned from them?
- How can other cultures contribute to your workplace?

What would help you to better understand them?

**Fig. 6.3** Courtesy of Flickr creative commons (2016)

Group Activity: Culinary Celebration
Plan a class potluck featuring foods from all cultures your class represents. Make sure those from French heritage bring a French dish, etc …

Discuss the questions below.

- How does DT meet human needs for cultural connection?
- How does this product development approach differ from traditional product development?

### *Design Thinking: The Gateway to Human-Centered Innovation*

DT is the best approach to include diverse perspectives to create new human-centered designed products. Effective product innovation virtually sells itself because it meets a gap in the market. The goal is to meet consumer needs, wants, and desires before they are realized. Recent inventions of products that meet this criteria are the iPhone and related Apple series of products, services such as Amazon, Google, and Citrix to name a few.

These products and services are the result of an intentional Design Thinking process that embraces and includes all team members' contributions in product development and company problem-solving. DT is a diversity type of thinking that results in unusual levels of economic success by meeting consumers needs that are yet to be defined.

Many managerial levels of thriving innovative corporations, nonprofits and government workplaces aim to immerse their employees in DT principles and implementation, for enduring positive change and problem–solving.

### *A Wicked Problem, a Lack of Workplace Diversity*

Lack of diversity in the workplace is a wicked problem. The logic of DT and HCD is that the workplace reflects society and customers and is diverse by definition. How can the wicked problem of low levels of workplace diversity be remedied?

1. The focus must be on the user of the product in DT, so in solving workplace diversity the focus is in those who need to be included (increase inclusion of minorities, women, and persons with disabilities).

2. Consider that clients or employees are the workplace's greatest assets. This approach contrasts to the familiar company-centered philosophy in which clients and employees are expected to feel "grateful" to be served or work for a company.
3. A model company must seek to improve diversity by considering the experience of diverse employees throughout their career paths—and the specific challenges that require attention to move forward.
   a. With DT problems facing diverse employees, target customers are examined by teams to create scenarios or models. Lived experiences are shared by employees, or customers and themes from their experiences are shared to list solution ideas.
   b. One way companies are moving toward greater inclusion of the diverse workforce is through mentorship programs and team development with persons from different fields to address diverse client needs. This is found at companies such as Google, Agilent, Uber, Amazon, and Citrix.
4. Successful inclusion involves the willingness to prototype remedies to inequitable working conditions and provides opportunities for diverse workers to succeed. This involves the initial consideration of all ideas generated during the DT process. Some ideas will prove to be useless but all must be considered at the table to encourage freedom of idea flow and exchange. This cultivates a culture of openness and willingness to try new ideas.
5. Problems will surface that require solutions, so it is beneficial to use DT as a empathic, creative, and open-minded approach to improve workplace diversity and provide meaningful solutions to wicked problems such as increasing workplace diversity.

Group Activity: Discussion
Form small groups of 3–4 people. Read 1–5 above and discuss the following questions

- How does the DT product development approach differ from traditional product development?
- How are team member's ideas considered?
- Does your workplace use the DT process?

Group Activity: Wicked Problems Solved
Select a common wicked community problem such as graffiti on public places. Divide into design team roles.

- Inventor
- Observer
- Creator
- Designer
- Mentor

Now, follow the steps listed below:

- Define the problem and possible cause of the graffiti in a selected public place, i.e., wall of public library. How will each person develop empathy? What or whose needs are not being met?
- Why is it happening? Who may be doing it? How can you verify your assumptions? Provide research on the problem (i.e., online news search).
- How have other communities dealt with the problem? How have they dealt with offenders? How can offenders be reformed? Have any new initiatives evolved?
- What resolution can each team member contribute? Decide what ideas would work best as a team.
- How would you implement the ideas? How would you know if the idea is working? Would your town officials agree? Who would you need to network with to make this resolution possible?
- Why is mentorship important to new and diverse employees?
- Share good and bad examples from your work experience. What worked? What did not?

The success of Design Thinking is found in situations that call for creativity and innovation. In business, team collaboration is needed and a balanced consideration of product desirability, feasibility, and viability to work. DT for problem-solving in product innovation includes everyone to see the whole perspective of ideas to contribute. Everyone's contribution is important in the ideation stage. The best ideas rise to the surface through the DT process. True innovation to meet human needs is not new. The history of the Industrial Revolution of the last century is riddled with product successes (e.g., telegraph to telephone, the steam engine to moving film). The list is endless with details of ideas for practical innovation development.

Often these early ideas came with negative consequences, such as pollution from coal-driven engines and product failure, which led to more innovation. Design thinking is no longer confined to the R&D

department! Governments now utilize it to improve the function of bureaucracy and ultimately meet the needs of citizenry. In the halls of government to social justice volunteers, DT is a tool to solve wicked problems.

### *Design Thinking in the Danish Government: Mindlab*

The ***Mindlab*** is a creative collaborative venture of several governmental branches in Denmark. The Ministry of Business and Growth, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Employment and Odense Municipality formed a coalition with the Ministry for Economic Affairs and the Interior. They work with private companies to develop policy to promote employment and education in the digital and entrepreneurial arenas. The MindLab serves to assist and inspire business managers and workers to view their labor from the "outside in." They view their work with empathy for the consumers to promote innovation in products and ideas.

This Danish government model is an inspiration for some new programs using DT. In the USA, DT has support from former President Obama who declared, "We must harness new ideas and technology to remake our government …" (White House 2013). Several DT initiatives have begun with support directly from the White House: WH Stanford Medicine X, WH Innovation Fellows, US Digital Service, and DT trainings in the US Armed Service and the State Department (Martin 2009; U.S. Army TRADOC 2014; Chu 2016; White House 2013).

### *Nonprofit Workplaces and Volunteers*

The organization ***Code for America*** works at the city and state levels and provides opportunities for designers to volunteer their skills. It was established through an initiative begun by the Obama White House Innovation Fellows to give designers a year-long experience to work on certain problems. The problem that Code for America wished to address was the bridging of the digital gap by promoting digital literacy in needy communities.

Group Activity: Promote Volunteer Efforts
Community Volunteers.

- Form small groups of 3–4 people and discuss the problem-solving exercise and questions.
- Read about the Code for America site and see what volunteer opportunities exist in your community at https://www.codeforamerica.org/join-us/volunteer-with-us.

Now, answer the following questions:

- Would you like to volunteer to help promote digital literacy in your community? Or do you know someone with coding skills who would be interested? Is coding the only way to support digital literacy?
- Why is coding and community support for coding important? How does coding relate to DT?
- Should everyone know how to code? Why or why not?
- In what other place does a digital divide exist? Why should we care?
- Share with your audience what answers your group discussed.

## Summary

In this chapter, we were introduced to DT for the diverse workplace and the definitions of HCD and wicked problems. Group exercises focused on DT-HCD and how to build empathy. While also discovering more problem-solving applications of DT, we studied how Design Thinking is a creative way to embark on problem-solving as a gateway to Human-centered Design. Design Thinking is not new and many of its processes were used by America's early inventors such as Thomas Edison. He used collaboration to build his innovation teams and solve problems. In the twenty-first century, many businesses have accessed the benefits of DT staff training. One notable company is India's Infosys comprehensive DT training of 97,000 employees. Through the group activities, students were introduced to Design Thinking and Human-centered Design concepts and processes. Special emphasis and interactive group exercises focused on empathy, collaboration, and related DT skills to solve wicked problems in the workplace.

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CHAPTER 7

# Diversity in Learning

*Kate Andrews PhD*

## Overview

As a learning organization, companies want to have a learning environment for their employees. In these companies, learning transpires not only within educational opportunities (e.g., online, classroom, on-the-job) but within the totality of the business experience. Within the business environment, among a host of other diversities, one finds three types of learning diversity: how employees learn, what environmental relations they have experienced, and where theoretical learning foundation begins. This chapter furnishes a look at the types of diversity present within a business by taking these three types of employee diversity and subdividing them into components. For example, how employees learn includes their learning strategies, multiple intelligences, and employee abilities. The environmental relations employees have experienced that affect how they learn are found within their culture. Theoretical foundations expounded upon include behavioral theory, cognitive constructivist theory, and social learning theory. This chapter recognizes all components of diversity and how they are important in reaching the goals of promoting greater participation in performance.

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Providing an environment that is conducive toward reaching a higher level of a learning organization is vital for business' sustainability.

## Learning Organizations

To meet the demands of the technological and globalization changes, organizations seek to be learning organizations that provide the means to adapt to the demanding requirements of skills, knowledge, and abilities necessary to meet the organizational goals. The term learning organizations was first introduced by Peter Senge. His work, The Fifth Discipline, has become a stalwart in business libraries (Senge 1990). The term learning organization is at the forefront of businesses. Within Senge's reference work, he provided five disciplines for creating innovative organizations that foster collaboration (Senge 1990). These five disciplines are vital in meeting the demands of businesses in accomplishing organizational goals.

### *Learning Disciplines*

To cultivate a learning organization, Senge (1990) said there are five disciplines necessary for change: personal mastery, mental models, shared vision building, team learning. The fifth discipline is melded into being by the other four systems. All five of Senge's core learning disciplines set learning in the intersection of culture, dialogue, and context (Mickahail and Andrews 2015).

### *Situational Context*

To establish a learning organization, one facet businesses launch or advance are learning situations for their employees to set the environment that is conducive to systems thinking. This organizational environment, as per Senge (1990), entails the five disciplines. Learning takes place when a person becomes a member of a community of practice through legitimate peripheral participation (Kolb and Kolb 2005). The goals of learning situations within organizations is to transfer the knowledge obtained through learning into skills and abilities that are utilized in the workplace in accomplishing organizational goals. A process of becoming a member of a community of practice creates a situation where learning can take place. Thus, learning situations transpire

not just within those formal developmental situations planned through online, classroom, or on-the-job training modalities but within the entire spectrum of living within an organization. This provides the context that learning opportunities are all around employees or within the totality of experiences occurring in the workplace. A central concept in Dewey's (1938) educational philosophy is the continuous range of involvement in which experiences that build or hinder learning are arrayed. The range of involvement is seen within the diversity of the learning ***situational context*** that entails three areas wherein employees learn: **how** employees learn, **what** environmental relations they have experienced, and **where** the theoretical learning foundation of the organization lies.

## How Employees Learn

Employees learn in a variety of ways because no one employee learns in the same way as another. In the next section, discussions are provided covering learning strategies, multiple intelligences, and learning theories.

### *Learning Strategies*

Since the times of Chinese philosophers in the sixth century B.C. and on into Greek philosophers such as Socrates with his Socratic learning philosophy and on to Plato and Aristotle in the post-Socratic times, humans have sought to understand how one person influences another through teaching and learning. Too often still, "educators continue to treat all learners alike while paying lip service to the principle of diversity. [Organizations] must address the imbalance between uniformity and diversity" (Guild 2001). Learning strategies, or also called learning styles, are simply preferences for how an individual wants to learn. An important note is that learning styles are not absolute categories but permeate through and around each other and can change as environmental influences change a person. This is one problem when discussing diversity/cultural differences in that there are not absolute categories from which a person emanates but a variety of changing diversity/cultural influences. There is not one clear category of a specific culture or a specific learning style wherein a person can be placed having no part of another category or culture or learning style. However, learners will show a preference for a particular region of the learning space. A learning space is the totality of influences upon which learning

transpires for a learner. Modern theories of what creates a learning space have been developed for nearly two centuries. There are several different learning spaces models explaining learning strategies that have been put forth by leading learning theorists. A model is a combination of variables or factors that a theorist has put together to demonstrate the principles of a theory. Three models will be discussed in this section: Myers–Briggs Type Indicator, Kolb's Learning Styles Model, and Felder-Silverman Model.

**Myers–Briggs Typology** is based on Carl Jung's theory of personality. Carl Jung purported that there is not pure random behavior but that people have preferences in the way they use their mental capacities. He saw two primary methods that people engage in mental functions for which a person prefers one. The two mental functions are the way a person takes in information, which is perceiving, or the way someone organizes information and comes to conclusions, which he called judging. He found that people prefer performing in one of these two ways so he said they prefer perceiving or judging.

The formalized Myers and Briggs theory was developed in 1943. Building on Jung's preference for ways people use mental functions, Myers and Briggs built a model that provides four types of preferences for learners: (a) a preference for where someone finds energy—introvert or extrovert, (b) a preference for how someone takes in information—sensing (through senses) or intuitive (hunches), (c) a preference for how to make decisions—thinking or feeling, and (d) a preference for how to organize information—judging or perceiving.

Employees with a preference for finding energy outside themselves prefer working in groups rather than alone more than employees with a preference for finding energy from within themselves. In developing learning situations, it is important to note that both types of preferences prefer to have explaining take place, but employees with a preference as an introvert need time alone in quiet. Working through a nominal group technique would be a preference for an extrovert employee who likes to take in information from a group. Creating a cost/benefit analysis would be something that an employee who prefers introversion would prefer.

Employees with a preference for how to take in information through sensing want facts and trust them. Employees with a preference for intuitiveness find patterns and relationships essential and trust their intuition. In developing learning situations for these employees, employees with a preference for sensing want logical information. For example, a case

study should be familiar to those employees and be answerable almost from previous material, while those with an intuitive preference appreciate an integrative framework and discovery learning.

Employees also have a preference for how to make decisions that is either based upon logic or feelings. Those who prefer logic are said to base their decisions on thinking, while the others base their decisions on feelings. In developing learning situations for those employees who prefer thinking, want clear objectives and concrete meanings to words. Those who prefer feelings prefer to be in learning situations in groups that are harmonious.

Judging or perceiving relates to how people deal with the world. They seek out learning situations that are different from each other. A judging preference is seen in those who are quick and decisive in their lives and have a planned approach. A perceiving preference is seen in those who have a spontaneous approach and are adaptable and seek more information before making a decision.

Each employee has a preference in each category to make a mix of 16 types. Organizations, according to this model, should understand, accept, and respect each employee's preference in developing learning environments wherein they expect employees to learn.

**Kolb's Learning Styles Model** provides a mechanism to divide learners into four preferences: (a) Divergers: combining preferences for experiencing and reflecting, (b) Assimilators: combining preferences for reflecting and thinking, (c) Convergers: combining preferences for thinking and doing, and (d) Accomodators: combining preferences for doing and experiencing. Kolb and Kolb (2005) thought that learners have a preference of one of these types for how to be taught.

There are four dimensions of preferences in the **Felder-Silverman Model**: (a) active or reflective learners, (b) sensing or intuitive learners, (c) visual or verbal learners, and (d) sequential or global learners. Regarding the last dimension, a sequential employee prefers learning by following ordered, logical steps, while a preference for global learning would be indicated by an employee who looks at the big picture to draw conclusions (Felder & Silverman 2010). Felder and Silverman's augmentation of theories of learning styles combined visual to be visual/auditory in that visual does not in and of itself include visual prose. Visual prose cannot be said to be just visual because employees think in the spoken word when reading (Felder 1988).

These three models are provided here as representative of learning styles theories. There are others that provide specific categories or preferences in ways employees learn as well as overall theories of learning that will be discussed under the heading of Learning Theories later in the chapter.

### *Multiple Intelligences*

The standard concept of intelligence held there was one general measurable factor of intelligence. With the idea of a concept of general intelligence, education considered intelligence to be managed as a unique, measurable, predictor of academic success (Andronici and Andronic 2016). In contrast to this theory, Gardner (1983) put forth the theory of multiple intelligences. He listed eight autonomous intelligences affecting the way we learn: ***verbal/linguistic*** intelligence (for words), ***mathematical/logic intelligence*** (for numbers and reasoning), ***visual/spatial intelligence*** (for images, drawing, and painting), *musical rhythmic intelligence* (for tone, rhythm, and timbre), ***body/kinesthetic intelligence*** (for the body), ***interpersonal intelligence*** (for social interaction and relationships), ***intrapersonal intelligence*** (for self-awareness), and ***naturalistic intelligence*** (for regularities and patterns of behavior). Gardner put forth the idea with these intelligences that education should be managed with knowledge that the application of multiple intelligences can make more appealing the behaviors of teaching and learning for both teachers and learners. The theory can be extended to state that every employee should be provided opportunities to use their preferred type of intelligence when learning while being encouraged to do so. The foundation of education with multiple intelligences is that learners remember the material better if they learn in their own style.

### *Employee Abilities*

An employee's abilities affect the way he or she learns where some employees are capable of learning at all levels of the range of information and application. However, the number of employees capable of this is limited. Employees are born with a set level of ability upon which they build during their lifetime. Those employees who come into a company with an ability to set aside past experiences when learning how to interact in the company's culture will advance in aspects of becoming an

accepted member of the culture and in understanding and fulfilling more readily tasks associated with his or her job than someone who does not have that ability. Another ability employees come with into the organization is the experience associated with their jobs. Upon this experience, employees have the opportunity to scaffold learning. How high the scaffold reaches is partially due to how high the employee was on the wall of abilities when coming into the company, department, or work group. An employee's abilities are also affected by his or her values, beliefs, or attitudes as a focus of diversity.

## What Environmental Relations Are Experienced?

The environmental relations experienced by employees are discussed in terms of zones in which employees operate in their cognitive functioning. These affect learning in that they contribute to an employee's acceptability of others, situations, and ideas.

### *Diversity Zones*

In evaluating environmental relations experienced by employees, organizations often do not adequately dialogue on the foundation of diversity in learning. Often the bases for diversity in organizations are limited to four ***diversity zones*** among the multitude of zones in existence. The four zones of diversity that learning designers most often employ in developing learning situations are gender, race, age, and sexual orientation. These are important considerations in developing learning situations; however, there are many more zones of diversity that must be included to develop learning situations that are inclusive of all of diversity. Some of the other diversity zones are religion, familial interactions, social relationships, and geographical location.

### *Intersection of Diversity and Culture*

The totality of learning diversity zones entails the four culture zones: the culture of the nations wherein the organization works, the culture of the organization, the culture of the department wherein employees work, and the culture from which the employees come. So, those cultural zones become the basis from which learning situations should be derived. This type of consideration involves the relationship between

diversity and culture. Often the concepts of culture and diversity are separate in discussions and thought so there is no intersection in the concepts. As organizations move into becoming learning organizations, they may see the two concepts as having some intersection. However, they are instead interwoven so that the intersection is within all points of each concept (see Fig. 7.1). Because of this intersection, any discussion of one should entail a discussion of the other.

Culture is a group of people with common experiences that shape values, attitudes, and beliefs. The common experiences, or cultural zones that emanate for the four above, include race, age, gender, religion, or national origin. However, beyond these commonly considered experiences, there are also education, family, health, work groups, and social groups among a myriad of others. A person can acquire a new culture or

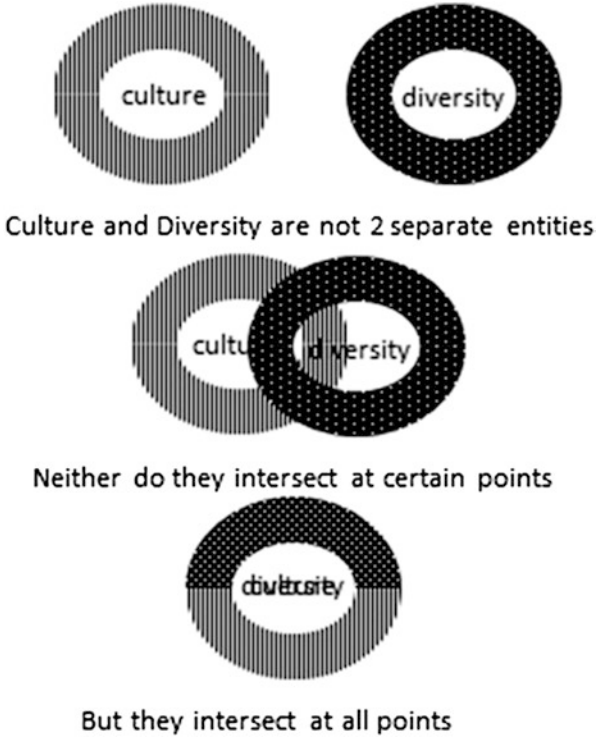


**Fig. 7.1** The intersection of culture and diversity

enter a new diversity zone based upon what happens to the person. For example, a move to a new geographic area, a different job, or even a different department at work, or becoming disabled can move a person into a different diversity zone. Employees belong to many cultures all at once. An employee who grew up in India would have a different world view than someone who grew up in New York City. However, not everything is different. People all over the world, have family, go to sleep, eat, learn, have pain and fear, and love thus having a basis for similarities. At the same time, our differences, based upon diversity zones, are important to notice, understand, and use in learning, working, and living.

### *Culture Zones*

Cultural zones are those areas from where ideas are drawn and plans are made. These ideas and plans are formed according to values, beliefs, and attitudes put forth from the specific cultural influences present within the cultural zones to which an employee belongs. The cultural zones comprise the environmental influences always present. Employees learn through the environment that encompasses them. Not only does the learning change because the environment is always changing affecting our cultural zones, but how we learn through personal learning styles is dynamic and changing (Kolb and Kolb 2005). The interactions between employees and their environment occur within a concept of learning space that was founded on Kurt Lewin's field theory. Learning spaces are made up of the influences of cultural zones to which a person belongs. Lewin saw as independent variables that a person and his or her environment intermingle so that behavior becomes an interaction of the person and environment (Kolb and Kolb 2005). In this bidirectional functioning between the person and environment lies the learning space where learning style dictates what is absorbed, applied, and implemented from learning materials. Marrow (1977) found the person experiencing learning subjectively with the learning space being the person's total psychological environment. The total psychological environment is made up of cultural zones brimming full of those cultural attributes influencing values, beliefs, and attitudes such as family interactions, school experiences, geographical input, and language manipulation.

Building upon Lewin's field theory and combined with Vygotsky's learning theory, Bronfenbrenner's environmental portrayal of culture influences provides a view of why and how employees acquire learning

through their learning space of cultural influences. Bronfenbrenner brought forth the ecological systems theory of human development as having five dimensions. These five subsystem dimensions that surround the individual are the (a) macrosystem dimension, (b) mesosystem dimension, (c) exosystem dimension, (d) microsystem dimension, and (e) chronosystem dimension. The person is at the center of the dimensions with all the characteristics of his or her being (e.g., abilities, age, gender, health). The subsystems' variables are the cultural groups affecting the person's individual identity. The interactions and links between the individual and subsystems determine who the individual is and thus influences if not controls what the individual thinks, beliefs, and acts. For a description of these five dimensions, see Table 7.1. Bronfenbrenner later added the influence of genes on development so the theory is now called bioecological theory.

In applying Bronfenbrenner's concepts to culture and learning, a particular view of what makes up the culture of an individual and how that transpires into learning emerges. Applying Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory to learning should take into context the cultural zones of the employee, other employees, and the teacher and how these cultural zones are ever changing.

## Where Theoretical Learning Foundations Exist

Employees bring with them into learning situations the inherent values, beliefs, and attitudes formed from being members of their cultural zones. There are many theories of how learning takes places within an educational zone. Each theory builds on past theories. However, there are three broad categories in which the theories lie. A discourse on each of the three broad categories, behaviorism, cognitive constructivism, and social learning, is provided below.

### *Behaviorism*

Credit is given to Pavlov and Skinner for the behaviorist theory. This was the first modern day theory of experimental learning put forth. Pavlov stated that learning transpires with the combination of a stimulus and response that is automatic. A stimulus affects a certain response wherein learning occurs as the stimulus is subsumed by another stimulus so that the same response occurs. Skinner enlarged the theory to

**Table 7.1** Five dimensions of Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory

| *Microsystem* | *Mesosystem* | *Exosystem* | *Macrosystem*[a] | *Chronosystem* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Direct influences that include family, school, religious institutions, neighborhood | Microsystem are interconnections with interactions-relationships: families and teachers, peers, and family, etc. | Social settings where no active roles are linked to the mesosystem. For example, work experiences may affect home life, such as taking a new job. News media is an example of what is included in the exosystem | Larger cultural zones as attitudes and theological attributes. Evolves over time as successive generations change the current microsystem. Governmental laws and national customs are examples of what is included in the Macrosystem | Transitions over time in the person's life. Sociohistorical circumstances. For example, the evolvement of women's rights around the world |

[a]Cultural zones include all possibilities of interaction with one's environment such as socioeconomic status, ethnicity, type of country: developing or industrialized, national culture

explain the description, explanation, and control of behavior (Catania and Laties, 1999, as cited in Visser 2010). Skinner denied a mentalist explanation for learning behavior. All measurements of learning, according to Skinner, can only be about observable behaviors. Learning thus is a direct result of consequences of behavioral reinforcement. Skinner (1974) posited that behaviors are the by-products of conditions resident in a person's social and physical environment. The social and physical environment is akin to existing cultural zones. A learner's learning is simply a predefined absorption of a body of knowledge. Behaviorist theory is a teacher-centered theory where the teacher transmits behavioral responses that employees absorb. With Skinner's theory, employees are motivated only by positive and negative reinforcements. Learning is limited to behavioral responses that are absorbed by the learners after being transmitted by the teacher or supervisor or other employees.

### *Cognitive Constructivist*

In the cognitive constructivist theory of learning, learners take written words and translate them into spoken words. The basis for this translation are the preexisting cognitive structures actively constructed by the learners. Vygotsky (1978) maintained "that language is the main tool that promotes thinking, develops reasoning, and supports cultural activities like reading and writing." Employees are self-motivated in learning and are intrinsically motivated to learn through setting their own goals. Additionally, learning is facilitated by a teacher or supervisor or other employees who provide the learning environment that is geared toward discovery and assimilation/accommodation (Berkeley 2016).

### *Social Learning Theory*

In social learning theory, the theory of cultural zones is utilized where social learning theory incorporates learning taking place because of environmental zones through interactions with a group based in a culture of knowledge. Learners, through their integration with others, achieve learning through collaborative assimilation and acceptance of new information (Berkeley 2016). Employees are both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to learn to accomplish their goals that are determined by rewards provided by the culture or knowledge group. Social constructivist theory of learning is student-centered where the acquiring of new

knowledge, skills, and abilities is simply facilitated by the one providing the learning environment.

## Summary

In a pluralistic society, a multicultural educational system holding as sacrament the diversity of the members demonstrates respect for all cultures. A comprehension and respect of one's own cultural heritage as well as having a comprehension and respect for other cultures can be developed through exploring similarities and differences of cultures. This exploration fosters the capability to function harmoniously and effectively in a diverse, multicultural society. A multicultural educational system nurtures within the individuals' self-regard staying within one's culture yet maintaining respect for other cultures. An educational model devoted to the experience of diversity will maintain adherence in design and implementation into learning zones the uniqueness of each member based upon the varied factors of diversity/cultural zones.

## Discussion Questions

- In your workplace, what implementation of these principles of diversity based on culture do you see is possible in permeating the culture in your organization so that more diversity in learning is acknowledged?
- What other models or theories of learning styles exist?
- Describe your culture in terms of the five levels of Bronfenbrenner in terms of values, beliefs, and attitudes.
- Where do you see conflicts between your cultural values, beliefs, and attitudes and others in your circle of interactions?
- What other diversity zones do you see as affecting learning situations?

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PART II

# Applying D&I in the Workplace

CHAPTER 8

# Embracing People with Special Needs and Disabilities

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## Overview

Diversity in the workplace includes those with disabilities. Managers, leaders, and change agents in the workplace must be knowledgeable and sensitive to the issues and challenges faced by persons with disabilities. Discussing, recognizing, researching, and accommodating the value, benefits, and challenges faced by persons who have special needs enhance the workforce for all. Specific laws govern how employers ensure equality in the workforce for persons with disabilities. The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) was signed into law in 1990 and amended in 2008. The ADA also makes it unlawful to discriminate against persons with a disability. Employers must meet certain obligations under the laws which include broad statements of acceptance and recognition. This chapter outlines the scope of the nation's disability protection laws

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while also highlighting the issues and challenges facing workers with disabilities. Notable corporate and governmental policy efforts to recruit, mentor, and maintain workers with disabilities are discussed along with the value and benefits of inclusion in the workforce. Proactive efforts are presented to identify key factors for the success of persons with disabilities in the workplace. The focus on progressive corporate and governmental policy efforts and strategies reinforces existing workable solutions for consistent employment opportunities for workers with disabilities.

## People with Special Needs and Disabilities

Diversity in the USA workplace can take on many different dimensions. One very important facet of diversity is people with disabilities and special needs. People with disabilities live, play, and work throughout the world. The USA is not different. Disabilities and special needs take on many forms; mental and physical disabilities as well as how one lives are included. Disabilities are complex and contested (World Health Organization, [WHO] 2011). "Disability is the umbrella term for impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions, referring to the negative aspects of the interaction between an individual (with a health condition) and that individual's contextual factors (environmental and personal factors)" (WHO 2016). A disability is no longer relegated to how a law defines one but how society defines disability (WHO 2016).

Globally, the estimation of those with disabilities numbers 4.2 billion adults or 15% of the world's population (Kiregu et al. 2016). In the USA, there are 53 million people with disabilities (Center for Disease Control [CDC] 2015), with Minnesota having the lowest percentage of people with disabilities (7.2%) and Mississippi with the highest percentage (15.2%; US Census Bureau 2010). There are almost 20% of people with disabilities aged 16–64, and 41% are employed next to 79% of people without disabilities (CDC 2013). Over 28% of US civilians with disabilities of working age in 2014 were living in poverty. For US civilians of working age without disabilities, the national poverty rate was 13.3% (Disability Statistics 2014).

Specific laws govern how employers ensure equality in the workforce for persons with disabilities. The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) was signed into law in 1990. The ADA also makes it unlawful to discriminate against a person with a disability. Employers must meet

certain obligations under the laws and regulations, which include broad statements of acceptance and recognition. In addition to broad responsibilities, employers have specific responsibilities that take the form of accommodation and behavior.

## Benefits of Inclusion in the Workplace

Management, leadership, and employees must be knowledgeable and sensitive to the issues and challenges faced by people with disabilities. Discussing, recognizing, researching, and accommodating the value, benefits, and challenges faced by people who have special needs enhance the workforce for all. There is notable value in benefits for inclusion in the workforce provided to management, leadership, and employees. Benefits include increased, strong interpersonal relationships, building a higher productivity rate, and augmented meeting of organizational goals.

## Laws that Govern the Workplace

Just as there are protection laws concerned with the age of employment, family leave, health insurance, and educational access and standards are also numerous disability protection laws and regulations that govern the workplace in treatment of those with disabilities. Protection laws, regulations, recommendations are written at the global, national, state, and local community levels.

Forging the way of global protection findings for those with disabilities is the World Health Organization (WHO). The WHO provides international protection findings concerning those with disabilities in many areas of life including education, enabling environments, assistance and support, health care, and the work environment. It was the WHO that suggested that human resources staff train in rehabilitations and that those with disabilities needed accessible technology be given the devices or help they needed (WHO 2011). The WHO's recommendations fed into the national laws about those with disabilities around the world. In the USA, the federal protection law concerning people with disabilities in the workplace along with other accommodations was the Americans with Disabilities (ADA) of 1990.

## ADA—A Historical Background

President Roosevelt by executive order founded the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), which is the overseer of the ADA (EEOC 2000) with laws governing Federal employees with discrimination (the Rehabilitation Act) as a precursor (US Department of Justice n.d.). The EEOC has primary enforcement responsibility over the ADA (US Department of Labor n.d.). Specific laws govern how employers ensure equality in the workforce for persons with disabilities. In 1990, George H.W. Bush signed into law the ADA, however, Title 1 protecting people with disabilities in employment did not take effect until 1992 (EEOC 2000). This delay was for employers to have time to make adjustments from application procedures through firing and including conditions and employment privileges (US Department of Justice n.d.). Title II of the ADA concerns the affirmative responsibilities for those with disabilities in public entities including state and local governments and has oversight responsibility by the Department of Justice; Title III provides for accommodations with three entities: (a) public accommodations, (b) commercial entities, and (c) private entities associated with education and occupational certification (US Department of Labor n.d.). The ADA does not cover the executive branch of government, but ADA covers the legislative branch.

In 1994, the ADA was changed to state that the law was effective for employers of more than 15 employees (Department of Health and Human Services: The ADA n.d.). There were many issues arising from implementation and carrying out the ADA so that eight enforcement guidelines were developed from 1993 to 1999 (EEOC 2000). The eight guidelines that are interpretations of ADA issues include "pre-employment inquiries and medical examinations, workers' compensation benefits, psychiatric conditions, the meaning of the term 'qualified', and the requirement that employers provide reasonable accommodations" (EEOC 2000).

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, as amended in 2002, prohibited discrimination against otherwise qualified individuals on the basis of disability: Some of the restrictions that were specifically outlined were that programs and activities that receive financial assistance from Health and Human Services are held to the laws of the ADAA (Department of Health and Human Services n.d.).

Since then, guidelines continued to be developed and amendments being passed in 2008 (EEOC n.d.). The amendments were called the ADAAA which stood for Americans with Disabilities Amendment Act. EEOC's regulations to implement the equal employment provisions of the ADAAA were effective in 2011 (EEOC n.d.). Title I of the ADA was changed in 2013 with updated regulations (Department of Health and Human Services: The ADA n.d.a.).

Final rulings are those explanations to laws issued by the Congress of the USA. In 2016, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC or Commission) there were some issues on interpreting the Title I of the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) to where guidance was provided on what incentives employers could use to encourage the use of wellness programs by employees whereby the use of the wellness program inquirers about disabilities or asks the employees to undergo medical examinations. This final rule is applicable to wellness programs where there are the inquiries about disabilities or require medical examinations when the wellness programs are provided by three groups. The first one is when wellness programs are offered only if an employee is enrolled in a health plan that is employer-sponsored, wellness programs that are offered to all employees even if not enrolled in a health plan, or is offered where a group health plan or group health insurance is not provided to employees. At this same time, Title II of the Genetic Information Nondiscrimination Act (GINA) that has guidelines about incentives offered to spouses of employees to enroll or participate in a wellness program (National Archives 2016).

## Who Is a Person with a Disability?

After the ADAAA, the regulations did not change the ADA's definition of the term "disability" as a "physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities; a record or history of such an impairment; or being regarded as having a disability" (EEOC n.d.d.).

A person is not defined as someone who has a disability but he or she can show a disability. The next three explanations of when a person may have a disability were recorded by the EEOC (n.d.b):

- A person may be disabled if he or she has a physical or mental condition that substantially limits a major life activity (such as walking, talking, seeing, hearing, or learning).

- A person may be disabled if he or she has a history of a disability (such as cancer that is in remission).
- A person may be disabled if he is believed to have a physical or mental impairment that is not transitory (lasting or expected to last six months or less) and minor even if he does not have such an impairment (EEOC n.d.b.).

A term often heard about a person who has a disability in the workforce is a "qualified individual." The person can meet all the requirements of the position that he or she holds or is seeking and who has any legitimate skill or education or experience and the person must be able to perform the "essential functions" of the job position with or without reasonable accommodation. To say that the person has to be able to do the "essential functions" means that someone will not be deemed to be unqualified based upon the inability to perform job functions that are marginal or incidental. A written job description may be seen as evidence of the essential functions but may not be accepted as conclusive evidence (EEOC n.d.a.).

Under the ADAA, an actual disability was augmented to include a person with an actual disability or someone with a record of having a disability. The limitations no longer must be significant or severed. However, mitigating measures no longer qualify someone as having a disability and are not used to determine if someone has an impairment that limits a life activity. Mitigating measures include hearing aids, prosthesis, medication, therapy, and behavioral modifications even if the impairment substantially limits a life activity (EEOC n.d.e.).

A change to the ADA, under the ADAA, also included that if an impairment lasts less than six months, it may be determined to be a disability. An impairment, like depression or epilepsy, that is episodic, may be used to qualify someone having a disability if it affects a life activity. However, if the impairment is expected to last less than six months and less, then the employer as a defense against the statement that a disability only must be regarded as a disability. A failure to accommodate will not be accepted as a claim against the employer only if the person is covered by only the "regarded as" definition of disability. It is important to note that if an action was taken because of an actual or perceived impairment, the person can meet the definition of disability (EEOC n.d.e.).

## Accommodations

The EEOC (n.d.d.) has numerous guidelines covering about accommodations for those with a disability. The guidelines cover those qualified employees and applicants. A qualified individual is someone with a disability who, with or without reasonable accommodation, can perform the essential functions of the job in question. The question, then, for organizations is what is reasonable accommodation. Reasonable accommodation includes the following taken from the EEOC (n.d.d.).

- Making existing facilities used by employees readily accessible to and usable by persons with disabilities.
- Job restructuring, modifying work schedules, reassignment to a vacant position;
- Acquiring or modifying equipment or devices, adjusting or modifying examinations, training materials, or policies, and providing qualified readers or interpreters.

However, the accommodations would be made unless the accommodation would cause an "undue hardship" on the operations of the employer. Undue hardship is defined as an action requiring significant difficulty or expense when considering factors such as an employer's size, financial resources, and the nature and structure of its operation. Not all employees or applicants need the same type of accommodations. Examples of accommodations from the EEOC (n.d.d.) are below.

- A deaf applicant may need a sign language interpreter during the job interview.
- An employee with diabetes may need regularly scheduled breaks during the workday to eat properly and monitor blood sugar and insulin levels.
- A blind employee may need someone to read information posted on a bulletin board.
- An employee with cancer may need leave to have radiation or chemotherapy treatments.

## Service Animals

The ADA also has rules concerning a service animal that is defined as only a dog in Title I and Title II. However, there now is a provision for miniature horses (of certain size) that have been training to provide services specifically for someone with a disability (US Department of Justice [DOJ] 2011). Other organizations define a service animal more broadly. These organizations include the Air Carrier Access Act and the Fair Housing Act. For an example, the Federal Aviation Administration holds a policy that any animal (e.g., cat or monkey) that a person says performs a service for a disability is accepted as a service animal. This is because the person's disability is not outwardly noticeable. Such disabilities for which animals have been trained to help people with disabilities include alerting for seizures, help with balance, and calming during an anxiety attack (Federal Register 2003). When reviewing the ADA, the regulations state that service animals must be allowed anywhere the public is allowed including hospital rooms, restaurants, or universities. Service animals may be excluded from access in such places as operating rooms or burn units where a germ-free environment must be maintained. People can ask only two questions when a dog brought into their facility. The first question is "is the dog a service animal required by someone who has a disability?" and "what work or tasks has the animal been training to perform?" (DOJ 2011).

## Other Laws Covering Disabilities in the Workplace

There are four important laws covering disabilities in the workplace besides the ADA (US Department of Labor n.d.).

Disabilities as they relate to federal workers are covered under the ***Rehabilitation Act of 1973 Section 501 and Section 504***. Federal workers are prohibited to discriminate on the basis of disability a person otherwise qualified. This section contains an expansion of this rule to include discrimination against any person within an organization that receives funding from any federal financial assistance. Included also under the Rehabilitation Law are rules pertaining to those organizations who receive financial assistance from US Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) or programs and activities that are conducted by HHS are prohibited from discrimination to the basis of disability in electronic and information technology (US Department of Health and Human Services [HHS] 2016).

The ***Public Health Service Act*** prohibits discrimination against substance abusers in federally assisted hospitals and outpatient facilities. The Public Health Service Act bars discrimination to those with disabilities in the areas of programs funded under their rule.

The ***Family Violence Prevention and Services Act*** prohibits discrimination in program funded by their Act; The Low-Income Home Energy Assistance Act of 1982 bars discrimination under programs funded under their Act just as the Community Services Block Grant Act does (HHS 2016).

The ***Air Carrier Access Act*** prohibits discrimination based on disability in aircraft. This includes the treatment of service animals. This Act is also the one that requires accessibility of facilities in aircraft including requiring aircraft with 30 or more seats that must have half of the aisle seats with movable arm rests. Aircraft with more than 100 seats must have room for a foldable wheelchair. A safety assistant may ride for free when accompanying someone with a disability, but the airline has to agree with the person with the disability that a safety assistant is required. The Aviation Consumer Protection Division is the organization where people may file complaints in air travel including the contractors and air carrier personal (US Department of Transportation 2003).

In addition to Federal laws covering disabilities, the states also have their own laws for the inclusion of people with disabilities and the accommodations that must be made. They vary on individual rights of the person with a disability and employers. To find your state's Protection and Advocacy Agency, see the site at http://www.ndrn.org/images/Documents/Media/PA_CAP_LIST_2015.pdf.

There exist proactive corporation and governmental policies and strategies that provide for practical models of employment for people with disabilities. The US government has been in the forefront of these efforts beginning with ADA legislation in 1990.

## Federal Government Training and Selected Corporate Workforce Development

The federal government enacted Executive Order 13,548 to increase the recruitment and hiring of people with disabilities to work in all capacities. Proof of disability is required to qualify for recruitment assistance (Go Government 2016). The National Collaborative on Workforce and

Disability for Youth (NCWD/Youth) through a grant from the USA provided guidelines for employers and job applicants. Nearly every local, state, and federal agency makes hiring of people with disabilities as priority through specialized funding for education and job training. These workforce programs provide employers with trained and qualified workers. Since the initiation of Executive Order 13,548 in 2010, the hiring of persons with disabilities has increased (NCWD/Youth 2016).

According to the US Department of Labor (2016), the National Disability Employment Statistics (for people ages 16 years and over), 68.4% of people without disabilities participate in the US Work force, while only 20% of people with disabilities participate. Without this federally funded program, the number would be much lower.

Executive Order 13,548 supports several government-funded programs to train and recruit people with disabilities. As a result of this legislation, the US government has been recruiting and hiring people with disabilities at greater rates. Every federal agency from the FBI to the Army Corp of Engineers seeks qualified employees with disabilities.

The 2010 executive order goal of hiring 100,000 people with disabilities was met in 2016.

- The US federal government hired 109,575 into part-time or full-time career positions over fiscal 2011–2015, according to Office of Personnel Management (OPM).
- Nearly 265,000 Federal employees with disabilities represent 14.4% of the workforce.
- From the FY 2014, new workers with disabilities rose 19% from 20,618 to 26,466 in FY 2016,
- Agencies with the highest rates of employees with disabilities in their workforces include the EEOC, 25.3%; VA, 19.5% (Fedweek 2016).

## Unique Corporate Initiatives: Persons with ASD in Business Innovation

Several outreach efforts in the Silicon Valley demonstrate the new corporate policies and strategies created to provide practical models for enduring employment opportunities for workers with autism spectrum disorder (ASD).

Although historically persons with ASD have been relegated to the employment sidelines with a 98% unemployment rate (Babineau 2012; Armstrong 2012), their unique skills are now recognized by companies which value their creativity in the workplace (Silverman 2013; Pollak 2009; Baron-Cohen et al. 2009; Hendrickx 2009; Mottron 2011).

The challenge of how to support persons with ASD is addressed to promote productive outcomes for persons with ASD in the workplace. Several programs have launched to provide tailored support to individuals with ASD in the Silicon Valley corporate workplace. SAP and Google have launched training programs to recruit, train, and retain persons with ASD. In discussing the merits of Neuro-diversity, ASD expert Armstrong (2012) writes, "… we ought not to pathologize (people) who have different kinds of brains and different ways of thinking and learning."

SAP confidently aims to have up to 1% of its workforce, 650 employed with autism by 2020, according to Jose Velasco, head of the autism initiative at SAP in the USA.

Successful programs feature at least six weeks of individualized training and support provided by the California Department of Vocational Rehabilitation and a Danish hiring clearance group, Specialisterne (Wareham and Sonne 2008). A key element is also the mentoring programs through which newly trained persons with ASD team with company mentors who follow the individuals to secure their success in the workplace.

People with ASD can be valuable creative assets for technology companies, in the coming years. There is a plethora of literature on positive corporate change, which indicates very few established companies innovate successfully without creative workers (Christensen and Overdorf 2000; Schoenberger 2011; Martin 2009; Tellis et al. 2009; Mickahail 2015). More research needs to address what factors contribute to best employment and retention practices for persons with ASD and related disabilities.

As people with diverse disabilities continue to enter the workforce, enterprising employers will seek to accommodate them and embrace their specialized work skills. Adherence to the laws will be a challenge for some but for the agencies and companies that actively recruit this diverse workforce group, many benefits await.

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CHAPTER 9

# D&I and Leadership in Organizations

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## Overview

Leadership, from the perspective of diversity and inclusion, is the next step in the evolution of leadership development (Mor Barak 2011; Podsiadlowski et al. 2013; Cottrill et al. 2014). Leaders who demonstrate cultural competence in D&I will ascend toward the next level of transforming the global marketplace. The interdependent nature of diverse global relationships will also require leadership perspectives that include awareness of current global challenges, strategies, and initiatives. The most current global challenges are published by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Valuable information and recommendations for global leaders are available in multiple reports to address how to generate D&I in professional practice and develop strategic plans of action. A future model of leadership integrating diversity and inclusion, authentic leadership, and ethical leadership will support the vision for diversity in the twenty-first century.

Under the perspective of leadership and diversity, inclusion represents "the degrees to which individuals feel a part of the critical organizational

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process, such as access to information, connectedness to co-workers, and ability to participate in and influence the decision-making process" (p. 7). Managing diversity and inclusion should be a current focus for persons in leadership positions (Podsiadlowski et al. 2013). Significant laws in the USA, such as the Affirmative Action and Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, mandate legal requirements for active support for diversity and inclusion in the contemporary workforce. However, D&I has also emerged as a global topic (Priola et al. 2014).

This discussion in this chapter will explore another level of diversity and inclusion, including different leadership characteristics described as "***inclusive leadership behavior***," "***inclusive influence***," and "***inclusive organizational behavior***." ***The combination of these diverse leadership characteristics leads into an "Inclusion Leadership Model" that applies to diverse leadership perspectives.***

## Leadership and Organizational Diversity

Considerable research exists addressing racial and ethnic groups that reveals differences in the area of leadership (Kamenou et al. 2013). An initial description of the meaning of diversity must include recommendations to avoid assumptions that diverse characteristics apply to every individual or group. According to Baack (2012), "…diversity includes gender, age, racial identity, nationality, religion, sexual orientation, and physical disabilities" (Chap. 2). The ability to manage diversity begins with leadership commitment. The four-layer diversity model described below may provide initial guidance for leaders whose goal is to increase understanding of issues related to organizational diversity.

- **Diversity Layer 1**: Personality. Includes likes, dislikes, attitudes, and beliefs of unique individuals (Baack 2012, Chap. 2)
- **Diversity Layer 2**: Internal Dimensions. Includes gender, sexual orientation, racial identity, age, nationality, and physical disabilities (Baack 2012, Chap. 2)
- **Diversity Layer 3**: External appearance. Includes other characteristics such as religion, income, geographic location, personal and recreational habits, educational background, and appearance (Baack 2012, Chap. 2)

- **Diversity Layer 4**: Organizational dimension. Includes work location, work type, seniority, managerial status, and other features of the company (Baack 2012, Chap. 2)

In addition to understanding the layers of diversity, leaders will benefit from learning how the language of diversity and inclusion occurs within organizations. Roberson (2006) found that the focus for definitions of "diversity" includes heterogeneity and the demographic composition of groups or organizations. The focus of definitions related to "inclusion" is employee involvement, process, and the integration of diversity into organizational systems. Developing inclusive leadership requires knowledge of various layers of diversity and the ability to use the unique language associated with diversity and inclusion.

There is also agreement in the D&I research literature that, "it is not enough to have representatives of diverse groups within organizations. Leaders should create an overall environment that celebrates and leverages multiplicity and pluralism. For leaders of color, and for others advancing diversity, creating an inclusive environment that welcomes and develops the contribution of each member becomes an important leadership practice" (p. 10).

### *Leadership Challenge*

1. Develop a proposal to create a work environment that supports diversity and inclusion.
2. How would the diverse and inclusive work environment that you create welcome and develop the contributions of each member?

## Inclusive Leadership

The language of managing diversity in the professional literature is transforming from "diversity" to "inclusion" (Roberson 2006). Considering that "inclusion" is a psychological experience (Shore et al. 2011), Mor Barak (2011) developed a model suggesting that leaders in an organization have the ability to be the primary influence that determines the "inclusion" experience. Anxiety, self-esteem, depression, and satisfaction are psychological links to inclusion–exclusion resulting in a significant impact on motivation and behavior.

Leaders, in diverse organizations, should initiate efforts to influence the culture of an organization that creates an atmosphere of "acceptance." ***Inclusive leadership behavior*** encourages leaders to openly initiate dialogue, inviting diverse individuals to participate in the group activities, and making decisions that impact how individuals and groups function in an organization.

Therefore, the power of "***inclusive influence***" becomes part of the characteristics of diverse leaders, who model ***inclusive leadership behavior***. ***Inclusive influence*** is the new power to initiate cultural change in diverse organizations. Leaders who develop and demonstrate "inclusive influence" can foster the creation and sustainability of inclusive work environments. Recent research supports the value of authentic leadership for developing inclusion in diverse organizations (Cottrill et al. 2014; Boekhorst 2015).

Leaders will benefit from practicing "**the language of inclusion**"

- ***Authentic Leadership***: Characteristics of authentic leadership include self-awareness, moral integrity, and fair and open interactions with others that are consistent with the leadership qualities and skills recommended for promoting inclusion.
- ***Inclusive Leadership Behavior***: Encourages open demonstration by leaders to initiate dialogue or invite diverse individuals to participate in the group, diverse activities, and decisions that impact how individuals and groups function in an organization.
- ***Inclusive Influence***: Becomes part of the characteristics of diverse leaders who model inclusive leadership behavior. Inclusive influence is the new power to initiate cultural change in diverse organizations.
- ***Organizational Inclusion***: Is an emerging topic in organizational research that may be related to organizational effectiveness and employee outcomes. However, additional research is required to explore the meaning for this explanation of organizational behavior.

### *Leadership Challenge*

1. Develop or revise a mission statement by integrating the language of diversity and inclusion.
2. Develop or revise a vision statement by integrating the language of diversity and inclusion.
3. Develop or revise a code of ethics by integrating the language of diversity and inclusion.

## Authentic Leadership Diversity and Inclusion

"Significant characteristics of authentic leadership, including self-awareness, moral integrity, and fair and open interactions with others, appear consistent with the leadership qualities and skills recommended for promoting inclusion" (Cottrill et al. 2014). The following results from their recent research support how authentic leadership and inclusion benefit organizations. However, the researchers indicated the need to recognize significant limitations, because of the use of a convenience sample from the USA. There should be caution when attempting to generalize results from this study to the general American or other global populations. A convenience sample for this study contained a large number of Caucasians, women, heterosexuals, and people with higher levels of education. There could be a significant difference in the conclusions if the perceptions of people of color, men, homosexual, bisexual, lesbian, and persons who have not obtained college degrees were also included in the study. Additional research to include more diverse perceptions for this type of study is a recommendation for the future. However, the following summary offers valuable insights for the benefits of authentic leadership in diverse organizations (Cottrill et al. 2014).

1. "Authentic leaders play a significant role in contributing to employee perceptions of inclusion" (p. 285).
2. "Authentic leaders can encourage greater citizenship behaviors through the inclusive environment they create" (p. 285).
3. "The results highlight the benefits associated with perceived inclusion" (p. 285).
4. Like the integration-and-learning diversity management approach (Podsiadlowski et al. 2013 as cited in Cottrill et al. 2014), being included shows employees they are important, valued and trusted (p. 285).
5. "Employees who feel included are more likely to experience greater self-worth as organizational members with organizational based self-esteem (OBSE)" (p. 285).
6. "Employees who feel included are more likely to help their coworkers manage and prevent problems, demonstrate initiative, show up on time, overlook inconveniences and care about their organization's status in the marketplace" (p. 285).
7. "…Authentic organizational leaders who foster inclusion will benefit from employees with high self-esteem who are willing to go

beyond the formal job requirements to help their colleagues and the organization" (p. 286).
8. "Organizational performance should be enhanced when employees work together to solve problems and achieve departmental outcomes, further creating an environment where people want to work" (p. 286).

The results of this study include an acknowledgment that a new topic is emerging in organizational research known as "***organizational inclusion***." Leaders are encouraged to develop strategies to improve performance within diverse organizations by determining the influence of organizational inclusion on organizational effectiveness and employee outcomes.

Demonstrating authentic leadership has the ability to have a significant influence on attempts to form a culture of inclusion Goals of authentic leaders may include assisting followers to discover the value associated with applying individual differences to improve functioning within the work environment.

Boekhorst (2015) developed a conceptual model that supports understanding how authentic leaders may become active in creating an "inclusion climate" within diverse organizations. Diverse theoretical perspectives support the development of this type of workplace inclusion.

### *Leadership Challenge*

1. How do you demonstrate "authentic leadership"?
2. How do you demonstrate the behavior of a leader committed to diversity and inclusion?
3. What are areas of improvement regarding your ability to demonstrate the characteristics of authentic leadership? or "diversity and inclusion"?
4. Develop goals for your areas of improvement.

## Conceptual and Theoretical Support for D&I Leadership

Social Learning Theory (Bandura 1977) provides an explanation for how authentic leaders may behave as role models. Role-modeling behavior will influence followers to learn "inclusive behavior" that

contributes toward the creation of an inclusion climate. Like ***inclusive leadership behavior***, which focuses on the active efforts of leaders, "***inclusive behavior***" may apply to followers by encouraging open demonstration by followers to initiate dialogue, invite diverse individuals to participate in the group, in diverse activities, and in making decisions that impact how individuals and groups function in an organization.

Institutional Theory (Scott 2001, 2008) introduces the issue of power and urges the use of critical thinking questions to explore when, why, and how social actors use their power to add legitimacy to organizational policies, practices, and procedures that foster inclusive behavior and development of an inclusive climate. Change agents within diverse institutions may encounter unique challenges within an institution that can enable or constrain efforts to transform into an inclusive work environment (Jones and Messa 2013). Institutional theory does not only focus on consensus and conformity, but also theory supports recognition of conflict and change in social structures that presents opportunities to consider "inclusive leadership".

Social Learning Theory and Institutional Theory encourage two levels of explanation and exploration for inclusion from a social learning behavioral perspective and institutional perspective that includes managing conflict and change. However, it is important to include the concept of "resistance" in this discussion regarding D&I, since leaders will encounter resistance to change

## D&I Resistance to Change

The following list describes reasons why employees resist change (Kotter and Schlesinger 1979). Employee resistance to change may appear logical or illogical to leaders in an organization whom are attempting to create a more inclusive climate. For this discussion, issues related to D&I have been applied to reasons for resistance to change:

(a) ***Self-interest***—Increasing diversity and inclusion may appear threatening as individuals perceive attention and acknowledgment for significant differences as the potential to lose cultural privileges for their particular group.
(b) ***Lack of understanding***—There may be individuals and groups who report a failure to understand the need to create a more diverse and inclusive environment. The meaning of diversity and

inclusion may not be understood by persons who limited the definition to race.

(c) ***Lack of trust in management***—Suspicions regarding the motives of management may occur when recommendations for positive change involve D&I. For example, individuals may assume that since there are a large number of Asians represented in management positions that the agenda is to increase the representation of that particular group and address their needs and concerns before other individuals or groups in the organization.

(d) ***Differing assessments of the need for change***—Individuals may perceive initiating changes in the existing culture are not necessary and will not make a significant difference. However, leaders may have a different assessment and consider D&I as an essential change.

(e) ***Low tolerance for change***—There may be individuals in the organization who have exhibited a low tolerance for increasing diversity in the workforce. Recommendations for additional D&I would only enhance thoughts and behaviors related to low tolerance for change.

Explanations for resistance to change and models to address organizational change are largely available in the literature. Kotter's Eight-Step Plan (Kotter 2012) might be helpful to leaders who are transforming existing organizational cultures to create more inclusive climates.

## A Change Model for D&I

The following is a description of Kotter's Eight-Step Process for Leading Change (Kotter 2012):

- ***Step 1***: Create a sense of urgency—Develop opportunities to create excitement and encourages people to step forward to change the organization.
- ***Step 2***: Assemble a power coalition—Ensure that this group has the power and energy to lead collaborative efforts for change.
- ***Step 3***: Create a strategic vision with initiatives—The vision should be designed to guide change to achieve specific goals and objectives.
- ***Step 4***: Recruit a volunteer army—Ensure that individuals are ready to initiate the change by displaying willing attitudes and urgent energies.

- ***Step 5***: Remove obstacles and barriers—Action can be enabled by removing threats to achieve the goal.
- ***Step 6***: Generate and celebrate small and large accomplishments—Be consistent with evaluating and monitoring accomplishments that are achieving the desired results.
- ***Step 7***: Ensure continuing acceleration—Increase efforts to use credible sources to change systems, policies, and procedures that are not in alignment with the vision. Potential employees who support achievement of the vision should be hired, developed, and promoted. The process can be reinvigorated with development of new volunteers, themes, and projects.
- ***Step 8***: Introduce Change: Develop the ability to articulate the connection between new behaviors and how those changes contribute to the success of the organization. Ensure a process for leadership development and succession.

Leaders committed to transforming organizational cultures with changes associated with climates of inclusion will benefit from using their skills to manage resistance and apply a model of change.

### *Leadership Challenge*

1. What are examples of the types of resistance that a leader will encounter during attempts to enhance diversity and inclusion in the organization?
2. Consider how to apply each step of the model of change to the type of resistance?

## Case Scenario

Hillary Houston has been Vice President of the Global Community Credit Union for 15 years. Her performance evaluation indicates a record of "exceeding expectations" and she has earned respect among the employees and her colleagues for demonstrating authentic leadership. The current President Mathew Blessing announced to the Board of Directors that he is retiring. At a meeting of the Board of Directors, consisting of males, there were concerns regarding consideration of Hillary as a candidate. The comments from the board members suggested that:

(a) A woman would not be able to manage the stress associated with the position as President.
(b) A woman would not be able to manage high-performing teams.
(c) A woman would not have the appropriate assertive skills or negotiating skills required for the position.
(d) A woman would not receive respect for her authority.

### *Leadership Challenge*

Develop a proposal for the board of directors that integrates the following:

1. Research concerning diversity and inclusion
2. Research supporting the benefits for including women in leadership positions
3. Addressing the representation of gender on the board of directors
4. Laws regarding discrimination
5. Include ethical standards that support diversity and inclusion

At this point in the discussion, it is appropriate to explore the application of D&I by organizations that contain diverse minorities. Despite the drive for diversity initiatives, the research indicates that representation by minorities in leadership positions continues to reflect very low percentages. The focus of the remaining discussion in this chapter will include diverse issues associated with.

## Minorities, Diversity, and Inclusion

Diversity in the workforce is good for business! Profit, productivity, social responsibility, innovation, and job satisfaction are elements that increase and improve when the workforce represents diversity (Abreu 2014; Catalyst 2011; Deloitte 2011). Research studies using diverse topics associated with corporate world indicate that diversity in the USA workforce continues to represent struggles for minorities to achieve diverse forms of equity in the form of salaries and leadership positions. Results from a study performed by Riccucci (2009) as cited in Leadership, Diversity and Inclusion: Insights from Scholarship (2011) indicated the following:

1. "Despite demands for equity, white women and people of color remain in lower-level, lowerpaying, and less prestigious jobs in non-postal federal government jobs" (p. 6).
2. "White women have made some progress in terms of reaching higher level positions, but their pay continues to lag behind white as well as Asian men" (p. 6).
3. "At general levels in the workforce, a plethora of representative bureaucracy studies have illustrated that white women and people of color hold government jobs at the federal, state and local levels in equal and sometimes greater proportions than their concentration in the general population" (p. 6).
4. "The study asserts that a key question in assessing equity within government is the extent to which leadership positions are equally distributed among members of different groups for effective democratic governance" (p. 6).

In the public sector, improvement in the employment status of women and minorities has been effective as a result of affirmative action but inconsistent, according to Buttner, Lowe and Billings-Harris (2009). The glass ceiling remains an unfortunate reality for women hoping to attain elusive leadership positions. In the areas of nonfederal contractors and academia, increases in employment for women have been minimal. Gender and race indicators continue to reveal wage disparities. An interesting observation has been documented by reports completed by the US Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015) indicating, "In 2014, 10% of women in professional and related occupations were employed in the relatively high-paying computer and engineering fields, compared with 44% of men. Women in professional and related occupations were more likely to work in education and healthcare jobs, which generally pay less than computer and engineering jobs" (p. 5).

Regarding the claim that women are more likely to work in the field of education, data were obtained from the Digest of Education Statistics (2015) revealing the following observations:

1. "About 80% of all faculty members with known race/ethnicity were White; 42% were White males and 38% were White females" (Snyder and Dillow 2015).
2. "Staff who were Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, or of two or more races, made up about

20% of executive, administrative, and managerial staff in 2011 and about 34% of nonprofessional staff" (Snyder and Dillow 2015).
3. "In 2012–2013, average salaries were about 22% higher for males than for females ($84,000 versus $69,100)" (Snyder and Dillow 2015).

These studies show that while there have been some efforts to improve workforce diversity, diversity in leadership positions in the public sector continues to elude minorities.

### *Leadership Challenge*

1. What are the factors contributing to these issues for minorities in post-secondary education?
2. Considering the information presented in the reports from the Digest of Education Statistics. Develop a proposal for diversity and inclusion that addresses each area of inequity associated with race, ethnicity, and gender.

## Women Leadership Diversity and Inclusion

Inequalities regarding women in leadership positions continue to be evident in diverse industries including business, education, health care, science, politics, and entertainment. Despite encouraging research studies supporting the "smart business" move to ensure gender diversity in organizations (Ernst and Young 2009), women continue to represent a very low percentage of senior-level administrators and executive leadership positions in the USA. In 2013, less than 20% of the top executives across 14 business and industry divisions included women (Colorado Women's College 2013).

Another interesting observation is that representation of diversity is more evident within the student population, yet the same diversity is not a part of the leadership structure. In 2014, "59% of graduates were women, 51% of doctoral and first professional degree students were women, but only 26% of higher education presidents were women." (National Center for Education Statistics 2014a, b).

In 2014, Reports in the McKinsey Quarterly revealed results from a study involving Sodexo, a multinational company. Conclusions from

these research studies serve as examples of multiple studies that provide documentation of vast organizational benefits for embracing inclusive diversity (Landel 2015).

## Challenges for Leaders of Color

The challenges for leaders of color are summarized in an extensive literature review prepared by Ospina and Foldy (2009). Explorations of concepts related to "race" and leadership" include the following:

(a) "How the racial identity of leaders influences perceptions of other individuals around them" Ospina and Foldy (2009).
(b) "How race impacts the way leaders enact their own leadership" Ospina and Foldy (2009).
(c) "How leaders grapple with the social reality of race." Ospina and Foldy (2009).

An insight for leaders of color is to consider constraints associated with their racial identity in relation to the superficial imposition of judgments of others. However, the challenge will be to develop multicultural ability to lead across areas of difference.

### *Leadership Challenge*

Respond to the following issues related to leaders of color that were revealed in the research literature. Develop a strategy for each issue using the language and research associated with diversity and inclusion.

1. Ospina and Foldy (2009) discovered a group of studies involving predominantly white work environments that document the constraints that leaders of color face based on how they are perceived by others.
2. "For a variety of reasons leaders of color are at a disadvantage because they are not perceived as legitimate" Ospina and Foldy (2009).
3. "When people of color are given access to leadership positions, they may still face constraints from their colleagues and subordinates due to power inequities that privilege whiteness" Ospina and Foldy (2009).

4. "Tokenism in organizational contexts suggests that the fewer the leaders of color, the higher the chances that their performance will be overexposed. Constantly feeling on the hook and under the microscope may lead to burnout" (Kanter 1993).

## Leaders of Color—Reflections

Strategies for leadership development programs include incorporating a reflective component. The following strategies for leaders of color were obtained from Research Center for Leadership in Action (2011).

Readers are encouraged to respond to the following reflections by recording any thoughts or feelings in a journal.

(a) "Participants in leadership development will be encouraged to reflect on when and how their race constrains or enables their leadership" (p. 14).
(b) To recognize if and when they use strategies that draw on and foster collective identity, and to apply a critical race lens to power dynamics (p. 14).

## Wise Strategies for Leadership Diversity Initiatives

The risk of "tokenism" may occur in organizations attempting to apply diversity to leadership initiatives. Because of unintentional stereotypes leaders of color may feel alienated. It is important to maintain focus on the goal to recognize valuable cultural competencies among leaders of color and integrate them into positions of leadership throughout an organization. Leaders of color should not be placed in positions to be recognized for their abilities while also being over acknowledged with excessive attention that questions meaning and relevance (Research Center for Leadership in Action 2011).

Future visions for leaders of color suggest hope for transforming perceptions of the leader and the ability to lead while not being hindered by distractions of "tokenism." Diversity by the number will be an issue of the past, and a leader of color will be recognized for being a culturally competent leader who has the ability to promote meaningful diversity and inclusion with global perspectives.

## Global Considerations for D&I

"Skills transform lives, generate prosperity and promote social inclusion" (OECD 2013). "The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) conducted international surveys, occurring in 2013, with additional updates scheduled through 2019. The reports include information from 40 countries that are associated with the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC)" (OECD 2013). Measurements within the surveys focus on specific cognitive and workplace skills that individuals need to participate in society and for economies to prosper.

The Survey of Adult Skills collects information on how skills are used at home, in the workplace and in the community; how these skills are developed, maintained, and lost over a lifetime; and how these skills are related to labor market participation, income, health, and social and political engagement.

Initiatives for diversity and inclusion support the goals of OECD. Global D&I will require leaders who demonstrate authentic leadership from a global perspective. Comparisons of issues related to gender, from a global worldview, reveal interesting observations.

(a) "Women are far less likely than men to pursue careers in science or technology; and, with few exceptions, women earn less than men with similar levels of education" (OECD 2013).
(b) "Women and men often take very different paths through life. Women are less likely to participate in the labor force; and if they do participate, they are more likely to be employed part-time and less likely to reach the highest rungs of the career ladder" (OECD 2013).
(c) "For working adults, policies can be designed specifically to encourage women to participate in the labor force. These could include providing affordable and high-quality childcare, improving the work-life balance through such measures as flexible working hours, and ensuring that women have access to senior positions" (OECD 2013).

Some of the conclusions within the report for The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) indicate gender comparisons that do not suggest discriminatory practices. Differences

between men and women include explanations that focus on different choices regarding employment type and life choice and the requirements of part-time work in comparison with full-time work. Leaders committed to diversity and inclusion would determine appropriate interventions by acknowledging global perspectives.

### *Leadership Challenge*

1. Review the observations from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) reports listed above.
2. Develop a proposal that addresses each issue by applying authentic leadership and goals associated with diversity and inclusion.

## Conclusion

Examination of leadership, from the perspective of diversity and inclusion, included examination of topics associated with organizational diversity; resistance to change; application of a change model; development of a theoretical framework; minorities, women, and a global perspective including gender differences. Throughout the chapter, leaders were challenged to use the language of diversity and inclusion to apply to case scenarios and develop proposals for change. Authentic leadership will guide initiatives to transform organizations and create diversity and inclusion climates in the global workforce of the twenty-first century.

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CHAPTER 10

# D&I and Effective Global Citizenship

*Judith A. Smrha PhD*

## Overview

Today we have students from all over the world sharing online and brick-and-mortar classrooms, either in their own educational environment or through interaction with other institutions and organizations via study abroad programs. The diversity found in the classrooms of most higher education programs is a consequence of the globalized marketplace and worldwide immigration (Banks 2004), with different nationalities coming together in a classroom environment to learn how to better perform in a market that is similarly multicultural and ethnically diverse (Malekzadeh 1998). This learning environment now mandates that students develop a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of different cultures and ways of doing business in different parts of the world compared to earlier decades. The goal is to develop global awareness and citizenship, leading to a consequent employability improvement as well as providing the global community with future leaders and effective problem-solvers. In response to these factors, higher education institutions have incorporated language within their institutional missions expressing their intent to develop global/international awareness and

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intercultural competency among their students, to create graduates who are responsible and effective global citizens (Hovland 2014). Educators are now faced with the challenge of designing and assessing programs that can achieve this goal.

While one might assume this emphasis on global citizenship derives its primary value in that it can enable graduates to be more "marketable" or "job ready" in today's global work environment—thus providing students with clear and tangible "private" benefits—promotion of this educational goal often coincides with the promotion of other institutional learning goals that are more frequently assumed to create "public" value; for example, social responsibility, environmental sustainability, public service, and community leadership. Indeed, many of today's higher education programs that aim to provide these public benefits invariably define them within a global context. However, while the social mandate exists, this imperative is most often expressed as a response to factors related to the workplace environment (e.g., a more nuanced understanding of what creates effective global business operations, and increased diversity and mobility within the workplace) as well as factors related to the classroom environment (e.g., a more diverse student body population). Indeed, as Jones (2015) notes:

> [There is a] growing awareness that the intercultural competence required for global contexts is equally important for living and working in today's increasingly diverse and multicultural societies. Research indicates a rising demand by employers for university graduates with enhanced global perspectives and intercultural competence, and students themselves are showing increased interest in international and intercultural experience. Internationalization thus has both global and more local intercultural interests at its heart. (p. xii)

## Defining and Assessing

With this new global reality in place, schools and universities around the world are compelled to provide students (and professionals who want to continue their studies) with a strong exposure to what happens in different cultures and countries. A careful examination of these efforts necessitates a review of how institutions are defining such terms as "global citizenship" and "intercultural competency," as well as how they are attempting to measure their achievement. The motivation for

the development and implementation of comprehensive student learning assessment within international or globally focused curricula derives from the recognition that the typical processes for operational evaluation (e.g., collecting data related to the numbers of students studying abroad or pursuing an internationally focused course of study) are insufficient if the institution wishes to learn if and to what extent its students are actually achieving the institution's learning goals, as compared to simply participating in the internationally focused curricular activities. This point is emphasized in Green (2013), as follows:

> Of central importance is the impact on students. How much, and what kind of learning does a particular course, program, or experience produce? The existence of a given set of institutional activities, and/or participation rates in various courses or programs, does not truly tell institutions what students are learning. For example, an institution may see rising study abroad participation, but that increase may or may not relate to the program's quality or its impact on students. Similarly, the creation of new internationally focused courses or programs does not ensure that students will acquire global competencies by taking them. (p. 5)

Beelen and Jones (2015) observe that "the articulation and assessment of internationalized learning outcomes remains relatively underreported" (p. 74). This research aspires to provide the groundwork for filling at least some part of that gap in the literature.

Institutions desiring to utilize student learning assessment tools within their international programming are faced with a broad and varied collection of options. A common choice is to utilize one of the many commercially available tests designed to assess a variety of aspects related to global and intercultural awareness (Fantini 2009; Intercultural Communication Institute 2014; University of Michigan 2014). These tests have been designed to fulfill a variety of purposes, including: assessing readiness for an intercultural experience, diagnosing areas of strength as well as those that require further development, assessing aptitude or potential for learning in an intercultural context, assessing attitude and disposition, assessing competency within a specific area or skill, assessing against a specific criterion or comparison group, assessing one's relative ability in a bilingual context, assessing one's intercultural development at different moments in time, and assessing achievement measured against a benchmark level of mastery or understanding (Fantini 2009). For the

tests attempting to measure behavioral or attitudinal characteristics, these tools typically utilize self-reported data from respondents to evaluate their development or progress along a given set of criteria or established scale. As a result, one criticism of the use of many of these tools is their dependence on self-reported data. Thus, they can create only indirect measures of achievement.

Student learning assessment efforts at many institutions focus on measuring global knowledge and intercultural attitudes at the course and program level: the former often by direct measures (e.g., tests of factual understanding or language proficiency tests), and the latter using indirect means (e.g., surveys or questionnaires). Equally important, however, is the measurement of student attainment of global and intercultural skills and competencies. Often this type of measurement proves more challenging to implement, particularly if the goal is to obtain direct measures of attainment. One approach well suited for assessing student gains from international internships is to obtain performance evaluation data from the overseas internship supervisors (Gordon 2013). Standardized rubrics designed to measure global awareness and/or intercultural perspectives (either developed "in-house" or by consortia of university faculty, such as the VALUE rubrics mentioned below) can be utilized to assess students' written work, such as responses to essay prompts derived from a case study focusing on a complex global issue (Landorf and Doscher 2013). Another approach is to utilize rubrics to analyze student performance on capstone projects completed either during or after an international experience (Gordon 2013).

Particularly challenging for many institutions desiring this sort student learning assessment data is developing assessment strategies that obtain direct measures of global learning and intercultural competency. One approach increasingly utilized within US higher education is the use of the "Global Learning" and "Intercultural Knowledge and Competence" VALUE rubrics, developed by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (Association of American Colleges and Universities 2014). While these rubrics are considered by many to be potentially quite useful, their ability to generate meaningful data requires that an institution create well-designed and appropriately implemented activities/assignments that will generate useful "artifacts" of student learning to be assessed using these instruments.

Student learning assessment experts are quick to note that a crucial first step in the development of effective learning assessment tools is the identification of a clearly stated working definition for the learning outcome being assessed. Thus, for this discussion it is important to consider the operational definitions of "global learning" and "intercultural competence" typically utilized by institutions. Unfortunately, there is no single widely recognized definition for either term. As stated in Deardorff (2011), "Fantini (2009) found a variety of terms being used [to refer to the latter], both within the literature and in regard to assessment tools. Among them are multiculturalism, cross-cultural adaptation, intercultural sensitivity, cultural intelligence, international communication, transcultural communication, global competence, cross-cultural awareness, and global citizenship" (p. 66). Possible explanations for the variety of terms used are provided by Green (2012): "The terms *international, intercultural*, and *global* are sometimes used synonymously, in spite of their differences. In other cases, value judgments are ascribed to particular terms, such as *globalization*, causing people to avoid using the term. Conversely, some prefer globalization to internationalization, ascribing more sweep and currency to the former" (p. 2). [Italics in the original]. Hovland (2014) and Whitehead (2015) observe that institutions use this language to promote a variety of goals, including a social justice mission, a worldview focused on the increased complexity and interconnectedness of the world community, greater levels of student engagement that can be achieved from the implementation of this "high-impact practice," or to emphasize the new expectations and realities that graduates will face in their careers. Furthermore, Hovland (2014) argues that an institution's understanding of what it means by these terms is enhanced by—and likely motivated by—discussions connected to the development of comprehensive student learning assessment processes and procedures.

For many institutions, this discussion around student learning assessment is occurring in conjunction with their consideration of the AAC&U Essential Learning Outcomes as defined by their LEAP initiative (Association of American Colleges and Universities 2013). Hovland (2014) observes that while the LEAP outcomes do not explicitly reference global learning, "they are consistent with national calls for innovative curricular and cocurricular designs to advance such learning" (p. 5). Utilizing the phrasing provided in the articulation of the LEAP

outcomes provides a framework for proposing a definition of global learning:

> Knowledge of human cultures and the physical and natural world…focused by engagement with big questions; intellectual and practical skills…practiced across the curriculum; personal and social responsibility…anchored through active involvement with diverse communities and real-world challenges; [and] integrative and applied learning…demonstrated in new settings and in the context of complex problems. (Hovland 2014, pp. 5–6)

Whitehead (2015) notes that the use of the term global learning "shift[s] attention to a greater focus on issues connecting the United States to the rest of the world. … [G]lobal learning focuses on issues that can be examined by all disciplines and that affect individuals all over the globe" (p. 9). Similarly, Deardorff (2011) proposes a definition for intercultural competence that focuses on the "*effective* and *appropriate* behavior and communication in intercultural situations, which … can be further detailed in terms of indicators of appropriate behavior in specific contexts." (p. 66) [Italics in the original.]

## Transformative Learning

Organizations typically develop diversity and inclusion (D&I) initiatives in order to foster this kind of intercultural competence among its members. The intent of this focus is the belief that developing this kind of competence will enable the organization to market itself successfully across a variety of cultures, improve the management and productivity of an increasingly diverse workforce, develop a respectful climate within the organization, and increase the recruitment and retention of underrepresented groups. Achievement of this competence implies displaying interculturally sensitive behaviors as well as possessing an intercultural mindset and skill set that allows one to operate effectively in cultural contexts outside one's own. Thus, intercultural competence is achieved through the development of appropriate knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors (Bennett and Bennett 2004; Leask 2015).

For educators charged with fostering a global perspective and intercultural skills and abilities within their students, the question remains: How best to achieve this? For many educators, this question has been answered most effectively by focusing on creating transformative

learning opportunities for students based on the ground-breaking work of Mezirow (1991). As Killick (2015) notes, "[t]he kinds of personal change which are implicated in developing the global self make '*perspective transformation*' a helpful construct" (p. 101) for developing the global student. This approach advocates that meaningful intercultural learning is facilitated through a "transformative" experience: Students face a "disorienting dilemma" that initiates critical reflection, motivating dialogue with others who have negotiated a similar change, which results in students putting this new, transformed perspective into action in their lives through newly redefined roles and relationships (Mezirow 1991). "[Mezirow] eventually named this process *perspective transformation* to reflect change within the core or central meaning structures (meaning perspectives) through which we make sense of the day-to-dayness of our experiences. Perspectives are made up of sets of beliefs, values, and assumptions that we have acquired through our life experiences" (Dirkx 1998, p. 4). [Italics in the original.]

Also noteworthy is the observation that Mezirow's original research focused on women reentering higher education via community college enrollment in the 1970s and thus is particularly relevant for educational programs for working adults (Dirkx 1998). In addition, transformational learning provides opportunities to create what educators refer to as student-centered learning, an approach that values student experience, interaction, and self-reflection as mechanisms for fostering both intellectual and personal growth. This approach enables educators to build a learning environment that can explicitly incorporate and value the differing emotional responses, life experiences, and cultural perspectives that a diverse student body represents (Killick 2015).

## Creating and Measuring the Transformation

Central to the transformative process envisioned by Mezirow (1991), however, is the first step: experiencing some sort of "disorienting dilemma" which propels the self-examination and critical evaluation of one's prior beliefs, assumptions, and perspective in order to achieve the transformed perspective and world view. Thus, educators are challenged to create an environment where students are pushed into this kind of self-evaluative cycle. Experienced educators will observe that while it might be relatively straightforward to place students into situations that "push them," caution must be taken in order to do so in such a way

to motivate the students to do the hard work implied by Mezirow's transformative steps. The situation must be personally compelling to them, something that they see as worthwhile and worth doing. It must be relevant to their daily lives, and something they see as significant or meaningful to their futures. As Dirkx (1998) observes:

> Knowledge … arises within the social acts of trying to make sense of novel experiences in the day-to-dayness of our lives. To be meaningful, what is learned has to be viewed as personally significant in some way; it must feel purposive and illuminates qualities and values of importance to the person or group. … Through educative experiences learners engage and confront novel situations which question their existing assumptions, beliefs, values, or images of themselves or the world. (pp. 9–10)

Killick (2015) suggests that this sort of personally compelling scenario can be achieved in a cross-cultural experiential context. Indeed, it is in such a setting that one is likely to experience "the shock of cross-cultural contact, the crisis of engagement, that stimulates the learning necessary for intercultural literacy … Without cross-cultural contact, the learning can only ever be about another culture" (Heyward 2002, pp. 15–18, as quoted in Killick 2015, p. 158).

How, then, does the educator know if the transformation had occurred, and to what extent does it reflect the goals of global learning and intercultural competency? A widely used approach for assessing this kind of transformation is provided by Milton Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity, or DMIS (Bennett 1993), which forms the basis for the widely used Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), an assessment tool for intercultural learning developed by Mitchell Hammer. "More than 1400 Qualified Administrators [of the IDI] in more than 30 countries have extensively applied the IDI in academic and nonacademic contexts. In addition, IDI-related literature is rapidly expanding and currently consists of more than 60 published articles and book chapters as well as over 42 PhD dissertations" (Hammer 2012, p. 117).

The DMIS model was created to provide a framework for explaining students' experiences as they confronted cultural difference to become more competent intercultural communicators. A person's development of increasing levels of intercultural sensitivity progresses through six stages, divided into two categories: the initial ethnocentric stages of denial, defense, and minimization, followed by the ethno-relative stages

of acceptance, adaptation, and integration (Bennett 1993; Bennett and Bennett 2004). The model is not intended to describe changing attitudes and behaviors, but rather focuses on a person's cognitive development, which then manifests itself in terms of observed attitudes and behaviors. "The underlying assumption of the model is that as one's *experience of cultural difference* becomes more sophisticated, one's competence in intercultural relations increases. Each stage is indicative of a particular *worldview configuration*, and certain kinds of attitudes and behavior are typically associated with each such configuration" (Bennett and Bennett 2004, p. 152). [Italics in the original.]

The IDI questionnaire is constructed to provide results that can be mapped along a metric based on the DMIS, referred to as the Intercultural Development Continuum (IDC). Briefly, the IDC is based on the first five stages of the DMIS (the sixth, integration, is omitted as it is a description of a person's cognition development after intercultural competence is attained rather than a characterization of its development, which is what the IDI is intending to measure). If a person's results lie within the first three ethnocentric stages, they are described as having a monocultural mindset. If a person's results place them within the last two stages, they are considered to possess an intercultural mindset.

A common setting for utilizing the IDI tool is the assessment of learning gains for students who participate in study abroad experiences, both short-term (1–6 weeks in length) and those of longer duration. As noted by Hammer (2012), "[p]olitical, business, and international education leaders often support study abroad opportunities based on the view that immersion in another culture will lead to students increasing their intercultural competence—their capability to shift cultural perspective and adapt behavior to cultural context" (p. 124). Despite this long-standing and pervasive assumption, Hammer (2012) further observes that "typical" study abroad experiences do not necessarily create increased intercultural competence (as measured by the IDI) as:

> … being in the vicinity of an event in another culture does not mean that one has an intercultural experience merely by being exposed to it. For many students, being immersed in a foreign culture does not necessarily demonstrate that they are learning how to shift cultural perspective or adapt behavior; even those enrolling in programs of longer, rather than shorter, duration are, on average, showing only marginal gains in intercultural development when left to their own devices. (p. 126)

In response, Hammer (2012) outlines what he refers to as the "IDI Guided Development," which is a set of suggested curricular and programmatic components that educators can use to structure and organize their study abroad programs. Many of these programmatic components are designed to provide students an opportunity to experience what we have earlier described as stages within the transformative learning process, particularly those focusing on reflection and critical self-evaluation. For example, "[c]ultural mentoring … involves guided reflection on the students' cultural experience [and] is a foundational development strategy of IDI Guided Development" (Hammer 2012, p. 130). In addition, Hammer (2012) observes that "*unexamined* cultural experiences do not facilitate intercultural competence development. Rather, experience plus cultural reflection result in greater cultural insights and increase students' intercultural competence" (p. 131). [Italics in the original.] Furthermore, empirical evidence suggests that these specific components increase intercultural development as measured by the IDI (Hammer 2012).

Given this evidence, one might postulate that the effectiveness of these components is at least in part a consequence of the extent to which they replicate the key features of transformative learning. However, as stated earlier, the most important feature of the transformative learning process is the initial "disorienting dilemma" that motivates the transformative experience for the student. This is not emphasized (or explicitly mentioned) in the IDI Guided Development framework. Some of the components that are included—e.g., "becom[ing] involved in the day-to-day life of host country nationals" (p. 132)—might create these kinds of experiences, but they do not appear to be explicitly designed to do so. Transformational learning is predicated on experiencing some sort of "disorienting" event and merely living in a new environment and "reflecting on it" does not guarantee this kind of experience will occur. Further, while the use of the term "disorienting" might suggest that the dilemma would be an unwelcome or unpleasant experience, as Killick (2013) notes, the "triggering 'dilemma' may include 'positive, joyful incidents'—'events that are fulfilling rather than distressing'" (Brookfield 1987, p. 31, as quoted on p. 184). Thus educators seeking to cultivate transformational learning can do so by providing opportunities for students that are stretching, challenging, and personally fulfilling.

An increasingly popular phenomenon within both secondary and post-secondary education is the emergence of international service learning (ISL), which combine aspects of short-term study abroad programs

with a service learning or community service focused experience. These sorts of experiences provide students opportunities to expand their international awareness while actively engaging with a local community in ways that they find meaningful and personally rewarding (Lewin 2010). To the extent that these experiences also provide students an emotionally engaging and potentially challenging learning opportunity, they can also provide students the impetus necessary for them to begin the process of transformational learning. Clearly, integrating what Hammer (2012) described as "cultural mentoring" and the reflective consideration of the students' experience that this entails would enable those participating in an ISL experience to move through the stages of transformational learning. Also important would be providing opportunities for students to translate their experiences and evolving perspective into action, for example, upon return to their home communities.

As noted earlier, capstone projects completed during or after an international experience also provide educators an opportunity to measure global learning and gains in intercultural competence (Gordon 2013). Integrating cross-cultural interpersonal interactions within these kinds of project-based experiences (e.g., building teams with a diverse group of students, either from the home institution or in coordination with institutions in other countries) can provide students numerous opportunities to identify and resolve the challenges inherent in complex project-based learning. When travel is either logistically difficult or cost prohibitive, Leask (2015) suggests a variety of ways that information and communication technologies can be utilized to facilitate cross-cultural interaction, either synchronously or asynchronously. Examples include inviting an expert in the field from another country to lead a discussion on an engaging international topic, asking students to interview students from other cultures or those located in other countries, and facilitating "mixed-culture online tutorial groups which examine ways in which particular cultural interpretations of social, scientific, or technological applications of knowledge may include or exclude, advantage, or disadvantage people from different cultural groups" (p. 84). In order to obtain a tangible direct measure of a student's achievement of intercultural learning, a student's reflective writing produced as a consequence of any of these experiences can be assessed utilizing a rubric based on Bennett's DMIS. One such example was mentioned earlier: the Intercultural Knowledge and Competence VALUE rubric, which was developed to utilize the framework outlined in Bennett (2008).

## Conclusion

In response to the increasingly diverse and multicultural communities extant within higher education and the world in which our students live and work, educational leaders have transformed their educational missions to include goals designed to develop global/international awareness and intercultural competency among their students, to create graduates who are responsible and effective global citizens. "Internationalization now features as a goal in the mission statements of universities around the world, and internationalization debates no longer occupy the periphery; they have firmly moved into the mainstream" (Ryan 2013, p. 1). As a result, educators across the globe, already challenged to fulfill prior expectations for learning specific to their discipline and/or institution, are now asked to also foster a global perspective and intercultural skills and abilities within their students.

Not surprisingly, much attention is being directed at how best to create learning opportunities for students that will fulfill this goal and do so in ways that can be measured so as to ensure that the learning is both meaningful to the student and realizes the expectations outlined in the institution's mission. Many have observed that this kind of learning is "transformational" by its very nature, and thus, the literature describing and providing measuring tools appropriate to transformational learning as outlined by Mezirow (1991) and others provides a useful framework for designing, implementing, and assessing these new teaching and learning strategies. Measuring tools based on Milton Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (Bennett 1993) provide useful behavioral and attitudinal constructs for measuring the development of increasingly more intercultural and global perspectives within students.

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CHAPTER 11

# Work-Life Balance in the Workplace

*Donnie Hutchinson*

## Overview

Numerous research studies reveal when leadership includes diversity and inclusion in the business ethics of the organization, it can have a positive effect on the health and well-being of all stakeholders (Sanyal et al. 2015). Work-life balance (WLB) in the workplace provides a new ethical construct being pursued by developed nations and public and private organizations around the world. Before the 1970s, the workforce was predominantly a homogenous cohort of males. Work-family conflict (WFC), the theoretical underpinning of WLB, was not relevant in management and leadership literature. The workplace began to diversify during the 1970s in many developed nations as women and working mothers began working full-time outside of the home. WFC research focused on the time spent at work was in conflict with family responsibilities (Boles et al. 2001) and study participants were usually female since they shouldered most of the family responsibilities (Kulik et al. 2016). National policies and organizational programs soon surfaced to help guide organizations to help employees and managers obtain stability

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in WLB. A diversity of WLB benefits appeared such as flextime, flexible working arrangements, job sharing, paternity leave, and working from home (McCarthy et al. 2010; Lewis et al. 2003). These and other formal WLB policies provided human resource professionals with a diverse arsenal of benefits to implement. However, the effectiveness of these benefits is questionable because supervisors found a 'one-size-fits-all' WLB policy complicated to manage in a diverse workforce (Darcy et al. 2012). Therefore, the implementation and use of WLB benefits were significantly influenced by the skills, attitudes, and decisions of immediate supervisors (Chandra 2012; Cowart et al. 2014). This chapter explores broadening the 'one-size–fits-all' policies to a 'create for implementation' design. Practical applications will be shared to help diversify one's hidden biases that might help mitigate unfavorable attitudes and behaviors of non-supporting WLB supervisors.

## History of Work-Life Balance

Work-life balance (WLB) is an international strategic concern that holistically includes balancing one's work and non-working roles (Chang et al. 2010). Greenhaus et al. (2003) defined WLB as 'the extent to which individuals are equally engaged in and equally satisfied with work and family roles' (p. 513). WLB has also been defined as the absence of work-family and work-conflict (Grzywacz and Carlson 2007). Whether one can truly be absent of conflict or equally engaged in work and family remains to be discovered. A more pragmatic approach is Greenhaus' amended WLB definition, which describes WLB as how well one aligns individual behavior with one's priorities in life (Greenhaus et al. 2006). The struggle of balancing priorities in life to obtain WLB has been a universal struggle valued by researchers and practitioners for only a few decades (Evans et al. 2013).

Work-life balance (WLB) research began in the 1970s in Europe and became a source of inquiry in the USA in the 1980s (Frone 2003; Smith and Gardner 2007). Before the 1970s, work-life conflict (WLC) and WLB were not subjects of inquiries since full-time workers were predominantly male while the female partner managed the responsibilities at home (Crompton and Lyonette 2006). Role conflict and time constraints became issues worthy of study once women joined the workforce in large numbers. The dual-earning family unit began to experience conflict from having too much to do in and out of the home. At the

beginning of the twenty-first century, researchers shifted their focus and began to include men as study participants. Today, men experience WLC just as much as women and are seeking professional counseling to help manage WLB in greater numbers than the women (Evans et al. 2013). Men and women of various ages, ethnicities, races, and countries who work longer hours than the standard 40-h work week experience the negative effects WLC has on WLB.

Working 40-h or less per week is considered a standard work week in many developed nations. However, the standard is often not the norm. For example, in 2014 the American full-time employee averaged working 47 h per week, with 21% working 50–59 h and 18% working greater than 60 h per week ("Gallup" 2014). Incrementally working greater than 40 h per week is correlated with health issues inside and outside of Western cultures. Health concerns due to long working hours include burnout in Taipei (Hu et al. 2016), increase body mass index (BMI) in Hong Kong (Mercan 2014), and an elevated risk of coronary heart disease in Korea (Kang et al. 2014). In Japan, two extreme examples are reported in the literature from working long hours. *Karoshi* is sudden death from cardiovascular failure due to overwork and *Karojisatsu* is the taking of one's life due to overwork (Bannai and Tamakoshi 2014).

Current empirical studies have linked the inability to balance work and life to job burnout (Nitzsche et al. 2013; Robinson et al. 2016), unhealthy behaviors (Lallukka et al. 2010), and a decrease in health status (Binnewies 2016). Decrease in employee engagement to job burnout originates from prolonged and excessive physical and psychological exhaustion (Kristensen et al. 2005). Unhealthy behaviors resulting from ineffective WLB practices of overeating, lack of exercise, and inadequate sleep patterns contribute to a decrease in health and well-being (Frone et al. 1992, 1994), lower productivity and absenteeism (Kossek and Ozeki 1998), and decreased job and life satisfaction (Duxbury and Higgins 2001). The necessity of achieving a physical and psychological sense of WLB is an ethical construct residing with nations and organizations to promote well-being and occupational success (Fenwick and Tausig 2001). American Psychological Association (APA) provides relevant guidance on how to mitigate the negative ramifications of WLB and self-care to ensure the safety of clients and one's professional services (Barnett et al. 2007). Nations and organizations continue embracing the WLB ethical construct by providing policies, programs, and employee benefits to promote family-friendly workplaces.

## National Policies and Organizational Programs

National employment policies and organizational WLB programs are found in developed and developing nations. National policies, such as maternity leave, provide a framework to establish the minimum benefit allowance employees will receive under the law from qualified employers. Over the past two decades, multinational, public, and private organizations have been aggressively building family-friendly organizational programs and work cultures. Human resource professionals are presenting vast offerings of WLB benefits such as flexible work schedules, vacation, and sick leave policies, floating holidays, and working from home to recruit, hire, and retain the most effective employees in a diverse workforce. However, the programs are underutilized because of two concerns. First, a 'one-size-fits-all' WLB benefit does not meet the needs of a diversified workforce (Darcy et al. 2012). Second, employees are not comfortable requesting the use of a WLB benefit because they do not receive supervisor support and have a fear of reprisal (Newman and Mathews 1999).

## One-Size-Fits-All—Not a Diversity Proponent

The strategic decisions of HR professionals to create a uniform 'one-size-fits-all' WLB policies, programs, and benefits are perceived to be in alignment with treating all employees equally. However, equality might be achieved more effectively through customization and flexibility. An organization choosing to offer a flexible work schedule with the goal of easing the time strain of WLC might find greater engagement in the benefit if the leader requests employees input. A typical assumption is to believe all employees enjoy Friday afternoons off work. A flexible work schedule benefit that dictates a single option 'one-size-fits-all' versus allowing employees to select from multiple options will not have a likelihood of achieving the desired goal. However, allowing employees to select which day of the week they would like to take their one half-day off would be more likely to achieve the desired goal while improving productivity at the organization since happy and well-balanced employees are more productive (Morganson et al. 2014). Therefore, the goal is to create and implement policies that have a high likelihood of usage. A concept learned from manufacturing.

In manufacturing, engineers had to learn how to design for manufacturability. The intent behind this concept was to design products with input from the employees who are building the product. Employees on the shop floor became notorious for helping engineers develop the most effective and cost-efficient designs that could be manufactured. In other words, engineers might draw an idea on paper to later discover the equipment on the shop floor could not produce to the required specifications. Similarly, HR professionals could design WLB programs for implementation and usage. Creating WLB offerings that employees will use will make employees feel appreciated, be less costly, and will be more effective at meeting the needs of the diverse workforce (Darcy et al. 2012). Therefore, diversity in benefit design is one measure of success. The other measure is inclusion. HR professionals want every employee that seeks a more effective WLB to engage in the benefit offering. However, a barrier to WLB benefit use resides with the supervisor not being inclusive (Chandra 2012).

## Inclusion is the Problem

Implementation and use of WLB benefits are influenced by the skills, attitudes, and decisions of immediate supervisors (Chandra 2012; Cowart et al. 2014). Since a company's culture is developed by leadership, it is imperative to train supervisors on the importance and proper management techniques of WLB benefits (Nitzsche et al. 2013). However, traditional training initiatives might be insufficient since supervisors are challenged at a growing pace to solve complex problems and manage situations that go beyond their skill sets (Diamond and Allcorn 2003; Steele and Derven 2015). The ineffectiveness of WLB benefits because of insufficient usage resulting from a lack of support from supervisors is a complex problem since it involves making judgments on requests containing reasons motivated by diversity interests.

The value of WLB policies and benefits are minimized if employees do not participate in the usage of such benefits. Research suggests generational, gender, and cultural differences among supervisors and employees are associated with unfavorable informal support of WLB benefits (Chandra 2012). In other words, supervisors might be more inclined to deny requests that are not understood or meaningful to them. For instance, a millennial requesting to use 10 weeks of the

company-sponsored paternity benefit might not register well with the baby boomer who never missed a day's work during the birth of his children. Whether the supervisor begrudgingly approves or happily denies the request, neither scenario produces a positive organizational effect.

Researchers also suggest employees may not opt to inquire or use WLB benefits due to concerns that inquiring or using the benefit might create a perception that one is not committed to the organization or may be treated unfavorably by supervisors with advancement opportunities (Beauregard and Henry 2009). This employee perception, and possible reality of supervisors, is a leadership problem worthy of addressing because the misalignment of leadership's words and supervisor behaviors create unpredictable and unreliable relationships with followers (Colquitt et al. 2015; Greenbaum et al. 2015; Simons 2002). If the CEO and executive team promote formal WLB policies and procedures yet condone frontline supervisors not following WLB initiatives, confusion and skepticism occur among team members.

Differences in the lens one use to view WLB value propositions and employee's uncertainty with requesting the use of WLB benefits are associated with the benefits not receiving much usage from supervisors who are not family-friendly supporters (Breaugh and Frye 2007). The non-friendly perception employees might experience include explicit conscious behaviors ranging from a microaggression of an unpleasant facial gesture, judgmental questions, to denial. These conscious behaviors might only represent the tip of the iceberg. It is well established in the literature that a person's implicit preferences, also known as unconscious biases, have significant control on behavioral outcomes without the person's knowledge of the effect (Banaji and Greenwald 2013; Nosek and Riskind 2012).

## Unconscious Bias

Implementing successful workplace diversity and inclusion initiatives are vital requirements of organization's seeking success in today's global markets (Steele and Derven 2015). Supervisors are challenged at a growing pace to solve complex problems and manage situations that go beyond their skill sets (Diamond and Allcorn 2003; Steele and Derven 2015). The difficulty supervisors experience in warranted behavioral change is not a problem of traditional supervisory training, skills, or the cognitive and affective initiatives to select the appropriate behavior or

decision, but of being blind to one's unconscious bias that can impede the person's cognitive choice to exercise their desired behaviors at the right time for success (Banaji and Greenwald 2013; Greenwald and Krieger 2006; Nosek and Riskind 2012; Rudman 2004). In other words, a supervisor's unconscious bias is making a judgment and rendering a decision on WLB benefit requests without the supervisor's conscious awareness of this effect.

Many people, including supervisors, are well intended on behaving in social or business settings that are in alignment with their good intentions. However, words and actions can become mismatched from known and hidden biases. Human resource professionals and attorneys are embracing the role unconscious biases might have in employment-related decisions including hiring, promotion, benefits awarded, and other employment practices (Kang and Lane 2010). Knowledge of implicit bias theory offers valuable educational opportunities to learn about one's hidden biases. Once learned, a person can choose to develop the conscious awareness of the hidden biasand position oneself to mitigate the effect of the hidden biasin decision-making (Banaji and Greewald 2013). For example, a WLB benefit request of flextime for a particular religious ceremony might traditionally request the reason for the request such as Christian Confirmation, Bar and Bat Mitzvahs, or Shahada. However, the request could be structured with a very generic description such as religious event. Keeping the request generic is a method to blind oneself of any hidden bias to make a fair decision concerning the request. Exploring unconscious bias and other inclusion initiatives might help promote greater inclusion success.

## Practical Applications for a Family-Friendly Work Culture

Family-friendly, work-life balance cultures exist when employees and supervisors perceive the organizational leadership believes their WLB is worthy of supporting (Nitzsche et al. 2013). For instance, millennial employees wish to be treated as human beings, dignified in believing one should work to live not live to work (Ng et al. 2010). The generational differences are material between Baby Boomers and Millennials regarding commitment to work and one's employer versus a commitment to work and leisure (Gilley et al. 2015). Millennials view work through a

WLB lens that was inherently developed by watching their parents work long hours and miss their adolescent school and extracurricular activities. Generational differences, coupled with cultural, gender, religious, and other diversity attributes, create a necessity to design and implement WLB benefits that will appeal and be used by a diverse workforce with supervisor explicit and implicit support. Strategic activities to promote a family-friendly, WLB culture begin with a formal evaluation of WLB policies, benefits, and usage. A cross-cultured WLB advisory team would be ideal in the redesign of WLB benefit for customization. Supervisor training on policy design and usage followed by a voluntary advance training on unconscious bias and using a team-based approach to implementation completes the practical applications to promote and build a family-friendly, WLB culture.

## Analysis of WLB Formal Policies, Benefits, and Usage

Promoting a WLB culture begins with understanding the formal policies and benefits offered by the organization. For the remainder of this chapter, policies and benefits will be used interchangeably. The value of this exercise is in the details. It is important to understand the mechanics of each policy; the flexibility supervisors have to customize each policy and the usage of each benefit. For example, if supervisors have the autonomy to set and change employee schedules to meet the needs of the individual and organization, then the flex-schedule benefit is considered customizable and flexible. Flexibility with WLB policies creates family-friendly, WLB cultures (Kinsey 2009). Alternatively, if a supervisor needs to receive higher authority to approve a change in the schedule, the flex-schedule benefit is considered a 'one-size-fits-all', non-customizable benefit.

Once a detailed list of all WLB benefits is created and the benefits have been analyzed to determine the threshold of customization, a usage analysis can be conducted to determine the engagement value of each WLB benefit. A substantive analysis will include all eligible diversity categories existing in the organization. For instance, if an organization has a paternity benefit, it would be valuable to understand how many employees used the benefit and what gender, race, ethnicity, age, etc. This process can be completed for each WLB benefit. The results could be shared with the cross-cultured, diversified WLB advisory team for analysis.

## Design a Cross-Cultured, Diversified WLB Advisory Team

Incorporating feedback from employees to include what they value in WLB initiatives and how to make improvements is the purpose of the WLB advisory team. The team should be comprised of a diverse, cross section of employees throughout the organization. Receding to the manufacturing analogy discussed earlier in this chapter about design for manufacturability, engineering teams not only include the production employee representatives on the design team, but also include shipping, receiving, billing, accounting, and information technology employees. The reason for this is because the organization represents a living system with many interrelated moving parts. The same is true for building a WLB advisory team. All cultures, generations, genders, sexual preferences, and races are needed to bring a diverse employee base. In addition, the employees should come from all departments, teams, and locations. This method of building a cross-cultured, diversified team will provide human resources with a valid sample of their population.

## Redesign WLB Benefits for Implementation

The overarching objective of the WLB advisory team is to inform human resources of the wants, needs, and wishes of the employees and supervisors. A common concern among some leaders is that if employees are asked for a wish list of WLB benefits, the organization might become a welfare state. However, the literature supports this strategic decision and does not support the concern of employees becoming greedy (Nitzsche et al. 2013). Employees are more inclined to tell you their real needs and how the employee and organization can both benefit. Therefore, charge your advisory team to begin communicating with all employees to discover their WLB needs and to provide that feedback to the human resource department. Essentially, the employees, supervisors, and HR department will design and build a family-friendly, work-life balanced culture for leadership's approval to implement.

## Train and Support Supervisors on Liberal Use of Policies and Benefits

Communication and training on current WLB benefits are essential elements to begin the inclusive change needed to uptake usage. Secondly, supervisors should learn how to customize each benefit and understand

the breadth of their autonomy to make WLB benefit decisions. As the organization progresses and gets away from a 'one-size-fits-all' mentality, the next and most important step is for the supervisor to create a plan to develop a personal and intimate relationship with their direct reports. An emerging trend in the literature is the positive relationship between treating employees as unique individuals and their satisfaction with WLB (Cowart et al. 2014). Individualized attention and acknowledgment of an employee's personal needs create an environment where leaders are perceived as being ethical (Zhu et al. 2004).

It is imperative for supervisors to understand the natural competition organizations and employees engage in with each other. Supervisors often make the team or department goals as the priority, while employees, although respect the company goals, also strive to meet their personal goals. Supervisors find themselves competing with the employee goals because they do not intimately know the needs of their team or department members. If supervisors become too demanding, employees might become resentful because their time with family, friends, and personal time is drastically diminished, which is correlated with fatigue, absenteeism, burnout, and quit (Nitzsche et al. 2013). A method to mitigate this competition and help create a win–win solution for the organization and employee is for supervisors to have an intimate knowledge of their employees WLB needs (Hutchinson 2016).

Supervisors can take a reflective look at how much time they allot for your employees to devote to their family and personal time. They can take an inventory of their employees such as spouse's name, the number of children, ages, the family's activities such as soccer, football, dance, and other extracurricular activities along with their personal needs such as exercise or leisure time. Table 11.1 below provides an example of the information that would be helpful to make informed decisions on how to best serve the employees WLB needs.

The power and value of the inventory list reside in supervisor's use of the information to proactively engage employees with WLB conversation. When employees feel the organization through the words and actions of supervisors believe the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being, *perceived organizational support* (POS) is experienced (Eisenberger et al. 1986). If employees gain valuable WLB benefits through the proactive actions of supervisors, POS is present and an intrinsic motive to reciprocate occurs through greater commitment

**Table 11.1** Inventory activity for supervisors

| *Employee dept.* | *Spouse* | *Names of children and Age* | *Family/children or employee activities* | *Season, day and time of activities* | *Employee's need* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| James A. production | Maria | Danielle 13<br>Thomas 10 | Soccer<br>basketball | Spring—Wed—4:00<br>Winter—Tues—5:00 | Leave work by 3:30 on Wed.<br>Leave by 4:30 on Tues. |
| Mindy Z. production | n/a | n/a | Exercise class | All—M, W, F 6:30–7:30 a.m. | Move start time from 8:00 to 8:30 |

to the supervisor and organization (Aryee et al. 2005; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002).

## Explore Advance Supervisor Training—Implicit Association Test

We are in the midst of a psychology implicit revolution where hidden biases are being explored as an influential source of guiding attitudes, stereotypes, decision-making, and behaviors that reside outside of conscious control (Banaji and Greenwald 2013). Tony Greenwald, Mahzarin Banaji, and Brian Nosek were instrumental in founding Project Implicit, a non-profit, international collaborative organization that began in 1998. Project Implicit began as a research center to investigate thoughts and feelings of voluntary participants from around the world. As 'Project Implicit' (n.d.) matured, an organizational component emerged to provide research, lectures, workshops, and unconscious bias consulting services within public and private organizations.

The substantial value for participants and organizations reside in the Implicit Association Test (IAT) instrument at the virtual laboratory of Project Implicit. The IAT is an acceptable and valid instrument to use in discovering hidden biases. The IAT can identify participant's unconscious biases associated with gender, weight, Arab Muslim, age, disability, Asian, sexuality, skin tone, and race to name the majority of biases ('Implicit Harvard', n.d.). Additional biases and continuous updates arrive as researchers discover new ways to test for a diversity of biases.

The practical application for implicit bias awareness training is to consider contacting Project Implicit to investigate how their services might be of value to your organization. General education on implicit biases within your organization should be done with a deliberate approach and assistance from experienced researchers and consultants. Project Implicit provides workshops that focus on diversity and inclusion, leadership, decision-making, and barriers to innovation as of the date of this publication.

## Summary

Work-life balance (WLB) integration in the workplace provides a new ethical construct for nations, public and private organization to pursue and attain value for all stakeholders. National policies and organizational programs and benefits have emerged over the past three decades to help employees and managers obtain WLB. The traditional 'one-size-fits-all' WLB programs found difficulty with achieving positive results and uptake. Implementation of these programs was highly influenced by the supervisor's skills, attitudes, and abilities to properly manage the requests. In other words, the supervisors acted as the gatekeeper of the benefits. Unconscious bias theory provided a non-traditional approach to counterbalance the hidden biases of supervisors. Practical applications for leaders and human resource departments included analysis of WLB policies, benefits, and usage, creating and implementing a cross-cultured WLB advisory team, redesigning benefits for implementation success, and training supervisors on liberal use of policies. Lastly, exploring the hidden biasrevolution through Project Implicit provides organizations with a pathway to develop substantial improvements in supervisor's self-diversity by helping them avoid the hidden bias from their decision-making process.

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CHAPTER 12

# D&I Framework: Diagnostics, Gap Analysis, and Action Plan

*Carlos Tasso Eira de Aquino PhD*

## Overview

Today, in the marketplace, it is almost impossible to be part of a company's workforce that is not characterized by a strong diversity in its demographics. (Bijak et al. 2007) Employees belong to different age groups, races, and ethnicities are of different genders and have different sexual orientation, besides leading, managing, thinking, and learning in diverse ways. There are people in full command of their physical abilities working side by side with other employees with disabilities. And people

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with different values from different cultures are responsible for leading and moving companies and organizations through survival and success employees are more likely than ever before to work with other employees with different demographic or functional backgrounds. When not managed correctly, with respect to diversity and through the exercise of inclusive processes and procedures, such diversity can undermine employee social integration and performance, resulting in a sizeable reduction in the company's potential for success and profitability. If managed effectively, by embracing differences and exercising inclusive processes and procedures, diversity cannot only booster performance, but also promote creativity and innovation (Joshi and Roh 2009; Guillaume et al. 2014).

Clearly, a comprehensive understanding of how employees react toward diversity at the workplace, and how this in return affects their work-related outcomes, is encompassed by the vision of any company/organization that wants to succeed in today's extremely competitive and globalized marketplace. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss a viable way to address diversity and inclusion to provide companies and organizations with a viable way to address DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT (Patrick and Kumar 2012). This could be achieved through the implementation of a consistent and effective FRAMEWORK that could be tailored to attend specific needs of companies and organizations in different industries in the USA, as well as abroad. The methodology will be described in detail and it consists of a diagnostics phase followed by a gap analysis and action plan.

## Historical Background

In the 1990s, Gardenswartz and Rowe (1993) published a Reference and Planning Guide to support organizations that realized the importance of a diverse workplace that emerged because of globalization. The book targeted on how to create awareness about the topic and how to obtain the right resources to successfully manage a diverse and inclusive environment. Gardenswartz and Rowe (1994) also published The Managing Diversity Survival Guide, a more practical publication, including various checklists, activities, and tips to prepare managers and leaders to effectively conduct their organizations through the new wave of diversity and inclusion.

One year before that, Jackson and SIOP (1992) put together a collection of scholarly works that included examples of important diversity initiatives, taken by visionary organizations, together with conceptual models that would provide companies with guidelines on how to

embrace diversity and foster inclusion in their workplaces. In this compendium of different experiences, an interesting framework to address Diversity Management is proposed by Roosevelt Thomas, Jr. (1992), followed by some guidelines for effective action (Jackson 1992).

Years later, in a seminal publication, Carnevale and Stone (1995) surveyed the diversity existing in the workplace in the USA and wrote The American Mosaic, a book that investigated in depth the status of the American workforce. The book analyzed different dimensions of diversity, such as racial, socioeconomic, cultural, age, and sexual orientation. The work made projections for a more diverse workforce in 2005 and forecasted that America would have a true advantage in the international context in the twenty-first century. This publication was a real milestone in understanding the importance of diversity management and the need for increasing inclusive work environments and motivated this author to develop the approach presented in this chapter.

Other important scholarly works were published before the turn of the century, such as Diversity Toolkit (Sonnenschein 1999). In that book, the author connected Diversity Management to the managerial skills defined by Whetten and Cameron (1998, 2016) for successfully leading organizations. According to this perspective, in order to manage and lead a diversity workforce, professionals needed to develop self-awareness, to be able to communicate in a supportive way with teammates, to build effective teams, to manage conflict, and to lead change.

With the rising interest for Diversity Management, diversity training gained momentum, with publications made available to organizational leaders and other professionals that wanted to understand and succeed in a diverse workplace, such as The Diversity Training Activity Book (Lambert and Myers 2009) and The Diversity Training Handbook (Clements and Jones 2008). Following the demand for more information and tools, professional organizations felt the need to provide their members and other professionals with diversity training publications. ATD, the Association for Talent Development (formerly ASTD—American Society for Training & Development) published two of them. The first one, The ASTD Trainer's Sourcebook: Diversity (Rasmussen 1996), provided the foundation for one of the more complete packages currently available in that area, Diversity Mosaic (Rasmussen 2007a, b and c). It also published Diversity Training (Wildermuth and Gray 2005). The focus on both publications was to provide readers with icebreakers and activities that would help them to trigger the awareness

about Diversity and Inclusion, while using experiential (Kolbe 1984) and social learning (Bandura 1977) to develop skills that would help them to embrace and profit from a diverse workforce.

## Motivation for the Development of a New Approach

Diversity and Inclusion literature has dramatically increased in the twenty-first century, with the spreading of D&I training among organizations in the entire globe fueled by the need of better understanding the potential of an increasing diverse workforce.

The author started in 2014 a Center devoted to the research of D&I, and, within two years, more than 200 researchers joined the Center, publishing more than 70 scholarly articles in peer-reviewed journals around the world, and presenting their scholarly production at more than 120 international conferences (Aquino & Robertson 2016). The author has also moderated many D&I panels in the USA congregating Fortune 500 and local companies, in which experiences and concerns about D&I have been shared. One of the main concerns was exactly the fact that organizations recognized that diversity training alone would not necessarily address all needs of specific organizations in their search for a more inclusive work environment.

Many leaders manifested their wish for having access to a more tailor-made approach being made available to their organizations. Each organization has a different matrix of workers and different strategic goals. Diversity and Inclusion have become an integral part of the strategy in many organizations that value the differences and want to increase their performance levels, like the ones of the leaders mentioned before. The awareness of those differences, in the many dimensions of diversity, has been addressed in part I of this book, in which we discussed the impact of differences in race, ethnicity, culture, sexual orientation, etc. Awareness, however, is not enough to produce the best outcomes. Each company represents a different combination of differences and become unique in terms of D&I.

The best approach for getting the best outcomes needs to be based on a thorough understanding by the company of who they are, who they are serving, and what are the expectations of our customers. A "one size fits all" solution is clearly an invitation to failure. Different examples from the literature show organizations that failed in their D&I initiatives due to relying purely on standard and/or third-party diversity training. As mentioned above, this discussion permeated different national panels

moderated by the author (Aquino 2015a, b, 2016a, b), in which a unanimous position among panelists and attendees indicated the need of a different approach.

## The Framework

Based on those discussions, the author identified the need for developing a framework that could address the different needs and realities existing in various organizations. The model proposed here includes three phases, namely *Diagnostics*, *Gap Analysis, and Action Plan*. The implementation of those phases can be done by an internal D&I team, but better results would probably be achieved if the company opts for using external members. This will give the team independence and credibility, particularly with employees and managers, that would feel more comfortable to truly share their perspectives.

### *Phase I—Diagnostics*

The diagnosis and evaluation of opportunities for companies and organizations that want to implement professional development programs in Diversity and Inclusion should be performed in three distinct levels: (see Fig. 12.1)

- Leadership Level.
- Internal Stakeholders or Operational Level.
- External Stakeholders or Customer Level.

*Leadership Level*
This represents the organization's strategic level, where values and guidelines related to Diversity and Inclusion for the future are discussed in detail. In the LEADERSHIP level, one needs to fulfill three sequential steps: (see Fig. 12.2).

- Interview leadership to understand their perspective on the current status of the organization as an inclusive work environment.
- Confirm the existence or help leadership on developing D&I goals.
- Be sure that D&I goals are aligned with the company or organization's strategy.

**Leadership Level:**

- Company or Organization's strategic level, where values and guidelines related to Diversity and Inclusion for the future are discussed in detail;
- This level expected outcomes are:
  - Diversity and Inclusion Goals
  - Leadership's perspective
- This strategic positioning will serve as the basis for developing a work plan that will be the core of the change management in the company/organization regarding Diversity and Inclusion

**Internal Stakeholders' Level:**

- The operational level, where all operations are discussed, with a better understanding what and how things are happening today and the development of processes to face and attend the strategic needs defined in the upper level for diversity and inclusion in the workplace.
- On this level, the perspectives of those in charge of operations (managers and employees) will be collected via diversity climate survey instrument and compared to the ones obtained at the leadership level.
- This level expected outcomes are input for a future gap analysis (together with the inputs from the external stakeholders) that will allow the preparation of action plan, including new processes + professional development program for all levels at the company/organization

**External Stakeholders' Level:**

- The customer/community level, where those external stakeholders are heard to get a comprehensive feedback on how the company's operations had fulfill the expectations of those who benefit from its business.
- This level expected outcomes are also input for a future gap analysis (together with the inputs from the internal stakeholders) that will allow the preparation of action plan to better serve these stakeholders in terms of Diversity and Inclusion

**Fig. 12.1** Phase I—Diagnostics

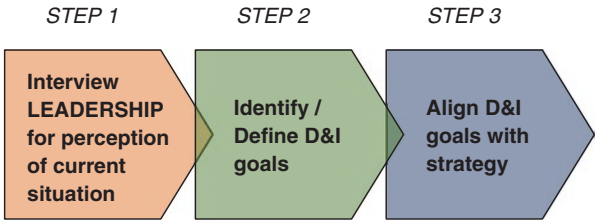


**Fig. 12.2** Steps in Leadership Level

The outcome of this phase is the understanding and correct formulation/communication of diversity goals aligned with the company or organization's strategy. In understanding the leadership perspective on those issues, and the ability to connect their vision to the rest of the company/organization, the probability of success increases exponentially.

This strategic positioning will serve as the basis for developing a work plan that will be the core of the change management in the company/organization regarding Diversity and Inclusion.

Achieving diversity and Inclusion goals will require the engagement and commitment of the entire company/organization in different activities, some of them very specific and others more generic and applied to the entire workforce (City of Edmonton 2013). Listed below are some examples of strategic goals that can be used by companies/organizations to achieve Diversity and Inclusion in their workplace:

- Have a workforce that broadly reflects the community in which the company/organization is located.
- Identify and address barriers and biases within organizational systems.
- Attract and retain a talented workforce skilled at working in an inclusive and respectful manner with one another and with the community surrounding the company/organization.
- Create processes, policies, plans, practices, programs, and services to meet the diverse needs of those the company/organization serves.

The achievement of the D&I goals will depend on filling the gap between the current and the desired situation, as well as through the deployment of goals into activities that can help their fulfillment. The action plan to be proposed in Phase III, based on the gap analysis performed in Phase II, will act like the transformation agent to fulfill those goals.

*Internal Stakeholders' Level*

The intent of this level is to get a clear picture of the internal stakeholders' perception on the current status of diversity and inclusion initiatives and what needs to be done to achieve the diversity goals defined by the LEADERSHIP and incorporated into the company/organization's strategy.

In the **INTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS'** level, four steps are in place: (see Fig. 12.3)

- Verify the existence of sound and thorough processes in place to clearly convey the D&I goals to all internal stakeholders and allow them to provide feedback to leadership about their perceptions and needs.

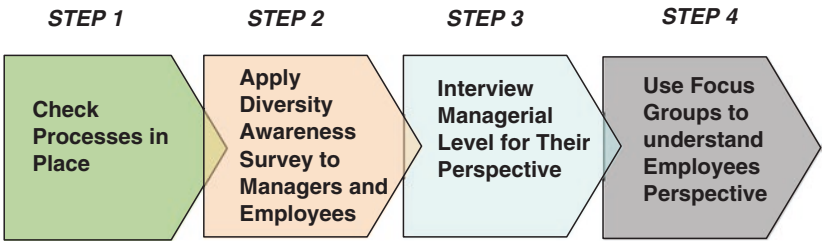


**Fig. 12.3** Steps in Internal Stakeholders' Level

- Survey internal stakeholders (managers and employees) to verify their awareness and commitment to D&I goals.
- Interview managers to provide them opportunity to share their perspectives about D&I values, goals, and initiatives existing in company, also asking for feedback on what needs to be kept and what needs to be improved and how.
- Use focus groups to randomly get employees perspective about D&I values, goals, and initiatives existing in company, also asking for feedback on what needs to be kept and what needs to be improved and how.

In this step, ***Surveys***, ***Interviews and Focus Groups*** are the instruments that can be used to understand and measure the differences between the perspectives expressed by managers and employees and the ones manifested by the LEADERSHIP. Special attention and caution should be taken when preparing the data collection to guarantee that different dimensions of diversity are represented.

Aquino and Robertson (2016) defend a multi-dimensional approach to address Diversity in the Workplace that includes various perspectives in an integrated way, as can be seen in Fig. 12.4.

There are many other topics that can be used to develop questions for the surveys, interviews, and focus groups to guarantee a more holistic approach to D&I:

- Self-Awareness (Sonnenschein 1999; Whetten and Cameron 2016)
  - Tolerance for Ambiguity
  - Locus of Control
- Unconscious Bias (Banaji and Greenwald 2013)


**Fig. 12.4** A multi-dimensional approach to Diversity in the Workplace

- Understanding others (Gardenswartz and Rowe 1993, 1994, 2003; Ely and Thomas 2001; Cox and Blake 1991; Whetten and Cameron 2016)
  - Supportive Communication
  - Motivation and Performance
  - Conflict Management
  - Change Orientation
  - Empowerment and Delegation
  - Team Building
  - Problem-Solving
  - Positive Leadership

The College of Information Systems, University of Maryland, has made available in 2013, a Diversity Climate Assessment Survey to ensure that diversity and inclusion were woven into all aspects of the College environment. The same survey can be adapted as a form of surveying employees of companies/organizations about their

perspectives of the topic in their work environment (Jaeger and Reverdy 2013). Stinson (2007) developed a very successful instrument to gauge the diversity awareness level of employees and managers. Although simple, the tool is an excellent introductory instrument to trigger curiosity on diversity issues among individuals belonging to a company/organization's workforce.

*External Stakeholders' Level*

In the EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS' level, a series of interviews and focus groups will be in place for the sake of better understanding how the external stakeholders, particularly the current and potential customers, see the company/organization under the lens of Diversity and Inclusion. This can help the businesses to dramatically improve their revenue and social recognition by understanding better what are the demands and expectations of their base of current (and potential future) customers and other external stakeholders. Some articles using quantitative approaches are found in the literature (Sania et al. 2015), but the focus to be followed here is a qualitative one, in search of the real causes of the development of a strong bond and loyalty between the company/organization and their external stakeholders.

As in the Internal Stakeholders' Level, it is very important that the data collected represent a variety of different dimensions of Diversity in the Workplace. Aquino and Robertson (2016)—and the other above-suggested references—can also be used as a basis for choosing the topics covered by interviews and focus groups, but for the sake of simplicity and fiscal sense, this author believe the following categories would be able to grasp the perspective of external stakeholders with respect to the current approach used by the company/organization to address Diversity and Inclusion issues:

- Generations
- Gender
- Race and Ethnicity
- Sexual Orientation
- Economic level
- Spirituality
- Disabilities

### *Phase II: Gap Analysis*

After collecting information about the different levels of stakeholders (LEADERSHIP, INTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS, and EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS), Phase II is initiated with the identification of the gap between what the company/organization expects to be in terms of D&I (according to the STRATEGY and the LEADERSHIP) and how it is seen by those who are in the operational area (MANAGERS and EMPLOYEES) and by those who can benefit from the products (and services) offered by the company/organization (EXISTING and POTENTIAL CUSTOMERS).

A thorough analysis should be performed and a final report including strengths and OFI's (Opportunities for Improvement) will guide the team in charge of D&I in preparing suggestions for the Leadership of what needs to be kept and what needs to be improved. Thus, the GAP ANALYSIS will lead to an ACTION PLAN to improve/maintain/create processes that can help the implementation of the Diversity and Inclusion goals, and also to a PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM, focused on improving skills and raising the company/organization's performance. Those components are crucial in an effective and efficient DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT.

### *Phase III: Action Plan and Professional Development Plan*

Both ACTION PLAN and PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM should have a direct connection with the quality principles as defined by the Baldrige National Quality Award in their Performance Excellence Program (NIST 2015). It is very important to keep in mind that, as in any other quality-focused process, the need for constant re-evaluations is key for keeping the company/organization always in the vanguard of any new approaches that foster the improvement of performance based on Diversity and Inclusion, as well as for correcting any emerging challenges or obstacles not addressed in previous diagnostics.

There are three overarching implementation requirements needed to support the ACTION PLAN (City of Edmonton 2013):

- Resources—People & Money
- Capacity—Capabilities and Competence
- Time

The ACTION PLAN will be in charge of carefully revising processes that are not resulting in desired results, as well as of creating new processes identified as necessary during Phase II. With the right processes in place, it is extremely important that the workforce should be prepared to use them in optimal ways through the use of the necessary interpersonal and managerial skills in an environment that respect Diversity, foster Inclusion, and booster PERFORMANCE.

The Professional Development Plan encompasses various activities that can help employees develop the right skills to use the processes in place and achieve the D&I strategic goals defined by the LEADERSHIP. It also creates a sense of motivation, since it signals the importance given by the LEADERSHIP to the feedback provided by employees and managers in Phase I. And it better prepares the organizational workforce to deliver the results expected by the external stakeholders.

The many dimensions initially considered during the survey/interview/focus group activities should now be revisited, and LEARNING ACTIVITIES (workshops, webinars, etc.) should be developed based on the specific needs identified during the GAP ANALYSIS. This could also be the opportunity to select external providers of training to deliver specific training that will fulfill the needs of the organization, if this option is less costly or more efficient than the development of in-house solutions. Many training guides are available, some of them proposed by consultants and companies that can implement them inside the organizations (Cook Ross Inc. 2011; Kay 1996; Rasmussen 2007a, b, c; Clements and Jones 2008; Lambert and Myers 2009; Wildermuth and Gray 2005).

Some checklists and case studies can also help managers to develop awareness on how a good diversity management can impact the performance of employees and the satisfaction of customers, such as the ones proposed by the American Hospital Association (AHA 2004) and The European Commission (Stuber 2012).

But the most important in this Professional Development is that, at this point, the organization knows exactly what is needed to foster an inclusive workplace. Employees and managers (and even members of the LEADERSHIP) should be involved in PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT and TRAINING programs to be completely capable of implementing the Diversity and Inclusion goals, and reaching the quality level, the stakeholders' recognition and respect, and the level of

revenue that is associated with those companies/organizations that are successful and have an inclusive culture.

A retrospective of Diversity Training in companies is presented by Anand and Winters (2008). The mistakes incurred in many of them should be a clear reminder about approaches to be avoided and attention to the peculiar needs for each specific company/organization being considered.

## Summary

This chapter presents a FRAMEWORK focused on providing organizations with a structured yet tailor-made alternative to managing diversity in their workplace. A three-phase model encompassing Diagnostics, Gap Analysis, and Action Plan/Professional Development Program is detailed, showing that managing diversity can also have a positive impact on the company/organization's competitive advantage, since one of the outcomes is to better serve existing and potential customers in their D&I needs.

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# Author Index





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# Subject Index





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