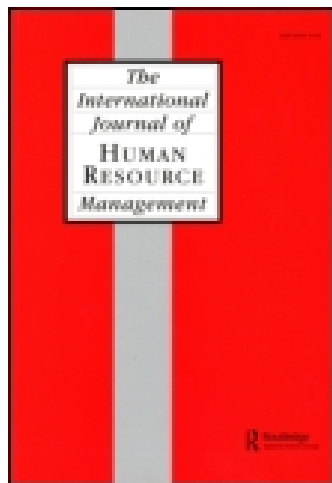


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### A global perspective on diversity and inclusion in work organisations

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## INTRODUCTION

### A global perspective on diversity and inclusion in work organisations

Elaine Farndale<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Michal Biron<sup>b,c</sup>, Dennis R. Briscoe<sup>d</sup> and Sumita Raghuram<sup>a</sup>

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This Academy of Management, Human Resources Division, Ambassadors' Programme special issue presents a collection of empirical papers examining workplace diversity and inclusion in a global context. We introduce this topic raising three overarching challenges: to develop more context-specific definitions of diversity and inclusion; to include dimensions pertinent to a global context in the definition of diversity and inclusion; and to consider the impact of diversity and inclusion practices on performance outcomes across countries as well as within multinational corporations. We explore these challenges through three diversity and inclusion lenses – gender, age and nationality – exploring global perspectives at the national, organisational and team levels of analysis. In conclusion, we present an agenda for future research.

**Keywords:** diversity; inclusion; international human resource management; national culture

### Background

The inspiration for this special issue comes from the International Committee of the Human Resources (HR) Division of the Academy of Management (AOM). The goal of the International Committee is to integrate and engage the HR division's global membership, and to develop and disseminate knowledge that is relevant to management scholars worldwide. To this end, at the AOM Annual Meeting in August 2008, the HR Division launched the 'Ambassadors Programme'. The Ambassadors are representatives of their country's HR Division membership. The purpose of the programme is to promote the engagement of the HR Division's global membership. Its primary goals are to (1) develop a series of projects that involve, engage and serve its global membership, (2) leverage knowledge within the Division and develop products that contribute to the research, teaching and service objectives of Division members and (3) promote the Division and the AOM in general to scholars around the world. The first Ambassadors Programme project resulted in the publication of the *Global Human Resource Management Casebook* (Hayton, Biron, Castro-Christiansen, & Kuvaas, 2012). The current special issue is the outcome of the second project.

Commentators worldwide, including HR Division members, were invited to submit papers for double-blind review to explore current advances in the field of diversity and inclusion from a global perspective. To clarify, we interpret diversity and inclusion as separate but related constructs, as substantiated in empirical studies: 'definitions of diversity focused primarily on heterogeneity and the demographic composition of groups

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or organisations, whereas definitions of inclusion focused on employee involvement and the integration of diversity into organisational systems and processes' (Roberson, 2006, p. 227–228). We address both constructs simultaneously to demonstrate how the literatures might complement each other.

This special issue includes articles that adopt an innovative approach to examining diversity and inclusion in work organisations, particularly highlighting distinctions between countries. The collection of empirical papers using quantitative and qualitative methodologies increases our understanding of what we might expect in diversity and inclusion in the future. The special issue includes both a comparative perspective (linking study findings to national contexts) and a strategic international human resource management (HRM) perspective (focusing on the subsidiaries of multinational corporations [MNCs]). The papers advance theoretical debates on the dynamics of diversity and inclusion, and add value through theory building, conceptualisation and operational implications for HR practitioners.

### **Framing diversity and inclusion in a global context**

Diversity and inclusion as a field of academic study is vast, spanning such disciplines as management, sociology and psychology. Consistent with the call by commentators in the field (e.g. Shen, Chanda, D'Netto, & Monga, 2009), we aim to enrich its conceptualisation to include more global perspectives. In doing so, we seek to refine current thinking by considering what is unique about the context of different countries, and in the process we hope to uncover new diversity and inclusion opportunities for individuals and organisations. To achieve this, we present three challenges that we believe the field faces.

The first challenge is to define diversity and inclusion within a given national context and related HRM practice implications (e.g. talent management, recruitment and selection policy, performance management, flexible working practices). This requires single country studies on a (traditional or novel) diversity and inclusion theme that analyse the country context to explain the results. Typical relevant theoretical perspectives might include new institutional theory (e.g. Ferner, Almond, & Colling, 2005: explaining the coercive, normative and mimetic pressures on firms to adopt diversity and inclusion practices in any given country context) and organisational justice (how perceptions of fairness are related to diversity and inclusion, and how they may vary across cultures; e.g. Roberson & Stevens, 2006).

The second challenge is to embrace the call by commentators for a broader conceptualisation of diversity and inclusion. For example, in studies of international assignments, researchers are encouraged to look not only at expatriates but also at a broader range of diasporas, migrants, exiles, refugees and nomads in the world of work (De Cieri, Wolfram Cox, & Fenwick, 2007). Another example is looking beyond diversity in skills to diversity in values: skills are related to structural issues of what diversity can bring to the table, while values relate to the friction points that emerge as a consequence (Raghuram & Garud, 1996). It is important, therefore, to explore research that compares a range of diversity and inclusion practices across two or more countries (e.g. exploring the extent of convergence or divergence of practices), based on institutional and/or cultural influences. Similarly, we need to develop more global perspectives of diversity and inclusion, considering the role of diversity of location or nationality on how employees experience work organisations.

The third challenge facing the field is to link diversity and inclusion practices to (individual, team or firm) performance outcomes, with a particular aim to understand the

relevance of national context. Utilising social context theory (Ferris et al., 1998), national-level factors such as culture, climate, political system, economic system and labour market considerations might be explored to understand better the linkages between diversity and inclusion practices and organisation effectiveness. The aim of such studies can be to ensure that the positive effects of diversity and inclusion outweigh the negative ones. Our theorising and understanding of diversity and inclusion at the organisational, team, and individual level might thus be enriched by looking to the level of national context.

The papers in this special issue begin to address these challenges. First, they focus on three levels of analysis to discuss diversity and inclusion on a global scale: national, organisational and team. At the national level, one paper explores the gender empowerment characteristics of nations in which diversity and inclusion practices are being implemented. At the organisational level, patterns of practices across organisations within a country can be observed and explained based on a broad range of national cultural and institutional characteristics. Four papers focus on this level of analysis, presenting individual country studies of Lithuania, China and Germany, and a comparative paper that includes data from the USA, Japan, and Germany. At the team level, three papers argue that diversity within teams affects a range of performance outcomes. Diversity can either be based on nationality, or as one meta-analysis demonstrates, national culture can affect the relationship between other forms of diversity and their outcomes (i.e. gender diversity and team performance). These multiple levels of analysis address both the challenge of defining diversity and inclusion embedded within a given context, and the challenge of exploring the role of national context in the relationship between diversity and inclusion practices and performance outcomes.

Second, the papers cover three broad themes of diversity and inclusion: gender, age and nationality. While gender and age are more typical diversity issues facing organisations worldwide, nationality is relatively new to the scene, broadening the conceptualisation of diversity and inclusion. By nationality, we are not referring here to issues of race and ethnicity, which are of course discussed widely in the diversity and inclusion literature, but instead to the country-of-origin of individuals within MNCs. As we will see, the contrast between the home and host country settings raises some interesting diversity and inclusion questions for organisations and for individuals. In the following paragraphs, we explore these three broad diversity and inclusion themes further, framing them within a global perspective.

## **Diversity and inclusion from a global perspective through three lenses**

### ***Gender diversity***

From an HRM perspective, an underlying question that arises from the gender diversity literature is what might be the appropriate organisational practices to support gender inclusion, that is to enhance female employment in general, and in traditional male-dominant occupations in particular. To address this, we first need to consider what might be considered 'appropriate' in different national contexts. Taking a cross-cultural perspective, deviations in HRM between countries can be explained by 'variations in managerial assumptions about employee nature and behaviour, which, in turn, are rooted in the cultural context' (Keleş & Aycan, 2011, p. 3081). National culture is therefore a potential explanatory variable in the adoption of certain diversity and inclusion practices in organisations, or the moderator of relationships between organisational practices and performance outcomes.

Based in this cultural reasoning, certain dimensions of culture might be more pertinent to diversity and inclusion than others. Specifically, some societies have better-defined gender roles compared to others in which gender roles are more fluid. The GLOBE study of national culture describes this as gender egalitarianism, defined as ‘the degree to which an organisation or society minimises gender role differences while promoting gender equality’ (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, Gupta, 2004, p. 12). Countries typically ranking high on gender egalitarianism are Hungary, Russia and Poland, while those lowest on this scale are South Korea, Kuwait and Egypt (House et al., 2004, p. 365). It is expected that more gender egalitarian societies will have similar opportunities in the workplace for both men and women, as gender is not a substantial element in considering a person’s capabilities or suitability. Roles in the home and at work are also more equally divided between the sexes in these societies, enabling more equal workplace participation (Aycan, 2008). A similar argument is relevant to understanding the implications of gender empowerment: a specific measure of gender egalitarianism referring to the extent to which, in a given society, both women and men are able to participate in decision-making regarding economic and political life (Klasen, 2006).

Addressing further the question of what might be considered ‘appropriate’ to encourage gender inclusion in different countries, we reflect here on a low gender egalitarianism society. In such a society, which is by definition male-dominated, there is the danger that women do not receive the same opportunities as their male counterparts to be recognised as potential talent in an organisation. Talent management is often implemented as an exclusive (i.e. discriminatory) strategy within organisations (Dries, 2013). The aim is to identify top performing individuals, or those with the highest potential for performance in management and technical domains in the future, and to provide these people with enhanced HRM practices to motivate and retain them in the organisation. By singling out individuals to take on this elite status (already raising diversity and inclusion issues in and of itself), a low gender egalitarian society is more likely to identify men for these roles as they embody the more masculine traits seen as desirable in organisations. A talent management strategy that is cognizant of such inherent biases would therefore need to be established to ensure that women have equal opportunities to be identified as talent.

The interplay between men and women working together in a team is another dimension where gender diversity raises interesting questions, especially in diverse cultural contexts. While diversity can create greater opportunity for innovation and creativity, it can also increase the risk of conflict and misunderstanding. The extent to which societies, and hence organisations, are able to support and embrace a pluralist perspective (i.e. equally valuing input from both genders) defines the expected performance outcomes of gender diversity (Cox, 1991). The cultural dimension of in-group collectivism might be particularly helpful, in addition to masculinity and gender egalitarianism, in identifying societies more open to pluralism in the workplace. In-group collectivism is described as ‘the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organisations or families’ (House et al., 2004, p. 12). In low in-group collectivism cultures (e.g. Denmark, Sweden, Netherlands; House et al., 2004, p. 469), teams are able to share ideas more openly across the sexes because people do not identify themselves as belonging to a particular group, that is men or women. In contrast, in high in-group collectivism cultures (e.g. India, Turkey, China; House et al., 2004, p. 469), a strong sense of self-identification as a woman, and hence grouping together with other women in the team, may prevent interaction across the genders.

### *Age diversity*

The second dimension of diversity and inclusion on which we focus here is age. Various commentators investigating work and aging have demonstrated that age impacts worker values, abilities and motivations (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008; Kooij, Jansen, Dikkers, & De Lange, 2009; Lyons & Kuron, 2014). This implies that HRM practices may need to be adapted in organisations as they seek to engage and retain skilled older workers – an issue of public policy with implications for the society as a whole (Kooij et al., 2009).

Research has established that conceptualisations of age strongly correlate with performance outcomes such as work-related attitudes. For example, Cleveland and Shore (1992) found that the employee's chronological age, subjective age (self-perception), social age (others' perception) and relative age (compared with the employee's work group), differentially predict job involvement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. What we know less about is whether these relationships might be specific to a given national context, that is does age diversity have the same performance outcomes in different cultural and institutional settings? To answer this question, we need to extend the discussion beyond the cross-cultural settings described in relation to the context of gender diversity, and also consider the national institutional factors affecting the employment relationship. Institutional factors can be described in terms of national business systems (Whitley, 1999), and include elements such as the role of the government, legislation, trade unions, labour markets, education systems, professional bodies and financial markets amongst others, which make up the environment in which the employment relationship is formed. This line of theorising argues that there are 'systematically interdependent configurations' (Jackson & Deeg, 2008, p. 545) across market economies, which can explain patterns of difference in HRM.

Patterns of age diversity are changing in many developed economies, based on a number of these institutional factors. Today's workforce is composed of four generations (traditionalists, baby boomers, generation X and generation Y or millennials), which possess unique characteristics (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). As the focus has shifted to the aging of workforces across continents, the groups attracting increasing attention are currently the traditionalists and baby boomers. According to Kulik, Ryan, Harper, and George (2014), the number of citizens over the official age of retirement is increasing while birth rates are falling in developed economies such as the USA and the UK. This demographic trend is affecting workplaces by more people choosing to stay in the workplace for longer, and nations increasing the official retirement age to reduce the pension burden on the state. According to OECD (2012) figures, while the average official retirement age for men across all OECD countries is 65, this ranges from 60 in Korea to 67 in Norway. In contrast, actual ages at which men retire on average range from 57 in Luxembourg to 72 in Mexico (both countries having an official retirement age of 65). This aging workforce has different motivations (Lyons & Kuron, 2014), and requires a different approach by the organisation's management to ensure that older workers' needs are met (Kulik et al., 2014). Furthermore, a workforce composition of old and young employees working side-by-side on the same team may pose unique challenges, dealing with different communication and information processing styles (Wong, Gardiner, Lang, & Coulon, 2008).

National culture is also an important explanatory variable for exploring a global perspective on age diversity and inclusion. Building on the previous discussion of in-group collectivism (House et al., 2004), identifying with an age cohort can also prevent integration across generations. In addition, methods of communication and accepted levels

of (in)formality often vary across cultures and generations. Cultures high on power distance ('the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organisations is distributed unequally'; Hofstede, 1980, p. 45) have a strong respect for seniority, whereby younger employees will be uncomfortable interacting with older, more senior members of the organisation. Yet, a well-functioning organisation needs to overcome these diversity challenges and better understand how to maintain performance outcomes from all generations in the workplace.

### *Nationality diversity*

Nationality is the third area of diversity and inclusion that we discuss in this special issue. This topic is particularly pertinent to the case of MNCs. Organisations operating across national boundaries adopt an approach to staffing that supports their internationalisation strategy. In a highly centralised, 'global' (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1998) firm, there is a perceived need to control the activities of subsidiaries around the globe to ensure that everything is carried out as headquarters intend (Harzing, 2004). One method to achieve this is to send parent country nationals as expatriates to operate the subsidiaries and report activities back to headquarters (Harzing, 2001). This, of course, leads to individuals of different nationality (parent country nationals, host country nationals and nationals potentially from other, third countries) working together in the subsidiary operations. This diversity can once again be considered a source of innovation and creativity, but it can also lead to conflict and inefficient business processes when considering the cross-cultural and language issues this scenario creates. The potential negative implications of diversity are heightened when the cultural and language gap (i.e. extent of difference) between the home and host countries is extreme.

Nationality, like gender and age, is again an extension of the concept of self-identity. As social identity theory (Tajfel, 1981) indicates, individuals perceive themselves in terms of being members of a relevant social group. Especially in an expatriate scenario, this sense of group belonging can be heightened due to the perceived support gained from associating with other expatriates also going through a similar experience in the host country (Leonardelli & Toh, 2011). This sense of group identity creates a divide that challenges communication and, ultimately, performance outcomes.

Solutions to creating more inclusive, high-performing organisational environments, and specifically more inclusive teams or work groups within organisations, are to be found in practices that enhance involvement and perceived fairness (Roberson, 2006). Involvement is related to creating a sense of belonging, ensuring that employees are given the opportunity to participate in decision-making, to be connected with higher positions within the firm and feel like a part of the whole (Lirio, Lee, Williams, Haugen, & Kossek, 2008). Perceptions of fairness can enhance inclusion further by creating an environment in which employees, regardless of their nationality (also age or gender), can feel that they are treated in an equal manner through HRM procedures, and also by other colleagues and managers (i.e. through procedural, distributive and interactional justice; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005).

As with the other dimensions of diversity, both perceived fairness and opportunities for involvement can be experienced differently by employees depending on the cultural context. Power distance may play a substantial role here, whereby in high power distance cultures there is an expectation that employees in higher positions will receive more favourable treatment in the workplace (e.g. higher benefits, a larger office, more access to top management) (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004). In low power distance cultures this scenario could be interpreted as being unfair, and would not create an environment that



encourages inclusion. Similarly, implementing practices such as empowered teams or 360° appraisal systems to encourage employees to feel more involved can actually result in employees from high power distance cultures feeling very uncomfortable with what they are being asked to do (e.g. evaluate the performance of their supervisors), as they are accustomed to a more structured hierarchical system. The potential problems associated with national diversity should therefore be carefully considered to enhance performance outcomes of inclusion practices.

### **Summary of the papers constituting the special issue**

The first paper, 'Support for part time work as a channel to female employment: the moderating effects of national gender empowerment and labour market conditions' by Eleni Stavrou, Wendy Casper and Christiana Ierodiakonou, explores the effect of the national-level characteristic of gender empowerment on organisational patterns of part-time work and employment of women. In an empirical study spanning eight European countries, the authors raise the very interesting question of whether part-time work is seen as a work–life balance strategy for working women, or merely a mechanism for a society to create more employment opportunities (i.e. a practice employed to attract women employees only in cases of labour shortage).

The second paper in this volume, 'Think talent - think male? A comparative case study analysis of gender inclusion in talent management practices in the German media industry' by Marion Festing, Angela Kornau and Lynn Schäfer, contributes to the gender theme by considering the issue of gender inclusion in talent management. The authors propose a conceptualisation of talent management consisting of five talent management elements. These elements are explored empirically in organisations in Germany to identify specific areas of gender bias and discrimination risk.

The third paper to deal with the topic of gender diversity is 'The influence of cultural context on the relationship between gender diversity and team performance: a meta-analysis' by Matthias Schneid, Rodrigo Isidor, Chengguang Li and Rüdiger Kabst. Through a meta-analysis, the authors investigate how gender diversity affects task performance and contextual performance of teams, moderated by cultural context (using GLOBE culture dimensions; House et al., 2004). Gender diversity is explored from two contrasting theoretical perspectives: information-processing theory (Mannix and Neal, 2005), which suggests that diversity increases the ability to exchange task-relevant information; and social categorisation theory (Tajfel, 1981), which argues that gender diversity creates group divisions within teams that prevent effective functioning. Importantly, the relevance of national culture is also considered, exploring particularly how this influences the social categorisation process.

The fourth paper, 'The role of work characteristics in enhancing older employees' performance: evidence from a post-Soviet country' by Bernadeta Goštautaitė and Ilona Bučiunienė, switches our attention to age diversity. The authors explore how age diversity relates to performance and how work characteristics moderate this relationship, in a specific national context of a post-Soviet economy, Lithuania. This country is witnessing an aging labour force, and there are considerable differences in mindset across the generations in the workforce due to the significant political and economic changes that the country has undergone in recent years.

David Drabe, Sven Hauff and Nicole Richter, in their paper 'Job satisfaction in aging workforces: an analysis of the USA, Japan, and Germany', continue this fascinating and topical theme of age diversity. They investigate how age diversity moderates the

relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction in three culturally and institutionally distinct national contexts. Their findings demonstrate significant differences between the drivers of job satisfaction for younger and older employees, but importantly, these differences are more marked in some countries than others.

Our final dimension of diversity and inclusion, nationality, is picked up by the sixth paper, 'Impact of nationality composition in a foreign subsidiary on its performance: a case of Korean companies', by Hea-Jung Hyun, Chang Hoon Oh and Yongsun Paik. The authors investigate empirically how national diversity at the team level (management teams and employee groups) affects subsidiary performance in foreign-owned MNC subsidiaries in South Korea. They find that the nationality diversity-performance association depends on the host country's institutional conditions. The paper highlights important implications for MNC staffing strategies, focusing on the balance between using parent and host country nationals.

Claudia Buengeler and Deanne Den Hartog, in their paper 'National diversity and team performance: the moderating role of interactional justice climate', further this theme in a study of how national diversity affects team performance. Critically, they explore how this relationship is moderated by the level and strength of interactional justice climate in the context of MNC subsidiaries. Their findings demonstrate how nationality diversity can both benefit and harm team performance, and that fairness is an important moderator in creating a sense of inclusion.

Our final two papers take a broader, all-encompassing approach to exploring diversity and inclusion from a global perspective. The first of these focuses on inclusion management in a single country context: 'Inclusion and inclusion management in the Chinese context: an exploratory study' by Ningyu Tang, Yuan Jiang, Chiyin Chen, Zucheng Zhou, Chao Chen and Zexuan Yu. The authors help us to understand better the concept of inclusion beyond the Western context. This qualitative empirical paper relates the notion of inclusion, developed in the Western literature, to Chinese equivalent constructs, and explores typical inclusion management practices employed in Chinese organisations.

The second article to take this broader perspective, and which concludes this special issue, complements the previous paper by exploring a range of diversity programmes, this time across multiple country contexts. Hilla Peretz, Ariel Levi and Yitzhak Fried, in their paper titled 'Organisational diversity programs across cultures: effects on absenteeism, turnover, performance and innovation', make the critical link between diversity practices and performance outcomes. They consider the significant influence of national culture on this relationship, testing their hypotheses using data collected across 23 countries. Their results emphasise the embedded nature of the impact of diversity programmes within national contexts.

### **Future research agenda**

Based on the wide array of empirical studies presented in this volume, substantial progress has been achieved in advancing our knowledge of diversity and inclusion from a global perspective. There are, however, always ways in which we can enhance our understanding further. We reflect here on some promising avenues for future research in this field.

First, we emphasise the importance of adopting context-specific research designs to allow a fuller understanding of the phenomenon under investigation, avoiding universalistic assumptions (cf. Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012). For example, Drabe, Hauff and Richter's paper in this issue focuses on the impact of the national institutional and cultural context in affecting drivers of job satisfaction, and compares the impact of age

on this relationship across different countries. One of their findings demonstrates that having an interesting job is an important driver of job satisfaction in all three countries studied (Germany, the USA and Japan), but that there are age-related differences only in Germany. The other study on age diversity in this volume, Goštautaitė and Bučiuniėnė's study of Lithuania, similarly describes how age diversity relates to performance, moderated by work characteristics in a particular country setting. Further research that expands on the detail of the national contexts is required to illuminate these types of findings further. Qualitative research may be particularly helpful in this regard, given the richness of the data able to be uncovered (Scandura & Williams, 2000). From a conceptual perspective, we encourage future studies to move towards a higher level of theorising, rather than being limited to country descriptions, in order to bring in greater generalisability and explanatory power.

Second, we propose that future research might focus on adopting an employee-level perspective to explain perceptions and attitudes towards different dimensions of diversity and inclusion across country settings. This addresses the need to consider not only the practices around diversity and inclusion that firms implement but also how they are experienced by employees (Nishii & Wright, 2008). This will provide us with a more detailed insight into how a practice results in changes in employee attitude or behaviour, by understanding the way in which the employee has interpreted the practice. By applying cross-cultural values to the analysis of these experiences, we might further acknowledge the impact of diverse national contexts and nationalities in this process.

Third, when conducting research on diversity and inclusion, we strongly encourage researchers not only to report results separately for each diversity dimension but also to try to combine multiple dimensions. Such an approach would better reflect the multidimensionality of the concept of diversity, and may improve the interpretability of the results obtained, especially when complex research questions, such as three-way interactions, are studied. Exploring the effects of both gender and age in mixed nationality teams in MNCs, for example, could facilitate a deeper understanding of the diversity challenges faced by organisations. The inclusion of multiple diversity programmes in a single study, as in the contribution by Peretz and colleagues in this volume, similarly allows for a broader understanding of organisational practices related to diversity.

Finally, we would encourage further research that expands our knowledge of various diversity and inclusion practices that are being implemented in organisations in other parts of the world where as yet little is known of such practices. Tang and colleagues' research in this volume is a good example of such research, exploring how the concept of inclusion translates to the Chinese context. What does diversity and inclusion mean in countries in which there is institutionalised discrimination, for example? As Klarsfeld, Combs, Susaeta, and Belizón (2012) highlight, countries such as India and Malaysia include positive discrimination in their constitutions; while in other countries, such as France and Sweden, diversity policies encourage the integration of immigrants into society. In other words, there are different priorities for diversity and inclusion in different cultural and institutional contexts globally, and it is important that we take these into consideration for future research in this field.

In summary, significant progress has been made in this volume to address the challenges facing the diversity and inclusion field from a global perspective. Diversity and inclusion has been defined within given national contexts, and relevant HRM practices have been identified. The conceptualisation of diversity and inclusion has also been broadened to emphasise the importance of nationality from an MNC perspective. And finally, diversity and inclusion practices have been shown to link to significant

performance outcomes, but the importance of national-level contextual factors in these relationships has been highlighted. Given these contributions, we hope that this volume stimulates further research exploring the relevance of a global perspective on diversity and inclusion in work organisations.

### Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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