

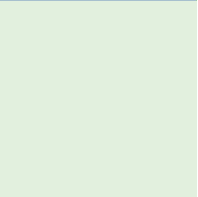
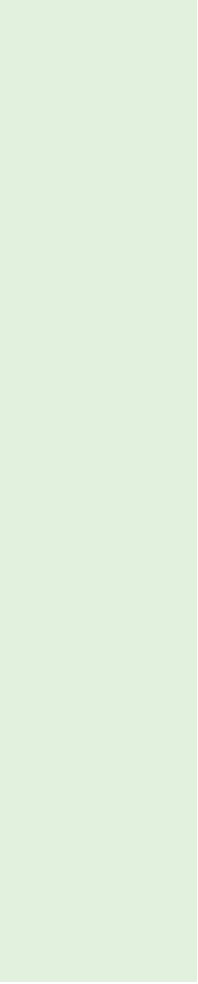
Human Resources Management Challenges: Learning & Development

Edited by

ANNA RAKOWSKA

KATARINA BABNIK

ToKnowPress





Human Resources Management Challenges: Learning & Development

Edited by
Anna Rakowska
Katarina Babnik

ToKnowPress
BANGKOK • CELJE • LUBLIN

Human Resources Management Challenges: Learning & Development
Edited by Dr. Anna Rakowska and Dr. Katarina Babnik

Published by ToKnowPress
Bangkok · Celje · Lublin
www.toknowpress.net

Editor-in-Chief
Dr. Nada Trunk Širca

Editors
Dr. Pornthep Anussornnitisarn
Dr. Zbigniew Pastuszek

Editorial Board
Dr. Valerij Dermol
Dr. Dušan Lesjak
Dr. Anna Rakowska
Dr. Bordin Rassameethes
Dr. Punnamee Sachakamol
Dr. Agnieszka Sitko-Lutek

Senior Adviser
Dr. Kongkiti Phusavat

Language Editor
Anna Mazur

Managing and Production Editor
Alen Ježovnik

ToKnowPress is a Joint Imprint of
Kasetsart University, 50 NgamWongWan Rd. Ladyao
Chatuchak Bangkok 10900, Thailand
International School for Social and Business Studies
Mariborska cesta 7, 3000 Celje, Slovenia
Maria Curie-Skłodowska University
Pl. Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej 5, 20-031 Lublin, Poland

Electronic edition · 2015

© 2015 Authors

ISBN 978-83-65020-02-4 (pdf)

ISBN 978-83-65020-03-1 (html)

Available at

www.toknowpress.net/ISBN/978-83-65020-02-4.pdf

www.toknowpress.net/ISBN/978-83-65020-03-1/flipbook.html

Published within the framework of the programme
Inclusive Human Resources Management Practices for Older Workers
(Project No. 538832-LLP-1-2013-1-NL-ERASMUS-EQR)



Contents

Foreword

Anna Rakowska and Katarina Babnik · 7

Internal and External Contingencies
of Organizational Talent Management

Tomasz Ingram · 9

Diversity-Oriented Competences:

A Major Challenge for Human Resources Development

Agnieszka Wojtczuk-Turek and Dariusz Turek · 31

The Importance of Cross-Cultural Competencies
in the New Context of Human Resources Management

Anca Draghici · 63

Self-Employment From Unemployment: Is It Worth The Effort?

Valerij Dermal and Luka Kalaš · 91

Age Management in an Era of an Ageing Labour Force

Iwona Mendryk · 105

New Approach to Human Resources Management: Green Jobs

Oğuz Başol · 125

Intergenerational Programming: An Imperative for Today's Workplace

Valerij Dermal, Katarina Babnik, and Nada Trunk Širca · 155

Adding Gender to the Age Factor

Daniela C. Wilks and Antonio de Oliveira · 177

Foreword

In the last decade, the concept of diversity management has become popular in literature and business practice. Nevertheless, the issue of employee diversity is not a novelty, it originates back in the 60s, when the matter of gender equity emerged. Since the 80s, there has been generated quite a heated debate on diversity management, mainly in the USA. Today diversity management has caught considerable attention also in Europe, which mainly results from extensive change in the business environment.

The aging society, the emergence of new generations of workers, the influx of immigrants, or the internationalization of business activities necessitate the search for new HR models and management practices, which will promote better utilization of the employee potential. Drawing on diverse human resources could become an opportunity in this context. Human resource diversity is commonly approached from two angles.

The first angle is the more specific focus on one of the aspects that differentiate human resources, such as gender or age. The second is the broader outlook that encompasses numerous facets. The concept of diversity envelops all employee traits, the visible, the congenial and the acquired, which determine the similarities and differences between them. The broad perspective provides organizations with ample opportunity and it is gradually becoming more common.

The second angle focuses on learning & development issues and mainly on employee competence development and talent management as key resources of contemporary organizations. In the monograph the development of employee competences is also emphasized allowing staff to effectively function in a socially diversified environment and enhancing their cross-cultural competencies. This very viewpoint is concluded with argumentation on framing the career path in the form of self-employment being a treasured solution for the perils of the contemporary labour market.

The whole discourse is completed with the image on challenges for the prospect HRM and it refers to changes that occur both in the labour market and in the socio-demographic territory. The notion of



age management has been delineated here as well as the need for implementing intergenerational programmes in the workplace as crucial elements in a HRM strategy. The final discussion centres on green jobs as not only a considerable challenge to HRM, but also as a key factor in creating the global sustainability.

We hope that the discussions presented here make a valuable starting point for further analysis, especially in the light of the changes in the present-day HRM and the search for the new solutions for the champion utilization of the human potential in a business organization.

We look forward to the welcoming reception of this book and that readers will enjoy the work and will find it worth being recommended to friends and professionals.

Anna Rakowska and Katarina Babnik

Internal and External Contingencies of Organizational Talent Management

Tomasz Ingram

University of Economics in Katowice, Poland

Introduction

The end of the 20th and the beginning of the 21st century are a period of intensive and extensive technological development. The speed of new technology commercialization, huge number of new products that arise every month exceed individual capabilities to follow and track them. However, it is not the new technologies that dominated the management science in the 21st century. In the era of information, paradoxically, it is employees' competencies that became the foci of researchers' attention (Ulrich, 1997). It is an employee, characterized by sets of competencies (understood as knowledge, skills, abilities and others – KSAO's (Motowidlo, 2003)), who helps organizations to create and maintain competitive advantage over its market competitors (Boxall & Steeneveld, 1999) and guarantees 'the edge' to the company performance (Bloom & Milkovich, 1998). There are many approaches to managing the most valuable assets of a company, including human resource management (e.g. Cunha & Cunha, 2004), human capital management (e.g. Ployhart, Weekley & Baughman, 2006), personnel management (Storey, 1986), and other. However, in the last 20 years significant attention has attracted the idea of capitalizing on competencies of companies' best employees labelled as stars, diamonds, and most commonly – talents (Bhattacharya & Sen Korschun, 2008; Garrow & Hirsch, 2008; Piansoongnern & Anurit, 2010; Ready & Conger, 2007; Tansley, Stewart, Turner, & Lynette, 2006).

During the last 20 years talent management has grown from a poorly structured phenomenon to the theoretical conception that is widely known and extensively described in the literature (Berger & Berger, 2004; Borkowska, 2005; Garavan, Carbery, & Rock, 2011; Poczowski, 2008; Zheng, Soosay, & Hyland, 2008). Although there are different premises of talent management as a field of study, its focus remains mostly unchanged. Talent management emphasizes special programs created for the purpose of employees' potential development (Ash-



Rakowska, A., & Babnik, K. (Eds.). (2014). *Human Resources Management Challenges: Learning & Development* (pp. 9–29). Lublin, Poland: ToKnowPress.

ton & Morton, 2005). When describing talent management researchers (Catlin & Matthews, 2002; Burke, 1996; Heinen & O'Neill, 2004) usually emphasize processual aspects related to the development of exceptional employees (talents) (Lewis, 2004; Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001). While considerations on talent management focus mainly on its processual nature, to date relatively little attention, has been paid to study its organizational level contingencies (Garavan et al., 2011).

This chapter, by concentrating on specific aspects of human resource management, addresses issues related to exceptional, talented employees. They are perceived as key resources of contemporary organizations. That means they have the capability of creating and maintaining competitive advantage. Thus, studies of organizational talent management lie in the very heart of contemporary management studies. Organizational ability to manage these groups of employees contribute to organizational wellbeing since they are people who are at the core of organizational processes (Bratnicki, 2002).

As stated above, talent management has acquired significant interest in the previous years. In recent studies researchers mainly seek to understand talent management program characteristics – i.e. the composition, shape, timing and other features. While there are also different (for example psychological) approaches to the problem, I concentrate on the organizational level of the analysis. Despite numerous studies the program characteristics rarely emphasize contingencies that affect talent management program characteristics. Even if researchers directly refer to strategy or the organizational culture they usually concentrate on a single organizational contingency. In the chapter I attempt to explore internal and external contingencies of organizational talent management and how they influence the shape, structure and other characteristics of talent management. Therefore, there are two main research questions underlying this chapter: what are organizational level and external contingencies of talent management? And partly the question related to the nature of the influence of external and internal contingencies on the shape (understood as a form, timing, scope and other characteristics) of talent management programs. Thus, it focuses on the organization level and external factors influencing programs/processes of talent management rather than on the talent management itself.

In order to fulfil the aim and answer the two above mentioned ques-

tions, I first carried out a literature review. In the first part I briefly introduce the contemporary problems of talent management. I used a modified grounded theory research methodology (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), based on assumptions and arguments of Charmaz (2010). This paper presents only a part of research results carried out in 3 companies (all three companies employ far more than 1000 employees in Poland). During the research (2011–2012) one of them completed a talent management program, one was continuing executing the program and many employees were engaged in it, and one was just preparing to put the idea into effect. The research results reveal numerous internal and four external contingencies. I briefly describe and ground them in empirical data. Further, I suggest employing contingency or configurational approach to further studies on talent management. The research results also prove that talent management programs do not capitalize on the best practice approach, which itself works great with regard to human resource management. On the basis of the grounded theory research of the talent management programs in these companies I formulated theoretical propositions, draw conclusions and prepare theoretical implications.

Theoretical Background

Talent Management: Next, Different Label to Human Resource Management

Human resource management attracted significant research attention at the end of the 20th century. On the basis of that interest talent management practices have been developing. Most talent management researchers agree that the beginning of the concept is the study of Michaels et al. (2001), however, the first signals of the growing importance of the most valuable employees of a company can be observed in the literature much earlier (Derr, Jones & Toomey, 1988; Northcraft, Griffith & Shalley, 1992). The term ‘talent management’ became popular in the late 90s, but ‘high potential employees’ or simply ‘high potentials’ had been studied in management literature much earlier (i.e. Burke, 1996). Earlier ideas failed to become popular because they fell on unsuitable ground. The beginning of the 21st century was characterized by high industrialization of China and the need of exceptionally good workers became apparent at that time. It was China that reported the ‘lack of talents,’ but the war for exceptional employees occurred earlier, for example, in the USA in the form of campus re-

cruitment. Nonetheless, the work of three practitioners (Michaels et al., 2001) became the research trigger and started to attract more and more attention.

The theory at the beginning of the 21st century did not bring too many answers to the question how organization should effectively manage their talent pool, despite practically oriented, short, best practice based works which tell what to do and what should be avoided (Mucha, 2004). However, in the recent years numerous publications on that topic began to appear (de Bettignies & Chemla, 2008; Frank & Taylor, 2004; Romans, Frost & Ford, 2006; Stahl et al., 2012). These publications focus on best practices and that tendency seems to derive from the predominant approach to human resource management (Ulrich, 1997). Rynes, Brown and Colbert (2002), Colbert (2004), as well as much earlier Delery and Doty (1996), in the most influential management journals broadly criticised the best practice idea because of the inability of idiosyncratic practices to create and maintain longitudinal competitive advantage (Lado, Boyd, Wright & Kroll, 2006). One, simple way of argumentation against best practice as a legitimate managerial approach results from its characteristics. While best practice can easily be copied and introduced in different organizational settings, it is of a relatively low value (resulting from the ability of a large number of organizations to imitate them) and therefore, the fact make it a source of competitive advantage only for a relatively short period of time. Thus, it can be argued that the dominant talent management paradigm, based on best practices is built on unstable and dubious ontological, epistemological, and methodological background. The search for competitive edge through idiosyncratic capabilities cannot lead to anything better than brief (short) advantage over competitors who are able to creatively imitate actions of successful organizations. It also provokes another question of how different talent management actually is from the known conceptions of managing employees within organization.

In order to answer the question I performed a literature review. To compare talent management models to the conception of managing employees within an organization two choices had to be made. The first was about the object of comparison – the choice was not obvious, but I decided to compare talent management models to Michigan HRM model (Tichy, Fombrun, & Devanna, 1982) as it is one of the most popular and comprehensive approaches to human resource management

TABLE 1 Comparison of the Chosen Talent Management Models to Michigan HRM Model

Elements of Michigan model	Ashton and Morton (2005)	Berger and Berger (2004)	Burke (1996)	Ensley and Ensley (2011)	Frank and Taylor (2004)	Heinen and O'Neill (2004)	Mucha (2004)	Romans and Frost (2006)	Oehley and Theron (2010)	Stahl et al. (2012)
Internal contingencies	±	-	±	-	-	±	-	-	-	+
External contingencies	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	±
Selection	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Assessment	-	±	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+
Compensation	+	±	±	-	±	+	-	+	+	+
Development	+	+	+	+	±	±	+	+	+	+
Elements not enclosed in Michigan model	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+

NOTES + the element is included in the model, - the element is not included in the model, ± the model refers to an element to some extent or the element is differently called.

(the most popular approach to people management in companies). The second choice was related to talent management models for comparison. I used Ebsco Host Database and located papers by searching for 'talent management' in the reviewed articles and the scientific journals (except for Burke's (1996) work that was located searching for high potential employees). All located papers were analysed and the ones containing models (graphical representations) were included into the review. The comparison of talent management models with Michigan Human Resource Management model (Tichy et al., 1982) is presented in Table 1.

Table shows that the authors, intentionally or unintentionally, fail to differentiate significantly from one of the main HRM models. It is especially interesting that their models are not based on empirical research results. The analysis of talent management models also reveals that they are not teleological - while the Michigan model is. The above analysed models are structural, but these conceptions contain elements of a process embedded into structural frames and the authors frequently refer to processuality or the project nature of tal-

ent management. They clearly refer to the selection of best employees (i.e. Ashton & Morton, 2005), and the assessment of their performance (Burke, 1996). The models emphasize the need to reward talents fairly (Oehley & Theron, 2010) and invest in their development (Mucha, 2004). Thus, they are highly utilitarian and practical in nature. The comparison presented above leads to a significant question: why did the authors, while having the possibility to choose diverse frames of reference, choose human resource management as a starting point? It is especially interesting since HRM emphasizes equality of employees (for example, equal selection criteria, transparent, equal for everyone compensation methods, training to improve competencies, adequacy of competencies with the competency profiles, even applying performance evaluation methods to everyone, et cetera). On the other hand, talents should be treated differently, not in the same manner as the rest of employees. They create a chosen group of employees within the organization, and equality does not seem to fit well in the way they are managed. They are, in practice, treated equally to the other employees, while their potential and the real significance for the organizations calls for a special treatment.

Within the recent years talent management theory (created by the increase of research) tries to develop its own, distinguished position in the management field (Garavan et al., 2011; Reilly, 2008), but until theoretical models fail to strongly differentiate from HRM conceptions research attempts are doomed to failure.

Talent Management Contingencies: Factors That Matter

Although a lot has been written on talent management, little effort has been made to present factors affecting these issues in organizations. Different authors present diverse sets of contingencies that shape talent management, but these factors are not a crucial aspect of their work. I will concentrate on aforementioned presented talent management models and enrich the analysis with issues raised in the most recent studies to illustrate how contingencies are presented and how their influence on talent management is explained. These contingencies will be identified in ten works (examined in the previous part, presented in Table 1).

Ashton and Morton (2004), in their conceptual model draw the attention to several contingencies, among others: the organizational climate (culture), values, leadership, structures, policies, processes,

strategies and international environment. Although the authors present a long list of factors, they just restrict to the statement that these contingencies influence talent management. The model itself is addressed rather to practitioners than to researchers. Its operationalization would be challenging because the model was meant to be exhaustive. Stahl et al. (2012) present a similarly impressive list of contingencies. Their wheel of talent management, which concentrates on the definition of talent, emphasizes 5 factors influencing talent management practices. They are: the organizational strategy, culture, manager involvement, organization brand (enlisted as branding activities) and balance between local and global needs. The sixth contingency is comprised of internal consistency of processes/practices that create talent management. Berger and Berger (2004), in turn, restrict to only one factor affecting talent management – all employees of the company. Such an approach, in the light of Ashton and Morton's (2004) concept, is scarce and not exhaustive. Burke (1996), indicates two important contingencies within the model: the organizational strategy and leadership. The organizational strategy is also emphasized as the most influential contingency in Heinen and O'Neill's (2004) study. Oehler and Theron (2010) list only one important factor, which is talent management mind-set. Frank and Taylor (2004), Mucha (2004), Romans and Frost (2006) as well as Ensley and Ensley (2011) present their models either as processes, unaffected by organizational and environmental conditions or as a psychological construct (Ensley & Ensley, 2011).

The authors frequently concentrate on strategic aspects of talent management. For example, Downs and Swailes (2013), describing organizational talent management, relate it to the dynamic capabilities theory. Therefore, they root talent management in the strategic management theory and clearly relate it to the ability to gain and maintain competitive advantage. Lawler (2009) treats the topic similarly, emphasizing strategic aspects of talent management. Schuler, Jackson, and Tarique (2011) ground talent management in the theory of international human resource management, arguing that it comprises of a strategic chance for an organization. Khatri, Gupta, Gulati, and Santosh (2010) keep the same line of argumentation. Thunnissen, Noseli, and Fruytier (2013) place talent management in the organizational context and claim that the results of talent management may be understood at three levels: individual, organizational and societal. Collings

and Mellahi (2009) introduce the concept of strategic talent management which is formulated by differentiated HR architecture, composed of talent pool, shaped by internal and external labour market, and most important jobs. Kehinde (2012) concentrates on the influence of talent management on organizational level results. It suggests that talent management should be analysed at the organizational level. Ensley, Carland, Ensley, and Carland (2011) describing theoretical basis of talent management and its roots concentrate on issues of leadership and strategic fit (related to workers adaptation to leadership roles). Piansoongnern and Anurit (2010) raise the issue of fit, but they relate it to external factors shaping talent management programs. Vaiman, Scullion, and Collings (2012) underline the role of external factors for decision making regarding talent management in organizations. They focus attention on talent lack, demographical and societal changes and trends, social responsibility of business, diversity, increasing mobility, permanent orientation on knowledge based economy and increasing significance of new markets. In turn, Hoglund (2012) concentrates on psychological contracts between organization and talents. Psychological contract helps to assess to what extent exceptional competencies are rewarded and what are mutual relationships between perception of psychological contract and individual motivation to develop competencies. Psychological aspects of talent management are undertaken by Dries (2013). Author formulates questions regarding the nature of talentship, the existence of talents within population, possibilities of talent crafting, relationships between abilities and motivation and mutual relationships between talent and environment in which he operates. Table 2 summarizes the literature review results.

Neither is the presented list meant to be exhaustive, nor the literature review, thus, it is only to illustrate how the extensive talent management literature approaches the issue of contingencies. Despite the presented studies, the authors prefer to focus rather on the process or project itself, than factors that shape it. This tendency can be explained by: practical orientation of presented models and their practical roots and lack of carefully designed empirical studies on talent management. Just recent works presented above emphasize the role of factors shaping talent management, but these studies relate talent to various elements and getting to the point at which the list of contingencies is commonly shared among researchers is far beyond reach. Presented models or contingencies listed in presented papers are dif-

TABLE 2 Talent Management Contingencies

Study	Talent management contingencies
Ashton and Morton (2005)	Organizational climate, values, leadership, structures, policies, processes, strategy, international environment
Berger and Berger (2004)	All employees
Burke (1996)	Strategy, leadership
Collings and Mellahi (2009)	Talent pool, internal and external labour market, most important jobs
Downs and Swailes (2013)	Organizational level results, dynamic capabilities
Dries (2013)	Nature of talentship, existence of talents in population, talent crafting, abilities and motivation, external (for individual) environment
Ensley et al. (2011)	Leadership, strategic fit, workers adaptation to leadership roles
Heinen and O'Neill (2004)	Strategy
Hoglund (2012)	Psychological contract, competencies, individual motivation
Kehinde (2012)	Organizational level results
Oehley and Theron (2010)	Talent management mind-set
Piansoongnern and Anurit (2010)	External factors, fit to environment
Schuler et al. (2011)	International human resource management perspective, strategic chance
Stahl et al. (2012)	Managers involvement, strategy, culture, brand, balance between local/global needs, internal consistency
Thunnissen et al. (2013)	Organizational context, understood at three levels: individual, organization, societal
Vaiman et al. (2012)	Talent lack, demographical and societal changes and trends, social responsibility of business, diversity, increasing mobility, permanent orientation on knowledge based economy, increasing significance of new markets, fit to external environment

difficult to operationalize and constructs used within them are hard to measure. While there is no solid theoretical background it is rational to use qualitative methods of research to explore the unexplored. In the next part of the paper methodology of research is explained.

Methodology

Research Design

In order to reach the aim of the paper and answer the research questions I will use a part of the empirical research results from the study

carried out between September 2011 and November 2012 in three companies located in Poland (2 headquarters were located in Warsaw, 1 in Tychy). In that research project I used the grounded theory approach as suggested and described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) with the modifications proposed by Charmaz (2009). I decided to study only large companies, since mainly in such conditions talent management programs occur and function. The only criterion of differentiation of the companies was if the company had a talent management program (or not) and at what 'stage' the program was. The basic question here was if the organization had the program functioning or if the program has just been closed. I managed to locate three companies willing to participate in the program (they are characterized further in the chapter), among which one was preparing for the introduction of the talent management program (case 1), one had program introduced and it was functioning during the research project (case 2), one had just decided to close the program (1 year before interviews) (case 3).

People responsible for talent management programs, high-level human resource managers as well as talent management program participants (if available – still working in the organization) were initially chosen as sources of information (additional information was gathered within the process of company document analysis). In the companies that had the program (case 2 & 3) respondents were talent management managers (and talent management team's members) and in a company that was preparing for the introduction of the program it was HRM Director and members of the HRM department.

In the first step I interviewed respondents asking open-ended questions (I prepared 13 open ended questions before the beginning of each interview, but during the interview the question list was changed/modified to gather additional data and gain better understanding of what organizational talent management actually is). I asked questions in such a manner not to suggest answers and refer to neither the program characteristics nor its influences. The interview was initiated with an open-ended question – 'Can you, please, tell me about talent management in your organization?' In the course of the interview I asked questions that helped me to get deeper into the topic. Each interview lasted for 1.5 to 2 hours. Then interviews were transcribed and coded (using traditional coding methodology – transcription to word file, open coding followed by axial coding and category development). When the first step of research was finished additional questions arose,

and next meetings, focused on problematic issues were set (and then the procedure of transcriptions and coding was repeated). Some of these meetings, due to time constraints were carried out in a form of phone interviews, however, if only possible, I tried to arrange a face-to-face interview. Along with the formal meetings, the basis for theoretical saturation of organizational talent management were also: phone interviews, document analyses, e-mailing and, respondents. In total, over 200 pages of transcripts (and document pages) were gathered and became the background for the theory development.

The study was carried out solely in the Polish language and it was presented as a grant research report (it was financed by the Program of Development of Young Researchers). All the analyses were carried out in the Polish language as well. For the purpose of this chapter necessary research results and excerpts from the interviews were translated into English.

Characteristics of Companies Participating in the Research Project

Below I present the main information about the companies that agreed to participate in the project. Due to space limitation I supply only the very basic information about the research participants.

Case 1: The Company Preparing for the Introduction of a Talent Management Program

It was the smallest and the youngest of companies. The company has been present on the Polish market for 12 years, the headquarters is located in Tychy and operates in the field of loans and credits. It has more than 200 agencies all over Poland. It offers short term loans (given for a period of 1 week to 1 month as well as credits for consumption needs). The company employs 1,500 employees and its structure is flat. The most problematic issue for the company is retaining employees – there is constant recruitment carrying out. The company is currently designing a talent management program and it will be most likely introduced within the next (2014) year. The human resource manager and employees working in the HRM department are responsible for the program implementation and its results. The owners and the CEOs actively participate in the designing process and require reporting and meetings plus the current progress information.

Case 2: The Company That Has the Talent Management Program Running

The company is one of the world leading producers in the FMCG branch. The company is well known all over the world and its roots are in the 21st century. It gives a job to 3,400 employees in Poland and has been perceived as one of the best employers on the market for many years now. The company has been running a talent management program for many years and offers its employees multiple advancement and development opportunities. The headquarter for the Eastern Europe is located in Warsaw.

Case 3: The Company That Cancelled a Talent Management Program

This worldwide banking company started to operate on the Polish market in 1990 and nowadays employs nearly 5,000 employees (in Poland). The headquarters is located in Warsaw (and some aspects are carried out in Cracow). The bank is considered one of the best employers in Poland and has a reputation of a premium one. All over the world it gives a job to over 100,000 employees. It cancelled the program for financial reasons in 2011. The manager responsible for the talent management program pointed out that she hoped the program would be re-implemented in the nearest future since, after all, it gave the organization numerous profits. Additional respondent was chosen by the headquarter talent management program. The participant had graduated from the program before and while the program was being executed, the respondent was a bank division manager also in charge of four minor agencies.

Research Results: Talent Management as Contingent Phenomenon

Organizational talent management, according to the participants and statements embedded in organizational documents is a phenomenon highly affected by internal and external contingencies. Figure 1 presents talent management and its contingencies on the basis of the research results.

Talent management, characterized by respondents by referring to processes – or modules (identification, recruitment and selection, training, lateral transfers, assessment of performance and communication), target employees, aims, features and timing generates both

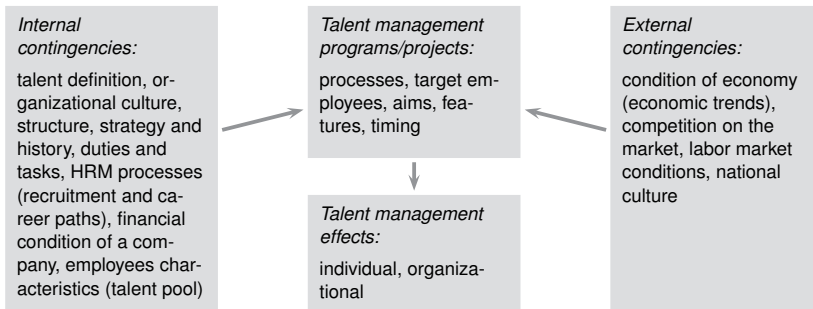


FIGURE 1 Talent Management as a Contingent Phenomenon

individual and organizational effects. However, since it is not the scope of the chapter to develop this part of a model, I focus on internal and external contingencies. Both types of contingencies strongly influence the way talent management programs work in organizations. It is further developed and explained in the next part of the text.

Internal and External Contingencies

The research results reveal that the most important internal contingency of talent management is a talent definition. Its importance is reported by Respondent 1 (Case 1). He says what follows:

[...] firstly, I really liked the question about the definition of a talent. It is very funny, because I never started with such a concept that we are to define it. As far as I understand, it's not about definition who is talented and who is not, but who we perceive as talented. Who will be talented and how we know it [...]

And respondent 2 (case 2) says:

[...] this is a very interesting observation. We should be able to tell who is and who is not a talent [...]. A high potential employee, [...] we got such an evaluation method that is called a leadership development tool. There are nine boxes, matrix, that help us to assess if a person behaves as a talent, and how well they perform their job, considering competencies and the results [...]

In all organizations the necessity of defining talents accurately was considered a key aspect. Apart from this issue the second factor influencing talent management were employees and talent management pool – quantities and qualities of employees that could be defined

as talents. Since it is strictly connected to the previous issue, it confirms the role of a talent definition. In the second case, during the joint interview two respondents emphasized that the talent management program was addressed mainly to managers and employees of the headquarters. There were fewer than 40 employees and they were the program target group.

The third element highly influencing organizational talent management is history and time. It is perceived broadly, both as an experience rooted in the past, and previous programs records. The number of years an organization is in the market, the average age of employees, and the number of younger or older employees play an important role (case 3).

[...] if we say about a fit, how we choose the right person, we knew, that in next editions (2nd and further) of talent management programs it was going to be intensive and engaging. Talents engaged in the program said, during the program: 'you told me it was going to be tough. And it is.' We knew that having too many aims does not make sense. At a certain point of time we started to discourage people, so that only those who could complete it, took part in it [...]

There are also other factors influencing the shape and structure of talent management. According to the respondents, not only the history, but also the age of an organization and cultural issues influence the way talent management looks like in an organization (respondent 2, case 2):

We got different programs dealing with recruiting young people, just after graduation, and promoting them to managerial positions in a blink of an eye. Not in all cultures in the world does it work. Even here, in Poland, it is perceived bad, not to mention Japan – when you have grey hair, you are considered a worthy manager [...]

There are diverse aspects of the cultural influence on the shape and structure of a talent management program. They are, for example, related to manhood, power distance, Confucian dynamism, individualism, uncertainty avoidance and other aspects.

The cultural aspects (both national and organizational) compose an important factor influencing talent management. Apart from that contingency, strategy and structure influence talent management programs

as well. The respondents from the second organization emphasized the role of both these contingencies (case 2):

[...] if we look at 50+ employees, there are only several such managers here now. And it results from two things. The strategy of the company was to employ a lot of young people at the beginning [...]

[...] there are three things that influence talent management programs: they are a business strategy, we got a clear aim, and this is a long term aim, and we exactly know what we want [...]

The organizational structure also influences the way organizational talent management functions. Although it was not very clear from the respondents' statements, the division of talents into groups depending on the organizational level provides evidence for the relationship between the organizational structure and talent management programs (case 3).

[...] I would say, at every level of management there is a group of talents. They are called high potentials. Since this organization is based on work levels, there is a managerial 2nd level, director 3rd level and vice president 4th level. (...) we always search for (successors) a level below, which means, if we look for future managers we start searching at the level of specialists (level 1st).

Apart from the above presented issues, what also changes the talent management character is tasks, duties and influential groups within the organization (TMT, groups of managers, etc.), and among others, human resource management by recruitment and promotion activities. The last, and possibly the most influential contingency of talent management is the financial performance and how the performance of the previous editions of talent management programs is perceived (case 3).

[...] currently the program does not run, and the most probable reason for suspending it is the costs. It is not a matter of the lack of talented people (tears in the respondents' eyes), the reason may be in changes at the level of headquarters that arouse the revolt. There is a lack of visible career possibilities, however, they can appear at every single moment [...]

There were also exogenous factors influencing organizational talent management. The respondents focused on the labour market condi-

tions and competition (that is buying best employees by offering them better financial conditions) (case 3):

[...] among the people that took part in talent management programs only several left the organization for better positions in other banks. Employees who stayed with us are at managerial or higher positions right now.

The next issue that gathers significant attention regards cultural aspects. It is observable in case 2, where respondents clearly declare:

[...] such a strong promotion of younger people does not work well on all labour markets because demography is different and different people come to work for us. This is a very negative side of all global programs, within which we don't have too much of freedom to adjust it to the local conditions. Such programs are adjusted to the organizational culture as a culture that company is willing to have, not to local cultural characteristics [...]

To summarize the above, despite numerous endogenous contingencies there are also exogenous contingencies that, to some extent, moderate the way talent management programs look like. However, exogenous factors are of lesser importance, according to the respondents. It results from the very delicate, subtle nature of talent management, which occurs within a certain organization as a result of actions diverse organizational members undertake and discrete, implicit contingencies.

Discussion, Implications for Theory and Conclusions

On the basis of the presented research results at least three propositions may be posed. They relate directly to the previous works on talent management, especially these disregarding the influence of contingencies on projects (i.e. Ensley & Ensley, 2011; Romans et al., 2006):

PROPOSITION 1 *Internal and external contingencies modify talent management processes, target employee group, program aims, program features, and timing, changing the nature of talent management within the organization.*

This proposition leads to the statement that un-contextualized talent management studies carried out by different authors lack significant part that might explain the programs' effectiveness or the lack of it. Colbert's (2004) proposition study design which contains reference to

multiple phenomena that comprise a context for organizational talent management may help to assess the performance resulted from organizational efforts aiming at managing of the most valuable employees.

PROPOSITION 2 *Internal influences, due to a subtle nature of talent management (organization based), will impact talent management processes, target an employee group, program aims, program features, and timing, stronger than external contingencies.*

Stronger pressure should be put on studying internal contingencies, since they modify talent management programs to a higher extent. Thus, especially age/history related, strategic and cultural contingencies should be considered when preparing research projects. Apart from this, also significant attention should be paid to the way organizations understand and define talent.

PROPOSITION 3 *The relation between talent management programs and their effects is moderated by internal and external contingencies.*

The third proposition suggests that two similar talent management programs can provide divergent outcomes in different organizational settings. Therefore, the focus should not be on best practices in talent management. The conclusion supports Colbert (2004), Delery and Doty's (1996) theses. Talent management, as a relatively new approach to dealing with people will most likely attract further attention. In the light of this study further research should be conducted following configurational approach indications. Therefore, the focus should rather be put on organizational policies directed at strategies than on idiosyncratic practices. While organizational talent management may fail to produce satisfactory organizational-level outcomes (assessed with the use of performance measurement tools), the whole configuration, including the talent management shape (resulting from organizational policy towards most valuable employees), as well as external and internal contingencies, should be considered as a prerequisite for improved performance at the organizational level.

Note

The chapter is significantly modified and extended version of the double blind reviewed paper accepted for the MakeLearn Conference, held in 2013 in Zadar, Croatia. The research project was financed from the

sources of Polish National Science Center (NCN) on the basis of decision number DEC-2012/05/D/HS4/01521.

References

- Ashton, C., & Morton, L. (2005). Managing talent for competitive advantage: Taking a systemic approach to talent management. *Strategic HR Review*, 4(5), 28–31.
- Berger, L. A., & Berger, D. R. (2004). *The talent management handbook*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Bhattacharya, C. B., Sen, S., & Korschun, D. (2008, Winter). Using corporate social responsibility to win the war for talents. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 37–45.
- Bloom, M., & Milkovich G. T. (1998). Relationship among risk, incentive pay, and organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(3), 283–297.
- Borkowska, S. (Ed.). (2005). *Zarządzanie talentami* [Talent management]. Warsaw, Poland: IPiSS.
- Boxall, P., & Steeneveld, M. (1999). Human resource strategy and competitive advantage: A longitudinal study of engineering consultancies. *Journal of Management Studies*, 36(4), 443–463.
- Bratnicki, M. (2002). *Dylematy i pułapki współczesnego zarządzania* [Dilemmas and pitfalls of contemporary management]. Katowice, Poland: Gnome.
- Burke, L. A. (1996). Developing high-potential employees in the new business reality. *Business Horizons*, 40(2), 18–24.
- Catlin, K., & Matthews, J. (2002). *Building the awesome organization: Six essential components that drive entrepreneurial growth*. New York, NY: Hungry Minds.
- Charmaz, K. (2009). *Teoria ugruntowana: praktyczny przewodnik po analizie jakościowej* [Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis]. Warsaw, Poland: PWN.
- Colbert, B. A. (2004). The complex resource-based view: Implications for theory and practice in strategic human resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, 29(3): 341–358.
- Collings, D. G., Mellahi, K. (2009). Strategic talent management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(4), 304–313.
- Cunha, M. P., Cunha, R. C. (2004). The dialectics of human resource management in Cuba. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(7), 1280–1292.

- De Bettignies, J. E., & Chemla, G. (2008). Corporate venturing, allocation of talent, and competition for star managers. *Management Science*, 54(3), 505-521.
- Delery, J. E., & Doty, D. H. (1996). Modes of theorizing in strategic human resource management: Tests of universalistic, contingency, and configurations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(4): 802-835.
- Derr, C. B., Jones, C., & Toomey, E. L. (1988). Managing high-potential employees: Current practices in 33 us corporations. *Human Resource Management*, 27(3), 273-290.
- Downs, Y., & Swailes, S. (2013). A capability approach to organizational talent management. *Human Resource Development International*, 16(3), 267-281.
- Dries, N. (2013). The psychology of talent management. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 272-285.
- Ensley, M. D., Carland, J. W., Ensley, R. L., & Carland, J. C. (2011). The theoretical basis and dimensionality of the talent management system. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 10(1), 81-114.
- Ensley, M. D., & Ensley, R. L. (2011). The theoretical basis and dimensionality of the talent management system. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 10(1): 81-114.
- Frank, F. D., & Taylor, C. R., 2004. Talent management: Trends that will shape the future. *HR Human Resource Planning*, 27(1), 33-41.
- Garavan, T. N., Carbery, R., & Rock, A. (2011). Mapping talent development: Definition, scope and architecture. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 36(1), 5-24.
- Garrow, V., & Hirsh, W. (2008). Talent management: Issues of focus and fit. *Public Personnel Management*, 37(4), 389-402.
- Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *Discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago, IL: Aldine.
- Heinen, J. S., O'Neill, C. (2004). Managing talent to maximize performance. *Employment Relations Today*, 31(2), 67-82.
- Hoglund, M. (2012). Quid pro quo? Examining talent management through the lens of psychological contracts. *Personnel Review*, 41(2), 126-142.
- Kehinde, J. D. (2012). Talent management: Effect on organizational performance. *Journal of Management Research*, 4(2), 178-186.
- Khatri, P., Gupta, S., Gulati, K., & Santosh, Ch. (2010). Talent management in HR. *Journal of Management and Strategy*, 1(1), 39-46.
- Lado, A. A., Boyd, N. G., Wright, P., & Kroll, M. (2006). Paradox and theorizing within the resource-based view. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(1): 115-131.

- Lawler III, E. E. (2009). Make human capital a source of competitive advantage. *Organizational Dynamics*, 38(1), 1-7.
- Lewis, M. (2004). *Moneyball: The art of winning unfair game*. New York, NY: Norton.
- Michaels, E., Handfield-Jones, H., & Axelrod, B. (2001). *The war for talent*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Motowidlo, S. J. (2003). Job performance. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: Vol. 12. Industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 39-53). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Mucha, R. T. (2004). The art and science of talent management. *Organization Development Journal*, 22(4), 22-30.
- Northcraft, G. B., Griffith, T. L., & Shalley, C. E. (1992). Building top management muscle in a slow growth environment: How different is better at greyhound financial corporation. *Academy of Management Executive*, 6(1), 32-40.
- Oehley, A. M., & Theron, C. C. (2010). The development and evaluation of a partial talent management structural model. *Management Dynamics*, 19(3), 2-28.
- Piansoongnern, O., & Anurit, P. (2010). Talent management: Quantitative and qualitative studies of HR practitioners in Thailand. *The International Journal of Organizational Innovation*, 3(1), 280-302.
- Ployhart, R. E., Weekley, J. A., & Baughman, K. (2006). The structure and function of human capital emergence: A multilevel examination of the attraction-selection-attrition model. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(4), 661-677.
- Pocztowski, A. (Ed.) (2008). *Zarządzanie talentami w organizacji* [Talent management in organizations]. Warsaw, Poland: Wolters Kluwer.
- Ready, D. A., & Conger, J. A. (2007). Make your company a talent factory. *Harvard Business Review*, 85(6), 68-77.
- Reilly, P. 2008. Identifying the right course for talent management. *Public Personnel Management*, 37(4), 381-388.
- Romans, J., Frost A., & Ford, S. (2006). Developing high-potential talent at Hughes Supply selecting and preparing employees for future leadership roles. *Strategic HR Review*, 5(3), 32-35.
- Rynes, S. L., Brown, K. G., Colbert, A. E. (2002). Seven common misconceptions about human resource practices: Research findings versus practitioner beliefs. *Academy of Management Executive*, 16(3): 92-103.
- Schuler, R. S., Jackson, S. E., & Tarique, I. (2011). Global talent management and global talent challenges: Strategic opportunities for IHRM. *Journal of World Business*, 46(4), 506-516.

- Stahl, G. K., Bjorkman, I., Farndale, E., Morris, S. S., Paauwe, J., Stiles, P., Trevor, J., & Wright, P. (2012). Six principles of effective global talent management. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 53(2), 25-32.
- Storey, J. (1989). Introduction: From personnel management to human resource management. In J. Storey (Ed.), *New perspectives on human resource management* (pp. 5-24). London, England: Routledge.
- Tansley, C., Stewart, J., Turner, & P. Lynette, H. (2006). *Change agenda: Talent management understanding and dimensions*. London, England: CIPD.
- Thunnissen, M., Noselie, P., & Fruytier, B. (2013). Talent management and the relevance of context: Towards a pluralistic approach. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 326-336.
- Tichy, N. M., Fombrun, C. J., & Devanna, M. A. (1982). Strategic human resource management. *Sloan Management Review*, 23(1), 47-61.
- Ulrich, D. (1997). *Human resource champions: The next agenda for adding value and delivering results*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Vaiman, V., Scullion, H., & Collings, D. (2012). Talent management decision making. *Management Decision*, 50(5), 925-941.
- Zheng, C., Soosay, C., & Hyland, P. (2008). Manufacturing to Asia: Who will win the emerging battle for talent between Dragons and Tigers? *Journal of Manufacturing Technology Management*, 19(1), 52-72.

Diversity-Oriented Competences: A Major Challenge for Human Resources Development

Agnieszka Wojtczuk-Turek

Warsaw School of Economics, Poland

Dariusz Turek

Warsaw School of Economics, Poland

Introduction

Changes in the organizational environment and emergence of new expectations towards employees, which accompany the development of globalization processes, trigger a need to create a new competence profile of the personnel. The former requirements directed at employees, mostly manifesting via focus on competences which condition efficient performance at work (the so-called specific competences) – and which are characteristic for the Industrial Age – while still retaining their importance, seem to have become insufficient. In view of increasingly common demographic, cultural and social changes, of the emergence of new business models and new expectations on the part of employers with regard to quick adaptation to the requirements of the market, there is a growing demand for competences enabling companies to function more effectively in changeable and turbulent conditions. Such new competences are also becoming an important determinant of the effective use made of professional (specific) competences and they are observable in certain explicit social and professional behaviours of employees.

While analysing various types of competences whose significance is pointed out by numerous authors within the context of changes in the global economy and requirements towards employees, it is worthwhile to mention, among others: cognitive competences (McClelland, 1973), social and emotional competences (Emerling & Boyatzis, 2012), communicative competences (Morreale, Spitzberg & Barge, 2001), intercultural competences (Lloyd & Hartel, 2010), ethical competences (Turek, 2011), or global competences (Lohmann, Rollins & Hoey, 2006). Due to their character and increasing significance for the contemporary



Rakowska, A., & Babnik, K. (Eds.). (2014). *Human Resources Management Challenges: Learning & Development* (pp. 31–62). Lublin, Poland: ToKnowPress.

labour market, such competences in many jobs acquire a transferable character (Turek & Wojtczuk-Turek, 2011). They are characterized by an ability to ‘transfer’ and to employ the experiences, skills and knowledge in other/new work-related situations or personal situations (Naimark & Pearce, 1985) – the characteristics which seem crucial in a situation of constant change. This phenomenon of transfer conditions both, the application in next job tasks the already mastered in the previously performed job tasks *modus operandi* (e.g. problem solving), as well as an ability to perform in varied situational contexts (behavioural flexibility). Thus, we will treat transferable competences not only as such competences which contribute to more effective and more efficient task performance at a job position, but also consider the fact that they allow to construct effective organizational diversity. One of the key characteristics of this group of competences lies precisely in the fact that they comprise communicative, cultural and social skills providing individuals with an ability to create effective professional relationships, specifically in the context of diversity at a workplace – which, in the contemporary times, becomes a *sine qua non* factor for social and business development. In other words, competences allowing employees to function in a diversified environment, to undertake cooperation with representatives of different cultures and to commit to job-related activities requiring social interactions in a diversified (from the point of view of, among others, age, sex and gender, education, attitudes, values, convictions, and personal traits) social environment, are currently shifting towards transferable competences which should be taken into consideration in job descriptions for the positions in the majority of organizations.

The significance of such competences can be demonstrated by, for example, observable changes on the European labour market. According to the forecasts of the European Commission for the 2020s (European Commission, 2013), the steadily ageing society will cause changes in the demographic structure of employees in the companies, implying that, in the professional environment, different generations will need to co-exist, which might potentially contribute to misunderstanding and conflict. This view is supported by research showing that within large organizations as much as 58% of HR department employees report the occurrence of conflicts between younger and older employees, especially with regard to the way they perceive the ethics of their profession and their work-life balance (Schramm, 2006). A similar situation

can be observed in the relations between employees of different sexes, as it appears that a sex of an employee may become a factor for a relationship conflict. Jehn et al. (1997) claim that different-sex persons come into conflict more often than same-sex persons. Should individuals be equipped with transferable competences, including communicative, social and psychological competences, the intensity of such conflicts might be lowered, which would, consequently, influence the decrease of instances of discrimination and violence at a workplace (European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010).

Apart from demographic problems, cultural and ethnic issues also present a challenge for HR departments. Numerous authors in their research reports (Dhéret et al., 2013) and analyses (Kahanes, Zaiceva & Zimmermann, 2011) indicate the fact that over the past several years there have been significant flows of employees, both within the internal labour market of the European Union, and on the external – non-European – market (including expatriation). It generates a necessity for employees to assimilate and adapt to varied religious views and disparate cultural beliefs and practices. Such a diversity may potentially lower a sense of group unity and may directly translate into an increase of personnel fluctuation (O'Reilly, Caldwell & Barnett, 1989). Moreover, it may lead to discrimination and social exclusion, which, as a result, affect the efficiency of the organizations themselves. If employees are equipped with transferable competences, comprising, for example, cultural competences, such problems may be if not eliminated, then at least partly reduced – taking into account the fact that the phenomenon of discrimination presents a significantly broader problem, which definitely exceeds the analysis of merely the subject of employee competences (Nkomo, 2008).

The rationale for analyses of promoting diversity – as an important task in the context of HRM – may be research which confirms that specific practices may support diversity in an organization, as exemplified in Roberge, Lewicki, Hietapelto, and Abdylidzeva (2011) analysis, where five categories of supportive managerial diversity practices are distinguished: (1) using symbolic management to value diversity, (2) implementing diversity training programs, (3) implementing cross-functional teams, (4) stimulating improved communication flow, (5) promoting fairness in human resource practices (Roberge et al., 2011). Moreover, the research proves that the most important outcomes of diversity for their organizations were, among others, reduc-

tion in costs associated with turnover, absenteeism and low productivity (Esen, 2005).

The present chapter is devoted to the competences which were defined as ‘transferable’ leading to the ‘effective organizational diversity.’ It is also concerned with methods of their development. Our main goal is to describe the competences which are vital for work efficiency in a diversified environment and to present methods which may be applied in order for these competences to take shape and develop.

The first part of the study inspects a range of definitions of various transferable competences, characterizes individual competences and points out these which are most important from the point of view of promoting diversity.

The second part of the chapter focuses on the processes of development and improvement of transferable competences. It indicates the fact that training and education of employees comprises these HR practices which appear to play a key role in the development of diversity in a workplace environment (Moore, 1999). It also contains an analysis of the characteristics of other methods of development which are significant for shaping diversity, including coaching and mentoring.

Organizational Diversity and Transferable Competences

Organizational diversity is a notion employed in the description of all those individual characteristics which, in a workplace environment, differentiate one person from another. Here, surface-level diversity and deep-level diversity are distinguished (Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002). The first term concerns such differences between people which are visible at a glance, e.g.: age, sex and race. The second one denotes invisible differences which are, nonetheless, important from the point of view of characteristics of an individual, e.g.: education, abilities and competences, personality, value system, sexual orientation or religious beliefs.

The analyses of organizational diversity stress the fact that differences between people have immanent character (i.e., they are always present), and the manner in which they are taken into consideration within the processes of organizational management notably influences individuals’ behaviour, their attitudes, and their actions both in their private lives and in a workplace. Although consideration for the differences in a workplace environment forms one of the factors for enabling creativity and organizational innovation (Bassett-Jones, 2005),

for facilitation of decision processes (Williams, 1999), or even a decisive factor for competitive advantage (Kirton & Greene, 2010, p. 2), these differences may still pose a threat for the unity, for the identity of an employee group, or for efficiency of an organization as a whole (Bassett-Jones, 2005). Therefore, it is worthwhile to undertake attempts to understand the factors which are decisive for an organization to achieve added value by way of acknowledging and promoting diversity in a workplace environment.

A number of authors point out that ‘effective organizational diversity’ may be created via implementation of appropriate strategies, policies and programs which establish the climate for respecting and applying the differences in order to realize the strategic organizational goals (D’Netto & Sohal, 1999). The main goal of diversity management is, then, to create such a workplace environment in which every employed person feels respected and appreciated. As a result, employees might fully utilize their own motivational and intellectual potential, contributing to the success of an organization.

An important element of such influence on the part of an organization is the promotion and development of employees’ competences which form the key to acceptance of diversity and to inclusion of individuals into a singular employee group, and thus – potentially – contribute to increase of work productivity (Moore, 1999; Combs, 2002; Holladay & Quinones, 2008; Anand & Winters, 2008; Jones, 2013).

Combs (2002), similarly as Von Bergen, Soper, and Foster (2002), points out, however, a failure of numerous training programs, which only too often lead to counter-productive results, and thus to increase of discrimination, confusion within organizational structure, lowering of morale or a tendency for leaving the organization. These authors suggest a need to focus on specific competences which will translate into an acceptance for diversity, such a sense of self-efficacy, or the abilities conditioning citizenship attitudes, instead of attempts at a thorough change of employees’ mentality. It seems, thus, that in order for diversity to become an added value, HR activities ought to develop, via training programs and other educational activities, only a certain group of employee competences.

Transferable Competences As a Key to Diversity

The key element defining transferable competences is the fact that they find application in numerous task situations, in different job po-

sitions, independently of the type of industry or the profile of activities of a given organization. They enable optimal utilization of professional knowledge, experience, or professional abilities to fulfil job tasks in an efficient manner. Gibbons-Wood and Lange (2000, p. 24) point out that the subject literature interchangeably uses various terms in order to describe effective functioning of an individual within numerous professional dimensions and functions, mentioning, among others: soft skills, key competences, main competences, transferable skills, personal skills, etc.

It is necessary, however, to point out that treating them as synonyms may cause definitional problems, by blurring the semantic scope of these terms and their mutual relations. Since skills and abilities are components of competences, they cannot be treated as equivalents of competences. What is more, if competences are reduced to skills, and thus to behavioural manifestations, a significant aspect of knowledge and disposition (attitude), necessary for effective action, is ignored. It is because a skill is a form of realizing this type of knowledge which is solely related to know-how (procedural knowledge). While knowledge and skill do possess cognitive and effectiveness-related character, attitude, on the other hand, forming an element of competences, is an expression of an individual's disposition towards various types of objects (including the social ones). Apart from a cognitive component, competence also comprises emotional and behavioural elements. It is precisely the attitude that allows knowledge and skills to be utilized in action. In this context it seems more justified to use the term of transferable competences and not just 'skills.' The list of a number of definitions is presented in Table 1.

As can be seen, the list of transferable competences indicated by the scholars is rather long. Jones (2013, p. 7) examined several different typologies, indicating that most frequently appear competencies such as: self-awareness, initiative and enterprise, willingness to learn, planning and organizing, integrity, commitment, problem-solving, flexibility, self-management, team working, communication skills, foreign language, networking, leadership, customer service, interpersonal and intercultural skills. These competences may be characterized in the context of a performed professional role, from the point of view of attractiveness for future employment, or in the aspect of effective professional functioning and personal development (Turek & Wojtczuk-Turek, 2011). However – as stated by numerous au-

TABLE 1 The Review of Transferable Skills/Competences Definitions

Author	Definition	Types of Competences
Yntema (1960)	Skills and abilities acquired in one job/profession on one job position that can be used in another future employment.	Problem solving (e.g. usage of scientific methods); social (e.g. understanding of social situations, motivating others, leadership, cooperation); communicational (e.g. speaking and listening); organizational (e.g. planning, coordination); motivational (e.g. self-motivation); cognitive (e.g. memory).
Naimark and Pearce (1985)	Skills that can be transferred from one human activity to the other (e.g. from work to home, or from home to work).	Negotiating; taking care; forming an association; mentoring; organisational; communicational.
Harvey and Knight (1996)	Knowledge, skills and abilities, ensuring success in professional work.	Willingness to learn; team work; communicational; problem solving; analytical and synthetic skills; personal skills (e.g. engagement skill).
Falconer and Pettigrew (2003)	Skills, abilities and features of character that enable efficient performance of professional tasks.	Communicational; analytical/deciding; organizational; team (e.g. negotiating).
Raybould and Sheedy (2005)	Skills and personal abilities that can be used in every profession, work place and at every level of carrier.	Designing (e.g. planning, project management); time management; business awareness (e.g. knowledge about culture of an organisation, knowledge about business surrounding environment); building a team and team work (e.g. development, motivation and communication in a team); professional presentation; communicational; negotiating; financial; market (e.g. approach towards a client).

thors – from the point of view of promoting diversity in a workplace environment, the key competences are the following: communicative competences, negotiation competences (Moore, 1990), intercultural competences (Lloyd & Hartel, 2010), social and affective competences (Emerling & Boyatzis, 2012), and cognitive competences (Crisp & Turner, 2011). They may be included into one group of the so-called *diversity-oriented competences*, whose character expresses not only strictly effectiveness-related aspects (even as far as effective realization of social interactions is concerned), but it also stresses the attitude of openness (cognitive and social); acceptance of differences and

tolerance for the otherness of emotional commitment which creates favourable conditions for building cooperation and displaying citizenship attitudes (expressed in OCB-Individual orientation, i.e.: helping, supporting team spirit and cooperation standards) (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005).

Communicative and negotiation competences are necessary in order to establish close social interactions, to create rules or to overcome barriers. One of the definitions of a communicative competence, which stresses that such a competence concerns a degree to which the desired goals are achieved by way of communicating in a manner appropriate in the situation, indicates not so much the aspects of abilities or skills (which decide whether a given behaviour is competent), but the adequacy in a given context. Thus, for the assessment of this competence, the criteria of: clarity, appropriateness and effectiveness are used (Morreale et al., 2001). From the point of view of treating communication as a transfer of information, clarity describes the degree of understanding the meaning of the message, stressing that it is not enough to understand the meaning of individual words, but – above all – the intention of the message. The process becomes easier in a situation of similarity (e.g. of values, beliefs), but not in a situation of diversity. It turns out, however, that within teams consisting of members presenting different and often contradictory interests, what works well is ambiguous communication – signifying ‘speaking in multiple voices or messages’ (Morreale et al., 2001). In such a case, the message contains both negative and positive opinions, and often – according to the authors – it may form the best response, even if the communication itself is not too clear. Naturally, we are discussing here only some specific situations, as in general terms *language precision* is still crucial, e.g.: in a situation where there is a necessity for the use of a foreign language, or from the point of view of cultural differences.

In the area of diversity, what appears to be especially important is *appropriateness*, i.e. adequacy in a given context. When this criterion is observed, it enables the interaction to avoid breaches of accepted rules of behaviour, existing within cultures, societies, or relationships. Respecting them increases a chance for communication *effectiveness* – i.e., for achieving the desired goal/result. While appropriateness of a message is judged by others, its effectiveness comprises a personal opinion regarding a degree to which an intended goal was achieved.

All the criteria indicated above take into account the context of

communication – this context creates a frame within which interaction takes place and may be understood both as a physical location of the interaction and as the situation’s climate/sense (Morreale et al., 2001). An example of a context may be a culture, containing patterns of thinking, values and behaviour of a certain group of people. It determines specific communicational behaviours, e.g.: in the case of the North-American context, the important issues are: verbal communication and fast pace of interaction, while in the Japanese context – conversely, non-verbal communication and slow-paced interactions are preferred (Morreale et al., 2001). Consideration for the cultural aspects of communication is relevant both from the theoretical point of view (the authors go as far as to single out the intercultural communication competence) (Lloyd & Härtel, 2010), and from the practical one as well.

While discussing the role of communication in supporting diversity, it is worthwhile to return once more to the key tool of the message – *language* and *extra-linguistic* (non-verbal) *forms* of communication. An example of communication which supports diversity is the politically correct language, comprising expressions which attempt to eliminate the instances of sexism, racism or ageism, discrimination from the point of view of sexual orientation, ethnic identity, or other potentially disrespectful meanings which could offend a given group of people (Morreale et al., 2001). A drastic example of communication stigmatizing people because of their differences is hate speech, which labels certain groups of people as less worthy and deserving the use of violence against them.

In the case of *non-verbal communication*, consideration for diversity denotes respect for the rules which determine the desirable forms of behaviour (as a medium for the message) with regard to others, from the point of view of individual, gender-related or cultural differences. An example can be seen in non-verbal differences resulting from gender (and determining how women and men send and receive non-verbal messages). Incorrect interpretation of the signals (e.g.: facial expressions, gestures, body posture) may result from stereotypes connected with sex and gender, and from expectations regarding what is appropriate in such a type of behaviour in the case of women and men (Morreale et al., 2001). A similar situation takes place from the point of view of the cultural aspect.

Thanks to a next group of competences – *affective* and *social* – indi-

viduals can express their needs, and understand and accept the needs of others. Most emotions function as mediators in social relationships, also in the professional environment. Affective competence allows people to understand affective patterns, such as emotional expressions, aesthetic sensibilities, attitudes, and values (Lloyd & Härtel, 2010, p. 849) embodied in the behaviour of culturally different others. In the context of 'emotion management,' the recognition and regulation of emotion seem particularly important, and they depend on the individual's knowledge with regard to differences in expression of emotion from the point of view of, e.g.: gender or culture. With regard to emotion recognition, researchers are concerned with universality of emotions. While basic emotions (joy, anger, fear, revulsion, surprise, or sadness) are recognized faultlessly – and decoding them results in specific behaviours – affective response to more complex emotions requires a deeper knowledge of their expressions and specificity. In their case, it is important to understand that individual's reactions are closely related to the cultural rules determining the expression of emotion. In Western cultures, for instance, it is believed that emotions, apart from fear, largely remain outside wilful control and that it is better to express them, while fear should be controlled (suppressed) (Oatley, Kaltner & Jenkins, 2006).

The emotions which we feel shape our behaviours in interpersonal situations. From the point of view of effective cooperation in a diversified professional environment *cultural empathy* seems especially important (Lloyd & Härtel, 2010). It is understood as an ability to recognize, comprehend and confirm identity, experience and position of representatives of other cultures without negating one's own cultural identity. This ability is related to the evaluation of what is relevant for others and to the judgment of the meaning attributed to the behaviours of people who are members of the team. Such a type of empathy describes sensitivity towards cultural differences. It allows to limit the risk of occurrence of workplace *conflicts* which emerge and become solidified due to negative emotions related to different values, wishes and wants. In such an instance, we face the so-called conflict of relations which leads to antagonisms and, in effect, to the decrease of efficiency of a team. However, emotions catalysed by a constructive exchange of opinions based on differences play a creative role, as, e.g., during a debate. In the case when diversity of team characteristics (differences of opinions and ideas) is ensured, the situation favours the occurrence of

unique solutions – a high level of debate together with a lowered level of conflict form elements which facilitate creativity and organizational innovativeness (Isaken & Ekvall, 2010).

In a situation in which negative emotions are present in a team (e.g. anger due to differences in attitudes), their regulation by an individual allows to direct one's own and other people's attention towards more significant problems (tasks). It is mentioned that anger management is subject to cross-cultural differences, and that the patterns related to this emotion are determined by two aspects: interdependence and individualism (Oatley et al., 2006). In societies where people coexist in close proximity to one another, within mutual interdependence, anger surfaces rarely, as people do not perceive themselves as automatically separated from the others. In contrast, in individualistic cultures anger plays a dominant role in mobilizing for action (as a tool for power and control of resources). Anger is also connected with confirmation and defence of one's position within a hierarchy – especially which, within the universal division of labour, this role cannot be played by significant differences in sex-related authority and respect. When reacting to anger, in order to avoid complementary responses (fear) or symmetrical responses (anger), it is indispensable to possess the affective competences, and empathy in particular. It may be developed by way of stressing the common characteristics, typical for many people, and by an ability to perceive the situation from a broad point of view (to extend empathy to other groups, in order to reduce the error resulting from proximity). Creation of a sense of unity is based, thus, on indicating the emotional traits which link various groups despite differences in the social structure, culture or external appearance (e.g. similar reactions to unjust treatment) (Hoffman, 2000).

From the point of view of effective functioning in a diversified environment and promoting diversity in a workplace, it is necessary to point out a notable significance of *intercultural competences*. They are understood as a set of skills, knowledge and attitudes which are employed during interactions with culturally diverse team members (Lloyd & Härtel, 2010). These competences form a key to understanding the differences resulting from diverse cultures and to creating social justice. Therefore, they are sometimes referred to as social justice competences (Singh, Merchant, & Skudrzyk, 2012). They allow to understand different social norms and practices and, in effect, to integrate culturally diverse employees into one organizational system.

The importance of these competences is stressed in the context of effectiveness of action of culturally diversified teams. Diversity leads to increased efficiency of a team only when its members are capable of understanding each other, and, on the basis of this understanding, to combine and create ideas (Maznevski, 1994). Deficiency with regard to these competences may lead to inequality, discrimination and devaluation of highly diverse team members (Kelsey, 2000). This phenomenon is related to, among others, assigning a different (in a given culture) meaning and/or hierarchy position to norms and values which permeate an individual's attitude – as a result of the process of internalization, completed during socialization. The scholars stress that intercultural competences are indispensable for persons working in a culturally diverse team, as they allow the team members to communicate their differences in an effective manner, so as to more precisely evaluate the influence of their own behaviour on group processes and to react with greater realism and lesser tendency to judge others (Shaw & Barrett-Power, 1998, p. 1318). Such reactions are related to the affective dimension of intercultural competences, which refers to feelings, attitudes and personality traits that individuals possess regarding specific cultures and individuals who represent them (Lloyd & Härtel, 2010).

Last but not least, it is necessary to mention *cognitive competences*, which facilitate the description of the cognitive process of arriving at a conclusion, a deduction, or a judgment. They have long-term social effects, possible to capture on different levels, from the individual level (e.g. stereotypes, social judgments) to inter-group judgments (e.g. prejudices, discrimination). What is more, by way of reconstruction of cognitive structures, they also enable elimination of prejudices and stereotypes, both social and cultural, to verify false assumptions and to full engage in job tasks.

In a formal sense, cognitive competences may be discussed by addressing their three aspects: *cognitive complexity*, *tolerance for ambiguity* and *dissimilarity openness*. They influence the processes of making deductions about individuals (and their behaviours), the ways of categorizing information about the world, and the creation of cognitive schemata comprising representation of individuals' knowledge – i.e., processes of social cognition, indispensable for understanding others.

An example of cognitive competences is the cognitive intercultural competence, which is connected with the ability to perceive and inter-

pret information on the subject of people from other cultures (Lloyd & Härtel, 2010). It allows for a better understanding of these persons and their situation, and for consideration for a number of alternative perspectives. Among cognitive intercultural competences, the authors mention cognitive complexity and goal orientation (Lloyd & Härtel, 2010, p. 847). The former allows to perceive a variety of issues with regard to a given person, allowing to avoid a simplified pattern of deduction, which could, in the case of negative stereotypes, lead to discrimination. Moreover, complexity provides a broader insight into the understanding of changeability of individuals' culturally conditioned behaviours. Thus, it influences team's reactions and their evaluation. As for the latter competence, in the case when team members are oriented towards learning new abilities, goal orientation is connected with a more positive attitude towards the others, cooperation and problem solving. It conditions increasingly adequate reactions within a culturally diverse team of employees.

From the point of view of working with persons coming from various cultural environments (although not only in such a situation), a significant role is also played by *tolerance for ambiguity*. It allows for effective dealing with task situations, even if information necessary for effective cooperation in a culturally diverse environment remains unknown (Gudykunst, 1993, p. 59). Lack of such information may lead to frustration, which can, in turn, cause the occurrence of emotions which are considered 'awkward' from the point of view of social relations. In the case of dissimilarity openness, we deal with differences in our reactions to others – in the case of a higher level of openness individuals show a tendency to consideration for differences and they value differences more highly while working within significantly diverse teams. It requires an ability to overcome a natural tendency to attract individuals from the point of view of their similarity.

Another interesting construct, which may be applied in order to understand behaviours within social relations putting us into contact with diversity, is the so-called *inhibition of dominant response* (Kossowska, 2009). Individual differences in inhibition of dominant response are responsible for tendency in older people to express racial prejudice – a more effective inhibition is related to less visible manifestation of prejudice. Similar situation takes place in the case of the so-called executive control (Kossowska, 2009), which is related to a possibility to suppress racial stereotypes. By way of an example, an experiment is

worth mentioning in which Caucasian participants, after an interaction with Afro-American participants, displayed significantly worse results while performing cognitive tasks which required control, and the effect was particularly pronounced among people with a high level of prejudice. Such a result was caused by exhausting the cognitive possibilities needed for a demanding task. The research into this phenomenon might allow us to understand better the mechanisms in which negative interpersonal processes occur in diverse teams working on difficult projects.

The above reflections on cognitive competences and their role in supporting diversity may be concluded by an example of interesting research into cognitive dimensions of personality, described as *epistemic motivation* (Kossowska, 2009), which includes: *a need for certainty, closure, structure and cognition*. The researchers established that aiming for reduction of uncertainty forms a basic motive behind one's activity, influencing the way people perceive (from the point of view of identity) their own group and foreign groups. Elimination of uncertainty is the most important factor which shapes perception of a group's unity and affiliation, extremely important within highly diverse teams. Due to the fact that a high need for certainty is related to adopting simplified, biased judgments, the phenomenon may lead a given person to stereotypical perception of people who differ from them.

A need for closure – expressing the tendency to possess knowledge (which allows to avoid uncertainty), may lead, in social relations, to correspondence bias, presence of conservative convictions and difficulties in accepting another person's point of view (Kossowska, 2009). Similarly, in the case of *a need for simple structure* (related to organizing the overly complicated surroundings by way of assigning meaning to what is ambiguous and unclear), it may become combined with a tendency for stereotyping (as a simplified process of forming judgments on the subject of others), while, at the same time, showing little susceptibility to changing one's views of the others. The same situation is exemplified by *cognitive need*, which causes individuals to engage in systematic processing of information – leading to a multi-aspectual approach to the problem, while simultaneously limiting possibilities of working out an unambiguous position. In the case of social judgments – the appraisal of the others may be based on strongly activated content, more easily accessible, yet, at the same time, simplified and

stereotypical. In the context of the above mentioned threats related to social deductions, based on a strong effect of these needs, it is necessary to stress the need to develop specific predispositions which will counterbalance negative social phenomena in a highly diverse environment. Such negative phenomena may result from a lack of communicative, social, affective, intercultural or cognitive competences. Development of these competences poses a special challenge to HR departments – for the sake of creating an environment in which processes of integration of diversities are strongly active, yet which are developed not on the basis of straightforward assimilation, but on the basis of a deeper understanding of their causes, mechanisms and consequences.

Development of Diversity-Oriented Competences

Supporting diversity in organization is one of the important goals in the human resources management context. In the *2005 Workplace Diversity Practices Survey Report* (Esen, 2005), conducted by the Society for Human Resource Management, 76% of HR professionals reported that their organizations had practices in place that addressed workplace diversity. The diversity practices most often used by organizations included: allowing to take unpaid leave to observe a religious or cultural holiday not observed by the organization, using recruiting strategies to help increase diversity within the organization and engaging in community outreach related to diversity. At the same time, about two-thirds of HR respondents reported that their organizations provided training on diversity issues, most of which tended to be mandatory for top-level executives and non-executive managerial staff. It seems that this form of diversity support is very often used in organizations, and it is an important element in the development of diversity-oriented competence.

As noted by Von Bergen et al. (2002, p. 240), since the 1990s organizations functioning in the USA have been witnessing a rapid increase of training programs accounting for the problems of diversity, although first such programs appeared as far back as the 1960s (Anand & Winters, 2008, p. 357). Development of such educational measures resulted in the fact that at the end of the 1990s, nearly 75% of organizations were conducting, or were planning to conduct, this type of training. However, such commitment to the development of employee competences, and, consequently, the expenditure of resources, was

not bringing the expected results. The analyses cited by the authors demonstrate that merely 33% of the companies in which training was conducted, signalled a satisfactory result of such efforts. The majority of organizations did not note changes in employees' behaviours or even experienced aggravation of conflicts or discrimination. The main reasons for ineffectiveness of training were identified as: insufficient experience on the part of trainers, errors in the training methodology, wrong selection of training groups, focus on the chosen aspects of diversity without a broader look into the problem itself, or 'protecting' a chosen group of the excluded (Von Bergen et al., 2002, p. 241).

It is probable that another reason for the lack of effectiveness of such attempts lies in the fact that organizations were employing only superficial activities, mostly limited to integration training and training discussing the subjects of diversity, but devoid of deeper treatment of the subject or of shaping attitudes and developing empathy (Anand & Winters, 2008). It is a consequence of the fact that a mere transfer of knowledge – as *de facto* the main goal of training – is not sufficient; it is necessary to develop the awareness and sensitivity of individuals as to the needs of other employees (Moore, 1999; Combs, 2002).

Designing adequate forms and methods of development of diversity-oriented competences requires appropriate factual knowledge and methodical background, due to which it will become possible to fit particular training to the needs of people employed in a diverse professional environment, of persons who manage such teams and, more broadly – to fit them to the goals, missions and visions of a company oriented at creating effective organizational diversity.

Goals, Forms and Methods of Developing Diversity-Oriented Competences

The literature stresses the fact that effective programs of development of competences with the use of diversity-oriented training contain three major elements. Firstly, they focus on providing the managers with an ability to treat their employees equally and justly. Secondly, they comprise educational activities directed at managers, and covering the subject of how to use diverse personnel in order to better fulfil the needs of an organization's beneficiaries, including clients and consumers. Thirdly, they are directed at increasing the competences of individual employees (Holladay & Quinones, 2008; Anand & Winters 2008).

The effectiveness of such programs is maintained when training activities are appropriately designed, with a significant role played not only by the very process of development, but also by prior identification of competence gaps, accompanied by: creation of an approach which is adequate to the needs and detailed goals; engagement of managerial staff into the processes of development; and obligatory nature or development actions themselves (Paluck, 2006; Cocchiara, Connerley, & Bell, 2010). The effectiveness of such actions is also related to a number of conditions and rules which should lie behind training programs. For example, Skarlicki and Latham (2005) proposed a set of suggestions for persons who provide and conduct such training, together with the main rules which should be observed during such training. The most important suggestions comprised:

- Focus on the desired effects of the training, i.e.: on what should be expected as a result of the training;
- Awareness that a sense of discrimination and unjust treatment is a construct which depends on employees' subjective perception, and thus it is necessary to be aware of the reasons due to which such judgments arise;
- Application of appropriate language which will be acceptable and understandable for the participants;
- Realizing in practice of outwardly declared goals, i.e., during a training it is necessary not only to shape the desired diversity-oriented competences, but also to display a correct and desired model of behaviour.

The main rules which should be respected while designing such training, cover the following:

- A need for a deep prior analysis of functioning of organizations (procedures and manners of operation), an analysis of competence predispositions and the ways in which participants work, and an analysis of the goals of a given training (defining its desired effect);
- Maximization of participants' learning via: employing active training forms, demonstrating good practices, providing feedback, preparing limpid training materials, and continuous focus on training needs;
- Correlation of the training with its expected effects, and, mostly, focus on demonstrating how people should work, on creating

a sense of self-efficacy, on presenting how the content of the training refers to situations at work, on using appropriate examples and strengthening the acceptance for application of the new practices;

- Proper evaluation of the training, with the focus on a delayed post-test (Skarlicki & Latham, 2005, pp. 507–516).

From the point of view of the *goals* of described activities, the thematic content of training is highly significant. As stressed by Robertson and Stevens (2006), the majority of educational programs lead to employees' development of an ability to treat other employees justly (from the point of view of demographic, individual, ethnic and cultural factors). It is possible due to the development of particular competences, i.e. cognitive, social, affective, communicative, negotiation and intercultural competences, because just and honest treatment ensures that other employees may gain job satisfaction, engage in their job duties and act for the benefit of the organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001).

Skarlicki and Latham (2005, p. 503), while describing and analysing numerous training programs, mostly covering the subject of promoting justice in interpersonal relations and procedures which benefit social order, point out that the results of such training – measured with delayed post-tests – significantly influence employees' attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction, commitment) and behaviours (e.g. citizenship attitudes, intention to leave, or instances of theft). For example, during one of the training projects described by the authors, implemented for the trade union of public sector organizations in Canada, after four (three hour) training were conducted during the period of three weeks, covering the subject and rules of justice, the following results were noted:

- Increase of a general sense of justice among members of these trade unions;
- Increased frequency of citizenship behaviours towards the union, e.g.: more frequent participation in meetings or voluntary actions, etc.
- Display of increased trust and positive evaluation of the leaders of the union by the participants (Skarlicki & Latham, 2005, p. 501).

Naturally, it is necessary to bear in mind that employee training itself is insufficient in order to strengthen the position of diversity in

a workplace; procedural solutions are also necessary here. For example, if – having completed a training on the subject of diversity or justice – employees return to their own organizational environment in which various discriminatory forms of relations or remuneration are still present, they will not be motivated to display their newly acquired competences. For this reason, e.g., the European Commission, within the framework of Community Action Programme to Combat Discrimination (2001–2006), prepared the guidelines for entrepreneurs and businesses, presenting other activities, beside training, which may be undertaken by individual organizations in order to create effective diversity in a workplace (Keil et al., 2007).

To return to the subject of the content of training programs, it is worth stressing that it is their goal to limit and prevent various forms of stigmatization, discrimination and exclusion. The centre of gravity then, falls not on the knowledge itself, but on the attitudes towards individuals which differ from the point of view of demographic, individual or cultural characteristics. There is a well-known phenomenon, described by Tejfel and Turner (1986), i.e.: favouritism for one's own group and depreciation of the alien group, described within the so-called social identity theory. A tendency towards a conviction that one's own group is better than other groups serves as an element of self-esteem increase, and thus potentially poses an obstacle for acceptance of diversity.

Crisp and Turner (2011, p. 258–259), citing the above mentioned process of social categorization, point out that the experience of diversity leads to positive changes in the attitudes towards others, when: (1) the diversity experience undermines stereotypical attitudes; (2) the perceiver is motivated and able to consider a new perspective towards others; (3) the perceiver engages in stereotype suppression and generative thought in response to the diversity experience; (4) the positive experience of stereotype undermining is repeated frequently. Diversity programs based on these models (Categorization – Processing – Adaptation – Generalization) are likely to be more effective than traditional training.

As suggested by Combs and Luthans (2007), training covering the subject of diversity is the more effective, the further the gravity centre falls towards the improvement of cognitive competences (comprising, above all, self-efficacy). The authors proved, having conducted a study on 276 persons who underwent diversity training, that inclusion of

issues increasing self-efficacy significantly increases the intentions to engage into relations with other persons, and thus to overcome prejudices and barriers. In all probability, it is partly an effect of fulfilment of the need for auto-valorisation, which allows to maintain a desired positive self-esteem even when facing less advantageous social comparisons. The theory of social comparison (Festinger, 1954) points out the psychological significance of self-esteem and allows to explain how the process of comparisons with others influences group behaviours. What is more, people also conduct inter-group comparisons, which influence their self-esteem as well (social identity is a derivative of group membership) – as shown in the above mentioned theory of social identity. The tendency to maintain a positive self-esteem may lead to distortions in inter-group comparisons, by means of searching for a way to differentiate one's own group from other groups in an advantageous manner (to favour it) (Tajfel & Turner 1986). Thus, the theory of social identity may also help to explain the tendency for inter-group discrimination, at the same time indicating the role of cognitive processes for this tendency. Therefore, wishing to eliminate the negative results which are caused by the existence of the processes of incorrect and simplified deduction on the subject of others (e.g. stereotyping), and form the effect of cognitive processes discussed above, e.g.: cognitive rigidity, reduction of uncertainty, a need for closure, structure and cognition, it is necessary to include in the training programs the knowledge covering that field. Naturally, in the context of limiting unfavourable judgments of others due to the existing differences, it is also necessary to develop intercultural, affective and communicative competences. This necessity is demonstrated in the analyses of King, Dawson, Kravitz, and Gulick (2012, p. 8), who performed a review of the effects of trainings related to diversity and found that apart from development of awareness and employees' sensitivity towards diversity, or the already mentioned self-efficacy, it is also possible to observe the development of commitment to helping other employees or to avoidance of discrimination during recruitment processes.

In the training covering the subject of diversity it is recommended to employ numerous, varied activation methods and tasks, which will enable a deeper comprehension of the area of discrimination or exclusion. Not only the theoretical analyses but also empirical studies point out that effective methods of competence development are such methods which are based on *action learning, case studies, cooperative*

learning, or *problem-based learning* (Fortin & Legault, 2010). Therefore, Pendry, Driscoll, and Field (2007) suggest the use of examples and designing exercises constructed on the basis of classic theories of social psychology and sociology, in order for the theoretical knowledge related to exclusion and conflicts within groups and among groups to find reflection in training practice.

From the point of view of development of competences oriented at diversity, and, in particular, communicative, social, and affective competences, especially significant results may be achieved via *workshops* and *psychological training*. They cover an intentionally managed process, which leads to achieving, through special exercises, a high general psychological expertise and to mastering certain habits and skills which ensure capability for effective and efficient actions. They serve to transform the personality, to acquire new attitudes and behaviors, to improve competent actions and to facilitate the course of specific psychological processes. Practical significance of such trainings consists in providing and reinforcing model situations and behaviours, which is achieved by way of organizing appropriate learning situations, forming a source of information about oneself and the surrounding world (Klatt, 1999).

Psychological training and workshops allow to develop these competences which are particularly important in the relations, within which we have to deal with diversity – i.e.: empathy, respect, directness, openness, emotional commitment, courage to confront different attitudes and views, self-knowledge, improvement of communicative skills. Particular advantage of group training with the use of psychological training and psychological workshop methods lies in the fact that by creating an opportunity for a direct contact with persons of diverse personal traits, views, ethnic and national identities, etc., individuals gain a possibility to create, within their minds, a more realistic picture of diversity. Getting to know people whom previously one judged on the basis of stereotypes allows to evaluate their diversity-conditioned behaviour in a realistic manner. It also presents an occasion to establish positive attitudes, based on reinforcement of the emotional component of the attitude, which results from experiencing positive sentiments in the contact with others. According to the expectancy-value theory of Fishbein and Ajzen (1974), an attitude is shaped as a result of an analysis of the values of individual characteristics of an object. In such a situation we deal with forming an attitude towards an object of the at-

titude on the basis of cognitive activities, whose result is the shape of a given attitude.

Thus, psychological training and workshop methods may be applied in the modification of attitudes (but also in reinforcement of the existing ones), via specific training covering a range of various cognitive behaviours, or behavioural and emotional responses, achieved through intra- and interpersonal experiences. Broadening the scope of information which serves to modify cognitive schemata and emotions which accompany them, forms an important element of individual's development (change) process, due to which the individuals extend their repertoire of behavioural responses.

When designing activities serving to modify attitudes, it is necessary to pay attention to the following elements:

- Stimulation of the cognitive component of the attitude, through activation of mental processes serving to modify previous cognitive patterns, via a variety of exercises (providing information and verifying participants' knowledge with regard to the objects of the attitude, public improvisation of arguments, role-play, group discussions, case analyses);
- Deepening participants' insight into the motivation of their own behaviours, reflecting specific convictions (with regard to various objects of the attitude and to oneself), reaching the sources of convictions and verification of convictions by means of triggering external, individual and reflexive self-awareness. Creating opportunities for confronting previous convictions within intra- and inter-personal situations;
- Arranging experiences which serve as a source of pleasurable and strong emotions, which will result in attributing subjective meanings to newly experienced events and situations;
- Employing mechanisms of social learning and social influence, which present opportunities to model behaviours related to a given attitude (i.e. to repeat positive behaviours towards the object of the attitude by other participants of the training);
- Using the group form of learning, applying the dynamics of a group process which bases on free expression of opinion and feelings towards others, and on shaping the models for inter-personal relations;
- Multiple repetition of exercises in order to reinforce attitudes;

- Participation based on voluntarily entered contracts or group agreements, establishing goals and formula of the training, and norms regulating the behaviours of participants;
- Role of the trainer defined as a facilitator and not a leader; the trainer to help achieve goals and to create a climate of security.

Apart from traditional forms of development of diversity-oriented competences (i.e. training), it is pointed out that alternative methods for improvement of employees' potential with regard to diversity are provided by *coaching* (Coultais, Bedwell, Burke, & Salas, 2011) and *mentoring* (Olson & Jackson, 2009; Willems & Smet, 2007; Wilson, Sanner, & Mcallister, 2010).

The suggestion to employ coaching and mentoring as methods for development diversity-oriented competences results, on one hand, from a wide spectrum of elements which may be subject to influence (knowledge, skills, attitudes, personality traits, motivation), while on the other hand it results from a specific process of acquiring them, accomplished in the context of existence of a relation between the employee and the coach/mentor. Due to them it is possible not only to improve the existing skills, but also – which is often used in practice – to prepare the employees to deal with prejudices and discrimination in professional environment, or in functioning in trans-cultural surroundings (Murrell, Blake-Beard, Porter, & Perkins-Williamson 2008). A certain limitation of these methods is observed in their use mainly in the case of high-potential employees or persons who were promoted to managerial positions and will undertake professional roles which will be new to them (Underhill, 2006).

Despite the common assumption lying at the base of coaching and mentoring, and stating that they form a process of supporting development, it is possible to indicate differences in the manner of achieving development goals by the coachee and the mentee, and also a specific style of action on the part of the mentor and the coach. The goal of coaching is to stimulate a positive change both in the aspect of efficiency and a development of specific abilities, as well as in a broader sense of personal development (Stober, 2008). The main focus is placed on creation of optimal conditions for coachees to independently reach goals set by themselves, which in this case may cover, e.g.: management of a diverse team or functioning in a multicultural organization.

Mentoring, on the other hand, bases on helping/assisting a person who is an organization's supervisory responsibility in a long-term perspective, via developing a relationship with a more experienced mentor (Schraeder & Jordan, 2011). Such a relationship consists in mutually beneficial cooperation, within which the more experienced 'teacher' undertakes an active role in helping ('watching over') a less experienced 'ward' in order to polish their functioning within the performed professional role. The mentor looks after the mentee, while organizing and conducting the process of tutoring and controlling the effects of learning. It comprises both the activities of didactic-methodical character (e.g. handing down knowledge, sharing professional experiences), and shaping behaviours on the basis of the mechanisms of imitation and modelling, e.g., when a mentor constitutes for a mentee a model of desired, effective behaviours in given situations.

In the context of developing diversity-oriented competences, the use of coaching and mentoring may serve, among others, the following *goals*:

- Broadening self-awareness with respect to specificity of social functioning in a culturally diverse workplace environment;
- Analysis of cognitive schemata, representing individuals' knowledge about themselves and the social world;
- Reflection on the convictions which may be dysfunctional from the point of view of social relations with persons with disparate characteristics;
- Understanding of the origins of one's own mind set, revealed in contact with others;
- Improvement of skills related to communication, emotional intelligence, empathy and creation of attitudes of openness for diversity, commitment and cooperation with others;
- Development of an effective management style, characterized by large diversity and favouring the increase of group cohesion, creation of a sense of justice, stimulation of readiness to cooperate with others and to display citizenship behaviours.

It appears that the advantage of coaching and mentoring over training in facilitating the development of competences results from a deepened work based on self-reflection. As it happens, attitudes are often influenced by way of confrontation and verification of opinions, becoming aware of one's own convictions and ways in which we orga-

nize our social knowledge and the consequences which result from this knowledge. The material for analysis is provided by authentic professional situations in which an individual participates. The context, then, is connected with more than a mere transfer of knowledge, or creation of a number of behavioural responses which are adequate and which ensure effectiveness in specific task situations and social circumstances (as is in the case of training). Gaining new competences often requires changes in the way of thinking, a reconstruction of the model of 'I,' establishment of new meanings and a new interpretation of the surrounding reality, integration of the new values into the already existing axiological system, and thus, it is related to a change of attitudes. In such a sense, the process of improvement has the character of transformative learning (taking into account interactivity of factors which influence it, and using a system of actions, integrated with the company's strategy, which provides diversified contexts and modes of learning), within which a global change takes place.

Using coaching and mentoring for development of diversity-oriented competences has, however, its own *limitations*. Olson and Jackson (2009, p. 49) indicate that coaches and mentors usually choose persons similar to themselves, and thus the work on true diversity becomes limited and potentially related to the appearance of stereotypes and prejudices. The analysis of Thomas (2001) shows that employees who remain in mentor relationships with persons of a different demographic characteristics less often make use of the experience and knowledge of their mentor. However, a relation in which a coach or a mentor represents different demographic, cultural or racial characteristics may be potentially beneficial. Improving diversity-oriented competences in cooperation with precisely this type of person may bring around positive results. Still, it is pointed out that in the process of establishing of a formal contract and informal relations, the difference in the way of thinking, feeling and behaving, which may cause mutual misunderstandings, should be openly discussed (McCauley, 2007).

Among the benefits resulting from the use of coaching and mentoring in promoting organizational diversity, the following can be mentioned, among others: (1) for the organization: efficiency increase, better utilization of an employee's potential, positive image as an employer, decrease of intentions to leave the employment, strengthening organizational culture of the company, ensuring a sense of common values among employees; (2) for the employees: development of new

skills, better qualification for team work, increase of effectiveness in realization of job tasks, increased readiness for performing leadership roles, increase of self-reliance and a sense of self-efficacy, increase of commitment, increase of a sense of job-fit, increased sense of job satisfaction, stronger intention to remain in the company, creation of a sense of competency and efficiency.

Summary and Conclusions

Management of a diversified work team in organizations (e.g. due to age, culture, ethnic identity, religious beliefs) is posing an increasing challenge for managerial staff, since maintenance of a team's unity in view of diverse norms, values, and ways of reacting in different situations implies a necessity to employ a variety of HRM tools and practices so as to trigger and channel organizational behaviours characterized by significant effectiveness, while eliminating the cases of exclusion or discrimination.

At the same time, diversity poses unique requirements to employees themselves. While implementing job tasks, they need to cooperate with others in an effective manner. As a result, special importance is gained by this group of transferable competences which may be described as diversity-oriented competences, and which comprise, among others: communicative, negotiation, intercultural, social, affective and cognitive competences. Apart from the aspects related to the effectiveness of activities within social situations, they include the aspects which may support diversity at a workplace: openness, acceptance and tolerance, emotional commitment and cooperation. Their development in an organization should be treated as one of priority challenges for human resources development (HRD), in the interest of creating effective organizational diversity. At the same time, it needs to be stressed that the difficulty in mounting this challenge springs from the fact that the desired changes have qualitative ('to be'), and not only quantitative ('to have') character. They are related to shaping attitudes (a change in the way of thinking) and the development of empathy, but also to the awareness and sensitivity of individuals with regard to the needs of other employees (Moore, 1999; Combs, 2002), and not only to the superficial treatment of the subject of diversity – which often takes place during training. Thus, it is necessary to pay special attention during the process of the design of development activities directed to diversity, taking into account a variety of available methods and forms. In

this context, apart from professionally prepared training, coaching and mentoring appear worthy of recommendation. Naturally, complex activities on the part of an organization should also include procedural solutions (e.g.: related to a just division of resources), as the training is not always sufficient for reinforcement of diversity at a workplace. This challenge requires the management to undertake multi-directional actions, but, most of all, it demands an attitude of openness for diversity and an understanding that supporting diversity in a workplace facilitates the processes of development of the organization as a whole, due to creativity which draws from the diversity of ideas. In the context of promoting diversity, it is also essential to quote the conclusion of the previously referenced *2005 Workplace Diversity Practices Survey Report* (Esen, 2005, p. 17) ‘one of the most effective ways to show employees, customers and clients that diversity is valued by the organization is to have diversity visible at all leadership levels. This requires a commitment on behalf of senior management to not only hire diverse employees, but to groom them to take on future leadership roles. One way to do this is to tie diversity outcomes to management compensation.’

References

- Anand, R., & Winters, M. (2008). A retrospective view of corporate diversity training from 1964 to the present. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 7(3), 356–372.
- Bassett-Jones, N. (2005). The paradox of diversity management, creativity and innovations. *Creativity and Innovations Management*, 14, 169–175.
- Cocchiara F. K., Connerley, M. L., & Bell, M. P. (2010). ‘A gem’ for increasing the effectiveness of diversity training. *Human Resource Management*, 49(6), 1089–1106.
- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 86, 278–321.
- Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 425–445.
- Combs, G. M. (2002). Meeting the leadership challenge of a diverse and pluralistic workplace: Implications of self-efficacy for diversity training. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 8, 1–16.

- Combs, G. M., & Luthans, F. (2007). Diversity training: Analysis of the impact of self-efficacy. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 18(1), 91-120.
- Coultas, Ch., W., Bedwell, W. L., Burke, C. S., & Salas, E. (2011). Values sensitive coaching: The delta approach to coaching culturally diverse executives. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research*, 63(3), 149-161.
- Crisp, R. J., & Turner, R. N. (2011). Cognitive adaptation to the experience of social and cultural diversity. *Psychological Bulletin*, 137, 242-266.
- Dhéret, C., Lazarowicz, A., Nicoli, F., Pascouau, Y., & Zuleeg, F. (2013). *Making progress towards the completion of the Single European Labour Market* (EPC Issue Paper No. 75). Brussels, Belgium: European Policy Centre.
- D'Netto B., & Sohal, A. S. (1999). Human resource practices and workforce diversity: An empirical assessment. *International Journal of Manpower*, 20(8), 530-547.
- Emmerling, R. J., & Boyatzis, R. E. (2012). Emotional and social intelligence competencies: Cross cultural implications. *Cross Cultural Management*, 19(1), 4-18.
- Esen, E. (2005). *2005 workplace diversity practices survey report*. Alexandria, VA: Society for Human Resource Management. Retrieved from http://www.shrm.org/research/surveyfindings/articles/documents/05-0509wkplcdivprcsr_final_rev.pdf
- European Agency for Safety and Health at Work. (2010). *Workplace Violence and Harassment: a European Picture*. Luxembourg, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. Retrieved from <https://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/reports/violence-harassment-TERO09010ENC>
- European Commission. (2013, March 26). EU employment and social situation quarterly review. Retrieved from <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=89&langId=en&newsId=1852&furtherNews=yes>
- Falconer, S., & Pettigrew, M. (2005). Developing added value skills within an academic programme through work-based learning. *International Journal of Manpower*, 24(1), 48-59.
- Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. *Human Relations*, 7, 117-140.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1974). Attitudes toward objects as predictors of single and multiple behavioral criteria. *Psychological Review*, 81(1), 59-74.
- Fortin, A., & Legault, M. (2010). Development of generic competencies:

- Impact of a mixed teaching approach on students' perceptions. *Accounting Education: An International Journal*, 19(1-2), 93-122.
- Gibbons-Wood, D., & Lange, T. (2000). Developing core skills: Lessons from Germany and Sweden. *Education & Training*, 42(1), 24-32.
- Gudykunst, W. B. (1993). Toward a theory of effective interpersonal and intergroup communication. In R. L. Wiseman & J. Koester (Eds.), *Intercultural communication competence* (pp. 33-71). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Harrison, D. A., Price, K. H., Gavin, J. H., & Florey, A. T. (2002). Time, teams, and task performance: Changing effects of surface- and deep-level diversity on group functioning. *Academy of Management Journal*, 5, 1029-1045.
- Harvey, L., & Knight, P. T. (1996). *Transforming higher education*. Buckingham, England: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Hoffman, M. L. (2000). *Empathy and moral development: Implications for caring and justice*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Holladay, C. L., & Quinones, M. A. (2008). The influence of training focus and trainer characteristic on diversity training effectiveness. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 7(3), 343-354.
- Isaken, S. C., & Ekvall, G. (2010). Managing for innovation: The two faces of tension in creative climates. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 19(2), 73-88.
- Jehn, K. A., Chadwick, C., & Thather, S. M. B. (1997). To agree or not to agree: The effects of value congruence, individual demographic dissimilarity, and conflict on workgroup outcomes. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 8, 287-305.
- Jones, E. (2013). Internationalization and employability: The role of intercultural experiences in the development of transferable skills. *Public Money & Management*, 33(2), 95-104.
- Kahanes, M., Zaičeva, A., & Zimmermann, K. F. (2011). Ethnic minorities in the European Union: An overview. In M. Kahanec & K. F. Zimmermann (Eds.), *Ethnic diversity in European labor markets: Challenges and solutions* (pp. 1-30). Cheltenham, England: Edward Elgar.
- Keil, M., Amershi, B., Holmes, S., Jablonski, H., Lüthi, E., Matoba, K., Plett, A., & Von Unruh, K. (2007). *Training manual for diversity management*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/justice/discrimination/files/diversity_training_manual_en.pdf
- Kelsey, B. L. (2000). Increasing minority group participation and influence using a group support system. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Science*, 17(1), 63-75.

- King, E. B., Dawson J. F., Kravitz, D. A., & Gulick L. M. V. (2012). A multilevel study of the relationships between diversity training, ethnic discrimination and satisfaction in organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33, 5-20.
- Kirton, G., & Greene, A. M. (2010). *The dynamics of managing diversity: A critical approach*. Oxford, England: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Klatt, B. (1999). *The ultimate training workshop handbook: A comprehensive guide to leading successful workshops and training programs*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Kossowska, M. (2009). Nowe poznawcze wymiary osobowości a społeczne poznanie i działanie [New cognitive dimensions of personality and social cognition and action]. In M. Kossowska & M. Kofta (Eds.), *Psychologia poznania społecznego* [Psychology of social cognition] (pp. 225-244). Warsaw, Poland: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Lloyd, S., & Hartel, Ch. (2010). Intercultural competencies for culturally diverse work teams. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(8), 845-875.
- Lohmann, J., Rollins, A., & Hoey, J. (2006). Defining, developing and assessing global competence in engineers. *European Journal of Engineering Education*, 31(1), 119-131.
- Maznevski, M. L. (1994). Understanding our differences: Performance in decision-making groups with diverse members. *Human Relations*, 47(5), 531-552.
- McCauley, R. (2007). Building a successful mentoring program. *Journal for Quality and Participation*, 30, 17-19.
- McClelland, C. (1973). Testing for competence rather than intelligence. *American Psychologist*, 28(1), 1-14
- Moore, S. (1999). Understanding and managing diversity among groups at work: Key issues for organisational training and development. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 23(4-5), 208-217.
- Morreale, S. P., Spitzberg, B. H., & Barge, J. K. (2001). *Human communication: Motivation, knowledge and skills*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.
- Murrell, A. J., Blake-Beard, S., Porter Jr., D. M., & Perkins-Williamson, A. (2008). Inter-organizational formal mentoring: Breaking the concrete ceiling sometimes requires support from the outside. *Human Resource Management*, 47(2), 275-294.
- Naimark, H., & Pearce, S. (1985). Transferable skills: One link between work and family. *Journal of Career Development*, 12, 48-54.
- Nkomo, S. M. (2008). Discrimination. In J. Barling & C. L. Cooper (Eds.),

- The Sage handbook of organizational behaviour* (pp. 657–672). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- O'Reilly, C. A., Caldwell, D. F., & Barnett, W. P. (1989). Work group demography, social integration and turnover. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *34*, 21–37.
- Oatley, K., Keltner D., & Jenkins, J. M. (2006). *Understanding emotions*. Malden, MA; Oxford, England: Blackwell.
- Olson, D. A., & Jackson, D. (2009). Expanding leadership diversity through formal mentoring programs. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *3*(1), 47–60.
- Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). *Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Paluck, E. L. (2006). Diversity training and intergroup contact: A call to action research. *Journal of Social Issues*, *62*(3), 577–595.
- Pendry, L. F., Driscoll, D. M., & Field, S. C. T. (2007). Diversity training: Putting theory into practice. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *80*, 27–50.
- Raybould, J., & Sheedy, V. (2005). Are graduates equipped with the right skills in the employability stakes? *Industrial and Commercial Training*, *37*(3), 259–236.
- Roberge, M.-E., Lewicki, R. J., Hietapelto, A., & Abdyldaeva, A. (2011). From theory to practice: Recommending supportive diversity practices. *Journal of Diversity Management*, *6*(2), 1–20.
- Roberston, Q. M., & Stevens, C. K. (2006). Making sense of diversity in the workplace: Organizational justice and language abstraction in employees' accounts of diversity-related incidents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*, 379–391.
- Schraeder, M., & Jordan, M. (2011). Managing performance. *Journal for Quality & Participation*, *34*(2), 4–10.
- Schramm, J. (2006). *SHRM workplace forecast*. Alexandria, VA: Society for Human Resources Management. Retrieved from <http://www.shrm.org/research/futureworkplacetrends/documents/061606workplaceforecast.pdf>
- Shaw, J. B., & Barrett-Power, E. (1998). The effects of diversity on small work group processes and performance. *Human Relations*, *51*(1), 1307–1325.
- Singh, A. A., Merchant, N., & Skudrzyk, B. (2012). Association for specialists in group work: Multicultural and social justice competence principles for group workers. *Journal for Specialists in Group Work*, *37*(4), 312–325.

- Skarlicki, D. P., & Latham, G. P. (2005). How can training be used to foster organizational justice? In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 499-522). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Stober, D. R. (2008). Making it stick: Coaching as a tool for organizational change. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice* 1(1), 71-80.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behaviour. In S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 7-24). Chicago, IL: Nelson Hall.
- Thomas, D. (2001). The truth about mentoring minorities: Race matters. *Harvard Business Review*, 79, 98-107.
- Turek, D. (2011). The role of moral competence in the creation of company's value. In S. Konarski & D. Turek (Eds.), *Transferable competencies: Diagnosis, formation, management* (pp. 33-57). Warsaw, Poland: SGH.
- Turek, D., & Wojtczuk-Turek, A. (2011). Transferable competencies: Review of definitions, models and theoretical approaches. In S. Konarski & D. Turek (Eds.), *Transferable competencies: Diagnosis, formation, management* (pp. 13-31). Warsaw, Poland: SGH.
- Underhill, C. M. (2006). The effectiveness of mentoring programs in corporate settings: A meta-analytical review of the literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68, 292-307.
- Von Bergen, C. W., Soper, B., & Foster, T. (2002). Unintended negative effects of diversity management. *Public Personnel Management*, 31, 239-252.
- Willems H., & Smet, M., (2007). Mentoring driving diversity. *Organization Development Journal*, 25(2), 107-111.
- Williams, K. Y. (1998). Demography and diversity in organizations: A review of 100 years of research. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 77-140). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Wilson, A. H., Sanner, S., & Mcallister, L. E. (2010). An evaluation study of a mentoring program to increase the diversity of the nursing workforce. *Journal of Cultural Diversity*, 17(4), 144-150.
- Yntema, T. O. (1960). The transferable skills of a manager. *Journal of the Academy of Management*, 3, 79-86.

The Importance of Cross-Cultural Competencies in the New Context of Human Resources Management

Anca Draghici

Politehnica University Timisoara, Romania

Introduction – Conceptual Framework

This chapter will provide an overview of the cross-cultural competencies development from two perspectives: one related to the workplace relationships or processes development and the other related to the learning process. The idea behind this approach is to offer a knowledge pool for better understand and valorise (face the challenges and take advantage of) multicultural environments. In the following there will be presented the concepts used, based on their common and generally understanding (according to Wikipedia and other on-line dictionaries).

The culture concept is seen as a set of share attitudes, values, goals and practices that characterize an institution, organization or a group. *Cultural competence* refers to an ability to interact effectively with people of different cultures and it comprises four components: (a) Awareness of one's own cultural worldview, (b) Attitude towards cultural differences, (c) Knowledge of different cultural practices and worldviews, and (d) Cross-cultural skills. Developing cultural competence results in an ability to understand, communicate, and effectively interact with people across cultures (Martin and Vaughn, 2007). *Diversity* in this case, includes cultural (e.g. language, religious affiliation, traditions), socio-economic (e.g. social origin, residence, education, professional experience, income, family status), political (e.g. national origin, worldview), and physical factors (e.g. age, mental and physical abilities), and is critically increased by gender which intersects with each of the aforementioned determinants.

Cultural competence is not something we have or do not have. It is a process of learning (our continuous improvement) and becoming allies with people from other cultures, thereby broadening our own understanding and ability to participate in a multicultural environment. The key element for becoming more culturally competent is respect for the



ways that others live in and organize their own microenvironment and an openness to learn from them (Kivel, 2007).

Cultural characteristics at the organizational level can be measured and evaluate using different models started with (Schein 1992; Williams, 1993; Hofstede, Bond, & Luk, 1993; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 1997; Schein 1999; Cameron and Quinn, 1999; Hensey 2001; Duarte and Snyder 2001).

Multiculturalism is a concept (or an ideology) relates to communities containing multiple cultures. Multiculturalism means more than racial balance and inclusion. All members of the community must be competent to communicate with each other for effective multicultural processes development (Kivel, 2007).

Interculturalism is the philosophy of exchanges between cultural groups within a society. It requires an inherent openness to be exposed to the culture of another person or group. Once a person is exposed to an element of a different culture, a dialogue will ensue, where everyone embarks upon understanding the culture, and usually this involves comparisons. Thus, interculturalism brings dialogue, in order to be able to look for commonalities between elements of one's culture and the culture of the other.

Interculturality is a process in which people from different cultures interact to work, learn together, and question their own and each other's cultures. It is linked with the ability to experience the culture of another person and to be open minded, interested, and curious about that person and culture. In this context, the concept implies the appropriate use of a target language.

Intercultural competencies are related to the ability to handle (manage) the challenges of communication with people from different cultural backgrounds. Two aspects of the communication process have to be considered in this case: appropriateness (valued rules, norms, and expectations of the relationship are not violated significantly) and effectiveness (valued goals or rewards, relative to costs and alternatives, are accomplished). The basic requirements for intercultural competence are empathy, an understanding of other people's behaviour and ways of thinking, and the ability to express one's own way of thinking. It could be considered as a balance among four parts:

- *Knowledge* about other cultures and other people's behaviour;
- *Empathy* that means understanding the feelings and needs of other people;

- *Self-confidence* related to the knowledge of one's own desires, strengths, weaknesses, and emotional stability;
- *Cultural identity* that is linked with the knowledge of one's own culture.

Other dimensions could be included as an attitude, skills or awareness in order to characterize behaviour dimension of intercultural competence (Fantini, 2006).

Intercultural competence is also called cross-cultural competence. *The cross-cultural* (or transcultural in the context of our chapter) concept refers to any of various forms of interactivity between members of disparate cultural groups (it can be explained as cross-cultural communication, interculturalism, intercultural relations, hybridity, cosmopolitanism, transculturation).¹

Cross-cultural competence refers to the knowledge, skills, and motivation that enable individuals to adapt effectively in cross-cultural environments. In the context of this chapter, cross-cultural competence is defined as an individual capability that contributes to intercultural effectiveness in the particular case of culture intersection or a multicultural environment. Although some aspects of cognition, behaviour, or affect may be particularly relevant in a specific country or region, evidence suggests that a core set of competencies enables adaptation to any culture. Cross-cultural competence is a set of variables that contributes to intercultural effectiveness.²

According to Fantini study (2006) about 86 assessment instruments for the *cross-cultural (intercultural) competence assessment*, he narrowed the list down to some relevant instruments that were suitable for further exploration of their reliability and validity. In addition, United States Army Research Institute studies show that following characteristics are tested and observed for the assessment of intercultural competence assessment: ambiguity tolerance, openness to contacts, flexibility in behaviour, emotional stability, motivation to perform, empathy, meta communicative competence, and polycentrism (Abbe, Gulick, & Herman, 2007). A general review of intercultural or cross-cultural competencies may include the following:

- The most popular *quantitative tools* are the Inter-Cultural De-

1. See <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-cultural>.

2. See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-cultural_competence.

velopment Inventory,³ the Cultural Intelligence Scale⁴ and the Multi-Cultural Personality Questionnaire (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000; Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2001; Leone et al., 2005).

- In the case of the *qualitative tools*, the scenario-based assessment one seems to be useful for gaining insight into intercultural competence. In addition, intercultural coaching frameworks, such as the Intercultural Communication and Collaboration Appraisal (ICCA) (Messner and Schafer, 2012), do not attempt an assessment; they provide guidance for personal improvement based upon the identification of personal traits, strengths, and weaknesses.
- More details about intercultural competencies assessment tools could be found in (Kumas-Tan, Beagan, Loppie, MacLeod, & Frank 2007; Fantini, 2009).

In the last year, a new concept of *cultural agility* has been introduced in the literature. It is related to the ability to quickly, comfortably, accurately, and successfully operate across countries and with people from different cultures – in other words, to use your cross-cultural learning effectively. Cultural agility, as an ability, was coined by Caligiuri (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Caligiuri, Lepak, & Bonache, 2010) in an effort to better describe the three concurrent orientations individuals need in order to operate across countries and in multicultural settings. According to their study, these orientations include (Caligiuri, Noe, Nolan, Ryan, & Drasgow, 2011):

- *Cultural adaptation* (is an orientation people may have to be sensitive to and strive to adapt to the nuances of cultural differences);
- *Cultural minimalism* (is an orientation people have to reduce the perceived influence of cultural differences either in one's own behaviour or in the behaviour of others);
- *Cultural integration* (is an orientation to understand cultural differences of each person in a multicultural or cross-cultural context, but also to strive to create new norms or interactions that reflect a combination of many cultural perspectives).

3. See <https://idiinventory.com>

4. See <http://www.linnvandyne.com/cq.html>

The cultural agility concept could be the next generation ‘weapon’ for building the future society with high levels of equity and tolerance, but also with high responsibility of organizations’ social (and citizenship) behaviour. Thus, cross-cultural competencies development is an important process of understanding and support diversity management in the new context of International Human Resources Management. In the same context, there have been suggested that the concept of *cultural intelligence* may provide some insights into how international relationships can be managed (Earley, Soon, & Tan, 2006; Thomas & Inkson, 2004; Crossman & Clarke, 2010). The concept has been described as an individual’s ability to adapt to new cultural contexts and it draws upon cultural knowledge pertaining to both the facts that we hold about another culture as well as our knowledge of how things operate (Earley, Soon, & Tan, 2006, pp. 5–6). Thomas and Inkson (2004, p. 71) suggest that *international experience*, is the *most important means of increasing cultural intelligence*.

Why Cross-Cultural Competencies Are Important?

In the 21st century organization, multiculturalism is a success factor that provides a favourable framework for the cultural diversity development and management (Harvey and Allard, 2011).

In the last 20 years there have been recognized that organizations can take many *advantages from workforce diversity*. In policy terms, popular conceptions of diversity management emphasize individual difference over social group-based difference and downplay discrimination and disadvantage, while being upbeat about the positive dimension of group-based difference (Kirton & Greene, 2010; Klarsfeld, 2010; Hamdorf, 2012).

From the practical perspective, international, multinational companies must acknowledge that diversity is not limited to those actions of identifying employee differences based on nationality, ethnicity, gender, educational background, etc. (Hoerder, 2013). Organizations need to consider a large variety of employees’ diversity aspects in order to understand, appreciate, and better valorised the complexity of human capital composition. These aspects will conduct organization better understand their human resources and human capital inimitable resources in order to gain competitive advantage. In addition, references suggest general directions to manage diversity successfully in international organizations.

Diversity definition includes differences in terms of social constructs as race and ethnicity. Loden (1996) included race and ethnicity as primary diversity dimensions along with age, gender, mental-physical abilities and characteristics, and sexual orientation. These are issues considered as core dimensions to understanding diversity due to their influence on early socialization and development, as well as their impact over the lifetime. Significant secondary dimensions include communication style, education, family status, first language, geographic location, income, military experience, organizational role and level, work experience, and work style. These aspects are viewed as less important dimensions because they are not always visible, nor are they results of pure socially constructed dynamics (Loden, 1996). In Tables 1 and 2 are shown diversity dimensions categories as they were presented by Loden (1996) and, more recent by (Shin & Park, 2013). These overview will support the better understanding of diversity approaches and the additional managerial aspects.

Managing diversity concept was developed in the United States in the 1980s as a response to demographic changes within the workforce and global competition. It was also a reaction to the introduction of equity legislation and practices. The core of this concept is the belief that organizations stand to benefit from having a diverse workforce and that is therefore in their interest to recognize and cater to the needs of individual employees (Strachan, French, & Burgess, 2010). In the same context, researchers and practitioners have try to explain the differences and diversity issues using different approaches in order to offer explanations and background to interpreted uniformly across cultures and countries (Klarsfeld, 2010; Hamdorf, 2012).

Diversity management has been recognized as a science since the 1990s and reflect the changes that were occurring in that time in theorizing equality, developments in organizational approaches to equality policy-making and the shift towards greater recognition of workforce diversity by different stakeholders. The concept was largely popularized by (Kandola & Fullerton, 1994) having a practical dimension and being a new way forward for the business organizations. In addition, management diversity delivers benefits to the organization and it has been considered as a business case for workforce diversity (Cornelius, Gooch, & Todd, 2001).

Policies and practices in the field of diversity management were connected to *workforce diversity* and *International Human Resources*

TABLE 1 Diversity Dimensions: Loden Approach

Primary	Secondary
Race	Communication style
Ethnicity	Education
	Family status
	First language
	Geographic location
	Income level
	Military experience
	Organizational role and experience
	Work experience and work style

NOTES Adapted from Loden (1996).

TABLE 2 Diversity Dimensions: Shin and Park Approach

Socio-cognitive	Demographic	Organizational
Religious beliefs	Age	Occupation, functional or job portfolios
Tradition	Gender	Job status (blue – execution, white – management position)
Sexual orientation	City, state or region of residence	Job tenure or seniority
Intelligence level	Ethnicity	Hierarchical ranking
Mental challenges	Nationality	Work experience
Beliefs	Marital status	Functional experience
Thinking patterns	Cultural heritage	
Knowledge level	Socio-economic status	
Education	Physical appearance	
Personality characteristics	Physical ability	
Political beliefs		

NOTES Adapted from Shin and Park (2013).

Management. These perspectives should ensure that continuous learning and adaptation in organizations and cultural synergy is a desirable behaviour in successful workplace diversity management.

From the micro-level perspective of the organization, management needs to integrate and build upon the values and beliefs of the various members of the work team, and develop group strategies that produce better results and solutions, which are more innovative than the single contributions of individual members (Ng & Wyrick, 2011; Choi & Rainey, 2014; Klarsfeld, 2010; Hamdorf, 2012).

From the macro-level perspective of the organization system, management needs to develop organizational policies and formal education programs that (Hamdorf, 2012; Meeussen, Otten, & Phalet, 2014; French, Strachan, & Burgess, 2013; Klarsfeld, 2010):

- Create awareness and increase social consciousness;

- Emphasize the importance of organizational culture, management responsibility and accountability;
- Actively ensure the incorporation of diversity management as an integral part of the overall organizational development and change process;
- Empowerment of management and employees so that they are more involved in the process of institutionalizing diversity;
- Review corporate infrastructure, systems and policies that promote diversity; and
- Create internal support systems that encourage diversity of thought and actions of staff from different backgrounds.

In the following there will be presented some relevant findings of two studies (surveys) in the field of diversity management, in 2013: *DiversityInc Top 50* and the survey results of the Booz and Company. These have contributed to the actual state, framework characterization and future trends estimations (according to companies representatives expressed needs) of cultural issues within organizations worldwide and of the diversity management, too.

The DiversityInc Top 50

In the recent years, international and multinational companies benefit from the wealth of available business knowledge, differing experiences, and global perspectives that staff from diverse backgrounds can contribute (Shin & Park, 2013). Furthermore, the *DiversityInc Top 50*⁵ for diversity developed companies in United States shows each year a big interest and practical improvements in the field and this is a relevant testimony that the concept is a key factor for success in global business environments.⁶ In the same context, *DiversityInc Top 50* study has proved the new human resources management paradigms in the international and global environment of the labor market. The survey (and the related report) was in the 14th year in 2013; 587 companies participated in the survey in 2012 and 893 companies in 2013. In order to achieve their objectives for diversity, there have been found that companies' common strategies are the establishment of a formal councils and the implementation for diversity training programs. The

5. See <http://www.diversityinc.com>

6. According to the *DiversityInc Top 50* Methodology, an organization must have at least 1,000 employees and fill out our detailed 300-question survey (<http://www.diversityinc.com/diversityinc-top-50-methodology/>).

TABLE 3 Survey Areas of the *DiversityInc Top 50*

Description	Components	Details
<i>Talent pipeline.</i> This area assesses the company's ability to recruit people of all races, ethnicities, genders and ages.	Workforce age	Breakdown by race, ethnicity and gender.
	Recruitment	Ratios of new hires vs. workforce demographics; new hires into top three levels of management vs. existing demographics of those levels; recruitment vs. involuntary turnover.
	Diameter of existing talent	Ratios of demographics of top three levels vs. all managers; first promotions into management vs. all managers; promotions within management vs. all managers.
	Structures	Executive involvement in formal, cross-cultural mentoring; percentage of managers in mentoring; mentee/mentor demographics; percentage of CEO's direct reports who are executive sponsors of resource groups; percentage of employees participating in resource groups.
<i>Equitable talent development.</i> This area assesses retain, engage and promote people from all demographics fairly.	Effective talent-development programs	Resource groups used for mentoring, recruiting, marketing and diversity training; measurement of promotions, retention and engagement of resource-group members; and whether the diversity council establishes goals and metrics.
	Movement	Ratios of first promotions into management vs. workforce demographics; promotions into and within management; percentages of managers promoted; promotions within top three levels.
	Fairness	Ratios of management promotions vs. voluntary turnover and recruitment vs. involuntary turnover.

Continued on the next page

DiversityInc Top 50-study methodology (report card) assesses performance based on four key areas of diversity management as it is shown in Table 3. The *DiversityInc Top 50* report survey in 2013 findings has underlined the following issues (considered as trends for cultural diversity in the case of United States companies):

- Many corporations were beginning to understand the business value of diversity management initiatives;
- Like diversity management itself, the list has evolved significantly and continues to be refined and improved to reflect how rapidly companies are adapting these strategies;
- There were important progresses in all four key areas of diversity management.

TABLE 3 Continued from the previous page

Description	Components	Details
<i>CEO or leadership commitment.</i> This area measures the visible and accountable involvement of top leadership as well as representation at senior levels and on boards of directors.	Quality of accountability	Diversity goals being part of performance reviews; executive compensation being linked to diversity metrics, including supplier diversity; whether top executives have senior-advisory positions at ethnic, LGBT and disability non-profits; percentage of revenue spent on philanthropy; percentage of philanthropy spent on ethnic, LGBT or disability non-profits.
	Executive involvement	Diversity goals being part of performance reviews; executive compensation being linked to diversity metrics, including supplier diversity; whether top executives have senior-advisory positions at ethnic, and disability non-profits; percentage of revenue spent on philanthropy; percentage of philanthropy spent on ethnic, disability non-profits.
	Representation	Demographics of top three levels, board of directors and executive diversity council.
<i>Supplier diversity.</i> This section assesses the effectiveness of supplier development.	Quality of program	Procurement-management compensation tied to supplier-diversity results; supplier diversity included in requests for proposals and vendor contracts -includes direct contractor percentages with suppliers owned by people from underrepresented groups.
	Developing suppliers	Subcontractor percentage with suppliers owned by people from underrepresented groups; training, mentoring and incentives for suppliers; providing financial education and assistance to suppliers.
	Effective strategies	Presenting results to board of directors; auditing supplier-diversity numbers; working with corporate communications; sponsoring scholarships or education; and working with supplier-diversity organizations.

NOTES Adapted from <http://www.diversityinc.com/diversityinc-top-50-methodology/>

The 2013 Culture and Change Management Survey

According to the last survey published by the Katzenbach Center at Booz & Company (Strategy&, 2013b) there have been recognized that culture is critically important to business success around the world (Table 4). That was the response from an overwhelming 84 percent of the

TABLE 4 Key Findings of the 2013 Culture and Change Management Survey

Values	Comments
84%	Of the respondents, agree that their organization’s culture is critical to business success.
60%	Of the respondents, say culture is more important than strategy or operating model.
45%	Of the respondents, do not feel their culture is being effectively managed.
47%	Of the respondents, do not feel culture is an important part of the leadership team’s agenda.
44%	Of the respondents, say culture change should take less than one year.
48%	Of the respondents, think, other than communications and leadership alignment, they do not have the capabilities to effectively deliver change.
51%	Of the respondents, think their organization’s culture is in need of a major overhaul.
35%	Of the respondents, think their company’s culture is effectively managed.

NOTES Adapted from Strategy& (2013b).

2,219 participants involved in the 2013 Culture and Change Management Survey. The survey was developed to better understand global perceptions of culture, its impact on change, and the main barriers to successful, sustainable transformation. In addition to culture’s critical role in the overall success of an organization, survey responses suggest strong correlations between the success of change programs and whether culture was leveraged in the change process (Strategy&, 2013b).

The research findings could be considered as the basis for a holistic, culture-oriented approach to change in order to gain best results. Despite its critical role, however, there is a disparity between the way culture is seen by companies and the way it is treated or managed. Less than half of participants report that their companies effectively manage culture (organizational culture and cultural diversity issues), and more than half say a major culture overhaul is needed (Strategy&, 2013b). How can companies close this gap, and begin effectively leverage the power of culture to achieve more sustainable transformations? The answers were given in Table 5 as a synthesis of the research results by regions (Strategy&, 2013a).

Preliminary Conclusions

Businesses must understand and embrace diversity in their brands as well as in their work forces by considering the global market dimen-

TABLE 5 How Various Regions View Culture and Their Ability to Create Lasting Change – Global Overview?

Region	(1)	(2)	(3)
North America	87%	61%	56%
Central America	88%	58%	70%
South America	84%	57%	60%
Europe	79%	57%	40%
Middle East and Africa	82%	55%	40%
Asia, South Pacific and Australia	84%	66%	60%

NOTES Column headings are as follows: (1) Criticality: How critical is culture to business success? (2) Importance: How important is culture in relation to strategy and operating model? (3) Sustainability: Are your changes sustainable? Adapted from Strategy& (2013a).

sions and its dynamics. The above presented research results (from *DiversityInc Top 50* and the Booz & Company, both from 2013) have underlined that simply having a diverse employee population is no longer enough.

For an organization to succeed in today's challenging economy, it must not only meet the needs of a multifaceted marketplace, it must respect different cultures, ideas and philosophies. Furthermore, a team or organization's diversity can include diversity across religion, sex, age, and race, but also diversity aspects across work skills, educational background or personality types. All of these differences can affect organizational performance.

The *DiversityInc Top 50* methodology has shown the diversity management important aspects and field of interest (related to the four key areas depicted in Table 3), but also the complex framework and problematic of the science. The Booz & Company Global Culture and Change Management Survey 2013 (Strategy&, 2013b) has shown (quantitative results) critical aspects of managing diversity, because sometime managers/leaders recognize the problem but they are not able to take advantages of this (as synergy in action and innovation or attracting talents or reformulating HRM strategy etc.).

Actual, global businesses demand management that can work and support the development of a diverse environment (multicultural one). A cultural diverse organization (workplaces, teams etc.) can help improve innovation and productivity through the creation of synergetic actions between their members. The combination of different cultures, experiences and ideas can enhance the organizational environ-

ment and help drive creativity. In this context, an important role has the HRM specialists which must design and implement creative HRM strategies to effectively manage the cultural diverse organization environment. Furthermore, the organizational culture focused on high standards of managing cultural diversity will support the social responsibilities policies because of their actual and common target on organization sustainable development.

As society is moving toward a more global economy (confront with scarce resources, an increase rates of population enlargement and environment preservation concerns), organizations need holistic approaches for (workplace) diversity management. Methods and tools in this field will be required in order to gain a sustainable competitive advantage, because diverse ideas support the creation process of new solutions, approaches, products and services and also, help overcome possible difficulties or obstacles in the cultural process change.

To take advantage of the diversity synergy to the workplace and during the organizations learning processes there is a tremendous need for long term goals and strategies in the new context of International Human Resources Management. Thus, by incorporating diversity as an asset today, organizations can better prepare themselves to face the future, because as their customers become more diverse, so should their workforce.

Learning and Working in a Multicultural Environment: The Importance of Cross-Cultural Competencies

Characteristics of the Multicultural Learning Environment

The most important step in the diversity trainings program design is the creation of a multicultural environment that values diversity.⁷ Multicultural experiences during the trainees lifetime is an important aspect in understanding the specific way people act, learn and work together in a multicultural group or organization. Both domestic multicultural and international intercultural experiences (e.g. as the results of studying or working abroad, international cultural experiences gain individually or by a group mobility, working in a multinational company etc.) are included in this concept. These experiences help employees in moving outside their comfort zone, through interaction

7. For all kinds of employees as trainees and in the case of all types of training programs (formal and informal, indoor or outdoor, on-line or face-to-face etc.).

with individuals with cultural differences, unique to their own. Sources of diversity may include gender, age, ethnicity, socio-economic status, educational backgrounds, work experience, religious beliefs etc.

Multicultural environment trainings are the most important way in which managers and the other employees can manage diversity in the workplace. Diversity trainings have the purpose of increasing participants' *cultural awareness, knowledge, and skills*. These could be seen as a major advantage of trainings programs planned and developed at the organization level in the context of HR development strategies.

Generally, HR development includes training, education and development sub-strategies and related policies. At the organizational level, an important role for the multicultural environment and cross-cultural competences development is played by the strategic HR development that have to consider diversity as an important aspect of organizational culture, too. Table 6 shows an organization's transformation model for gaining a strong learning culture by considering the cultural diversity dimension (McCracken & Wallace, 2000).

Human Resources Development Aspects in Managing Diversity

HR development programs for culturally diverse employees have to include aspects related to:

- *Socialization and orientation* in order to support HR integration programs and also, the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills need to assume an organizational role (at the functional and hierarchical levels);
- *Career development*;
- *Mentoring to promote diversity*.

Socialization and Orientation

Socialization's important issues in association with the learning processes are:

- Preliminary learning that includes phases as: discovery (what, whom to learn from, the necessity of learning); learning about the organization (goals, values and policies); and learning to facilitate the individual workgroup integration (values, norms, roles, relationship);

TABLE 6 Organization’s Transformation Model for Gaining a Strong Learning Culture

<i>Organization strategy</i>		
Ad hoc implementation (reactive supporting role only).	Systematic implementation (mainly reactive supporting role, some shaping).	Formation (strong proactive shaping role).
<i>Training</i>	<i>Human resources development</i>	<i>Strategic human resources development</i>
Organization is strategically not very mature in HR development terms.	Organization is strategically quite mature in HR development terms.	Organization is strategically very mature in HR development terms.
Poor integration with organizational mission and goals. Little top management support. Few HR development plans and policies. Little line managers commitment and involvement. Lack of complementary HRM activities. Lack of expanded trainers roles. Little recognition of culture. Little emphasis on evaluation.	Integration with organizational mission and goals. Top management support. Environment scanning. HR development plans and policies. Little line managers commitment and involvement. Existing of complementary HRM activities. Expanded trainers roles. Recognition of culture. Emphasis on evaluation.	Shaping organizational mission and goals. Top management leadership. Environmental scanning by senior management. HR development strategies, plans and policies. Strategic partnerships with line managers. Strategic partnership with HRM. Trainers act as organizational change consultants. Ability to influence corporate culture. Emphasis on cost-effectiveness evaluation.
<i>No learning culture</i>	<i>Weak learning culture</i>	<i>Strong learning culture</i>

- Learning how to perform the job (skills and knowledge need, master tasks);
- Own learning experiences (learning from experience within the workplace/job environment and the organization; creating trustful relationships; resolve any conflicts and overloads).

Success of socialization will positively affect the knowledge creation process at the workgroup and organizational level through knowledge transfer and sharing, behaviour improvement related to organizational processes effectiveness and efficiency improvement. Failure aspects could be linked with unmet expectations, dissatisfaction or lack of commitment.

Orientation programs are designed in order to support new employees with the new job and workplace specificity (processes, supervisors, co-workers and the organization as a whole). Orientation is focused on the encounter stage of socialization in order to reduce new employees stress and anxiety, but also, to reduce time it takes them to reach proficiency.

Career Development

Wilensky (1961) defined career as a succession of related jobs, arranged in a hierarchy of prestige, through demands, pressures and cultural requirements. In the literature there have been recognized that performance management and professional development are related to career success, most in the case of multinational companies or those who act internationally (Zafar & Mat, 2013).

Furthermore, HR policies (in terms of support and guidance), proactive personality and career management behaviour are positively linked with career satisfaction. In addition, career management behaviour mediates the relationship between proactive personality and career satisfaction. On the other side, career transition⁸ provides opportunities for employees to develop new skills and competencies that could contribute to person's employability and career success. These aspects have to be considered most in the case of international organizations, even if their processes are developed in virtual space (e.g. e-business, e-commerce, networking etc.). In this case, it is most obvious that career success is strong related to employees' ability for cross-cultural competencies development.

Studies have identified predictors of career success as: personality, age, family support, work experience, education, proactive colleagues, gender, organizational support, language, but three were rated as highly predictive of success: work experience, education and personality (Zafar & Mat, 2013).

Mentoring to Promote Diversity

Generally, mentoring activity goal is to pair talented, experienced employees to serve as mentors for promising, less experienced employees, or mentorees, within an organization. Ideally, over time, the mentoree

8. Is considered as interorganizational or intra-organizational movement of employees or change in their functional domain.

gains skills, knowledge and a better understanding of the organization. The mentor, in turn, typically gains a new perspective and learns about an area of the organization that was unknown previously (Clutterbuck & Ragins, 2012). Both mentor and mentoree learn one from each other, successful mentoring generates effective and efficient learning relationships, and for behavioural changes. This is seen as an outcome especially beneficial for companies committed in order to support cultural diversity management. It has been recognized that mentors have a positive role in educating people on the challenges and obstacles faced by women, minorities or seniors in the workplace.⁹

On the other side, as part of the HR strategy, individual mentoring programs and relationships achieve greater long-term impact on managing diversity and cross-cultural competencies. An efficient mentoring culture could support a continuum HR development in terms of increasing its agility in direct relation to the organization business processes development (Zachary, 2011; Clutterbuck & Ragins, 2012).

A good example of implementing this approach is given by Unilever company that has established a global mentoring program in 2009 (as part of their proactive plan to enhance diversity) to drive competitive advantage, secure a strong pipeline of talent for the future, and to help develop and accelerate the readiness of high-potential men and women for senior leadership positions. Mentoring relationships provide ongoing feedback and advice on career progression and personal development plans and can play a key role in helping individuals achieve their full potential.¹⁰

Multicultural Working Teams (Workplace Diversity Issues)

Wilson (2006) noted that work environments that are perceived as diverse have higher employee engagement, satisfaction, loyalty, and retention. Employees in these environments also tend to be more productive, profitable, safer, and have stronger customer relationships, in contrast to less engaged employees who cost companies in productivity losses, worker's compensation claims, and wasted time (Wilson, 2006). In addition to higher levels of employee engagement, research has established a link between successful diversity interventions and corpo-

9. Testimonies and debates on this issues are retrived from www.management-mentors.com

10. See <http://www.unilever.com/sustainable-living/betterlivelihoods/Respecting-Human-rights/diversity/>

rate profitability, as well as negative impacts of unsuccessful initiatives. Success metrics include diverse leadership, the ability to be more innovative, higher morale, ability to attract better talent, increased access to new markets, better business partners, and the capacity to merge more easily with other organizations.

Because of the challenges, individuals sometimes have in incorporating diversity and cross-cultural perspectives related to group settings, managing diversity in the workplace is essential. Team or organization's diversity can include diversity across religion, sex, age, and race, but can also include diversity across educational background, work skills or personality types. All of these differences can affect team interactions and performance. Global businesses demand management that can work in a diverse environment.

In order to valorise the advantages of workplace diversity, HR specialists and companies' managers has to consider the key benefits of this phenomena (Harvey & Allard, 2011):

- Best available talent – Companies that hire from diverse groups of people can hire workers from the best available pool of talent. Seniors employees can bring experience and a strong work ethic to a company; employees from other countries often have an exceptional education, here or abroad, in science and fields that are more technical. Companies that provide equal opportunities to all employees can select, interview, screen and hire the most educated and experienced workers;
- More effective execution – Companies that hire the best talent from a diverse group of employees can operate more effectively than less-diverse companies. The best available talent means a company's collective education and experience are greater than most competitive companies are. Furthermore, companies that hire more employees that are diverse tend to inspire their workers to perform to the best of their ability. In addition, more experienced and educated people tend to be better at planning, time management, goal setting, work delegation and projects completed on time.
- Increased adaptability – Workplace diversity can increase a company's adaptability to activities in the market (through communication resources available). For example, because consumers are becoming more multicultural, companies with

a diverse workforce can better develop solutions to satisfy the needs and demands of their customers.

- Broader range of service – Small companies that have multicultural employees can have better access to national and international markets through certain employees.

In the following there will be presented some HR aspects in relation with work place diversity management.

The Hiring Process

Building diversity into the hiring process is an important component of a strategic HRM included in the company strategy. A company's hiring policy should incorporate equal employment opportunity. This is a starting point for ensuring that hiring procedures effectively encourage a diverse applicant pool. Such a strategy can include soliciting cultural organizations for potential applicants, requesting referrals from existing employees and recruiting on college campuses. Reflecting the diversity of the community in which company operates is a fundamental goal of this hiring strategy (Stone & Stone-Romero, 2012). The hiring process in the context of multicultural environment has to support the inclusion and adaptation process of new employees by introducing them graduate in the new organizational environment and by allocating to the new entranced an adequate mentor or coach (Fitzsimmons, Miska, & Stahl, 2011). Communication aspects have to be considered and support with respect to the individual values balanced with the organizational values and procedures in the field.

Relevant Aspects for Managing Workplace Diversity

Workplace diversity could be seen as an intermingling of valued related to the acceptance of differences between people in an organizational environment. Some of the management tools to effectively promote diversity in the workplace are:

- Planning and implementation is linked with the establishment and implementation of a diversity plan. This involves mapping out a way to create an appreciation for diversity in all employees in your office or department. Several methods exist to help you address this issue (as plan retreat, appoint a diversity office) (Kirton & Greene, 2010; Fitzsimmons, Miska, & Stahl, 2011);

- Conflict management – An essential tool to managing workplace diversity is the ability to handle conflicts. Disagreements that arise because of cultural differences must be handled promptly and swiftly as to not decrease productivity in the workplace (French, Strachan, & Burgess, 2013);
- Managers and other employees’ objectivism – When investigating a disagreement, managers have to be fair, objective and factual in the process. They should ask each party questions about what happened and take notes accordingly; they should get to the bottom of the issue and, instead of placing all blame on one person, make sure each person knows the importance of accepting everyone and appreciating their role in the office (Brett, Behfar, & Kern, 2006);
- Communication management – Good communication is one of the best ways to manage diversity in the workplace. Managers should encourage employees to share concerns as they arise; in this context, every employee should feel equally important to the company. A good practice that could help communication management is ‘keep an open door policy.’ Through this, managers should be open with their employees so they feel comfortable coming to them with questions, problem debates or concerns about issues (both non-work-related and work-related alike, such as diversity). Making themselves approachable will serve managers well in handling conflict. Another way to improve communication in a diversity workplace is to assign employees to project-based groups to work on large tasks, increasing teamwork and helping employees understand each other; diversifying the teams and encourage each team member to work peacefully with one another is a good approach in diminishing the communication conflicts or misunderstandings. Employees will find that amid their differences, each team member brings a valuable addition to the team (Hamdorf, 2012).

Managing Cross-Functional Teams

A cross-functional team consists of employees from all levels of an organization with different job functions, working to achieve a common goal. Cross-functional team members could come from different areas of expertise, such as manufacturing, quality, finance, human resources

or marketing. These teams may make use of expertise from outside the parent organization such as through consultants or customers. Decision making in the cross-functional team setting tends to run on consensus, but leadership and project management is key to the team's success in terms of managing members' functional diversity. Consensus is a good approach to deal to the decision making process in this case, but a person's decision making depends to a significant degree on his/her cognitive style (the part of mental functions related to logic) (Brett, Behfar, & Kern, 2006; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). Rather than a rigid adherence to a problem-solving structure, the cross-functional team uses an interactive approach to maximize its use of human resources and achieve its goals. The result of this approach also results in the creation, modification, and use of best practices. A best practice is a tool that consistently provides superior outcomes compared to those produced using other practices. Best practices evolve as information improves and they are used as benchmarks. Best practices are related to the value analytics, the relationship between conflict and team performance and audits (Stahl, Mäkelä, Zander, & Maznevski 2010). Managing cross-functional teams has to generate a friendly, creative environment for all members. Culture should not act as a barrier; it has to show different options for the team actions, process development and problem solving.

Multicultural Leadership

Multicultural leadership is mostly associated with multinational companies, that have to evolve outside their home countries and so, their managers and leaders have to face the cross-cultural challenges. Table 7 shown the difference between mono-cultural leaders and multicultural one, as a good comparison to identify behaviour attributes that should be taken into consideration when leaders act in a cross-cultural or international team or organization (Canen & Canen, 2008; Ng & Wyrick, 2011).

Summary and Conclusions

The researchers and practitioners' interests in the concept of cross-cultural competence and development approaches have been in continuous growth in the last years. This has been proven by Google Trends (Figure 1), software which analyses a percentage of Google web searches to determine how many results are given for the terms that

TABLE 7 Mono-Cultural Leaders vs. Multicultural Leaders' Characteristics

Mono-cultural leader	Multicultural leader
Let's tensions increase.	Handles tensions without letting them become real conflicts and without losing control.
Presents a response that tends to silence cultural diversity.	Values culturally diverse voices and makes sure they are all respected.
Reinforces hegemonic voices.	Tries to build cultural consensus.
Reinforces stereotypes.	Challenges stereotypes.
Abuses others who think differently.	Challenges conventional wisdom.
Engenders a climate that encourages mimicking of mono-cultural behaviour.	Accepts personal responsibility for org. climate.
Condoned bullying.	Proactively and retroactively works against bullying in the workplace.
	Creates channels so excluded voices are included.

NOTES Adapted from Canen and Canen (2008).

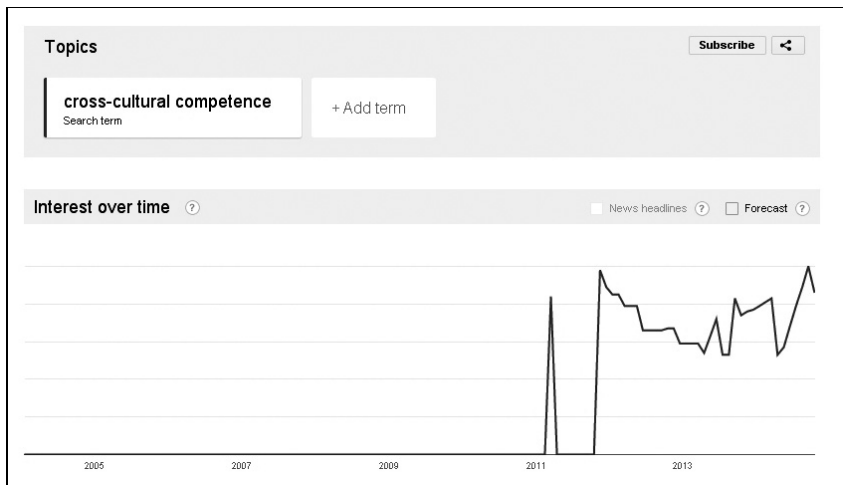


FIGURE 1 Google Trends Result for 'Cross-Cultural Competence'

searched compared to the total number of Google searches done during that time. According to this analysis, the concept started to interest people appear in June 2011. This is an important argument for characterizing the impact of the markets and workforce globalization phenomena and their impact on the spread of multicultural, cross-cultural and intercultural aspects that should be considered in the human resources management field.

The present chapter focuses on showing (through reference research and synthesis) the actual perspectives of the human resources management approaches by taking into consideration multi-cultural, trans-cultural and inter-cultural aspects in the modern organization envi-

ronment. After a brief overview of the terms that are connected with the conceptual framework of this chapter, there were presented arguments for understanding the importance of cross-cultural competencies within the actual, international or global organizations. Some relevant findings of two studies (surveys) in the field of diversity management (developed in 2013), so call: *DiversityInc Top 50* and the survey results of the *Booz & Company* (Strategy&, 2013b), were used to characterize the actual trends (and also, research approaches in this field). The surveys' results have contributed to the actual state, framework characterization and future trends estimations (according to companies representatives expressed needs) of cultural issues within organizations worldwide and of the diversity management, too. From these preliminary chapters we conclude that in order to take advantage of the diversity synergy in the workplace and during the organizations learning processes there is a tremendous need for long-term goals and strategies in the new context of International Human Resources Management. Furthermore, by incorporating diversity as an asset today, organizations can better prepare themselves to face the future challenges, because of customers and workforce become more diverse.

In the final part of this chapter there was presented important aspects of learning and working processes in the context of a multicultural environment, subject that is most interest from the practical perspective of HR management. The problematic of the debates and argumentations were:

- Characteristics of the multicultural learning environment which briefly describe important issues of the learning context and culture by considering the cultural diversity dimension;
- HR development aspects in managing diversity have considered the following HR activities, as relevant in order to continuous improve the management of diversity in organizations: socialization and orientation, career development, and mentoring. These activities are meant to promote diversity from the individual and group level, to the entire organization;
- Multicultural working teams topic has include presentation of the following activities: the hiring process, aspects for managing workplace diversity, managing cross-functional teams and multicultural leadership.

In conclusion, when teams are properly developed and implemented

there should be a way of using more effectively the knowledge, skills and abilities of a multicultural workforce. Managing cultural diversity and managing teams are complementary concepts and approaches that have to be expanded at the organizational level. In addition, ideal organizational environments that are supportive of teams, tend to support diversity and vice-versa. However, teams' implementation in multicultural framework is an expensive, high maintenance activity and they need multicultural leadership, too.

The theoretical synthesis presented in this chapter could be interesting for scholars and practitioners, for researchers and managers who are concerned with multicultural competencies development. This is an important issue of today's successful global business.

References

- Abbe, A., Gulick, L. M. V., & Herman, J. L. (2007). *Cross-cultural competence in Army leaders: A conceptual and empirical foundation*. Washington, DC: US Army Research Institute.
- Brett, J., Behfar, K., & Kern, M. C. (2006). Managing multicultural teams. *Harvard Business Review*, 84(11), 84-91.
- Caligiuri, P., Lepak, D., & Bonache, J. (2010). *Managing the global workforce*. Chichester, England: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Caligiuri, P., Noe, R., Nolan, R., Ryan, A. M., & Drasgow, F. (2011). *Training, developing, and assessing cross-cultural competence in military personnel* (Technical Report 1284). Arlington, VA: Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.
- Caligiuri, P., & Tarique, I. (2009). Developing managerial and organizational cultural agility. In C. Cooper & R. Burke (Eds.), *The peak performing organization* (pp. 234-251). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Cameron, K., & Quinn, R. (1999). *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Canen, A. G., & Canen, A. (2008). Multicultural leadership: The costs of its absence in organizational conflict management. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 19(1), 4-19.
- Choi, S., & Rainey, H. G. (2013). Organizational fairness and diversity management in public organizations: Does fairness matter in managing diversity? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 34(4), 307-331.
- Clutterbuck, D., & Ragins, B. R. (2012). *Mentoring and diversity: An international perspective*. London, England: Routledge.
- Cornelius, N., Gooch, L., & Todd, S. (2001). Managing difference fairly:

- An integrated 'partnership' approach. In Noon, M., & E. Ogbonna (Eds.), *Equality, diversity and disadvantage in employment* (pp. 32–50). Basingstoke, England: Palgrave.
- Crossman, J. E., & Clarke, M. (2010). International experience and graduate employability: Stakeholder perceptions on the connection. *Higher Education*, 59(5), 599–613.
- Duarte, D. L., & Snyder, N. T. (2001). *Mastering virtual teams: Strategies, tools, and techniques that succeed*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Earley, P., Soon, A., & Tan, J. (2006). *Developing cultural intelligence at work*. Stanford, CA: Stanford Business Books.
- Fantini, A. E. (2006). *87 assessment tools of intercultural competence*. Brattleboro, VT: School for International Training.
- Fantini, A. E. (2009). Assessing intercultural competence. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 456–476). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Fitzsimmons, S. R., Miska, C., & Stahl, G. (2011). Multicultural employees: Global business' untapped resource. *Organizational Dynamics*, 40(3), 199–206.
- French, E. L., Strachan, G., & Burgess, J. (2013). The challenges and opportunities in developing an organizational approach to managing workforce diversity. *Psychology for Business Success*, 2, 1–22.
- Hamdorf, D. (2012). *Towards managing diversity: Cultural aspects of conflict management in international business environments*. Saarbrücken, Germany: Akademikerverlag.
- Harvey, C., & Allard, M. J. (2011). *Understanding and managing diversity*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hensey, M. (2001). *Collective excellence: Building effective teams*. Reston, VA: American Society of Civil Engineers Press.
- Hofstede, G., Bond, M., H., & Luk, C. (1993). Individual perceptions of organizational cultures: A methodological treatise on levels of analysis. *Organization Studies*, 14(4), 483–503.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (1997). *Cultures and organizations*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Hoerder, D. (2013). Managing ethnic diversity: Meanings and practices from an international perspective. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 34(7), 748–750.
- Kandola, R., & Fullerton, J. (1994). *Managing the mosaic: Diversity in action*. Trowbridge, England: Cromwell Press.
- Kirton, G., & Greene, A. M. (2010). *The dynamics of managing diversity*. London, England: Routledge.

- Kivel, P. (2008). *Multicultural competence*. Retrieved from: www.paulkivel.com
- Klarsfeld, A. (Ed.). (2010). *International handbook on diversity management at work: Country perspectives on diversity and equal treatment*. Cheltenham, England: Edward Elgar.
- Kumas-Tan, Z., Beagan, B., Loppie, C., MacLeod, A., & Frank, B. (2007). Measures of cultural competence: Examining hidden assumptions. *Academic Medicine*, 82(6), 548–557.
- Loden, M. (1996). *Implementing diversity*. Boston, MA: Irwin.
- Leone, L., Van der Zee, K. I., van Oudenhoven, J. P., Perugini, M., & Ercolani, A. P. (2005). The cross-cultural generalizability and validity of the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 38(6), 1449–1462.
- Martin, M., & Vaughn, B. (2007). *Strategic diversity and inclusion management*. San Francisco, CA: DTUI Publications Division.
- McCracken, M., & Wallace, M. (2000). Towards a redefinition of strategic HRD. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 24(5), 281–290.
- Meeussen, L., Otten, S., & Phaet, K. (2014). Managing diversity: How leaders' multiculturalism and colorblindness affect work group functioning. *Group Processes Intergroup Relations September*, 17(5), 629–644
- Messner, W., & Schäfer, N. (2012). *The ICCA™ facilitator's manual*. London, England: Createspace.
- Ng, E. S., & Wyrick, C. R. (2011). Motivational bases for managing diversity: A model of leadership commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 21(4), 368–376.
- Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schein, E. H. (1999). *The corporate culture survival guide: Sense and nonsense about cultural change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Shin, H. Y., & Park, H. J. (2013). *What are the key factors in managing diversity and inclusion successfully in large international organizations?* Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/student/45/>
- Stahl, G. K., Mäkelä, K., Zander, L., & Maznevski, M. L. (2010). A look at the bright side of multicultural team diversity. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 26(4), 439–447.
- Stone, D., & Stone-Romero, E. (Eds.). (2012). *The influence of culture on human resource management processes and practices*. Hove, England: Psychology Press.
- Strachan, G., French, E., & Burgess, J. (2010). The origins and develop-

- ment of managing diversity. In G. Strachan, E. French, & J. Burgess (Eds.), *Managing diversity in Australia: Theory and practice* (pp. 1–15). Sydney, Australia: McGraw Hill.
- Strategy&. (2013a). *Culture and change: Why culture matters and how it makes change stick*. Retrieved from http://www.strategyand.pwc.com/media/file/Strategyand_Infographic_Why-Culture-Matters-and-How-It-Makes-Change-Stick.pdf
- Strategy&. (2013b). *Culture's role in enabling organizational change*. Retrieved from http://www.strategyand.pwc.com/media/file/Strategyand_Cultures-Role-in-Enabling-Organizational-Change.pdf
- Thomas, D., & Inkson, K. (2004). *Cultural intelligence: People skills for global business*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.
- Van Der Zee, K. I., & Van Oudenhoven, J. P. (2000). The multicultural personality questionnaire: A multidimensional instrument of multicultural effectiveness. *European Journal of Personality*, 14(4), 291–309.
- Van der Zee, K. I., & Van Oudenhoven, J. P. (2001). The multicultural personality questionnaire: Reliability and validity of self-and other ratings of multicultural effectiveness. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 35(3), 278–288.
- Wilensky, H. L. (1961). Careers, lifestyles and social integration. *International Social Science Journal*, 12(4), 553–558.
- Williams, A. (1993). *Changing culture: New organizational approaches*. London, England: Institute of Personal Management.
- Wilson, D. C. (2006, April 13). When equal opportunity knocks: A Gallup survey reveals what workplace diversity really means to employees, managers, and the balance sheet. *The Gallup Management Journal*. Retrieved from <http://www.gallup.com/businessjournal/22378/When-Equal-Opportunity-Knocks.aspx>
- Zafar, J., & Mat, N. (2013). A review of career success with gender, human resource policies and cultural diversity. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 17(5), 655–659.
- Zachary, L. J. (2011). *Creating a mentoring culture: The organization's guide*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Self-Employment From Unemployment: Is It Worth The Effort?

Valerij Dermol

International School of Social and Business Studies,
Slovenia

Luka Kalaš

Data d.o.o, Slovenia

Introduction

Pressures to reduce the costs together with more and more tight labour markets force organizations to reconsider the ways the work is being done. Consequently, there is an evidence of task, working time and contractual flexibility increase (Croucher & Brewster, 1998). The task flexibility relates to areas like part-time working, job-sharing, shift working, the use of annualized hours system etc. The working time flexibility relates to practices such as shift working, annual hours contracts, flexi work, weekend working, term-time working etc. There are also quite many contractual flexibility methods available such as non-permanent employment, changing the workplace (e.g. teleworking, telecottaging, telecommuting, homeworking), and non-employment options such as subcontracting, agency work, franchising, consultancies, teleworking and also self-employment.

Self-employment on one hand represents an important solution for the problems which recently many organizations face, on the other hand it represents possible solution for solving the problem of unemployment. Therefore, in the last decade an increase of self-employment took place. The development has been very heterogeneous between and within the economic sectors. For example, reduction took place in the agricultural sector, while increase occurred especially in the building and service sector.

In the paper we discuss issues related to self-employment of previously unemployed individuals in Slovenia, and their inclusion into the governmental support programme which aims to encourage the unemployed to start their own business by offering a grant and basic entrepreneurial training, thus enabling them to persist longer in self-



employment. Globally we can find some similar programmes, but the opinions about their efficiency are more or less contradictory. Many believe that such programmes contribute to shortening of unemployment periods for individuals included in the programme. In short term an increase in their incomes is also detected, but on the macroeconomic level no special effects are detected – neither in the sense of a decreased unemployment rate nor in the sense of productivity increase or economic growth.

The aim of our study is to describe the population of unemployed individuals who start their entrepreneurial career with the support of the self-employment grant. Their characteristics will be described through demographic data, their work experiences, knowledge about entrepreneurship, attitudes towards learning, and business performance. With the help of an empirical research we will examine which factors are most likely to have an influence on their business performance, employment capabilities and business income.

In the first part of the paper we present theoretical overview of self-employment concept, the characteristics of self-employed individuals, their business performance and the role of self-employment grants. In the second part of the paper we describe the methodological approach to the empirical research, its findings as well as guidance and recommendations for the stakeholders in the system of entrepreneurial support. The third part of the paper offers a critical overview of such programmes and practical guidance for the future.

Self-Employment of Previously Unemployed Individuals

Self-employment from previous unemployment is quite a common occurrence in the developed countries and seen as desired by numerous others. As an example we can single out Germany where as much as one third of established businesses in 2006 were previously unemployed.

Based on the findings of some research, Quentier (2012) establishes that unemployment increases the probability for self-employment. Blanchflower (2004) points out the role of the family, because he believes that individuals who derive from a more financially stable family background more likely decide to become self-employed rather than to work for somebody else. Besides, the research mostly concludes that most unemployed individuals cope with the difficulties of financing their self-employment enterprise (Blanchflower, 2004; Quentier,

2012). They usually do not have their own savings and they also face the difficulty of acquiring commercial loans. Taking into account that a lack of sufficient funds can have a negative effect on the transition from unemployment into self-employment, the level of such transition is twice as high as entering into self-employment from the standard type of employment. According to some research self-employment and unemployment are correlated variables (Blanchflower, 2004) – for example, in the USA it was established that a 5% increase in self-employment level leads into a 1% unemployment reduction.

Quentier (2012) points out that self-employment from unemployment most likely leads to creation of enterprises which have less employees and need less start-up capital, but most of all these self-employed individuals operate in industries where low entry barriers is a major characteristic. This makes their business operation even more difficult. Self-employment from unemployment can also lead up to the closure of already established businesses on the market. Such entrepreneurs also show a weak tendency towards investments and new employment which can be put down to financial limitations and low entrepreneurial aspiration.

The Characteristics of Unemployed Individuals Who Become Self-Employed

According to research made in Germany, Great Britain, Canada, Hungary and Poland, individuals who participate in programmes which promote self-employment from unemployment are highly educated, young, male and are unemployed for only a short period of time (Quentier, 2012). It seems that the extent of self-employment increases with age and is more frequent among men. The characteristics of unemployed individuals who become self-employed are closer to the characteristics of other self-employed than other unemployed. As Quentier (2012) also establishes, research does not confirm differences in education levels among unemployed individuals who become self-employed out of necessity and those who become self-employed out of opportunity, but show a certain relationship between the job performance and education level for those who become self-employed out of opportunity.

As Quentier (2012) points out, the education level has a positive influence on the transition into self-employment. Educated individuals are better informed and therefore more efficient in evaluating

self-employment opportunities. According to some researchers, human capital profitability for the self-employed from unemployment is lower than with employed individuals. Nevertheless, unemployed individuals who become undesirable for employers achieve higher human capital profitability in self-employment than as working for an employer. Therefore the level of formal education is important for those who become self-employed from unemployment. They use formal education to compensate for the lack of working experience. But research does confirm that the higher education level positively influences on the probability that an individual employed or unemployed becomes a nascent entrepreneur (Quentier, 2012). Although, some differences in education levels do appear in comparison between Europe and USA. In Europe there is a higher probability that an entrepreneur has a low level of education and in USA *vice versa* (Blanchflower, 2004).

Unemployed who become self-employed mostly operate in business services. In Germany the self-employed individuals who were previously employed mostly enter into personal services industry, whereas the previously unemployed individuals tend to start their business mainly in manufacturing industries (Quentier, 2012). Blanchflower (2004) establishes that in the USA the unemployed individuals who become self-employed mostly operate in construction, repair services, personal services and agriculture industry.

Blanchflower (2004) establishes that self-employment is more frequent among men and that the gender gap is decreasing. He also sees that self-employment is more frequent among older individuals, although the younger ones are the ones that see self-employment as a more favourable type of work. It seems that with age people go into self-employment without any real preference or intention.

It is interesting that self-employed individuals express greater satisfaction with work and the quality of life than other employed individuals (Baumgartner & Caliendo, 2007), and also with their salary (Blanchflower, 2004). In the USA, women are more satisfied with self-employment, but in Europe there is no significant difference between genders. Individuals with a higher educational level express greater satisfaction (Blanchflower, 2004) and the age variable shows an inverse U-shaped satisfaction curve with a peak at 61 years of age.

Entrepreneurial processes are also influenced by personal characteristics of individuals who become self-employed (Caliendo, Fossen, & Kritikos, 2011). Among these characteristics we should especially

emphasize openness to experience and extraversion, which increase the probability of becoming self-employed. The same applies for emotional stability. Communication ability decreases the possibility to exit from self-employment. The locus of control also has a strong impact on entrepreneurial development – the external locus negatively effects on the business' survival rate of a self-employed individual. We can see interdependence between entrepreneurial success and risk taking inclination in the form of an inverse U-shaped curve. Besides, as the level of trust in individuals increases so does the probability for self-employment.

Dilemmas About the Self-Employment Efficiency

Blanchflower (2004) establishes that the extent of self-employment in OECD countries is decreasing. According to the literature self-employment trends are not related to the economic growth. On one hand, it seems that self-employment does not increase economic growth, on the other hand, some implications in literature show the opposite, a decrease in economic growth (Blanchflower, 2004). In spite of this many governments still see self-employment as a primary solution for ending poverty.

The expected incomes of unemployed individuals who become self-employed are lower than the expected income of other self-employed (Quentier, 2012). Due to the fact that family income among self-employed from unemployment is also lower, this additionally contributes to the small scale of their business. Self-employed from unemployment in contrast to self-employed who come from other types of employment are most often the only employed persons in their business. Similar conclusions also apply for self-employed individuals who had participated in self-employment grant programmes in Germany (for more about the topic see Baumgartner & Caliendo, 2007). Research (for example Quentier, 2012) also shows that businesses which owners have been previously unemployed have a lower growth rate. Regarding the duration of self-employment the research findings are quite unclear. German experience shows that unemployed individuals endure in self-employment for approximately the same amount of time in comparison with self-employed who previously worked for an employer. In France, previous unemployment is a statistically significant characteristic of those entrepreneurs who close their business in the future. Others find that in comparison with self-employed in-

dividuals who previously worked for an employer self-employed from unemployment more often return to unemployment. In Germany there is also an important difference between eastern and western parts of the state (Baumgartner & Caliendo, 2007). In the eastern part of Germany businesses owned by self-employed from unemployment have a 6% lower survival rate after the first year of operation than businesses owned by self-employed who previously worked for an employer, as far as no such differences can be seen in the western parts of Germany. Regarding the growth of businesses there are no statistically significant differences. Baumgartner & Caliendo (2007) also point out that in Germany the possibility of being or becoming unemployed is higher among self-employed individuals than among individuals coming from other types of employment.

Quentier (2012) establishes that self-employed from unemployment are less successful in general because of numerous reasons. One of these reasons is (i) motivation for self-employment which for unemployed individual is most frequently the escape from unemployment and not so much the need for independence or a good business idea. Reasonably, lower opportunity costs derive from these circumstances. Lower opportunity costs then cause (ii) the unemployed to grab opportunities which may not be opportunities at all. Besides that self-employed from unemployment (iii) have greater difficulty establishing a network of suppliers and clients because they do not have any previously established contacts such as employed people mostly do. An important reason are also the (iv) financial limitations which increase the risk of business failure of self-employed from unemployment.

The Efficiency of Programmes for the Promotion of Self-Employment

In the world there are many governmental support programmes with the aim of enabling individuals to become self-employed – in Australia, Great Britain and France grants for establishing own business are offered, and many countries including USA and Great Britain offer support in the form of loans (Blanchflower, 2004). The main purpose of self-employment promotion grants is to increase the employment level in a country through helping the unemployed individuals to create their own workplace. Some believe that such grants only shorten the unemployment duration for individuals and that they do not decrease the general unemployment level. Additionally, the major-

ity doubts that such actions have any influence on economic growth and technological development or that they encourage any structural changes (Quentier, 2012). De Mel, McKenzie & Woodruff (2013), for example, conclude that injections of capital into micro businesses might lead into higher profits but not into growth and creation of new jobs. Besides, such actions more often than not have very short-term effects, which usually do not appear in highly capable businesses (de Mel et al., 2013).

Research about the efficiency of grants for self-employment and other active employment policy programmes still remains unclear. As Baumgartner & Caliendo (2007) conclude in their literature review, studies in Great Britain show that participation in such programmes does not have an important influence on employment or the income opportunities of an individual. In New Zealand some statistically significant effects on the participants have been recognized, where the expected outcome is ‘not to be registered as unemployed.’ In Spain the business survival rate of the businesses, established through such programmes, reached 93% in the first two years, and 76% in the first five years. Findings in the USA see the unemployed individuals, who participate in such programmes, as 4 times more likely to persist in self-employment or employment as those who did not participate in the programme, yet they recognize no effects on macroeconomic efficiency. Baumgartner and Caliendo (2007) conducted a research among the participants of two German self-employment grant based programmes for the unemployed and they concluded that the unemployment level among average programme participants after almost two years is 17% lower comparing to the individuals who did not attend the programme (18% among women and 29% for men), and the income of those who participated in the programmes is also slightly higher. From such a point of view, both programmes fulfil their mission because they (i) decrease the risk of returning back to unemployment for the self-employed, (ii) integrate programme participants back into a stable employment and (iii) positively impact on personal income.

Empirical Study

Research Methodology

The research among unemployed individuals who become self-employed was realized in the period from June 2012 and June 2013. The

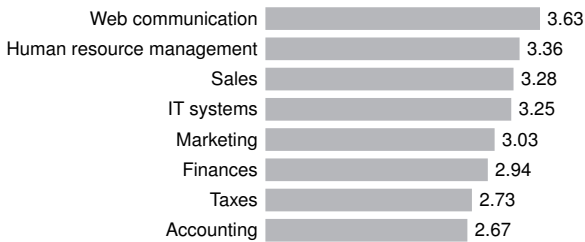


FIGURE 1 Self-Evaluation Based on the Type of Entrepreneurial Knowledge

survey was conducted with an electronic survey and the use of the SurveyMonkey programme.

The first survey which was executed at the time of entry into self-employment in June 2013 included 515 participants, and in the second survey which was executed after the first year of operation of the same self-employed group the questionnaire was completed by 73 participants out of 515. In the first round of survey the respondents were male in 56% and female in 44%. Average age of the men was 37.8 years, the average age of the women was slightly lower – 36.9 years. In average the men had 14.3 years of working experience and the women 12.5 years. Primary school education was completed by 3.4% of respondents, lower secondary school 15.6% of respondents, upper secondary education and short-term higher education 37.2% of respondents and a higher level of education or higher 43.8% of respondents. 57.6% of respondents had no or a small amount of working experience abroad. 33.7% of respondents had participated in some form of training abroad, and only 12.5% said that they were also employed abroad. Among the unemployed included in the survey 4.2% are self-employed in manufacturing industries, 7.0% in trade industries and 88.7% in service industries.

Characteristics of Self-Employed Individuals

As we can see from the data, there is a surprisingly large share of women among those who decided to become self-employed. This is somewhat in contrast to available data about similar programmes from abroad, and such a large share of women is also surprising if we take into consideration a generally low level of female entrepreneurs in Slovenia (Rebernik, Tominc, Crnogaj, Širec & Bradač Hojnik, 2013). The age structure of unemployed individuals who become self-employed is in accordance with the general age structure

of entrepreneurs in Slovenia with a somewhat surprising distinction of a relatively high level of education. A high level of education for unemployed, who become self-employed is not in accordance with European experience, but is more in accordance with American experience. The respondents also show relatively rich working experience which in combination with a relatively high level of education does show some possibilities for higher efficiency in self-employment.

The respondents evaluated their entrepreneurial knowledge at the time of becoming self-employed on a scale from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent). A medium value of the self-evaluation is relatively high ($m = 3.25$, $SD = 0.90$). We also asked the respondents about their opinion on possible lack of a certain kind of knowledge. They evaluated the knowledge also on a scale from 1 (where knowledge lacks the least) to 5 (where knowledge lacks the most). The unemployed individuals experience the largest knowledge deficiency in the field of finance ($m = 3.70$, $SD = 1.27$) and accounting ($m = 3.67$, $SD = 1.28$). The smallest knowledge deficiency is experienced in the field of human resource management ($m = 2.67$, $SD = 1.28$) and a slightly larger knowledge deficiency in the field of marketing and sales ($m = 2.80$, $SD = 1.20$). After the first year of operation we surveyed the self-employed once again, and as Figure 1 shows the evaluations of knowledge deficiency are mostly in accordance with the self-evaluation at the time of becoming self-employed. The mean average value of the knowledge ($m = 3.11$, $SD = 0.77$), which is relatively high, is approximately the same as the value at the time of becoming self-employed. The medium value of the business idea self-evaluation ($m = 4.2$, $SD = 0.89$), which was also evaluated on a scale from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent), is slightly higher than the value of knowledge.

In the analysis we investigate whether gender, age or domestic working experience and working experience abroad are interdependent or in any way related with other important characteristics of the self-employed individuals – the self-evaluation of entrepreneurial knowledge and the self-evaluation of the business idea development. Both self-evaluations were done by the respondents at the time of entry into self-employment. As Table 1 shows, age is highly positively correlated with domestic working experience ($r = 0.878$, $p < 0.01$), and a slightly weaker but still positively with working experience abroad ($r = 0.136$, $p < 0.01$). These interdependencies seem pretty logical but one can still remain a bit sceptical about the high self-evaluation grades of en-

TABLE 1 Correlations between the Characteristics of Self-Employed from Unemployment

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
(1)	1					
(2)	-0.087	1				
(3)	0.878**	-0.203**	1			
(4)	0.136**	0.116*	0.146**	1		
(5)	0.120**	-0.062	0.158**	0.330**	1	
(6)	-0.028	0.136**	0.003	0.115*	0.416**	1

NOTES Column/row headings are as follows: (1) age, (2) education level, (3) domestic working experience, (4) self-evaluation of working experience abroad, (5) self-evaluation of knowledge of entrepreneurship, (6) self-evaluation of the business idea quality. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

trepreneurial knowledge which even increase with the age of the individuals. From the Table 1 we can also see positive correlation between the education level and the extent of domestic working experience ($r = 0.116$, $p < 0.05$), and negative correlation between the education level and working experience abroad ($r = -0.203$, $p < 0.01$). This is interesting and it shows that working abroad is more often sought by individuals with lower education levels. The data also tell us that the higher the education level of an individual is, more developed seems to be his business idea ($r = 0.136$, $p < 0.01$). Tominc and Rebernik (2006) do nevertheless indicate that average Slovenian entrepreneurs often overestimate the possibility for the growth of their businesses, which could be a consequence of their entrepreneurial knowledge and business idea quality overestimations. Data also confirm a positive correlation between domestic working experience and working experience abroad ($r = 0.146$, $p < 0.01$), a positive correlation between domestic working experience and the self-evaluation of knowledge of entrepreneurship ($r = 0.158$, $p < 0.01$) and also a relatively strong positive correlation between the self-evaluation of knowledge of entrepreneurship and the self-evaluation of the business idea quality ($r = 0.416$, $p < 0.01$).

In the analysis we also try to investigate the difference between the characteristics of self-employed on the basis of gender. We can see statistically significant differences between male ($m = 2.49$, $SD = 1.39$) and female respondents ($m = 2.18$, $SD = 1.40$) in working experience abroad ($t(445) = 2.37$, $p < 0.05$). As it seems that males surpass females when it comes to working experience abroad. The differences were also analysed between individuals with at least university edu-



FIGURE 2 Self-Employed Individuals Regarding the Number of Employees

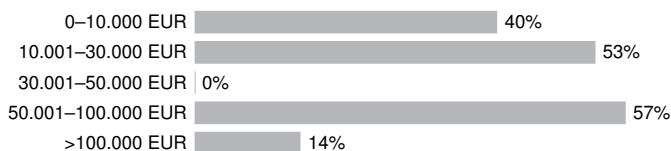


FIGURE 3 Self-Employment Performance Regarding Income

cation and individuals with lower levels of education. There seem to be statistically significant differences between individuals with at least university level of education ($m = 10.97$, $SD = 7.99$) and individuals with lower levels of education ($m = 15.65$, $SD = 9.04$) when it comes to the years of working experience ($t(440) = 5.83$, $p < 0.001$), and also the self-evaluation of their business idea quality ($t(494) = 2.19$, $p < 0.05$). In the quality of business idea the individuals with at least university education ($m = 4.05$, $SD = 0.80$) surpass individuals with lower levels of education ($m = 4.05$, $SD = 0.93$), but in average have by a third less working experience.

Self-Employment Efficiency Factors

The performance of self-employed is analysed through considering of the number of employed individuals in their enterprises after a year of operation, and the income the self-employed have made in this time. As Figure 1 shows, most of the businesses (93%) have only one employee or even none after the first year of business. The maximum number of employees between the respondents is 20.

Based on the income the self-employed made in the first year of business, their performance is relatively low. As Figure 3 shows, only 14% of self-employed individuals made over 100,000 EUR in their first year of business, and there are over 40% of those, who reach up to 10,000 EUR.

A correlation analysis, results of which can be seen in Table 2, shows the interdependences between the characteristics of self-employed (measured at the time of entry into self-employment) and perfor-

TABLE 2 Correlations between the Characteristics of Self-Employed from Unemployment and Performance

Item	(1)	(2)
Age	0,23	0,19
Education level	0,04	-0,23
Domestic working experience	0,09	0,06
Working experience abroad	0,38**	0,06
Self-evaluation of knowledge of entrepreneurship	0,14	0,12
Self-evaluation of the business idea quality	0,004	-0,40**

NOTES Column headings are as follows: (1) income after the first year of business, (2) increase in the number of employed persons. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

mance indicators after the first year of business operation (income and number of employed persons). We would like to point out that self-evaluation of efficiency and the extent of business internationalization etc. have not been considered as performance indicators, because these two variables, based on research findings, are not correlated with none of the selected personal characteristics. Based on the correlation analysis results we can establish that the income of self-employed in their first year of business is statistically significantly and positively interdependent only with the self-evaluation of working experience abroad. A medium strength positive interdependence between such experience and income of the self-employed confirms a relatively high importance of working experience abroad for the unemployed, before their entry into self-employment. On the other hand the number of employed persons after the first year of business is negatively interdependent (also medium strength) with the self-evaluation of business idea development, which again raises doubts about the reality of business idea self-evaluations or even about the business growth ambitions of self-employed individuals. A regression analysis shows a causal relation between working experience abroad and the income of the self-employed individuals. Working experience abroad statistically significantly predicts the income of the self-employed individuals ($\beta = 0.24$, $t(62) = 3.18$, $p < 0.01$).

Conclusion and Future Orientation

In today's business context self-employment represents an important approach for introducing flexible work practices. On the other hand, unemployment is one of the more common encouragements

or opportunities for individuals to think about the possibility of self-employment. To solve the problems of high unemployment levels and to enhance economic growth many countries are strategically oriented towards self-employment promotion through different measures. Often, these measures are based on the use of grants which are received by the unemployed for becoming self-employed and to persist as self-employed for at least a certain period of time. As already mentioned, the expectations of such measures are mostly the desire to increase employment levels or to decrease the unemployment level, increasing productivity in a country and promoting economic growth.

According to research, expectations of countries regarding self-employment and the measures for self-employment promotion are seen as overly optimistic. It is true that the unemployed are becoming more entrepreneurial because of such measures, but most often in activities in which the level of competition is high and the entry barriers are low. In such activities often an entry of a new entrepreneur means an exit of an existing one. It seems that the effects of self-employment from unemployment are short-termed and mostly visible only at the individual's level – their income increases and their working status changes, yet the macro level shows no lasting effects.

The aim of our study which is focused on unemployed individuals who enter entrepreneurship in Slovenia on the behalf of grants for self-employment is to investigate the individual characteristics of these individuals, their business results after the first year of operation, and the factors which increase their performance. We established that the Slovenian pattern of self-employed individuals slightly differs from the patterns seen in foreign research. It seems that these individuals have above average levels of education, a lot of domestic working experience and slightly less working experience abroad, and who highly self-evaluate the level of their business knowledge and business idea quality. The share of males and females among these individuals is almost the same, with the average age similar to the average age of other Slovenian entrepreneurs.

Based on the high level of education and working experience we could give Slovenian self-employed individuals better possibilities for business performance and growth. Nevertheless, data about the income in the first year of business operation, and the number of employed persons in the same period of time do not confirm such expectations. Key findings resulting from our research are as follows, (i) the

unemployed who become self-employed possibly overestimate their entrepreneurial knowledge, and (ii) even overestimate the potential success of their business idea a little more. We also find that (iii) one of the more important factors which separates effective self-employed individual from those, who are less effective, is the extent of their working experience abroad. These findings can be used in future potential rearrangements of the programmes for promoting self-employment from unemployment through grants. Further research should be focused on recognizing other potential contributing factors, which define the efficiency and success of the self-employed population and their contribution to productivity and economic growth at the state level.

References

- Baumgartner, H. J., & Caliendo, M. (2007). *Turning unemployment into self-employment: Effectiveness and efficiency of two start-up programmes* (Discussion Papers of DIW Berlin No. 671). Berlin, Germany: DIW.
- Blanchflower, D. G. (2004). *Self-employment: More may not be better* (NBER Working Paper No. 10286). Cambridge, MA: NBER.
- Caliendo, M., Fossen, F. M., & Kritikos, A. S. (2011). *Personality characteristics and the decision to become and stay self-employed* (Discussion Papers of DIW Berlin No. 1113). Berlin, Germany: DIW.
- Croucher, R., & Brewster, C. (1998). Flexible working practices and the trade unions. *Employee Relations* 20(5), 443.
- De Mel, S., McKenzie, D., & Woodruff, C. (2013). *What generates growth in microenterprises? Experimental evidence on capital, labor and training*. Retrieved from <http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:1XKls2gTh2EJ:economics.mit.edu/files/8666+&cd=1&hl=sl&ct=clnk&gl=si>
- Quentier, J.-M. (2012). Self-employment start-ups and value creation: An empirical analysis of German micro data. *Advances in Competitiveness Research*, 20(1-2), 37-57.
- Rebernik, M., Tominc, P., Crnogaj, K., Širec, K., & Bradač Hojnik, B. (2013). *Nezaznane priložnosti: GEM Slovenija 2012* [Undetected opportunities: GEM Slovenia 2012]. Maribor, Slovenia: Ekonomsko-poslovna fakulteta.
- Tominc, P., & Rebernik, M. (2006). *Zgodnja podjetniška aktivnost: pričakovanja o rasti podjetij* [Early-stage entrepreneurial activity: Expectations for growth in entrepreneurial ventures]. *Naše gospodarstvo*, 52(5-6), 11-19.

Age Management in an Era of an Ageing Labour Force

Iwona Mendryk

University of Maria Curie Skłodowska in Lublin, Poland

Introduction

The percentage of senior employees in the European Union will increase within the next several dozen years. The dynamic of the working age population in the EU-27 shows that the age group 55-64 years will increase by approximately 16,2% (9,9 million) in the period 2010-2030, whilst the other groups show a downward trend – from 5,4% (40-54 years) to 14,9% (25-39 years). This distinct demographic change results from an increase in life expectancy and a decrease in the fertility rate. As a result, the European workforce will be older than ever before. In many countries senior employees represent at least 30% of the population of the working age.

There are two reasons for the increase in the number of elderly people on the labour market:

- Lengthening of life expectancy; according to UN estimates, the average life expectancy in the developed countries will increase by the year 2050 from the current 77 years to 83 years (United Nations, 2012).
- The decreasing number of births, which reduces the number of young workers entering the labour market.

Ageing of the population, despite the discontent and opposition of many social groups, will require that more people across Europe work longer. Only such a scenario will allow to satisfy the demand for labour and to temper the pressure on social security and retirement. In order to finance and support the longer life of the European citizens, there is an urgent need to provide opportunities for a better and longer career. Therefore, more and more attention is directed to the search for solutions resulting in a prolongation of activity among individuals on the labour market. This raises the issue of age management which is reflected in the practice of HRM.

Given the demographic projections and data on the activity of the



Rakowska, A., & Babnik, K. (Eds.). (2014). *Human Resources Management Challenges: Learning & Development* (pp. 105-124). Lublin, Poland: ToKnowPress.

population of the European Union (employment rate of workers aged 55–64 together with the average age of withdrawal from the labour market and changes in the extending retirement age in most EU countries), it is reasonable to undertake research whose findings may assist implementation of age management solutions.

Age management can be analysed at three levels:

- At the level of an individual – relating to subjective perception individually developed career model.
- At the level of an organisation – relating to all employees (matching objectives and management techniques with respect to age and thus matching the characteristics of age – encompassing both younger and older employees) or management focused solely on older employees.
- At the level of business environment and labour market – relating to broadly defined actions from the state (local or national) to improve the overall situation of elderly workers on the labour market.

The purpose of this paper is to review model solutions in the field of age management and the status of their implementation in the field of human resource management in enterprises.

For the realisation of the research objective a thorough review of relevant literature was done and the findings from both published and working papers were presented.

The undertaken study pointed out:

- Changes in the age structure of the population and the consequences for the labour market.
- Models of human resource management proposed in the literature which take into account differences in employees' age (age management).
- The results which indicate the status of implementation of solutions in the field of age management in enterprises.

Demographic Changes in the European Countries

According to the data from OECD (2006), in the years 2025–2030 the global workforce will be decreasing by 12 million people per year. Countries which face the biggest threat from this problem are those with ageing societies especially Japan, Italy and Germany. The retirement exodus has a negative influence on most world economies due to

TABLE 1 Population Structure by Major Age Groups, EU-27, 2011–2060
(percentage of total population)

Age	2011	2020	2030	2040	2050	2060
80+ years	4.8	5.8	7.0	8.9	11.0	12.0
65–79 years	12.7	14.4	16.6	18.0	17.6	17.5
15–64 years	66.9	64.3	61.7	59.0	57.0	56.2
0–14 years	15.6	15.5	14.7	14.2	14.3	14.2

NOTES Adapted from <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu>

the fact that disproportionately a smaller number of workers will have to subsidise senior citizens.

Ageing of population is becoming the key issue for most of the European countries. The latest forecast indicates that within the next 50 years ageing of the population can reach an unprecedented before level.

To counteract the unfavourable results of demographic changes, in March 2010 the European Commission initiated the strategy Europe 2020, formally accepted by the Council of Europe in June 2010. The Council of Europe formulated five main aims, the first of which is increasing the rate of employment of men and women at the age of 20 to 64 years to 75% in the year 2020. These aims can be at least partially realised through promoting flexible working conditions, improvement of availability of childcare institutions, providing the possibility of lifelong learning or facilitating occupational mobility. The fundamental issue here is *flexicurity*: a policy, which simultaneously raises the issues of flexibility of the labour market, work organisation or employment, taking into account the problem of combining a career with a private life, safety of employment and social care (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Employment_statistics).

The process of an ageing population consists in a number of people at the older age and their participation in the total population with a decline of a number of children and youth and their participation in the total population. We can assume that most important demographic rates describing ageing of societies are as follows:

- participation of people in the post-production age in the social structure,
- the demographic burden i.e. the burden of population at the working age by the population at the non-productive age (the

rate determines the number of population in both the pre-productive and post-productive age per 100 people at the working age).

Demographic changes will cause a shortage on the labour market. Many enterprises can face the problem of providing a proper number and quality of human resources. Observation of the reality shows that many organisations are not prepared for changes in HRM. Discrimination on grounds of age (ageism) is common as well as creating conditions which hasten decisions about withdrawing from the labour market.

Ageism, initially defined by Butler (1969, pp. 243–246) as a process of systematic stereotyping and discrimination against people because they are ‘old,’ ageism spreads in the whole population: young people as well as old people who are the victims of prejudice based on their age (Branine & Glover, 1997, pp. 233–244). Discrimination based on age is defined as the conjunction of negative stereotypes and discrimination measures based on age (McMullin & Marshall, 2001, pp. 111–122; Snape & Redman, 2003, pp. 167–175). Its outward signs are multiple (Chiu, Chan, Snape, & Redman, 2001, pp. 101–133): slower hierarchical and salary progression, lesser access to training. There are numerous combinations. Ageism is also defined as the source of serious tensions similar to those based on sex and race, and it deeply challenges the relationship of workers with work (Maurer & Rafuse, 2001, pp. 110–121) as well as with the company.

Age Management

Due to, among others, demographic changes resulting in population ageing and the resulting consequences for governments, economy and enterprises, more attention is drawn to find solutions that will result in prolonging the professional activity of individuals. Hence, it is a challenge to manage the ageing workforce, which is reflected a little in practice.

In fact, a national survey by researchers from Boston College found that 75% of employers had done some analysis of their workforce demographics in anticipation of the effects of retirement (Pitt-Catsouphes, Smyer, Matz-Costa, & Kane, 2007).

Taking into account the research result, which shows that practices in the field of HRM can influence prolonging professional activity and time in the organisation (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003, pp. 99–118),

there is an apparent need for planning and programming such personnel functioning which will be based on the idea of age management – the concept of age management which is translated into practice of HRM.

Age management is an attitude to staff management in an organisation, considering age, the process of ageing and individuals' life cycle in order to create the work environment supporting workers of all ages, enable the use of their abilities and meet the needs (Walker, 2005b; OECD, 2006; OECD, 2007; Silverstein, 2008, pp. 269–280). Age management does not only mean practices directly addressed to elderly people but a balanced approach aimed at increasing abilities to work in different age groups (Ilmarinen, 2001, pp. 546–552).

Age management can be realised as:

1. A set of actions and solutions addressed directly to elderly workers. These are, among others, ergonomic solutions (adjusting workplace to health needs and physical requirements), flexible work time (part-time, possibility of extra dispensations, an individual and flexible work plan, reduction of shift work), possibility of break and rest, a proper job description, proper training, modified motivational systems.
2. A comprehensive, long-term attitude to plan careers of particular employees and create and form teams. The aim of this approach is to conduct a career of an employee taking account of their abilities at the particular life cycle moment, preventing a burn-out and competence outdated, supporting their ambitions and willingness to work as well as the ability to work and be productive. Long-term age management requires planning a proper post structure (together with obligations) and a desirable structure of human capital in an organisation.

The definition of age management emphasises that 'age-related factors should be taken into account in the daily management, including the organisation of work and the individual division of duties so that everyone regardless of age could realise their own goals and the goals of the company' (Ilmarinen, 2006, p. 120).

The goal of good age management is to create environment in which workers are able to achieve their potential without being disadvantaged by their age. It is about securing sustainable workability and employability over the life course of workers. It presupposes a coher-

ent and consistent set of broadly accepted principles, policies, regulations and collective agreements as a background for interventions that contribute to awareness, understanding, action and programmes aimed at ensuring that workforce ageing is managed successfully and that age does not become a barrier to employment. The dimensions of age management practice encompass recruitment; learning, training and lifelong learning; career development; flexible working arrangements; health protection and promotion; workplace design; redeployment; employment exit and transition to retirement.

Interventions can be both preventive and remedial, but good age management aims to take a life-course preventive approach. Age management measures should be targeted at workers of all ages and not only at older workers (The Age and Employment Network, 2012).

Age Management in Companies: Model Approach

In the last decade there can be noticed a systematic increase in interest in age management in both the European structures, the national policies of the Member States and companies.

Walker (2005a, pp. 685–697) indicates 5 reasons for the increased interest in age management systems. They are as follows:

1. Ageing of employees on the European labour market.
2. A paradox observed in the labour market in a decreasing occupational activity of elderly people despite an increase in participation of this age group in the society.
3. Requirements of the social policy.
4. Initiatives taken by employers.
5. Preventing discrimination against elderly people on the labour market.

Age management can be considered an element of human resource management or an element of a widely comprehended diversity. The benefits of diversity are said to include improvements in organisational performance, motivation of staff, stimulation of creative thinking, attracting a wide range of talented staff, enhancing corporate reputation, lower absenteeism and reducing litigation risks (Gardiner 2004). Apart from promotion of social justice in the labour market-creating a level playing field-age diversity enables creation of heterogeneous teams with complementary mixtures of experience and new perspectives, transmission of skills and know-how across generations, moti-

vation of elderly employees and avoidance of recruitment/retirement waves (Walker, 2005a).

Focusing on the employee, Walker (1999, p. 370) defines good-practice age management as ‘providing an environment in which each individual is able to achieve his or her potential without being disadvantaged by their age.’ In order to put age management into practice, it is important that managers at all levels are involved. Implementation of age management practices will rely on managers’ understanding, attitudes and motivations, and their decision latitude in order to meet the actual needs of each of their elderly employee so as to help them prolong their working careers (Seitsamo, Tuomi, Ilmarinen, & Gould, 2008).

The main areas in which implementation of age management is presented are the following (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2006):

1. recruitment and selection,
2. lifelong education,
3. career development,
4. flexible forms of work,
5. protection and promotion of health and job creation,
6. shifts among positions,
7. ending of employment and retirement,
8. motivating.

The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2006) recommend employers a comprehensive approach, based on combining activities from all listed here areas, on account of which a new system of age management may be created. The comprehensive approach thanks to the synergy effect provides greater efficacy than in the case of using each activity separately.

A model created by Slovenian researchers is the next proposal of comprehensive age management. The authors of this model proposed a conceptual frame for common age management model formation, it consists of six main fields of action (Dimovski & Žnidaršič, 2006): (1) changing mental models and attitudes within organisations; (2) HRM in the light of ageing workforce; (3) knowledge transforming management; (4) health management; (5) workplace management: ergonomics/job design (6) managing different generations.

The starting point to implement age management is changes in attitudes and mental models. Numerous studies have shown that older workers are perceived through the prism of stereotypes and prejudices.

One of the most widespread stereotypes concerning elderly workers is the belief that they are less motivated to work than their younger colleagues (Fritzsche, DeRouin, & Salas, 2009, pp. 2737–2755). In comparison to younger employees the elderly are assigned less ambitious professional goals, which results in lower engagement and efficiency (Rabl, 2010, pp. 448–467; Wong, Gardiner, Lang, & Coulon, 2008, pp. 878–890).

Another common stereotype is a belief that elderly workers are less interested in the development of their own career and hence they participate in training unwillingly (Maurer, Barbeite, Weiss, & Lippstreu, 2008, pp. 395–418). This stereotype results from the belief that elderly workers have lower ability to acquire new material and it is difficult for them to learn (Fritzsche et al., 2009, pp. 2737–2755). Consequently, elderly workers participate in training far less.

Davis and Songer (2009, pp. 1324–1333) noticed that elderly workers are also perceived as unwilling to participate in introducing changes, have difficulties in adaptation to new situations and mastering new technologies.

Researches also indicate the fact that young people usually perceive the old as egocentric, prone to prejudices, snobbish, demanding and irritating (Hummert, 1990) and having communication difficulties (Radvansky, Copeland, & von Hippel, 2010, pp. 51–60).

Ng and Feldman (2012, pp. 821–858) on the basis of a meta-analysis of the results of 418 empirical studies, created a list of 6 most frequently occurring age stereotypes. These stereotypes suggest that elderly workers are: (a) less motivated, (b) generally less willing to participate in training and career development, (c) more resistant and less willing to change, (d) less trusting, (e) less healthy, and (f) more vulnerable to work-family imbalance. This list, of course, is not in-depth.

These and others stereotypical beliefs must be changed to allow creation of equal opportunities for employees in organisations. It is also a fundamental condition for implementation of age management policies. The purpose of human resource management is to adjust the processes: recruitment and selection, motivating employees, creating career paths so as not to favour any of the age group at the others' expense. Good practice in this area means that elderly employees are not

neglected when granting access to training, moreover, learning opportunities are offered at every stage of their career. It seems important to create such criteria for promotion which will be based on an assessment of work productivity and the potential of an employee rather than their chronological age.

HRM practices aimed at elderly employees ought to contain solutions enabling flexible working hours and other aspects of employment that are related to age, possibilities of workers and burden of caring duties. The aim of making working time more flexible is to establish such working hours which ensure greater efficiency of workers and at the same time allow to combine a career with a personal life (called *work-life balance*), e.g. studying, child care and/or elderly people care.

Knowledge-transfer management seems to be one of the bases when implementing age management policies. The literature generally acknowledges that it is important for all workers, young and old alike, to upgrade their skills on a continual basis in order to remain productive. Skills and knowledge become quickly obsolete in a growing knowledge-economy. Training of younger workers to take over leadership roles, that is, succession planning, is expected to become a priority in the near future. Consequently, for every company it is crucial to have a succession plan, which allows the organisation to retain or transfer skills and knowledge that would otherwise be lost through retirement and it is often urgent to improve the transfer and retention of critical knowledge (Žnidaršič & Dimovski, 2009, pp 85–98).

An important area of planning in HRM is retiring. For employers it involves a dismissal or reducing the employment costs of the organisation. The fact that there is a loss of knowledge and skills, the level of which increases with experience, is rarely emphasised.

A special interest of an organisation is the loss of gained knowledge, which can happen when employees retire. Research shows that 71% employees are worried about this fact (MetLife, 2009). This results in integration of knowledge management with realisation of personal function. The role of PR managers is to identify and find knowledge which is to be kept and to strengthen the process of knowledge transfer from employees preparing for retirement to younger employees. Support of such a knowledge transfer direction can be ensured by: (1) appreciating the knowledge of employees approaching retirement age, (2) building a climate of a mutual respect and trust among the parties

of the process and (3) creating organisational conditions to learn and develop (Slagter, 2007, pp. 82–96).

Another area, crucial from the point of view of extending the occupational activity, is health management. The maximum functional and adaptive efficiency of the body occurs in the period between 25 and 30 years of age. Next, after the age of 35, most of the body functions gradually decrease, therefore, the later years of life may include periods of a gradually declining physical fitness. However, the rate of this process is much diversified among humans. Variability in terms of physical or mental capabilities of elderly people is very large and depends on the rate of biological ageing processes, the occurrence of diseases, environment and lifestyle (Bugajska, Makowiec-Dąbrowska, & Wągrowiska-Koski, 2013, pp. 55–63)

Employers' task is to create conditions to optimise work processes and work organisation in order to allow employees to achieve high productivity while maintaining good health and ability to work. Capacity to work is shaped in accordance with the model developed at the Finnish Institute of Occupational Health (FIOH) by many overlapping factors, including education and skills, job requirements, organisational factors and finally individual factors (physical fitness, health, attitude to the work) (Bugajska et al., 2013, pp. 55–63).

One of the biggest challenges for HRM becomes management of different generations. Currently there are three generations on the labour market: baby boomers – people born in the years 1945–1964, the subsequent Generation X and Generation Y. Generation X are people born in the years 1965–1981, it is a group of people who entered a post-modern social system characterised by consumerism and an increasing role of an opinion-forming function of the media. The labour market was difficult for X and they often had to take positions below their qualifications. Only at a later stage of life they familiarised with computers and the Internet, they were touched by the increasing globalisation, which again meant the necessity to adjust. Generation Y, also called the Millennial Generation, is a generation of the baby boomers of the 80's in the twentieth century. They are citizens of the world without borders. They highly appreciate independence and individuality, concentrate on their own success in life, at the same time they are confident that they will achieve it. A characteristic feature of Generation Y is also a passion for technology, which they use perfectly, and belonging to many social networks, both real and virtual

(Lavoie-Tremblay et al., 2010, pp. 414-422; Spinoza, Ukleja & Rusch, 2011, pp. 21-28; Schoch, 2012, pp. 25-29; Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010, pp. 265-279). Differences between generations concern both value systems and ways of interpretation and evaluation of the surrounding reality. For managers, management of diverse age teams, in which intergenerational conflicts often occur, becomes the challenge. The priority for managers is to organise team work with regard to age diversity of employees, which favours the knowledge transfer. Mutual exchange of experiences includes a flow of information and dissemination of skills in both directions – the elderly give the younger *tricks of the trade*, that have acquired through many years of work (e.g. how to behave in a difficult, unpredictable professional situation), while the younger share their modern knowledge concerning e.g. technical innovations.

The presented above models are to be treated as complementary. The functional approach presented in the model of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2006) shows age management as a set of activities including all the stages of age management process. In the Žnidaršič's model the emphasis is put on identification of areas, which may have a significant impact on a successful implementation of an age management policy. Changes in planning and implementation of human resource management must be accompanied by mental changes, especially management. The consequence of stereotypes are prejudices and their manifestation – discriminatory behaviour. Discrimination is most commonly connected with intolerance and reluctance to strangers and also ideologies which justify discriminatory practices. At the same time it is worth noting that for the above reasons members of discriminated groups quite often begin to accept the situation in which they found themselves, and even limit their aspirations. Such a phenomenon is called auto-discrimination. Negative beliefs about themselves reduce motivation and the level of commitment and reinforce stereotypical beliefs.

With regard to the above models it should be stressed that an age management policy must be an integral part of HRM, and good practices in this field should appear in the cycle of human capital management of an organisation.

An interesting solution was proposed on the website of CSR Europe's Lifelong Employability Assessment (<http://www.csreurope.org>).

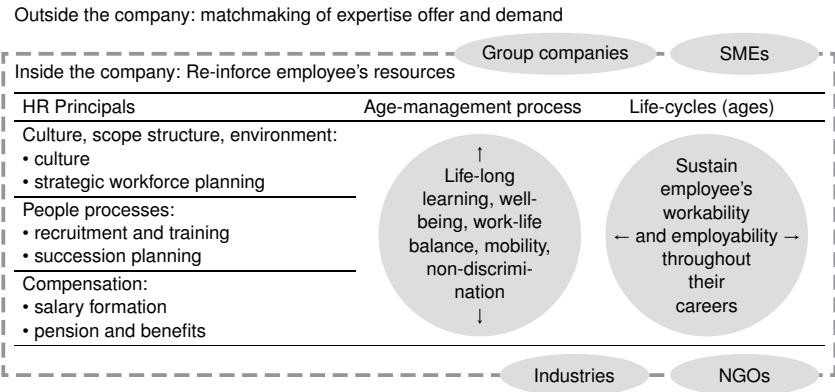


FIGURE 1 HRM Policy Adjustment to Changes in a Life Cycle of an Individual (adapted from <http://www.csreurope.org>)

This approach integrates age management in relation to a human resource management framework and an individual development life cycle. This approach integrates the required actions on behalf of the organisation with responsibility for the professional development being on the employees' side.

Age Management: Implementation in Practice of HRM

Scenarios of demographic changes are a systematic extension of the retirement age and they require from the companies to introduce new solutions or a revision of the previously used techniques. This applies to each functional area. A special role is played by HRM strategies and policies.

Observations of the undertaken activities by HRM professionals lead to the conclusion that:

- Most companies have not implemented any solutions in the field of age management.
- Companies that have suffered problems resulting from demographic changes have started to implement individual measures which are not embedded in the strategic framework of HR. Such programmes are aimed mainly at elderly workers (50+) and do not include younger workers.

70% respondents of a survey among Danish businessmen believe that the ageing population and the shrinking workforce may lead to problems in the labour market. The level of awareness does not in-

volve taking adequate measures. Only 40% of them have implemented any solutions in the field of an age management policy. The most commonly used instruments include: flexible working hours (52, 5%) and reduction of the working time before retirement – 33, 8% (Jensen & Møberg, 2012, pp. 49–65).

As the authors of the study show, in 2005 the most widespread in Danish companies instruments of age management policies were: skills development and continuation of education. Research carried out in 2011 confirmed that training and education best fit in the directory of practices enabling the extension of an active participation in the labour market (Jensen & Møberg, 2012, pp. 49–65).

Employers in Poland are rather unlikely to be in favour of extending the occupational activity. According to ASPA (Activating Senior Potential in Ageing Europe) data, only one fifth of employers opted for an increase in the retirement age, and almost half of them would be against reducing the possibility of early retirement. Employers often expect the employee to withdraw from work early.¹

The results of the study of human capital (Turek, 2013, pp. 74–151) helped to determine the age of a candidate most preferred by employers. Only 11% of the employers seeking employees in 2010–2012 (who expressed age preferences) accepted employers aged 60 years or more. Slightly more than one third of the respondents accepted the candidacy of a person aged 50 years or older. In case of 21% of employers the age of a candidate was not important.

Interestingly, the age was taken into account more than the experience of the candidates. 65% of companies recruiting employees drew attention to the experience of candidates. Even if the experience was not required from employees, then in 74% of cases, employers had specific preferences as to the age of the candidates (Turek, 2013, pp. 74–151).

These data clearly indicate that age is one of the essential characteristics of candidates in the recruitment process, and employers prefer younger workers or middle-aged workers – from between twenty to over forty years old.

Employers prefer young or middle-aged people. They will not be willing to invest in the development of elderly workers or in the development of age management, career planning or training pro-

1. See <http://www.aspa-eu.com>

grammes. Hence, there can be no comprehensive age management systems introduced. Currently we speak about age management in case of implementation of 2–3 mutually reinforcing actions (Kwiatkiewicz, 2010, p. 3).

According to data from the ASPA research, a relatively small number of companies use solutions which make work easier to elderly workers. Only one third of companies have ergonomic solutions, a similar number of flexible working hours. Very few companies reduce the workload of elderly employees (11%) or give them the possibility to take additional leaves (3%). As for solutions concerning age management in a long and broader perspective, the situation is similar. Only 33% provide training for employees 50+, 26% support the internal mobility of workers, and 20% plan careers.

It is worth noting that only 28% of companies admitted that the ageing process of workers was an essential issue in human resource management in the company, and 23% admitted that they had clear rules regarding age management. However, this is accompanied by a poorly developed range of activities. About one third of them did not actually apply any solutions. This proves that the general declarations often do not coincide with the real actions (Perek-Białas, Turek, & Strzałkowska, 2011, pp. 49–54).

A research carried out in small and medium-sized enterprises revealed that these organisations rarely introduced tools for age management (Kołodziejczyk-Olczak, 2013, pp. 113–126). Compared to enterprises employing more than 250 workers, in small and medium-sized companies the introduction of employment planning, including age, was introduced to a very little extent as well as a choice of the form of employment with regard to age or selection of tasks was related to the psychophysical abilities of workers, the pro-efficiency approach to labour resources.

The results from the studies conducted in fifty large enterprises in Poland (Mendryk, in print) reveal that there is a significant gap between HRM specialist declarations as to the implementation of an age management practice and the perceptions of employees in that matter. In 80% of the surveyed companies, employees (tested representatives of two age groups: 25–30 years old with at least 3 years of work experience in the company, and 50–55 years old with at least 3 years work experience in the company) did not whiteness any age management activities although the management declared the contrary.

The above results show the lack of real measures for mature workers, and in Polish enterprises the lack of the culture of age management.

Discussion and Conclusions

Demographic changes in the European Union are a result of the persistently low fertility with constant lengthening of human life. These trends will lead not only to a decrease in the number of inhabitants, the intensification of ageing of the population, but, above all, a deep upset of the relationship between the number of the youngest in the population, the size of the population of the working age and the oldest.

Due to these changes, the majority of the Member States of the EU have already introduced legal changes increasing the retirement age. Raising the retirement age has a direct impact on the time of remaining on the labour market, collecting funds, receiving pensions and their amounts. At the same time it is a change that will result in changes in the behaviour of both employees and employers. Research confirms that raising the retirement age alters an individual's attitude to work, motivation to improve skills and the degree of health care and working conditions. Consequently, this leads to higher rates of activity after reaching the old age. At the same time, consciousness allows for individual adjustments to a life-long changes.

Next, due to a longer time of existence on the labour market, employers will have to invest in elderly workers and take other actions to increase their productivity. A growing number of elderly workers, remaining longer on the labour market with growing shortages of the labour supply will force adjustments of organisations and working conditions to this situation and give appropriate importance to age management.

The purpose of the age management is an optimal use of the potential of employees and maintaining their professional activity at least until the retirement age. Age management should therefore include activities such as health promotion, disease prevention, education, training, lifelong learning and proper equipment of the workstation. These factors do not only influence the quality of work and employees' productivity. But, in the long run, the ability to work at the age of 45, 50 or 60 plus. In the long-term approach to age management rigid boundaries should not be placed.

The overview of the research results leads to the conclusion that age management practices in companies in Poland is rare. This creates the need to consider whether the postulated solutions are essential in enterprises. Perhaps with more flexible employment opportunities, progressing automation of production processes and increasing possibilities for archiving organisational knowledge, the responsibility for employee development and satisfaction lies solely only on the employee side?

As it is commonly assumed in management literature, together with the fast development of techniques and technologies, fewer employees are needed and employment is mainly on a temporary basis, then the concept of age management should be revised. Employers would thus focus primarily on developing competency models and conditions for the realisation of tasks. Employees would be responsible for maintaining their ability to work and the attractiveness of employment at a level that guarantees employment.

Thus, implementation of age management policies, though seemingly necessary from the point of view of changes in the labour market, may not be realised in practice. Consequently, this poses new challenges for both theoreticians and practitioners of management.

Age management requires a multidisciplinary approach, drawing on demographics, health, ergonomics, safety and health, psychology of learning and development, management science, behavioural economics, ethics, and many other disciplines. Research conducted on these grounds requires an integrated approach involving various theories, models and research methods.

Recommendation for the practitioners:

- Address human resource management as strategic.
- Implement and develop instruments based on the assumption that age management focuses on employee's life cycle as a whole and not only on elderly employees.
- Adopt a functional approach including recruitment and redundancy, training, career development, work organisation, health, employment and retirement must be based on mental models free from stereotypes and prejudices both on the part of managers and employees.
- Develop a set of tools to evaluate effectiveness of the implemented solutions.

References

- Allen, D. G., Shore, L. M., & Griffeth, R. W. (2003). The role of perceived organizational support and supportive human resource practices in the turnover process. *Journal of Management*, 29, 99–118.
- Branine, M., & Glover, I. (1997). Ageism in work and employment: Thinking about connections. *Personnel Review*, 26(4), 233–244.
- Bugajska, J., Makowiec-Dąbrowska, T., & Wągrowaska-Koski, E. (2010). Age management in enterprises as a part of occupational safety and health in elderly workers. *Medycyna Pracy*, 61(1), 55–63.
- Butler, R. (1969). Ageism: Another form of bigotry. *The Gerontologist*, 9, 243–246.
- Chiu, W., Chan, E., Snape, E., & Redman, T. (2001). Age stereotypes and discriminatory attitudes towards older workers: An east-west comparison. *Human Relations*, 54(5), 101–133.
- Davis, K. A., & Songer, A. D. (2009). Resistance to IT change in the AEC industry: Are the stereotypes true? *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 12, 1324–1333.
- Dimovski V., & Žnidaršič J., (2006). Od koncepta zgodnjega upokojevanja k strategiji aktivnega staranja [From the concept of early retirement towards the strategy of active ageing]. *Kakovostna starost*, 9(1), 2–14.
- European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. (2006). *A guide to good practice in age management*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.
- Fritzsche, B. A., DeRouin, R. E., Salas, E. (2009). The effects of stereotype threat and pacing on older adult's learning outcomes. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 39, 2737–2755.
- Gardiner, M. (2004). *Costs and benefits of workforce diversity policies to companies*. London, England: Centre for Strategy and Evaluation Services.
- Hummert, M. L. (1990). Multiple stereotypes of elderly and young adults: A comparison of structure and evaluations. *Psychology and Aging*, 5, 182–193.
- Ilmarinen, J. (2001). Aging workers. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 58, 546–552.
- Ilmarinen, J. (2006). *Towards a longer work life! Ageing and the quality of work life in the European Union*. Jyväskylä, Finland: Finnish Institute of Occupational Health.
- Jensen, P. H., & Moberg, R. J. (2012). Age management in Danish companies: What, how, and how much? *Nordic Journal of Working Life Studies*, 2(3), 49–62.

- Kołodziejczyk-Olczak I. (2013). Zarządzanie wiekiem w małych i średnich przedsiębiorstwach [Age management in small and medium enterprises]. *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, No. 3-4, 113-126.
- Kowske, B. J., Rasch R., & Wiley J. (2010). Millennials' (lack of) attitude problem: An empirical examination of generational effects on work attitudes. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 25, 265-279.
- Kwiatkiewicz, A. (2010). *Analiza dobrych praktyk dotyczących zarządzania wiekiem w polskich przedsiębiorstwach: studium przypadku*. Retrieved from <http://www.parp.gov.pl/files/74/75/76/487/494/9415.pdf>
- Lavoie-Tremblay, M., Paquet, M., Duchesne, A. M., Santo, A., Gavrancic, A., Courcy, F., & Gagnon, S. (2010). Retaining nurses and other hospital workers: An intergenerational perspective of the work climate. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 42(4), 414-422.
- Maurer, T. J., Barbeite, F. G., Weiss, E. M., & Lippstreu, M. (2008). New measures of stereotypical beliefs about older workers' ability and desire for development: Exploration among employees age 40 and over. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23, 395-418.
- Maurer, T., & Rafuse, N. (2001). Learning not litigating: Managing employee development and avoiding claims of age discrimination. *Academy of Management Executive*, 15(4), 110-121.
- McMullin, J., & Marshall, V. (2001). Ageism, age relations and garment industry workers in Montreal. *The Gerontologist*, 41(1), 111-122.
- Mendryk, I. (In print). *Age management in Polish enterprises* (Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska, Sectio H Oeconomia). Lublin, Poland: Maria Curie-Skłodowska University.
- MetLife (2009). *The emerging retirement model study: A survey of plan sponsors*. New York, NY: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2012). Evaluating six common stereotypes about older workers with meta-analytical data. *Personnel Psychology*, 65, 821-858.
- OECD. (2006). *Live longer, work longer*. Paris, France: Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development.
- OECD. (2007). *2007 annual report on sustainable development work in the OECD*. Paris, France: Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development. Retrieved from www.oecd.org/greengrowth/40015309.pdf
- Perek-Białas, J., Turek K., & Strzałkowska, H. (2011). *Innowacyjny model wsparcia pracowników 50+ : Zbiórny raport z badań* [The innovative model of support for the workers 50+: Research report]. Retrieved from www.50pluspomorze.pl

- Pitt-Catsouphes, M., Smyer, M., Matz-Costa, C., & Kane, K. (2007, July). *The national study report: Phase 2 of the national study of business strategy and workforce development*. Boston, MA: The Center on Aging & Work/Workplace Flexibility.
- Rabl, T. (2010). Age, discrimination, and achievement motives: A study of German employees. *Personnel Review*, 39, 448–467.
- Radvansky, G. A., Copeland, D. E., & von Hippel, W. (2010). Stereotype activation, inhibition, and aging. *Journal of Experimental and Social Psychology*, 46, 51–60.
- Schoch, T. (2012). Turning the ship around with a four-generation crew. *Information Management Journal*, 4, 25–29.
- Seitsamo, J., Tuomi, K., Ilmarinen, J., & Gould, R. (2008). Work and the work environment. In R. Gould, J. Ilmarinen, J. Järvisalo & S. Koskinen (Eds.), *Dimensions of work ability: Results of the Health 2000 survey* (pp. 345–352). Vaasa, Finland: Waasa Graphics Oy.
- Silverstein, M. (2008). Meeting the challenges of an aging workforce. *American Journal Of Industrial Medicine*, 51(4), 269–280.
- Slagter, F. (2007). Knowledge management among the older workforce. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 11(4), 82–96.
- Snape, E., & Redman, T. (2003). Too old or too young? The impact of perceived age discrimination. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 13(1), 78–89.
- Spinoza, C., Ukleja M., & Rusch C. (2011). Core competencies for leading today's workforce. *Leader to Leader*, 59, 18–23.
- The Age and Employment Network. (2012). *Longer, healthy and productive working lives: The ESF age network guide to good practice in age management*. Retrieved from http://www.csreurope.org/sites/default/files/Longer_Healthy_and_Productive_Working_Lives_ESF_%0282012%029.pdf
- Turek K. (2013). Starzenie się ludności jako wyzwanie dla gospodarki, rynku pracy, polityki i obywateli [The aging of the population as a challenge for the economy, labour market and public policy]. In J. Górniak (Ed.), *Młodość czy doświadczenie? Kapitał ludzki w Polsce* [Youth or experience? Human Capital in Poland] (pp. 74–151). Warsaw, Poland: PARRP.
- Walker, A. (1999). Combating age discrimination at the workplace. *Experimental Aging Research*, 25, 367–377.
- Walker, A. (2005a). Emergency of age management in Europe. *International Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 10(1), 685–697.
- Walker, A. (2005b). *Growing older: Understanding quality of life in old age*. Maidenhead, England: Open University Press.

- Wong, M., Gardiner, E., Lang, W., & Coulon, L. (2008). Generational differences in personality and motivation: Do they exist and what are the implications for the workplace? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23, 878–890.
- United Nations. (2012). World population prospects: The 2012 revision. Retrieved from http://esa.un.org/wpp/unpp/panel_population.htm
- Žnidaršič, J., & Dimovski V. (2009). Retaining older workers: Fields of action – constituting a comprehensive age management model. *The Journal of Applied Business Research*, 25(4), 85–98.

New Approach to Human Resources Management: Green Jobs

Oğuz Başol

Kırklareli University, Turkey

Introduction

Human resources management perception is one of the most important subjects, setting the agenda, altering and affecting the business world for the last 50 years. As a matter of course, relating to human resources management, many words have been uttered and many points of views have been occurred in the literature. As it is widely known, there have been radical and unimaginable changes in the workers' rights and the concept of labor since the industrial revolution. In addition, this change will keep on going rapidly as the literature will continue to develop. In this sense, the book handles human resources parts of ethic and culture, learning and development, innovation and social networks, human resources management challenges for the future. At this point, each organization's own culture and values make the practices of human resources processes different. This subchapter titled 'New Approach to HRM: Green Jobs' argues that human factor is not only playing an important role in the organization's success, but also making it possible to step in the global sustainability. The concept of sustainability, which has not included a quality to be 'the most valuable' until today, has been altered as the 'top' concepts of the organizations that would like to lead the future. This transition process has been examined in the subchapter 'HRM Challenges for the Future.'

New Approach to HRM: Green Jobs subchapter is a concept built on the concept of sustainability. The concept of green jobs is not an exactly human resources concept, but is used to describe the topics energy efficiency, raw material efficiency and the increase of working conditions to the standards of decent work. However, the organizations form the main structure of sustainability in the human resources structure. At the same time, the concept of green jobs gives ideas to the human resources managers at the point of occurring decent work standards. From this point of view, green jobs are considered as a func-



Rakowska, A., & Babnik, K. (Eds.). (2014). *Human Resources Management Challenges: Learning & Development* (pp. 125-154). Lublin, Poland: ToKnowPress.

tion of human resources and greener practices become prominent on the topics such as job descriptions, career plans, award management, and performance evaluation. For instance; while the job definitions are being described, when ‘the efficient use of raw material’ topic is added to that, it should be naturally ‘raw material efficiency’ in the performance evaluation criterion. On the other hand, it is possible to claim that the jobs are getting greener with the practices of human resources, when the introduction of greener practices in the production processes of the organization is evaluated within a system of proposal and award. Relating to that, green jobs are considered as inseparable parts of human resources processes at the points of micro and macro. In addition to that, *New Approach to HRM: Green Jobs* subchapter sheds light on one of the points of revolution for the human resources processes of the organizations. According to that, while human resources managers are defining the jobs, tasks and proficiencies, they are responsible for improving the practices which include the decrease of energy and raw materials, limiting greenhouse gas emission, making pollution and waste management in a qualified way, developing eco-friendly practices by saving the eco-system and lastly activating decent job standards.

In this subchapter, within the ‘From Brown Jobs to Green Jobs’ title, the relation between the main problems of 21st century from the macro view and human resources processes of the environmental problems from the micro view are discussed along with changes in the share of green jobs in the next 10–30–50 year-projections, green job creation plans of selected countries and definitions of green jobs, brown jobs and blue jobs. Development of ‘green’ term, green thinking path and concepts of green jobs such as *green product*, *green marketing*, *green distribution* and *green customer* are defined within the ‘Terminology of Green Jobs’ title. The natural resources usage, energy needs, reasons of the soil, water and air pollution of the organizations are explained; the effects of the concepts biodiversity and climate change to the labor force structure, relationship between environmental activities and lifestyle, effects of green targets and the attitude of HR philosophy to this change are discussed within the ‘Why Green Jobs’ title. Including the globalization, the change of the people’s expectations from the HRM perspective, green dream jobs, green human resources management practices for employees, firms and education institutions are defined within the ‘Human Resources Management and Green Jobs’

title. Finally, general review and results are discussed within the ‘Conclusion’ title.

From Brown Jobs to Green Jobs

21st century brings two major challenges to social and economic world. The first is dangerous climate change and a deterioration of natural resources which would seriously jeopardize the quality of life of present and future generations (ILO, 2012a, p. 3). The overuse of natural resources, such as forests, fish and clean water and the rising levels of pollution, including emissions of greenhouse gases are increasingly exceeding planetary boundaries. Not only the situation is environmentally unsustainable, but also it has substantial economic and social costs (ILO, 2013, p. 1). The second is to deliver social development and decent work for all. This includes lifting over 1.3 billion people, forty percent of workers in the world and their families above the poverty line and providing decent job opportunities for 500 million young people entering the labor market over the next 10 years (ILO, 2012a, p. 3). The longer the wait to address this, the worse it will get: with global unemployment levels exceeding 200 million, almost one in three workers living in working poverty and 5.1 billion people without access to essential social security, the addition of rising costs and disruption associated with environmental damage could further weaken social cohesion and increase the instability already present in a number of countries (ILO, 2013, p. 1). That is why these two challenges are intimately linked and cannot be addressed separately anymore (ILO, 2012a, p. 3).

Scarce of resources and social development challenges has made it compulsory to change the jobs. This change in itself has the motto of ‘sustainability for human, environment and jobs.’ However, this can happen only with the transition of brown jobs to green ones. In this sense, brown jobs are defined as; high material use, low energy efficiency, dependence to unsustainable energy sources and use of ecological stocks in an unsustainable way and high risk in climate. Brown jobs also define the jobs in which decent work conditions are not included. For example; if a job does not supply enough fee to afford a worker’s family or give chance to the low-income workers for a career in high-skilled jobs, and also if a job does not supply free, fair and security conditions for both women and men, then it is correct to say that these are brown jobs (Özsoy, 2011, p. 22). Some governments are now

launching massive stimulus packages to restore economic growth and employment prospects. There appears to be a widespread consensus that such investment and spending is needed to restore growth and jobs. What is not clear, however, is whether the post-crisis economy that emerges will itself be sustainable or whether it will be a resurrected ‘brown economy’ with its traditional dependence on low-energy efficiency, non-sustainable energy sources, high materials use, unsustainable use of our ecological commons and a high degree of climate risk. If these financial resources were to flow into unsustainable sectors, societies would risk reproducing the imbalances and vulnerability that caused the current crisis and therefore risk perpetuating the multiple crises the world now faces. ‘The Global Green New Deal’ proposed here aims to address these risks while achieving an efficient and sustainable solution to our multiple crises (UNEP, 2009, p. 3).

On the other hand, jobs are green when they help reducing negative environmental impact ultimately leading to environmentally, economically and socially sustainable enterprises and economies. More precisely, green jobs are decent jobs that:

- Reduce consumption of energy and raw materials
- Limit greenhouse gas emissions
- Minimize waste and pollution
- Protect and restore ecosystems (ILO, 2012b, p. 5)

As it is shown in Figure 1, the green job should contain at least two conditions. First one may be employment in production of green products and services and decent work or second one may be employment in environmental friendly processes and decent jobs.

The Green Job Report by the Green Job Initiative¹ describes green jobs as ‘work in agricultural, manufacturing, research and development, administrative, and service activities that contribute substantially to preserving or restoring environmental quality. Specifically, this includes jobs that help to protect ecosystems and biodiversity; reduce energy, materials, and water consumption through high efficiency strategies; de-carbonize the economy; and minimize or altogether avoid the generation of all forms of waste and pollution’ (UNEP,

1. The Green Job Initiative is a joint initiative by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), the International Labor Organization (ILO), the International Employers Organization (IOE) and the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC).

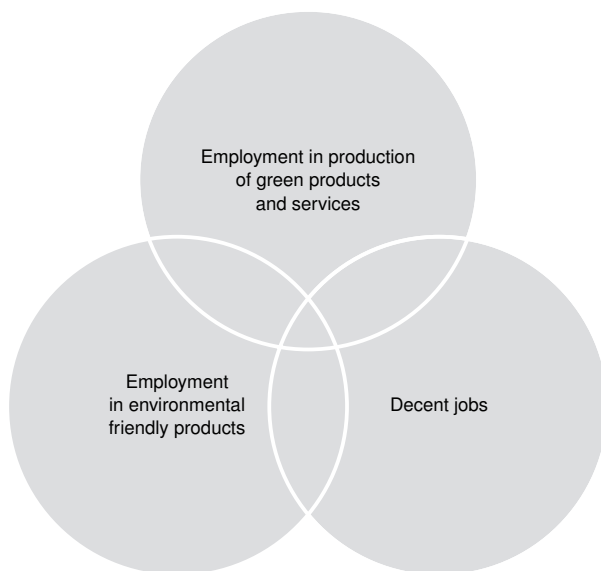


FIGURE 1 Composition of a green job

2008, p. 3). The report attempts to emphasize in particular the green jobs that not only refer to the workers who are employed in the key sectors explained above. Also, there needs to be decent working conditions besides being employed in green sectors. A combination of decent work and jobs in key sectors are what makes the definition of a green job. A worker in a renewable sector without occupational safety is not a good example of a green job. Rather, the ideal green workplace should provide occupational health and safety, adequate wages, job security, gender equality and worker's rights (Bünül, 2011, p. 15).

Green jobs are growing fast all around the world, they are growing faster than the job rate which was created in average in the USA (Raymond, Svendsen, & Campbell, 2013, p. 288) and they create jobs in better conditions for low or middle skilled people (Muro, Rothwell, & Saha, 2011). As for Germany, it is possible to say that there is a similar situation. In the research of Lehr, Nitsch, Kratzat, Lutz, and Edler (2008, pp. 113–114), it is determined that the number of workers who work in renewable energy sector will increase much more than the other sectors in the years 2030 and 2050. In a research in England (House of Commons, Environmental Audit Committee, 2009, p. 9), it shows that green jobs will rise by the year 2020.

TABLE 1 Estimated Employment in the Renewable Energy Sector, Selected Countries and World, 2006

Renewable Energy Source	World	Selected Countries	
Wind	300,000	Germany	82,100
		United States	36,800
		Spain	35,000
		China	22,200
		Denmark	21,000
		India	10,000
Solar Photovoltaic	170,000	China	55,000
		Germany	35,000
		Spain	26,449
		United States	15,700
Solar Thermal	624,000+	China	600,000
		Germany	13,300
		Spain	9,142
		United States	1,900
Biomass	1,174,000	Brazil	500,000
		United States	312,200
		China	266,000
		Germany	95,400
		Spain	10,349
Hydropower	39,000+	Europe	20,000
		United States	19,000
Geothermal	25,000	United States	21,000
		Germany	4,200
Renewable, Combined	2,332,000+		

NOTES Adapted from UNEP (2008, p. 7).

As it is shown in Table 1, current (year of 2006) employment of renewable energy source sector is durable. Not only renewable energy source sectors but also other nature-friendly sectors are developing fast year by year. Given rapidly rising interest in energy alternatives, future years may well see worldwide employment possibilities as high as 2.1 million in wind energy and 6.3 million in solar photovoltaic by 2030, and on the order of 12 million jobs in bio-fuels related agriculture and industry. Projections for individual countries all indicate strong potential for large job creation in coming years and decades (UNEP, 2008, p. 8) in other words, there will be more than 20 million jobs by 2030 which is 10 times greater than today.

TABLE 2 Job Projections from Energy Efficiency Measures in the Building Sector

Canada	Retrofit municipal buildings on a national scale	5,600–7,840 full-time equivalent
European Union	European Commission Study: 20 percent reduction in EU energy consumption	1 million
	European Trade Union Confederation Study: 75 percent reduction of CO ₂ emissions in the residential building sector	1,377 million by 2050 or 2,585 million by 2030
India	Replacing traditional cook stoves with recently developed biomass cooking technologies for 9 million households	150,000
United States	Apollo Alliance Study: \$89.9 billion investment in financing for green buildings, providing tax incentives, investing in research and development, and promoting new building codes and standards	827,260
	US Department of energy: Standards on clothes washers, water heaters, and fluorescent lamp ballasts	120,000 through 2020

NOTES Adapted from UNEP (2008, p. 10).

In addition to the green job opportunities in the renewable energy sector, there are also green job alternatives in the building sector, recycling sector, organic agriculture and vehicle manufacturing sector (Bünül, 2011, p. 17). As it is shown in Table 2, energy efficient building sector is one of them. Countries such as Canada and India and also the countries in the United States and European Union have employment projections for energy efficient building sector as a green job. For example; the European Union's (EU) new strategy for sustainable growth and jobs, Europe 2020 puts innovation and green growth at the heart of its blueprint for competitiveness. It follows on from the European economic recovery plan, a fiscal stimulus of around €200 billion launched in 2008 that focused investment on clean technologies and infrastructure (CEDEFOP, 2010, p. 7).

In January 2009, UK Prime Minister Gordon Brown announced plans to create 100,000 jobs through new infrastructure projects, some of which are specifically focused on curbing carbon emissions, including electric cars and wind and wave power. Japan Prime Minister Taro Aso announced in March that their country's budget increased spending on low-carbon projects and zero-interest loans for green companies. Korean Prime Minister Han Seung-soo coined his plan the

'Green New Deal Job Creation Plan' and estimated that it would create 960,000 new jobs over the next four years, 140,000 of which would be created before the end of 2009. In 2009 Philippine President Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo said the estimated number of green jobs created under the green plan is more than 110,000 (Asia Business Council, 2009, pp. 10–11).

As mentioned above, green jobs have the characteristics of a sector creating employment for 2.3 million people nowadays and it is estimated that green jobs will provide employment for over 20 million people by 2030. At that point, a brand-new future comes out in terms of human resources management. This green future includes key-improvements that will be able to be used for all the jobs, improves the skills of workers and makes the life habits and working types of workers sustainable. As a natural consequence, workers will be satisfied with their jobs, workplaces, careers and lives.

This transition will not only focus on satisfaction. The functions of human resources management will be described broadly again. For instance; job descriptions, career plans, award management, and performance evaluation will be sustainable and decent work-based. Additionally, green jobs will create the concept of an ideal green workplace. Ideal green workplaces should provide workers occupational health and safety, adequate wages, job security, gender equality and more workers' rights.

Another important concept which includes both similarities and differences with 'Green Economy' is 'Blue Economy,' put forward by Gunter Pauli. This concept suggests that it is needed innovational strategies and social cooperation to use the resources effectively (Kathijotes, 2013, p. 8). According to Pauli, green jobs are expensive as they require much more investment. However, instead of making more expensive investments, blue economy focuses on creating a sustainable life and economy, by changing the thinking and living style, and presenting innovational solutions to manufacturing type. Thus, these ideas are not 'on the horizon,' on the contrary, they are ideas improved in 10 years time resulting 100 innovations (De Mees, 2013; Pauli, 2010). Blue economy, using the same base with the green economy conceptually, advises to extract the competition from the profit focus and so, set the competition on the improvement of eco-friendly innovational processes focus. Naturally, as a result of blue economy, there will be blue jobs. Blue jobs are defined as a process to transform

the processes that are not eco-friendly into eco-friendly ones with the help of innovational thinking and technological improving.

Terminology of Green Jobs

As it is possible in every subject, green job has its own terminology as well. The term 'green' is used in literature meaning as 'sustainability' or 'clean in every sense' (Hess, 2012, p. 23). For instance; the reason why 'clean' concept is used in car industry is that using the 'hybrid-powered vehicles' instead of 'petroleum-powered vehicles.' Another example is; in renewable energy literature, the reason why 'green' means 'clean' is the way of producing energy, which is explained as energy is produced with 'zero waste energy-burning' (i.e. wind power and photovoltaic system), not with 'coal-burning' or 'gas-burning.' In manufacturing sector, the reason why 'green' means 'clean' is that the waste, occurred at the end of the production process, is not hazardous for environment (UNEP, 2008, p. 3). Lastly, the reason why 'green' concept is used in working life is that the workers are working under the 'decent job conditions' whereas there are standard working conditions in other jobs (ILO, 2012b, p. 5). One study found over sixty different definitions of sustainability. One thing is certain: The primary shade of this new lexicon is green. The burgeoning 'green economy' is fueled by 'green capital' powered by 'green technology' and staffed by 'green-collar jobs' (Llewellyn, 2008).

For an individual in order to have the features that a green job worker has, the most important thing is that the organization s/he works in should have a green path of thinking (green skills). Also, it is required 'green consumer' in order to occur the need for 'green skills.' In addition, the needs of green consumer are supplied with 'green product.' And, green product is delivered to green consumer via 'green marketing' vehicles and 'green distribution' mechanism.

Surely green jobs is a large concept which does not only include the employment level that it created itself or the advantages that it provides workers, because green jobs have a coherent structure with a specific template and additional concepts. For example; renewable energy sector is described as a green job conceptually, however, every product, that is out of this concept border and is eco-friendly, is a complement of green market. Hence, these kinds of products are named *a green product* and are sold within the principles of *green marketing* beyond the classical marketing principles. These products reach from

the producer to the final consumer within the *green distribution* system and also the people who demand those products are called *green customers*. Thus, the concepts of green product, green marketing, green distribution and green customer will be defined in order to comprehend the nature of green jobs.

Green Product

Products manufactured through green ways and that cause no environmental hazards are called green products. In other words, products are green when they contain 3 important conditions. These 3 conditions are: satisfaction of customer demands, responsible use of energy and resources and lastly causing no harm to the environment and people. Basically green product term concentrates on two major points. First is an influence of the product on the environment and secondly an influence of production process (Kasali, 2010, p. 41). Promotion of green products is necessary for the conservation of natural resources and sustainable development. We can define green products by the following measures (Mishra & Sharma, 2010, p. 10):

- Products that are originally grown
- Products that are recyclable, reusable and biodegradable
- Products with natural ingredients
- Products containing recycled contents, non-toxic chemical
- Products with contents under an approved chemical
- Products that do not harm or pollute the environment
- Products that will not be tested on animals
- Products that have eco-friendly packaging i.e. reusable, refillable containers etc.

Green Marketing

There are several explanations according to literature for the term green marketing. Within green job term; Polonsky (1994, p. 1) defines green marketing as; all activities designed to generate and facilitate any exchanges intended to satisfy human needs or demands, such that the satisfaction of these needs and demands occurs with minimal detrimental impact on the natural environment. According to Miles and Russell (1997, p. 154), there is a difference between traditional marketing and green marketing. Traditional marketing fulfils the customer's needs just for profit. However, green marketing fulfils the customer's

needs for both profit and prioritizing the environmentally sustainability. Green marketing refers to a holistic marketing concept wherein the production, marketing consumption on disposal of products and services happen in a manner that is less detrimental to the environment with growing awareness about the implications of global warming, non-biodegradable solid waste, harmful impact of pollutants etc., where both marketers and consumers are becoming increasingly sensitive to the need for switching to green products and services (Mishra & Sharma, 2010, p. 9).

Green Distribution

Green distribution is one of the most remarkable components of green jobs. If a product is green, it is expected to transport in a green way as this green physical distribution minimizes unwanted effect on the environment. According to Peattie (2008, p. 580) the environmental impact of the products heavily depends on the fuel consumed and materials used as packaging to transport the products to customers (Kasali, 2010, pp. 43-44). Relating to that subject, three important words, namely '3 R' occur as a motto of green distribution, which is 'Recycle, Reuse and Reduce.' An example to explain these three words: a company may use returned used products and packaging as inputs for the production of new products. Furthermore, green distribution also encompasses planning construction and location of distribution centers in areas which are in harmony with nature and the environment, i.e. these areas will not cause pollution (Peattie, 2008, p. 580).

Green Customer

Among the compounds of green marketing, perhaps the most important one are conscious green consumers. In the past years, while the consumers were dealing with only purchase and consumption, nowadays conscious green consumers have been dealing with the production systems and products of the enterprises which consume scarce sources and also dealing with the effects of their waste to the environment (Varinli, 2008, p. 34). Elkington (1994, p. 93) defines green consumer as one who avoids products that are likely to endanger the health of the consumer or others; cause significant damage to the environment during manufacture, use or disposal; consume a disproportionate amount of energy; cause unnecessary waste; use materials derived from threatened species or environments; involve unnecessary use of, or cruelty to animals and adversely affect other countries.

There are two classes of possible explanations for the discrepancy between environmental attitudes and actual consumer behavior. A first class relates to features of environmentally friendly products, while the second class is connected to measurement problems. The discordant character of environmentally unfriendly products may be a first reason for the low attitude-behavior consistency in green consumer behavior. On the one hand, an environmentally unfriendly product may offer important benefits to consumers, such as convenience, performance or a good price, while on the other hand environmentally friendly products respect the environment, but may show a lower quality or higher prices (Alwitt & Berger, 1993, p. 189).

In this context, a research made in the 90s by American Consumer Market Researches and Trend Consultancy Company, which named Roper Watch, is remarkable. According to the survey, consumers display three different attitudes and pass three separate steps on important social issues like the environment (Aytekin, 2008, p. 351):

- Step one, anxiety and environmental activities are partly low rate
- The second step, people learn more about the subject and they begin to participate in environmental applications
- The third step, environmental applications begin to integrate with the life styles of people.

Green consumption largely begins at the second step (Aytekin, 2008, p. 351). Consumers learn more about the subject and become conscious thanks to the increasing green marketing practices of the enterprises, the agreements (e.g. Kyoto, etc) made by governments and the pressures of the environmental civil societies (e.g. Greenpeace, etc) on the enterprises and governments. In this regard, it is possible to claim that green consumption is rapidly rising and so it begins to take place in the third step. In the third step, the environment takes place in the center of people's lives. In all the activities, environment takes the first place. However, this step is not sufficient enough. In order to make it real, consumers need to have reliable information, a strong infrastructure and technology (Ottman, 1998, p. 9).

Why Green Jobs?

In the report 'The Global Climate 2001–2010,' the reasons of climate changes for the last 10 years have been evaluated. This report shows

how the types of production and consumption harm the environment. According to the report, 6 remarkable changes have affected the world climatologically for the last 10 years. The aforementioned changes are (World Meteorological Organization, 2013, pp. 2-14):

- Climate variability and climate change
- The warmest decade
- Hot and cold extremes
- Precipitation, floods and droughts
- Severe storms
- Shrinking ice and rising seas

Understanding the Earth's climate and trends in temperature, precipitation and extreme events is of vital importance to human wellbeing and sustainable development. As The Global Climate 2001-2010 report confirms; climate scientists can now link some natural oscillations to seasonal climate trends. They also understand the mechanisms by which humanity's greenhouse-gas emissions are raising global average temperatures (World Meteorological Organization, 2013, p. 15). Changes in the physical environment – global warming, changing weather patterns, more extreme droughts, rising sea levels etc. – require adaptation measures. To the extent that these changes are already happening, humankind is in order to cope with them obliged to adjust our consumption and production patterns. These measures aim at reducing the social costs of adjustment and avoiding their being borne disproportionately by those already at economic and social disadvantage (ILO, 2009, p. xviii).

Due to the reasons above, unsustainable production type exercises control over both producers and consumers. Therefore, the concept of green jobs has occurred and on the one hand it enables the production type sustainable and on the other hand it aims to make the consumption healthy and balanced. Beyond these, a sector being unsustainable annihilates the job guarantee of workers and being unsustainable threatens the sectors and individuals with unemployment and poverty. The organizations' use of natural resources, need for energy, soil, water and air pollution that they create, and their effect on the decrease of biodiversity and climate change affect the labor power structure in a macro way. The most affected ones from this change are the poor side of the society. On the other hand, commerce is the cornerstone of global economy. Yet the use of natural resources in an unplanned way

TABLE 3 Major Challenges to Sustainability

Economies	Pollution	Depletion	Poverty
Developed	Greenhouse gases Use of toxic materials Contaminated sites	Scarcity of materials Insufficient reuse and recycling	Urban and minority unemployment
Emerging	Industrial emissions Contaminated waters Lack of sewage treatments	Overexploitation of renewable resources Overuse of water for irrigation	Migration to cities Lack of skilled workers Income inequalities
Survival	Dung and wood burning Lack of sanitation Ecosystem destruction due to development	Deforestation Overgrazing Soil loss	Population growth Low status of women Dislocation

NOTES Adapted from Hart, 1997, p. 70.

or the production types which focus on producing more and more has begun to consume the non-renewable sources hazardously.

When the challenges of sustainability are examined, not only environmental and social problems occur, but also urbanization plays an important role in these challenges. Today one of every three people in the world lives in a city. By 2025 it will be two out of three. Demographers predict that by that year there will be well over 30 megacities with populations exceeding 8 million and more than 500 cities with populations exceeding 1 million. Urbanization on this scale presents enormous infrastructural and environmental challenges (Hart, 1997, p. 68).

Table 3 shows the obstacles to sustainability. According to Hart (1997, p. 70) there are pollution, depletion and poverty obstacles to sustainability. The content of these obstacles differ in developed economies, emerging economies and survival economies. For example; the first obstacle 'pollution,' while in industrialized developed countries greenhouse gases cause pollution, in emerging economies this situation appears as industrial emission and in survival economies there become issues in pollution of the natural resources. The second obstacle 'depletion,' while insufficient reuse and recycling become a problem in developed countries, overuse of water causes irrigation depletion in emerging economies and lastly deforestation and soil loss become a serious problem in survival economies as the vital natural resources are destroyed irreversibly. As for the last obstacle 'poverty,' developed countries face with urban and minority unem-

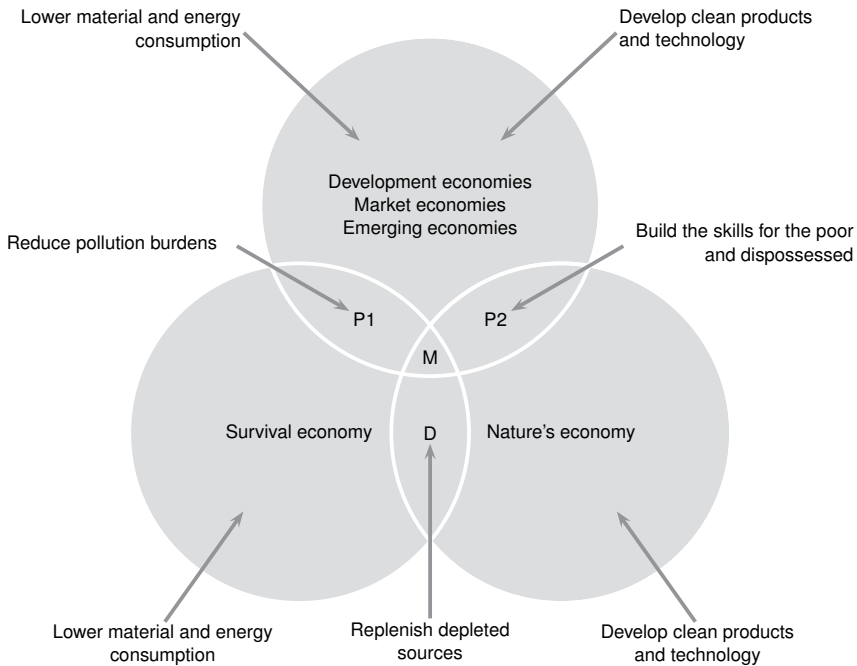


FIGURE 2 Building Sustainable Business Strategies (P1 – pollution, P2 – poverty, D – depletion, M – megacities; adapted from Hart, 1997, p. 75)

ployment problems, emerging economies’ problems are migration to cities, lack of skilled workers and income inequalities and survival economies’ issues are population growth, low status of women and dislocation.

As it is clearly seen, the hardest conditions to sustainability take place in survival economies. Hence, whereas the other countries have problems with greenhouse gases emission, survival economies have more serious problems, such as the destruction of natural resources, deforestation and soil loss. Finally, poverty threatens each individual in survival economies apart from being regional in other economies.

Starting from this point of view, the use of natural resources unconsciously, climate changes, social exclusion, poverty and unsustainable manufacturing type all cause the ‘green key,’ ‘green job’ and ‘green economy’ concepts.

Figure 2 shows that unsustainable economies change the balance of the world through the ‘megacities,’ instead of local cities. It causes wide poverty and the loss of cultural differences. In order to build

green and sustainable economy there are some strategies. First strategy is that economies should pay attention to use lower material and energy consumption and to develop clean products and technologies. Secondly, the strategy for nature's economy is to ensure sustainable use of nature's economy. Thirdly, the strategy for survival economies is to foster village-based business relationship. Economy and nature meet in a point of 'pollution' and so the fourth strategy is to reduce pollution burdens. Market economy and survival economies meet in a point of 'poverty.' The fifth strategy is to build the skills of the poor and dispossessed. Lastly, nature and survival economies meet in a point of 'depletion.' To solve the depletion problem, the strategy is to replenish depleted resources.

As stated above, green jobs encourage the individuals from any economic and social class for a sustainable future. Hence, a research made in UK had a result that the consumers who have sensitive options for environmental activities have a sustainable lifestyle. In the research four lifestyle groups were identified as 'Committed,' 'Mainstream,' 'Occasional' and 'Non-Environmentalists.' The individuals in the groups, 'Mainstream' and 'Occasional,' think that their lifestyles have an ignorable effect towards sustainability. In addition, they can be able to make slight changes in their lifestyles for a sustainable life. 'Non-Environmentalists' think that the individual consumption type has an effect around 2-3% and they do not find it right to amend their lifestyle. The group 'Committed' makes an effort to form sustainable life conditions by altering their unsustainable lifestyles (such as reductions in personal carbon emissions by flying less frequently for leisure) (Barr, Gilg, & Shaw, 2011, pp. 713-717).

On the other hand, it is beneficial to use renewable energy resources although the scientific researches – made on renewable energy under the scope of green jobs – are quite expensive. Yet, some researches put forward that using renewable energy resources will not be able to contribute much on employment. For example; according to the macro employment projections for the United Kingdom; if the UK meets its target for renewable energy in 2020, it will not have higher or lower unemployment than it would have had if no such targets had been promulgated (Hughes, 2011, p. 11). Related to that, there are some doubts about the green jobs will not be permanent (Hughes, 2011, p. 12). Hence, employment projection shows that, at best, green energy policies may have a very small impact on the total level of UK employ-

ment in the short run and little or no impact in the medium or longer term (Hughes, 2011, p. 14). So, the main outcome of the aforementioned research is about the target of the country. If the target is to reduce the CO₂ emission, then it will not be the first step to create new jobs. Here, it is possible to say that green job values can be practiced as a solution. For example, in order to produce electricity, it will be better to use wind power instead of burning coal. On the other hand, if the target is to increase the manufacturing and employment level, it might not be proper to use renewable resources to produce electricity (Hughes, 2011, p. 15).

Human Resources Management and Green Jobs

Although it is considered that green jobs are developing locally within their sectors, reasons and consequences, it is a macro subject in its philosophy. It is affecting the human resources management like a philosophical change. One of the main targets of HRM is to place the person who has the right skills for the right job. In this sense green jobs have enabled people, who work in brown jobs, to transfer to higher classes by trying to help them gain some skills. So, the process creating green jobs has become to be a function of HR contextually. As a matter of fact, a great number of authors claim that it is possible with green jobs to level up to middle-class from the poverty level. For example; in the report of Apollo Alliance (2009, p. 1); there are some green jobs, paying much more per year than the country's best middle-class service sector jobs and often providing benefits such as health care and pensions. For workers even without four-year college degrees, these green jobs have long been the ticket to the American middle class. As manufacturing and associated jobs disappear due to the economic crisis, the only option for many workers is low-paid service sector jobs without clear career advancement opportunities. The result: growing inequality and a dramatically shrinking middle class. To solve this, green jobs have become a very good solution to overcome this result and became popular to have a decent work for the people who earn their lives in low-paid jobs. For example; demand of the market for solar and wind power will continue to expand over the next 20 years, and between 70 and 80 percent of the new jobs created in those industries will be in the manufacturing sector (Apollo Alliance, 2009, p. 1). It may be possible to claim that this will be hope for low-paid job workers.

In addition, the wages per hour of the people who work in green

jobs are the same as wages in brown jobs or much more than them. Also, green job workers have health and retirement rights. As it is stated in the report by Apollo Alliance, green jobs earn wages that are equal to or better than the prevailing manufacturing (brown jobs) wages in Michigan – USA, which range from \$14 to over \$20 an hour depending on job classification and experience. Most employees also receive health and retirement benefits (Apollo Alliance, 2009, p. 2). In the other report of Apollo Alliance, it is clearly stated that the aims and targets of the jobs, considered as green jobs, are clean energy, well-trained labor power, high-skilled workers and a diverse and sustainable economy. Its purpose is to provide firms in clean energy industries with a strong supply of well trained, highly skilled workers and to grow a diverse, sustainable economy in Michigan (Apollo Alliance, 2011, p. 7).

Though the literature specifies the green jobs as energy, structure, transportation, industry, recycling, food-agriculture and forestry, it does not seem possible to define the jobs in these sectors as green jobs. It will possibly be more accurate to give the name ‘green jobs’ to the jobs which minimize the damages to the environment, pay attention to raw material efficiency and including the conditions of decent work. Hence, Pinderhughes (2007) described the sectors that can be considered as green jobs.

As it is seen in Table 4, not only the workers in renewable energy sources, but also the people who work on a large scale can be named as green-collar worker or green business worker. In the surveys made in the USA, there were 3 main categories of the green job concept. The aforementioned categories are; renewable energy, energy efficiency and emission reducing strategies (Yi, 2013, p. 646). Surely these categories are measurable; their efficiency can be increased with tax advantage or can survive with industrial supports. However, to consider green jobs only within this scope will cause the efficiency of green jobs limited in short and long terms as 3 sectors.

The perspective of human resources management also offers green opportunities in career planning. As widely known, after industrial revolution a transition from agricultural sector to the industrial sector occurred and now there has been a transition from the industrial sector to the service sector as the computer and communication channels are used worldwide. With the last evolution, it is very clear that there will be a trend through green jobs and an occurrence of various career

TABLE 4 Green Jobs Sectors

Bicycle repair and bike delivery services
Car and truck mechanic jobs, production jobs, and gas-station jobs related to bio-diesel, vegetable oil and other alternative fuels
Energy retrofits to increase energy efficiency and conservation
Food production using organic and/or sustainably grown agricultural products
Furniture making from environmentally certified and recycled wood
Green building
Green waste composting on a large scale
Hauling and reuse of construction and demolition materials and debris (C&D)
Hazardous materials clean up
Green (sustainable) landscaping
Manufacturing jobs related to large scale production of a wide range of appropriate technologies (i.e. solar panels, green waste bins, etc.)
Materials reuse/producing products made from recycled, non-toxic materials
Non-toxic household cleaning in residential and commercial buildings
Parks and open space maintenance and expansion
Printing with non-toxic inks and dyes and recycled papers
Public transit jobs
Recycling
Solar installation and maintenance
Tree cutting and pruning
Peri-urban and urban agriculture
Water retrofits to increase water efficiency and conservation
Whole home performance (e.g. HVAC, attic insulation, weatherization, etc.)

branches for new generations. Thus, Farrell's book *Inside the industry: Green jobs*, written in 2011, explains the popular jobs, which offer green and sustainable career opportunities. According to the book, '10 Green Dream Job' enables the people to have a career, specialized in various areas, and is environmentally friendly and sustainable. These ten jobs are:

1. *Ecotourism*. The movement started with small groups touring natural areas, but now the entire hospitality industry is greening fast. People working in ecotourism work at hostels or resorts that are green.
2. *Sustainability Coordinator*. Large corporations now looking to go green hire full-time professionals to organize everything from office recycling to product packaging.

3. *City Planning Professional*. These professionals design urban areas that encourage walking, biking and local shopping.
4. *Sustainability Educator*. Teachers and professors are needed at all levels, from summer nature programs for kids up to college ecology courses.
5. *Hydrologist*. A hydrologist studies the movement and distribution of water supplies as well as the quality of that water. Hydrologists are increasingly in demand to help us make the best use of our supply.
6. *Waste Disposal Specialist*. Industrial chemicals were once dumped in waterways, causing cancer cluster in local communities. Now, chemical disposal is tightly regulated. Experts design safe disposal methods for chemical, biological and radioactive waste.
7. *Electric Vehicle Electrician*. One major green initiative in the past few years has been the creation of vehicles that run on electricity instead of gasoline. This reduces the need to drill for oil, which can destroy natural areas. Electricians are needed to repair these vehicles when they break down.
8. *Animal Conservationist*. An animal conservationist can help animals from becoming extinct by lobbying for laws that protect the animals and staging protests and spreading knowledge to inform the public of the dangers that some species face.
9. *Camp Counselor*. Camp counselor can teach young children to appreciate and respect nature. They can inspire the next generation of green workers.
10. *Park Ranger*. National, state, county and municipal parks throughout the United States preserve areas of nature that people can visit. Park rangers make sure that visitors follow the rules to keep parks safe and orderly for generations of visitors (Farrell, 2011, pp. 12–14).

As clearly stated above, new and sustainable order has enabled different workplace styles and different career ways. Hence, human resources management functions have entered into a change process. The known classical career paths have given their place to new and green paths and this change will be more radical in the future as long as the jobs become various as in the ‘10 green dream jobs.’

The last important topic is ‘Green Human Resources Management’ (GHRM). According to Prasad (2013) the Green Human Resources Management (Green HRM) has emerged from companies engaging in practices related to protection of environment and maintaining ecological balance. The source of such initiatives, referred to as green management, is the green movement with its agenda of protection of environment and saving the planet Earth from future manmade disasters. Green HRM encompasses all activities aimed at helping an organization carry out its agenda for environment management to reduce its carbon footprint in areas concerning on boarding and acquisition of human resources, their induction, performance management, learning and development and compensation and reward management. Green HR will play an important role in making the employees aware of and concerned for preservation of natural resources and contribute in pollution control, waste management and manufacture of eco-friendly products (Prasad, 2013, p. 15). In addition to that, Mandip (2012) claims that green HR involves undertaking environment-friendly HR initiatives resulting in greater efficiencies, lower costs and better employee engagement and retention which in turn, help organizations to reduce employee carbon footprints by the likes of electronic filing, car-sharing, job-sharing, teleconferencing and virtual interviews, recycling, tele-commuting, online training, energy-efficient office spaces etc. (Mandip, 2012, p. 244).

Table 5 gives clues about green human resources management practices. GHRM practices have 3 main topics as ‘Developing green abilities,’ ‘Motivating green employees’ and ‘Providing green opportunity.’ The first practice ‘Developing green abilities’ contains 2 major policy practices. First one is *attracting and selecting* green job seeker and second one is giving *training and development* opportunities for green employees. The second practice ‘Motivating green employees’ contains 2 major practices. First one is *performance management* of green employees and second one is *pay and reward system* of green job workers. The last practice ‘Providing green opportunity’ contains four major policy practices. First one is *employee involvement* for green actions. Second one is *empowerment and engagement* of green workers. Third one is *supportive climate* and organizational culture for environmental friendly activities. Forth one is *union role in EI and EM*.

Under the scope of GHRM concept, there are some researches made to understand the importance of the topic. These researches are highly

TABLE 5 Green Human Resources Management Practices

1. Developing green abilities

Attracting and selecting

- Green issues specified in job descriptions
- Green job candidates, applicants use Green criteria to select organizations
- Green employer branding (Green employer of choice)
- Firms recruit employees who are ‘Green aware’
- Green issues in induction/socialization processes

Training and development

- Employee training in EM to increase awareness, skills and expertise
- Training for Green jobs, and integrated training to create an emotional involvement in EM
- Trade union reps get information on EM, and union activist EM training
- Green knowledge management using employees’ tacit knowledge in EM
- Training workshops for managers
- Green MBAs
- Green leadership styles

2. Motivating Green Employees

Performance management

- Green performance indicators included in PM system and appraisals
- Communication of Green schemes to all levels of staff through PMA scheme, establishing firm-wide dialogue on Green matters
- Managers/employees are set Green targets, goals and responsibilities
- Managers are set objectives on achieving Green outcomes included in appraisals
- Dis-benefits in PM system for non-compliance/not meeting EM goals

Pay and reward system

- Staff suggestions in EM rewarded
- Reward schemes linked to staff gaining EM skills via skill-based pay
- Green benefits (transport/travel) rather than pay benefits cards to gain Green products
- Financial/tax incentives (bicycle loans, use of less polluting cars)
- Monetary-based EM reward system
- Monthly managerial bonuses for good EM Including Green targets as part of PRP for senior staff
- Executive compensation for managers partly based on EM stewardship
- Recognition-based rewards in EM for staff (public recognition, awards, paid vacations, time off, gift certificates)

Continued on the next page

important because each firm wants to hire most talented employees. For example; in the war ‘for talent,’ it is very crucial for human resources to attract high-quality staff. It is possible to say that some employers use GHRM practices as a form of ‘employer branding’ to attract the young who are getting much more aware of environment (Renwick

TABLE 5 *Continued from the previous page*

3. Providing green opportunities

Employee involvement

- Employee involvement (EI) practices in EM including newsletters, suggestion schemes, problem-solving groups, low-carbon champions and Green action teams

Empowerment and engagement

- Encouraging employees to make suggestions for EM improvements
- Increasing employees' enhances their willingness to make suggestions for EM improvements
- Supportive managerial and supervisor behaviours develop employee engagement in EM

Supportive climate – culture

- Wider EI in EM underpins pro-environment culture

Union role in EI and EM

- EM education programmes for union members
- Joint management/union training programmes in EM
- Green union representatives

NOTES Adapted from Renwick, Redman, & Maguire (2013, p. 9).

et. al., 2013, p. 2). And according to Albinger and Freeman's (2000, p. 248) research, firms with good reputations for environmental management (EM) may be advantageous about hiring the individuals who had high level of skill and education. Another research shows that when successful graduates apply for jobs (according to UK survey data), they focus on environmental performance and prestige of a company in their job decision. Thus, human resources staff also thinks that environmental prestige is significant for the young applicants (Renwick et al., 2013, p. 3). In addition to all these, Simpson and Samson's (2008, p. 113) survey reports that there is a positive association between the level of employee empowerment in environmental management and environmental performance. Also, in a survey of 472 employees in seven Chinese energy companies, it is revealed that the worker personal values, such as openness to change, are positively associated with positive attitudes towards the environment (Chun, 2009, p. 344). On the other hand, the managers working in medium-sized or large German and Dutch companies are seen as active in participatory leadership and they involve employees in sustainability processes (Siebenhüner & Arnold, 2007, p. 349).

Practices of human resources are also changing with green philosophy. The most important change happens in training. Encouraging

and training in green issues are widespread now in some countries. For example; in the UK, a CIPD/KPMG survey reported; 91% of UK organizations encourage recycling, 83% of UK organizations encourage reduction in energy consumption, 69% of UK organizations encourage the use of recycled products, 42% of UK organizations educate/train employees in environmentally friendly business practices, 37% of UK organizations aim to achieve carbon-neutral status, 24% of UK organizations encourage volunteering for environmental projects, 17% of UK organizations encourage donations to organizations/supporting charities working to combat climate change, 8% of UK organizations reward green behavior with financial awards/recognition (Phillips, 2007). Another survey made in car industry in North America and Japan, it is revealed that human resources practices encourage higher levels of environmental training, and the improvement of skills needed for waste reduction (Rothenberg, Pil, & Maxwell, 2001, p. 241).

Not only employees fight for good firms but also firms fight for good employees. According to the research of Jabbour, Santos, and Nagano (2010, p. 1060); Brazilian firms with ISO14001 certification recruiters prefer candidates with environmental knowledge and motivation. Also education institutions give high importance to green courses. According to Beyond Grey Pinstripes report 2010, there is a growing number of 'eco-MBA' programmes started and other MBA programmes give more courses about environmental issues in their curriculum (Renwick et al., 2013, p. 4).

Conclusion

21st century brings two major challenges to social and economic world. The first is dangerous climate change, a deterioration of natural resources, the warmest decade, hot and cold extremes, floods, severe storms and rising sea levels. The second is to deliver social development and decent work for all. That unconscious production and consumption style, which is known as unsustainable, has made a new life-work form compulsory. From this point of view, the current production and consumption style is defined as brown. Mainly; brown jobs are defined as; not decent work conditions, high material use, low energy efficiency, dependence to unsustainable energy sources and use of ecological stocks in an unsustainable way and high risk in climate. In the following process, green jobs, that are human-friendly and also environmentally friendly, have occurred. To be precisely, jobs are green

when they help reduce negative environmental impact ultimately leading to environmentally, economically and socially sustainable enterprises and economies.

All these negative changes have created the green concept and this is rapidly developing. In addition; a job's being green affects a workplace and makes this workplace an ideal one. Green jobs are related with ideal green workplaces which should provide occupational health and safety, adequate wages, job security, gender equality and workers' rights. Green job as a term is the main structure of new and sustainable economic and social system. It contains 4 main bases, which are: green product, green marketing, green distribution and green customer. These four bases are the main components of the green job term. Although brown jobs are common, blue economy approach claims that green jobs are expensive, green jobs are growing fast all around the world and they are growing faster than the job rate which was created in average in the USA, Germany, England etc. In the year of 2006, renewable energy sector included more than 2.3 million jobs called 'green' and according to UNEP's prediction for 2030 – again for only renewable energy sector – number of green jobs will be more than 20.4 million which is 10 times greater than year of 2006. Unsustainable economic system brings 3 important hazardous improvements (pollution, depletion and poverty) to the sustainability. These improvements have different effects to economies relation with the size of economies. But surely the most affected ones are always emerging economies and the poor.

To build green and sustainable economies there are some strategies. Firstly economies should pay attention to use lower material and energy consumption and develop clean products and technology. Secondly, for pollution, the strategy should be reducing pollution burdens. Thirdly, for poverty, the strategy should be building the skills of the poor and dispossessed. Lastly, for depletion, the strategy should be replenishing depleted resources.

Researches show that consumers who have sensitive options for environmental activities have a sustainable lifestyle. Again according to results; green jobs are expensive options to create a job, but it is price-less opportunity to create sustainable environmental, social and economical life. Also, it is possible to say that target of the country is determiner for the investment type (brown or green). For example; if the target of the country is to reduce the CO₂ emission and develop

working condition, green job creation could be the policy. But if the target of the country is to increase the manufacturing and employment level then the policy could be brown job creation without any environmental priority.

When the situation is considered from the HR point of view, green jobs are like an admission ticket to a higher level. Hour rate in green jobs is much more than in brown jobs and also decent work conditions, such as equality, job security and a meaningful job are provided in green jobs. Contrary to a general misunderstanding, green jobs are not only in renewable energy sector but also in other sectors, such as bicycle repairing, green building, non-toxic household cleaning, tree cutting and pruning etc. Current surveys about green jobs are like a guide to the people who are seeking jobs. For example; an individual who has studied HR management has a career path and this situation is also similar for the people who wish to work in green jobs. These jobs in this aforementioned path are called ‘green dream job.’

Practically green human resources management techniques have 3 main dimensions. These are; ‘Developing green abilities,’ ‘Motivating green employees’ and ‘Providing green opportunity.’ GRHM policies are highly important for firms, employees and educational institutions. Because nowadays firms are using GRHM practices to attract high-quality senior and young staff (Renwick et al., 2013, pp. 2–3). According to the research of Jabbour et al. (2010, p. 1060); Brazilian firms with ISO14001 certification recruiters prefer candidates with environmental knowledge and motivation. Companies with good prestige of environment management may be advantageous to hire worker who had high level of skill and education (Albinger & Freeman, 2000, p. 248). Workers having effective personal values (such as openness to change), have environmental sensitive behaviors (Simpson & Samson, 2008, p. 113). Encouraging green training practice is a part of GRHM. Researches show that UK organizations encourage recycling, reduction in energy consumption, the use of recycled products. Also, they train employees in environmentally friendly business practices, aim to achieve carbon-neutral status, encourage volunteering for environmental projects, etc. (Phillips, 2007). And since 2010, there is a growing number of ‘eco-MBA’ programmes started and other MBA programmes offer more courses about environmental issues (Renwick et al., 2013, p. 4).

Green jobs will be demanded much more according to the next 10–

20 and 50-year projections. Hence, green jobs are like a key of sustainability from the points of humanistic, environmental, economic and social. Green jobs, which have taken place in literature as a new work style, enable a more peaceful working life and also contribute to the HR literature in the terms of career paths.

References

- Albinger, H. S., & Freeman, S. J. (2000). Corporate social performance and attractiveness as an employer to different job seeking populations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 38, 243–253.
- Alwitt, L. F., & Berger, I. E. (1993). Understanding the link between environmental attitudes and consumer product usage: Measuring the moderating role of attitude strength. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 20, 189–194.
- Apollo Alliance. (2009). *Make it America: The Apollo green manufacturing action plan*. San Francisco, CA: Apollo Alliance.
- Apollo Alliance. (2011). *The Michigan green manufacturing action plan: Next steps in a clean energy manufacturing policy agenda for Michigan*. San Francisco, CA: Apollo Alliance.
- Asia Business Council. (2009). *Addressing Asia's new green jobs challenge*. Hong Kong: Asia Business Council Publication.
- Aytekin, N. (2008, October 25–29). *Reklamda doğa imgesinin sunumu ve yeşil pazarlama* [The presentation of nature image in ad and green marketing]. Paper presented at the 13th National Marketing Conference, Nevşehir, Turkey.
- Barr, S., Gilg, A., & Shaw, G. (2011). Helping people make better choices: Exploring the behaviour change agenda for environmental sustainability. *Applied Geography*, 31, 712–720.
- Bünü, Z. (2011). *Green recovery from crisis: A comparative analysis* (Unpublished master's thesis). Istanbul Bilgi University, Istanbul, Turkey.
- CEDEFOP. (2010). *Skills for green jobs: European synthesis report*. Luxembourg, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- Chun, R. (2009). Ethical values and environmentalism in China: Comparing employees from state-owned and private firms. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 84, 341–348.
- De Mees, T. (2013, January 20). On Gunter Pauli's strategic business model of the blue economy. *The General Science Journal*.
- Elkington J. (1994). Towards the sustainable corporation: Win-win-win business strategies for sustainable development. *California Management Review*, 36(2), 90–100.

- Farrell, C. (2011). *Inside the industry: Green jobs*. North Mankato, MN: ABDO Publishing Company.
- Hart, S. L. (1997). Beyond greening: Strategies for a sustainable world. *Harvard Business Review*, 75(1), 66–76.
- Hess, D. J. (2012). *Good green jobs in a global economy: Making and keeping new industries in the United States*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- House of Commons Environmental Audit Committee. (2009). *Green jobs and skills: Second report of session 2008–2009*. London, England: The Stationery Office Limited.
- Hughes, G. (2011). *The myth of green jobs* (GWPFF Report 3). Oxford, England: The Global Warming Policy Foundation.
- ILO. (2009). *Skills for green job a global view: Report based on 21 country studies*. Geneva, Switzerland: ILO Publications.
- ILO. (2012a). *The green jobs programme of the ILO*. Geneva, Switzerland: ILO Publications.
- ILO. (2012b). *Green jobs: A low-carbon economy with decent work in sustainable enterprises*. Geneva, Switzerland: ILO Publications.
- ILO. (2013). *Sustainable development, decent work and green jobs*. Geneva, Switzerland: ILO Publications.
- Jabbour, C. J., Santos, F. C. A., Nagano, M. S. (2010). Contributions of HRM throughout the stages of environmental management: Methodological triangulation applied to companies in Brazil. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21, 1049–1089.
- Kasalı, Ö. (2010). *Visualizing motivations, strategies and activities of green marketing in organizations: A descriptive study in electronics/battery industry*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Marmara University, İstanbul, Turkey.
- Kathijotes, N. (2013). Keynote: Blue economy – environmental and behavioural aspects towards sustainable coastal development. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 101, 7–13.
- Lehr, U., Nitsch, J., Kratzat, M., Lutz, C., & Edler, D., (2008). Renewable energy and employment in Germany. *Energy Policy*, 36, 108–117.
- Llewellyn, A. B., Hendrix, J. P., & Golden, K. C. (2008). *Green jobs: A guide eco-friendly employment*. Avon, MA: Adams Media Publishing.
- Mandip, G. (2012). Green HRM: People management commitment to environmental sustainability. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences*, 1, 244–252.
- Miles, M. P., & Russell, G. R. (1997). ISO 14000 Total quality environmental management: The integration of environmental marketing, total quality management, and corporate environmental policy. *Journal of Quality Management*, 2(1), 151–168.

- Mishra, P., & Sharma, P. (2010). Green marketing in India: Emerging opportunities and challenges. *Journal of Science and Management Education, 3*, 9-14.
- Muro, M., Rothwell, J., & Saha, D. (2011). *Sizing the clean economy: A national and regional green jobs assessment*. Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution.
- Ottman, J. A. (1998). *Green marketing: Opportunity for innovation* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Book Surge.
- Özsoy, C. (2011). The dynamics of green economy: Green jobs and skills. *Finans Politik ve Ekonomik Yorumlar, 48*(562), 19-32.
- Pauli, G. (2010). *The blue economy: 10 years, 100 innovations, 100 million jobs*. Taos, NM: Paradigm Publications.
- Peattie, K. (2008). Green marketing. In M. J. Baker & S. Hart (Eds.), *The marketing book* (pp. 562-585). Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Phillips, L. (2007, 23 August). Go green to gain the edge over rivals. Retrieved from <http://www.cipd.co.uk/pm/peoplemanagement/b/weblog/archive/2013/01/29/gogreentogaintheedgeoverrivals-2007-08.aspx>
- Pinderhughes, R. (2007). *Green collar jobs: An analysis of the capacity of green businesses to provide high quality jobs for men and women with barriers to employment*. Retrieved from http://www.michigan.gov/documents/nwlb/Green_Collar_Jobs_236013_7.pdf
- Polonsky, M. J. (1994). An introduction to green marketing. *Electronic Green Journal, 1*(2), 1-10.
- Prasad, R. S. (2013). Green HRM: Partner in sustainable competitive growth. *Journal of Management Sciences and Technology, 1*(1), 15-18.
- Raymond, N. F., Svendsen, E., & Campbell, L. K. (2013). From job training to green jobs: A case study of a young adult employment program centered on environmental restoration in New York City. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening, 12*, 287-295.
- Renwick, D. W., Redman, T., & Maguire, S. (2013). Green human resource management: A review and research agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 15*(1), 1-14.
- Rothenberg, S., Pil, F. K., & Maxwell, J. (2001). Lean, green, and the quest for superior environmental performance. *Production and Operations Management, 10*, 228-243.
- Siebenhüner, B., & Arnold, M. (2007). Organizational learning to manage sustainable development. *Business Strategy and the Environment, 16*, 339-353.
- Simpson, D., & Samson, D. (2008). Environmental strategy and low

waste operations: Exploring complementarities. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 19, 104–118.

UNEP. (2008). *Green jobs: Towards decent work in a sustainable, low-carbon world*. Nairobi, Kenya: United Nations Environment Programme.

Varinli, İ. (2008). *Pazarlamada yeni yaklaşımlar* [New approaches to marketing] Ankara, Turkey: Detay Publishing.

World Meteorological Organization. (2013). *The global climate: 2001–2010 a decade of climate extremes* (Report No. 1119). Geneva, Switzerland: World Meteorological Organization.

Yi, H. (2013). Clean energy policies and green jobs: An evaluation of green jobs in US Metropolitan areas. *Energy Policy*, 56, 644–652.

Intergenerational Programming: An Imperative for Today's Workplace

Valerij Dermol

International School of Social and Business Studies,
Slovenia

Katarina Babnik

University of Primorska, Slovenia

Nada Trunk Širca

International School of Social and Business Studies,
Slovenia

Why Do We Need Intergenerational Programmes in the Workplace?

The age structure of the European Union is changing (Eurostat, 2011). The ageing population, low levels of birth rates, and small numbers of active older adults in the labour market are among the key issues on which the EU responds with one goal – the lengthening of working life (Van Dalen, Henkens, & Schippers, 2009). Implications of population ageing are manifold. The involvement of older people in various forms of work (productive ageing) has not only a direct economic impact for individuals, organisations, and society (Fraser, McKenna, Turpin, Allen & Liddle, 2009). Research (Haski-Leventhal, 2009; Wahrendorf & Siegrist, 2010) confirms positive effects of productive activities of older adults and the elderly on their life satisfaction, subjective well-being, perceived health, and self-assessed life expectancy. In the age group of people between 50 and 65 years the unemployment rate (unemployment or retirement) has negative effects on health, chronic diseases and lifestyle of this age group (Alavinia & Burdorf, 2008). The importance of retention and recruitment of older workers is supported also by studies in the field of knowledge retention. In addition to the danger of reducing the quantity of labour force (Širok, 2011), the retirement of a large number of older workers raises also the risk of 'corporate amnesia' (Harvey, 2012, p. 401). With the retirement of the 'baby boom' generation, organisations risk losing large stock of knowledge, skills and experience (Calo, 2008). The European Commission (Com-



Rakowska, A., & Babnik, K. (Eds.). (2014). *Human Resources Management Challenges: Learning & Development* (pp. 155-176). Lublin, Poland: ToKnowPress.

mission of the European Communities, 1999; 2004; 2005) and national legislations of the EU countries promote and obligate the retention of older workers. Nevertheless, research in the field of age management practices in the US and some EU countries shows that employers are still biased towards older workers (Van Dalen et al., 2009). Recent research in the field of age management connects human resource management practices, such as mentoring, tutoring, reverse mentoring, and intergenerational teams with the effectiveness of the organisational knowledge management (Babnik & Trunk Širca, 2012; 2014). Practices of intergenerational cooperation promote knowledge transfer between generations and support the retention and creation of organisational knowledge (Swap, Leonard, Shields, & Abrams, 2001). Moreover, interaction and other forms of indirect learning play an important role in the transfer of tacit knowledge that is highly subjective and context-specific (Goffin & Koners, 2011).

Employment of older people is not the only concern that many EU countries are facing nowadays. Youth unemployment rates have been rising relative to adult rates for some time, but the recession has increased the size of the gap (Bell & Blanchflower, 2011; Scarpetta, Sonnet & Manfredi, 2010). Negative effects of youth unemployment are complex and encompass financial, social, psychological and health issues (Hammarström, 1994; Hammarström & Janlert, 1997): (i) unemployment correlates positively with changes in nervous complaints and depressive symptoms, (ii) unemployment is a risk indicator for increased alcohol, tobacco, and illicit drugs use, and deteriorated health behaviour, (iii) youth unemployment correlates with increased health symptoms and increased systolic blood pressure. Negative effect of prior unemployment on earnings is large and persistent, since it continues to affect earnings adversely for ten years (Mroz & Savage, 2004).

Both generations; the older and younger employees are the subject of stereotypes. For several decades, in the scientific literature there have been made references to various attitudes toward elderly people and the current knowledge on ageing and the elderly in the workplace (Allan & Johnson, 2009; Chiu, Chan, Snape, & Redman 2001) and in the overall population. For example, Netz and Ben-sira (2006) studied attitudes toward the elderly, compared with attitudes toward the youth and middle age among representatives of the same ages. The concepts of *youth*, *adult*, and *old person* were rated in compar-

ison with the concept of *ideal person*. The results indicated that the concept of *old person* was rated lowest in relation to *ideal person* in all three groups of raters, including the elderly themselves. Similarly, the meta-analytic review (Kite, Stockdale, Whitley, & Johnson, 2005) of 232 effect sizes showed that across the five categories: evaluation, age related stereotypes, behaviour/behavioural intention, competence, and attractiveness, attitudes were more negative toward older than younger adults. Although most research has shown that negative stereotypes about age are largely inaccurate (Lupou, Dorobanțu, & Fiore 2010), they are still present, and may function as a negative motivation for older workers' work-related aspirations (Gaillard & Desmette, 2010). Some more recent research shows that the views on elderly employees, aged over 50, have been changing, nevertheless, this age group of workers still feel discriminated against, which implies that a change in attitudes is not accompanied with a change in the HRM practices in organisations (Kluge & Krings, 2008; Hanks & Icenogle, 2001). Examples through which ageism and negative attitudes towards older workers are shown in the workplace are (McCann & Giles, 2002): (i) the presence of jokes and barbs at the expense of older workers, (ii) overtly expressed negative attitudes towards older workers (e.g., 'When they are older than 55, you cannot expect flexibility from them'), and (iii) discriminatory HRM practices (an organisation do not invest in training and development of older workers, an organisation does not employ candidates over a certain age, an organisation does not seek to retain older workers or do not motivate them to retire earlier).

As pointed by Wilks and Oliveira in the chapter 'Adding gender to the age factor,' age discrimination is more often associated with older people, but it is present in work context also toward younger employees. Recession and cultural present time perspective (as opposed to orientation towards the future) are factors that promote short-term orientation of corporate employment strategies and expectation of immediate results. Organisations expect to employ people with previous experience in whom there is no need to invest energy, time or money for their on-the-job training and socialisation. The analysis of factors that affect youth unemployment performed by Scarpetta et al. (2010) shows that 'in the EU countries, rates of unemployment among those with a tertiary education qualification have risen more sharply than have those with primary or secondary qualifications.' The authors note that 'within the 16–24 years age group, graduates tend to have less

work experience than the poorly qualified. If employers' immediate reaction to a recession is to stop hiring, then graduates may be in a more difficult position than those with lower qualifications, who already have jobs and accumulated experience' (p. 9).

The evidence of negative effects of unemployment on both generations (older workers and youth) as on anybody else (Feather, 1999), and the overall negative impact of stereotypes on those that are victims of such attitudes and on the society, call for research and practice of socially responsible human resource management. One of such socially responsible HRM practices should be intergenerational programmes or systematically structured intergenerational cooperation HRM practices. The aim of this chapter is to present theoretical and empirical evidence for the development and implementation of intergenerational programmes in organisations, with description of possible organisational practices that represents such programmes.

What is Intergenerational Programming?

Intergenerational programming is a concept that mainly represents 'variety of interactions between children and adolescents age 6 to 16 and older people (age 60 and older)' (Meshel, 1997, p. 1). Intergenerational programmes represent systematically structured intergenerational relationships (Alcock, Camic, Barker, Haridi, & Raven, 2011) that connect youth and older non-familial adults together in meaningful and productive relationships (VanderVen, 2004). Intergenerational programmes can be implemented in various settings, such as schools, universities, care homes, a community, and various organisations and industries, and can be familial or non-familial (Alcock et al., 2011; Hatton-Yeo, 2010). One of the positive effects of intergenerational programming is the changes in participants' attitudes toward elderly and ageing (Lynott & Merola, 2007; Meshel & McGlynn, 2004). Bringle & Kremer (1993) studied effects of intergenerational experience, combined with didactic instruction, on students' attitudes toward older adults and ageing and found that inclusion of intergenerational components in the curriculum has a favourable effect on students' attitudes toward older adults in general and on students' view of their own later lives. Young people included in intergenerational activities also show more pro-social behaviour. Three and four-year-olds who participated in a nine-month intergenerational programme, after having participated in the programme, were more willing to share, help,

and cooperate with elderly persons than those without the experience (Dellmann-Jenkinsa, Lambert, & Fruit, 1994). Moreover, programmes that bring younger and older persons together for joint activities also positively affect the attitudes of older people toward the younger ones (Meshel & McGlynn, 2004).

Changes in attitudes as a result of intergenerational programmes are explained by the contact theory. Contact theorists propose that, in order to change ageist stereotypes, different age groups should be brought together in a mutually satisfying manner (Alcock et al., 2011). Intergenerational relations can have positive effects especially on emotional dimensions related to stereotypes and prejudices (Costanzo & Hoy, 2007; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). Allport's (1954) theory of intergroup contact assumes that positive effects of intergroup contact occur if four situational conditions are satisfied: equal group status within the situation, common goals, intergroup cooperation, and the support of authorities (laws, customs, social norms). The fifth necessary situational factor is explained by Pettigrew (1998) as the friendship potential: 'The contact situation must provide the participants with opportunities to become friends' (p. 76). This condition implies the necessity of a close and a long-term interaction. These five conditions are not the only factors that affect the intergroup contact; individual differences (e.g. value differences, intergroup anxiety and threat, prior experiences with the out-groups), institutional and societal norms (e.g. norms of discrimination) also shape contact effects (Pettigrew, 1998). Factors and processes that affect changes in attitudes as a result of interaction between members of different groups show that changes are results of a lengthy and complex process. Nevertheless, the current demographic, social, and economic situation does not allow questioning its necessity, but implies rapid implementation of well-planned intergenerational activities in the society and in the work environment.

The current situation calls for intergenerational programmes carried out among older workers (aged 55 and more) and youth (aged from 18 to 25) designed and implemented in the work environment. A policy aimed at valuing the intergenerational exchange of competences may be a genuine competitive factor for companies (Lupou et al., 2010). Despite the warnings (e.g., Lyon & Glover, 1998; Dalen et al., 2009) that HRM departments aggravate the problems of older workers by strengthening negative attitudes and stereotypes, the definition of the HR function define its role in the implementation of effective age

management policies and practices. ‘The HR function ensures that HR strategies, policies and practices are introduced and maintained that cater for everything concerning the employment, development and well-being of people, and the relationship that exist between management and workforce’ (Armstrong, 2009, p. 82). A study performed in residential homes for the elderly in Germany (Gellert & Schalk, 2012) confirms that age-related attitudes (intergenerational cooperation and the perception of older employees’ capabilities) are important factors that influence the perceived quality level of in-group cooperation, and that both age-related attitudes and relationship factors influence perceived employee performance and job satisfaction. We could therefore expect that intergenerational programmes designed and implemented as intergenerational cooperation HRM practices affect attitudes of both generations included, performance, and the capacity of organisation to learn, transfer, retain, and create new knowledge (Babnik & Trunk Širca, 2014).

Intergenerational Cooperation Human Resources Management Practices

In the organisational context possibilities of intergenerational cooperation are several and they are all based on the fundamental idea of the intergenerational programming:

1. Cooperation between older workers and younger newcomers in the process of organisational socialisation, through which younger and less experienced employees gain technical, normative and referent knowledge (Morrison, 1993), or the specific organisational know-about, know-how, know-why and know-who (Evans, 2003) is transmitted;
2. Cooperation between older workers and younger employees in learning new technologies, as a way of reverse mentoring (Baily, 2009);
3. Cooperation of different generations in so called aged-mixed teams (Walker, 2006);
4. Cooperation between older and younger employees in the process of training and formal education (Babnik & Trunk Širca, 2014).

Concrete forms of intergenerational cooperation that bring together older workers (especially those with long-term employment in an or-

ganisation) and have mutually beneficial effects are these related to mentoring activities. Mentoring is defined as an 'intense, dyadic relationship in which a more senior, experienced person provides support and assistance to a more junior, less experienced colleague referred to as a protégé or mentee' (Hezlett & Gibson, 2007, p. 385). A mentor is, therefore, an 'older, more experienced person, who can serve as a role model and who engages in a one-to-one, "hands on," positive relationship with a younger person that is characterised by interest, caring and sharing experience, knowledge and skills' (VanderVen, 2004, p. 97). Mentoring programmes are HRM practices in the area of career management and training (Spector, 2008).

Positive effects of mentoring on protégés are several: work motivation and organisational commitment (Orpen, 1997), objective and subjective measures of career success (Allen, Eby, Potteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Dreher & Ash, 1990), job satisfaction, lower levels of role ambiguity, turnover intention and actual turnover (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). The positive effects of the mentoring role are reciprocal. As employees grow older, there is an increased need to encounter respect, whether self-respect or respect given to or received from others (Lupou et al., 2010). Accordingly, perception of low psychological quality of work is related to the intention to retire early (Siegrist et al., 2007). In providing mentoring functions the mentor gains technical and psychological support, finds internal satisfaction, and gains respect from colleagues for successfully developing a younger employee (Kram & Isabella, 1985).

With the goal of securing youth employment mentorship practices can fully reach their goal of intergenerational cooperation accompanied with flexible working arrangements; that is, with the employment of younger and older people on the same job position with various percentages of permanent employment. Such flexible working arrangements should be stimulated by social security incentives for employers and employees in a form of refunding differences to full employment. Mentoring employment scheme would guarantee first employment, on-the-job training, and working experiences for the youth and would offer the possibility for older workers to actively participate in the work environment. The organisations would gain well-trained and socialised young workers, with organisational specific knowledge and competencies, the transfer of technical and tacit knowledge, and so the retention of the key organisational capabilities.

Although mentoring is most often related to the relationship between senior and junior staff in which the senior employee guides the younger one, in literature the concept of reverse intergenerational learning (or reverse mentoring) is being developed (e.g., Baily, 2009; Tempest, 2003). One of the fields of such reverse intergenerational learning is the learning of new IT (Baily, 2009) but such a HRM practice can be implemented also on other technological and non-technological fields.

The literature recognises multiple positive effects of mentorship and 'reverses' mentorship, but the question of the efficacy of the age-mixed teams still remains unclear. Work group demographic diversity in which age is the only differentiating variable may affect group process and performance positively as well as negatively (Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). Diversity may lead to social fragmentation in work teams. The research (Balkundi, Kilduff, Barsness, & Michael, 2006) investigating whether demographic diversity in teams predicts the proportion of structural holes in teams found that there are no effects of ethnic and gender diversity but age diversity may significantly reduce the extent of structural holeyness of the team. The literature also suggests that age heterogeneity in work teams contributes to conflicts and rivalry between team members (Lawrence, 1997; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999). On the other hand, age diversity does not necessarily provoke negative effects on group processes and outputs. Young and older workers have different skills and experiences and the research supports that the differences in ability levels of group members (Hamilton, Nickerson, & Owan, 2003), and the differences in problem-solving capabilities and creativity (Guzzo, 1986) have positive effects on team performance. Charness and Villeval (2007) performed an intergenerational field and laboratory experiment in which they studied comparative behaviour of juniors and seniors with employees from two large firms and with students and retirees. The results of the experiment were contrary to the well-established stereotypes that older workers are less risk-averse and less-competitive than younger ones, and also showed that cooperation of group members was highest in the age-mixed groups (Charness & Villeval, 2007). Previous reviews show (Guzzo & Shea, 1992; Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007; Mannix & Neale, 2005) that the complexity of the relationship between team diversity, team processes, and team-level and individual-level results in which the time perspective (the duration of the team), type of the

team's task, and the type of diversity (functional or demographic) have an important role. An integrative model of the relationships between functional and demographic diversity, conflict, and performance has been developed and tested by Pelled et al. (1999). The authors confirm that functional diversity drives task conflict that has more favourable effect on cognitive task performance, while multiple types of diversity drive emotional conflict that has more unfavourable effects on task performance. Race and tenure diversity are positively associated with emotional conflict, and age diversity is negatively associated with emotional conflict. Kochan et al. (2003) summarize results and conclusions of studies on the relationships between race and gender diversity and business performance carried out in four large firms. Few positive or negative direct effects of diversity on performance were found, while a number of different aspects of the organisational context and some group processes moderated the relationship between diversity and performance. The complex relationship between work group diversity and group performance point out the necessity of carefully planned age diverse work teams: (i) the team structure should not include too many types of diversity, (ii) the diversity of team members should guarantee complementarities in team members skills and experiences, (iii) teams should be long lasting, (iv) team should not be self-lead, and (v) should have well defined tasks and goals.

Presented literature findings on the relationship between age diversity in work teams and performance suggest that the positive effects of diversity in the workplace is more a belief (Mannix & Neale, 2006) than a scientifically established fact. While the changes in labour and social security legislation have been adopted in the EU countries that prolong the period of active working life, the question of how the workforce diversity will be implemented in the organisations remains the problem of organisations themselves. In this endeavours, the organisations must have support in the external and internal environment.

Internal and External Organisational Determinants of Intergenerational Cooperation Practices

The determinants of intergenerational cooperation practices can be found in similar factors that determine organisational HRM systems (Jackson & Schuler, 1995) and effectiveness of intergroup contacts (Pettigrew, 1998): (i) national policy and legislation, (ii) national and local intergenerational approaches, (iii) higher education system and

higher education institutions, and (iv) societal culture. The aforesaid determinants have an important effect also on the internal working environment that further on supports or hinders the implementation of intergenerational practices. In this chapter the external and internal work environment factors that affect most strongly the willingness to implement and the effects of the implementation of intergenerational practices are presented. The described factors clearly show that intergenerational cooperation is a long-term and a complex goal that should be carefully planned and implemented on all levels of the society and its institutions, and should take into account all the generations. Organisations can make the first step, through fostering a tolerant working environment in which HR practices support diversity as a means to receive distinctive capabilities of workers from every generation.

There are five main reasons why policy makers across the globe have become interested in the concept of ageing: work force ageing, the growth of early exit from the work environment, social protection system sustainability, changing business and the political pressure for equal treatment (Walker, 2006). Zaidi (2008) identifies five different areas of public policies that are important in preparing for ageing societies of the future: pension policy; health and long-term care policy; employment policy; migration and integration policy; infrastructure development. National policy and legislation in these areas are therefore an important step for effective inclusion of older people in the work context, but not only in the form of prolonging workforce's active period of time but also with inclusion of systems and incentives that allow for intergenerational programming in work contexts with offering the possibilities to youth to get the first employment, skills, and work experiences.

National and local intergenerational approaches have joint effects on cohorts included in the intergenerational approaches and for the community (Alcock et al., 2011). Intergenerational experiential opportunities are necessary to overcome stereotypes (Slaght & Stampely, 2006). Intergenerational approaches in different areas of social life therefore contribute to: (i) the development of positive attitudes toward intergenerational cooperation, (ii) the transformation of intergenerational cooperation in an established, everyday practice, and (iii) mutual benefits for those included in the programmes and the community in which they are operating (Alcock et al., 2011).

There are at least three issues related to education and training of older workers and the development of intergenerational cooperation in organisations that can be addressed by the Higher education system and Higher education institutions (Gomezelj Omerzel, Fister, & Trunk Širca, 2008): (i) the lagging behind at the level of attained competences and education in the group of employees over the age of 45, (ii) the lack of motivation of older workers to continue formal education, (iii) the preparation of graduates of all disciplines to work in a multigenerational workforce (Hanks & Icenogle, 2001; Miclea, 2004). In accordance with the Bologna process and the European Commission's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning (Commission of the European Communities, 2000) the implementation and utilisation of modules for life-long learning and the validation of non-formal and informal learning at the level of higher education (Gomezelj Omerzel et al., 2008) can effectively address the question of motivation to continue the educational process, and the lack of a sufficient level of formal education of older workers.

Cultures differ in the way ageing is viewed (Yoon et al., 2000). Societal cultural values determine social norms that are reflected in the patterns of behaviour, structures and functioning of societal institutions (Schwartz, 1999). Societal cultural values and norms are reflected in formal and informal policies and practices, also in the field of active ageing and intergenerational cooperation. The recent cross-cultural studies show the prevailing world-wide cultural orientation toward the results (Javidan, 2004) that combined with the present time cultural orientation, and in some societal contexts also with high power distance, cause less tolerance toward groups that cannot immediately achieve the expected standards (Babnik, 2010).

The role of cultural values and norms in the implementation of intergenerational cooperation is further stressed by their impact on internal organisational environment (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002) and in the implementation of organisational policies and practices (Aycan, Kanungo, & Sinha 1999). Societal cultural values and norms affect the internal organisational environment through their impact on (i) cultural mental schemes and patterns of behaviour that are passed from the societal environment into the organisation via members of the organisation (Hanges, Lord, & Dickson, 2000), and through the creation of (ii) institutional environment of organisations formed by the rules, practices, symbols, and statutory requirements, that or-

organisations should adapt for the necessary support and legitimacy in the operating environment (Dickson, Beshears, & Gupta, 2004).

The first organisational variable that affects willingness and the actual level of implementation of intergenerational programming is leadership. Managerial decisions about implementing HRM practices are based on their assumptions of the nature of human resources (Aycaan et al., 1999). Leaders' assumptions of the capacity and motivation of older workers and their assumption about the nature and characteristics of the younger ones are therefore an important source for the decisions on the implementation of intergenerational cooperation practices. International and national studies show employers and managers undervaluing older workers (Billett et al., 2011). A recent study (Furunes, Mykletun, & Solem, 2011) shows that changing managers attitudes and providing access to human and financial resources are the most important criteria for influencing managers' perceived decision latitude in regard to the management and retention of older workers. Fewer studies can be found about leadership practices toward younger workers.

Intergenerational cooperation HRM practices are part of the HRM system. The notion of intended, implemented and actually perceived HRM practices (Nishii & Wright, 2008) shows that it is not enough to declare (that is on the strategic or intended level of HRM) the management initiatives to combat (un)equal opportunities (McVittie, McKinlay, & Widdicombe, 2003). Without an integrated age management strategy (with two generational groups – the older workers and the youth) that is implemented at the level of the actual or the implemented HRM system the synergic effects of age diversity cannot be achieved. In accordance to Lervik, Hennestad, Amdam, Lunnan, and Nilsen (2005) the proper strategy of implementation for the people-dependent and context-dependent HRM practices, such as intergenerational programmes or intergenerational cooperation HRM practices, is the process of 're-creation,' rather than the process of implementing best practices as 'replication.' Practices such as mentoring, socialisation, reverse mentoring, intergenerational teams should be implemented in a context specific way.

The four-stage model of the implementation process begins with the initiation phase of discovering needs, benchmarking and identification of a potential solution (Lervik et al., 2005; Szulanski, 1996). In the first stage the employer analyses the current preparedness of the organisation to adopt and implement intergenerational practices

through the assessment of: (i) the current HR structure, (ii) the extent to which formal and informal practices of cooperation between generations are already implemented in the organisation, and (iii) the prevailing attitudes toward older and younger workers. An important part of the initiation stage is the identification of intergenerational cooperation practices that are aligned with organisational and individual needs. The second stage of the implementation process begins with the decision to proceed with the identified practices (Szulanski, 1996). In this stage ‘organisation members should be involved in designing and adapting the introduced HRM practices rather than having detailed procedures of the practice imposed upon them’ (Lervik et al., 2005, p. 352). In the third stage, the process of experimentation, exploration of mutual expectations of generations included in the intergenerational cooperation practices takes place. This is also the stage of resolving unexpected problems (Szulanski, 1996) that arise in the process of enacting new practices. The goal of the fourth stage or the integration stage (Lervik et al., 2005; Szulanski, 1996) is to connect new practices to the existing organisational context.

The prevalent leadership styles, management decisions, HRM policies and practices are strongly related to the organisational culture (Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990). Beliefs about older workers do not only affect the level of implementation of age management practices, but they also influence the older workers. ‘Negative ageing stereotypes have the power to influence reactions toward older people, creating assumptions in the minds of others about their limited or poor abilities, judgement, and behaviours’ (Bennett & Gains, 2010, p. 436). The study of Coudin and Alexopoulos (2010) shows that negative stereotypes can have negative effects on older individuals’ self-evaluation and functioning that further contribute to the dependency of older people. The same influence can also be expected on younger workers. The organisational culture changes toward proactive organisational culture that encourages long-term employment and strong and productive cooperation between organisational members from different generations is therefore one of the key elements to promote knowledge creation, knowledge transfer and retention.

Conclusions

The chapter presents theoretical and empirical evidence for the development and implementation of intergenerational programmes in organisations, with a description of possible organisational practices that

represent such programmes, and possible societal and organisational-level factors that affect willingness and the actual level of implementation of intergenerational cooperation HRM practices. Four groups of such practices were identified: mentoring practices, reverse mentoring practices, aged-mixed teams, cooperation between older and younger employees in the process of on-the-job training and formal education (Babnik & Trunk Širca, 2014).

Younger employees included in intergenerational cooperation such as mentoring gain knowledge, technical and social skills (Kram & Isabella, 1985). Older workers gain self-respect (Lupou et al., 2010), technical skills related to new technologies (Baily, 2009), and motivation for lifelong learning (Gomezelj Omerzel et al., 2008). Implementation of intergenerational cooperation practices can also lead to the empowerment of older workers to take control of their own ageing process (Walker, 2006). If a mentoring process is also accompanied with the proposed mentoring employment scheme, manifold and positive long-term effects can be expected, especially for young workers. In the long term, positive effects of intergenerational programmes in work environment should also have an impact at the societal level, but not only in the economic sense. Intergenerational approaches in different areas of social life promote positive attitudes toward the elderly (Costanzo & Hoy, 2007). Organisational practices of intergenerational cooperation could therefore contribute to a more (age-) tolerant society.

Results of the studies on mentorship show positive effects of the mentorship function on both partners included in the process, while there is now clear evidence of the positive effects of age diverse work teams on team results. The widely accepted notion of *diversity improves*, therefore, is not fully supported. In practice, ageing workforce is already a fact. Changes of the national legislation increased the level of the retirement age in the EU countries. At the same time, legislation in most countries fails to ensure integration of young people into the workplace and fails to ensure support for intergenerational cooperation. Solutions to these social and demographic situations rest on the organisations and their HR departments. Empirical evidence offers a framework for a design of the proposed intergenerational cooperation practices, although the efforts for the inclusion of both generations in productive cooperative activities cannot be effective without the support of the external and internal organisational environment.

The presented external and internal determinant models of intergenerational cooperation in organisations encompass cultural and institutional determinants of intergenerational practices. On the societal level we identified four determinants: national legislation, prevalence of intergenerational cooperation programmes in different areas of social life, higher educational system and institutions, and societal culture. All the aforementioned variables have an interrelated impact on organisational leadership and management, HRM systems and organisational culture that promotes retention of older workers and intergenerational activities.

Science should help organisations into the new age of diversity. There is not much research-based evidence about attitudes toward youth in the work environment and their perceptions of the current work possibilities and toward the cooperation with older workers. Moreover, research is needed to determine long-term effects of intergenerational cooperation practices in organisations and their effects on individuals, the team, and the organisation.

References

- Alavinia, S. M., & Burdorf, A. (2008). Unemployment and retirement and ill-health: A cross-sectional analysis across European countries. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health*, 82, 39-45.
- Alcock, C. L., Camic, P. M., Barker, C., Haridi, C., & Raven, R. (2011). Intergenerational practice in the community: A focused ethnographic evaluation. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 21(5), 419-432.
- Allan, L. J., & Johnson, J. A. (2009). Undergraduate attitudes toward the elderly: The role of knowledge, contact and aging anxiety. *Educational Gerontology*, 35(1), 1-14.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., Poteet, M. L., Lentz, E., & Lima, L. (2004). Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégés: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(1), 127-136.
- Allport, G. W. (1954). *The nature of prejudice*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Armstrong, M. (2009). *A handbook of human resources management* (11th ed.). London, England: Kogan Page.
- Aycan, Z., Kanungo, R. N., & Sinha, J. B. P. (1999). Organizational culture and human resource management practices: The model of culture fit. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 30(4), 501-526.

- Babnik, K. (2010). *The role of societal and organisational culture in employees' attitudes toward the work* (Unpublished PhD thesis). University of Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia.
- Babnik, K., & Trunk Širca, N. (2012). Gaining synergies through HRM practices: Aging workforce and lifelong learning. In Z. Pastuszek (Ed.), *Competences, synergy and international competitiveness influence on the technology innovation and industrial management* (pp. 386–393). Lublin, Poland: Maria Skłodowska-Curie University.
- Babnik, K. & Trunk Širca, N. (2014). Knowledge creation, transfer and retention: The case of intergenerational cooperation. *International Journal of Innovation and Learning*, 15(4), 349–364.
- Baily, C. (2009). Reverse intergenerational learning: A missed opportunity? *AI and Society*, 23(1), 111–115.
- Balkundi, P., Kilduff, M., Michael, J., Barsness, Z., & Lawson, L. (2007). Demographic antecedents and performance consequences of structural holes in work teams. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28, 241–260.
- Bell, D. N. F., & Blanchflower, D. G. (2011). *Young people and the Great Recession* (Discussion Paper No. 5674). Bonn, Germany: IZA.
- Bennett, T., & Gaines, J. (2010). Believing what you hear: The impact of aging stereotypes upon the old. *Educational Gerontology*, 36(5), 435–445.
- Billett, S., Dymocka, D., Johnsona, G., & Martin, G. (2011). Overcoming the paradox of employers' views about older workers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(6), 1248–1261.
- Bingle, R. G., & Kremer, J. F. (1993). Evaluation of an intergenerational service-learning project for undergraduates. *Educational Gerontology*, 19(5), 407–416.
- Calo, T. J. (2008). Talent management in the era of the aging workforce: The critical role of knowledge transfer. *Public Personnel Management*, 37(4), 403–416.
- Charness, G., & Villeval, M. C. (2009). Cooperation and competition in intergenerational experiments in the field and the laboratory. *The American Economic Review*, 99(3), 956–978.
- Chiu, W., Chan, A., Snape, E., & Redman, T. (2001). Age stereotypes and discriminatory attitudes towards older workers: An East-West comparison. *Human Relations*, 54(5), 629–662.
- Commission of the European Communities. (1999). *Towards a Europe for All Ages – Promoting Prosperity and Intergenerational Solidarity* (Communication from the Commission COM (1999) 221 final). Brussels, Belgium: Commission of the European Communities.

- Commission of the European Communities. (2000). *Memorandum on lifelong learning* (Commission Staff Working Paper SEC (2000) 1832). Brussels, Belgium: Commission of the European Communities.
- Commission of the European Communities (2004). *Increasing the employment of older workers and delaying the exit from the labour market* (Communication from the Commission COM (2004) 146 final). Brussels, Belgium: Commission of the European Communities.
- Commission of the European Communities (2005). Green paper 'Confronting demographic change: A new solidarity between the generations' (Communication from the Commission COM (2005) 94 final). Brussels, Belgium: Commission of the European Communities.
- Costanzo, P. R., & Hoy, M. B. (2007). Intergenerational relations: Themes, prospects, and possibilities. *Journal of Social Issues*, 63(4), 885-902.
- Coudin, G., & Alexopoulos, T. (2010). 'Help me! I'm old!' How negative aging stereotypes create dependency among older adults. *Aging & Mental Health*, 14(5), 516-523.
- Dalen, H. P. van, Henkens, K., & Schippers, J. (2009). Dealing with older workers in Europe: A comparative survey of employers' attitudes and actions. *Journal of European Social Policy*, 19(1), 47-60.
- Dellmann-Jenkins, M., Lambert, D., & Fruit, D. (1991). Fostering preschoolers' prosocial behaviors toward the elderly: The effect of an intergenerational program. *Educational Gerontology*, 17(1), 21-32.
- Dickson, M. W., Beshears, R. S., & Gupta, V. (2004). The impact of societal culture and industry on organizational culture: Theoretical explanations. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 Societies* (pp. 74-90). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dreher, G. F., & Ash, R. A. (1990). A comparative study of mentoring among men and women in managerial, professional, and technical positions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(5), 539-546.
- Eurostat. (2011). Population structure and ageing. Retrieved from http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Population_structure_and_ageing
- Evans, C. (2003). *Managing for knowledge: HR's strategic role*. Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Feather, N. T. (1990). *The psychological impact of unemployment*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Fraser, L., McKenna, K., Turpin, M., Allen, S., & Liddle, J. (2009). Older workers: An exploration of the benefits, barriers and adaptations for older people in the workforce. *Work*, 33(3), 261-272.

- Furunes, T., Mykletun, R. J., & Solem, P. E. (2011). Age management in the public sector in Norway: Exploring managers' decision latitude. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(6), 1232-1247.
- Gaillard, M., & Desmette, D. (2010). (In) validating stereotypes about older workers influences their intention to retire early and to learn and develop. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 32(1), 86-98.
- Gellert, F. J., & Schalk, R. (2012). Age-related attitudes: The influence on relationships and performance at work. *Journal of Health Organization and Management*, 26(1), 98-117.
- Goffin, K., & Koners, U. (2011). Tacit knowledge, lessons learnt, and new product development. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 28(2), 300-318.
- Gomezelj Omerzel, D., Fister, K., & Trunk Širca, N. (2008). The support of employers in the system of workplace learning recognition. *International Journal of Innovation and Learning*, 5(1), 38-50.
- Guzzo, R. A. (1986). Group decision making and group effectiveness in organizations. In P. S. Goodman (Ed.), *Designing effective work groups* (pp. 34-71). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Guzzo, R. A., & Shea, G. P. (1992). Group performance and intergroup relations in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology 3* (2nd ed., pp. 269-313). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.
- Hamilton, B. H., Nickerson, J. A., & Owan, H. (2003). Team incentives and worker heterogeneity. *Journal of Political Economy*, 111(3), 465-497.
- Hammarström, A. (1994). Health consequences of youth unemployment. *Public Health*, 108(6): 403-412.
- Hammarström, A., & Janlert, U. (1997). Nervous and depressive symptoms in a longitudinal study of youth unemployment - selection or exposure? *Journal of Adolescence*, 20(3), 293-305.
- Hanges, P. J., Lord, R. G., & Dickson, M. W. (2000). An information-processing perspective on leadership and culture: A case for connectionist architecture. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 49(1), 133-161.
- Hanks, R. S., & Icenogle, M. (2001). Preparing for an age diverse workforce: Intergenerational service-learning in social gerontology and business curricula. *Educational Gerontology*, 27(1), 49-70.
- Harvey, J. F. (2012). Managing organizational memory with intergenerational knowledge transfer. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 16(3), 400-417.

- Haski-Leventhal, D. (2009). Elderly volunteering and well-being: A cross-European comparison based on SHARE data. *Journal of Voluntary and Non-profit Organizations*, 20(4), 388-404.
- Hatton-Yeo, A. (2010). An introduction to intergenerational practice. *Working with Older People*, 14(2), 4-11.
- Hezlett, S. A., & Gibson, S. K. (2007). Linking mentoring and social capital. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 9(3), 384-412.
- House, R. J., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., & Dorfman, P. (2002). Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: An introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of World Business*, 37(1), 3-10.
- Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1995). Understanding human resource management in the context of organizations and their environments. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 46, 237-264.
- Javidan, M. (2004). Performance orientation. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 Societies* (pp. 239-281). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kite, M. E., Stockdale, G. D., Whitley, B. E. Jr., & Johnson, B. T. (2005). Attitudes toward younger and older adults: An updated meta-analytic review. *Journal of Social Issues*, 61(2), 241-266.
- Kluge, A., & Krings, F. (2008). Attitudes toward older workers and human resource practices. *Swiss Journal of Psychology*, 67(1), 61-64.
- Knippenberg, D. L. van, & Schippers, M. (2007). Work group diversity. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 58, 515-541.
- Kochan, T., Bezrukova, K., Ely, R., Jackson, S., Joshi, A., Jehn, K., Leonard, J., Levine, D., & Thomas, D. (2003). The effects of diversity on business performance: Report of the diversity research network. *Human Resource Management*, 42(1), 3-21.
- Kopelman, R. E., Brief, A. P., & Guzzo, R. A. (1990). The role of climate and culture in productivity. In B. Schneider (Ed.), *Organizational climate and culture* (pp. 282-318). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kram, K. E., & Isabella, L. A. (1985). Mentoring alternatives: The role of peer relationships in career development. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 28(1), 110-132.
- Lankau, M. J., & Scandura, T. A. (2002). Mentoring and personal learning: Content, antecedents and outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(4), 779-790.
- Lawrence, B. (1997). The black box of organizational demography. *Organization Science*, 8, 1-22.
- Lervik, J. E., Hennestad, B. W., Amdam, R. P., Lunnan, R., & Nilsen, S.

- M. (2005). Implementing human resource development best practices: Replication or re-creation. *Human Resource Development International*, 8(3), 345-361.
- Lupou, R., Dorobanțu, A., & Fiore, F. (2010). A new lifelong learning model based on intergenerational exchange: Premises and foreseen benefits. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2), 2761-2765.
- Lynott, P., & Merola, P. (2007). Improving the attitudes of 4th graders toward older people through a multidimensional intergenerational program. *Educational Gerontology*, 33(1), 63-74.
- Lyon, P., & Glover, I. (1998). Divestment of investment? The contradictions of HRM in relation to older employees. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 8(1), 56-66.
- Mannix, E., & Neale, M. A. (2005). What differences make a difference? The promise and reality of diverse teams in organizations. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 6(2), 31-55.
- Meshel, D. S. (1997). *The contact hypothesis and the effects of intergenerational contact on adolescents' attitudes and stereotypes toward older people* (Unpublished PhD thesis). Texas Tech University, Lubbock, TX.
- Meshel, D., & McGlynn, R. P. (2004). Intergenerational contact, attitudes, and stereotypes of adolescents and older people. *Educational Gerontology*, 30(6), 457-479.
- McCann, R. M., & Giles, H. (2002). Ageism and the workplace: A communication perspective. In T. D. Nelson (Ed.), *Ageism* (pp. 163-199). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- McVittie, C., McKinlay, A., & Widdicombe, A. (2003). Committed to (un)equal opportunities? 'New ageism' and the older worker. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 42(4), 595-612.
- Miclea, M. (2004). 'Learning to do' as a pillar of education and its links to entrepreneurial studies in higher education: European contexts and approaches. *Higher Education in Europe*, 29(2), 221-231.
- Morrison, E. W. (1993). Newcomer information seeking: Exploring types, modes, resources, and outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(3), 557-589.
- Mroz, T. A., & Savage, T. H. (2006). The long-term effects of youth unemployment. *Journal of Human Resources*, 41(2), 259-293.
- Netz, Y., & Ben-Sira, D. (1993). Attitudes of young people, adults, and older adults from three-generation families toward the concepts 'ideal person,' 'youth,' 'adult,' and 'old person.' *Educational Gerontology*, 19(7), 607-621.
- Nishii, L. H., & Wright, P. (2008). Variability at multiple levels of analy-

- sis: Implications for strategic human resource management. In D. B. Smith (Ed.), *The people make the place* (pp. 225–248). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Orpen, C. (1997). The effects of formal mentoring on employee work motivation, organizational commitment and job performance. *Learning Organization*, 4(2), 53–60.
- Pelled, L., Eisenhardt, K., & Xin, K. (1999). Exploring the black box: An analysis of work group diversity, conflict, and performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44(1), 1–28.
- Pettigrew, T. F. (1998). Intergroup contact theory. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 49, 65–85.
- Pettigrew, T. F., & Tropp L. (2006). A meta-analytic test of intergroup contact theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90(5), 751–783.
- Scarpetta, S., Sonnet, A., & Manfredi, T. (2010). *Rising youth unemployment during the crisis: How to prevent negative long-term consequences on a generation?* (OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers No. 106). Paris, France: OECD.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1999). Cultural value differences: Some implications for work. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 48(1), 23–47.
- Siegrist, J., Wahrendorf, M., Knesebeck, von Dem, O., Jürges, H., & Börsch-Supan, A. (2007). Quality of work, well-being and intended early retirement of older employees: Baseline results from the SHARE study. *European Journal of Public Health*, 17(1), 62–68.
- Slaght, E., & Stampley, C. (2006). Promoting intergenerational practices. *Journal of Intergenerational Relationship*, 4(3), 73–86.
- Spector, P. E. (2008). *Industrial & organizational psychology: Research and practice* (5th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Swap, W., Leonard, D., Shields, M., & Abrams L. (2001). Using mentoring and storytelling to transfer knowledge in the workplace. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18(1), 95–114.
- Szulanski, G. (1996). Exploring internal stickiness: Impediments to the transfer of best practice within the firm. *Strategic Management Journal*, 17, 27–43.
- Širok, K. (2011). *Dejavniki in poti upokojevanja v Sloveniji: možnosti podaljševanja delovne aktivnosti* [Retirement pathways and determinants in Slovenia: Exploring the possibilities of working life prolongation]. Koper, Slovenia: Fakulteta za management.
- Tempest, S. (2003). Intergenerational learning: A reciprocal knowledge development process that challenges the language of learning. *Management Learning*, 34(2), 181–200.

- VanderVen, K. (2004). Adults are still needed: Intergenerational and mentoring activities. *Reclaiming Children and Youth*, 13(2), 94-102.
- Wahrendorf, M., & Siegrist, J. (2010). Are changes in productive activities of older people associated with changes in their well-being? Results from a longitudinal European study. *European Journal of Aging*, 7(2), 59-68.
- Walker, A. (2006). The emergence of age-management in Europe. *International Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 10(1), 685-697.
- Yoon, C., Hasher, L., Feinberg, F., Rahhal, T., & Winocur, G. (2000). Cross-cultural differences in memory: The role of culture-based stereotypes about aging. *Psychology and Aging*, 15(4), 694-704.
- Zaidi, A. (2008, March). *Features and challenges of population ageing: The european perspective* (Policy Brief No. 1). Vienna, Austria: European Centre for Social Welfare Policy and Research.

Adding Gender to the Age Factor

Daniela C. Wilks

Universidade Portucalense, Portugal

Antonio de Oliveira

Universidade Portucalense, Portugal

Introduction

The importance of socio-demographic factors in the workplace has long been well recognised. Among these factors, gender and age are the most salient individual characteristics in terms of demographic and social identity. Moreover, both gender and age are constructs rooted in social contexts, culturally defined and subject to social changes.

The workforce is aging and the employment rate of workers aged between 55 and 64 continues to expand in Europe (Eurostat, 2014) and similar trends have been reported in other countries (e.g., Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009).

Although in the past employment rates were lower among women, this pattern has been changing and there is a noticeable increase in the proportion of women in employment. However, in spite of directives to ban discrimination on the grounds of individual characteristics and to promote equality opportunity (e.g., European Court of Human Rights, 2010), surveys indicate that age and gender discrimination are seen to be worsen in most Europeans countries (Ayalon, 2013). A substantial body of research also reports age discrimination in the workplace (e.g., Heilman & Eagly, 2008; Posthuma & Campion, 2009).

Beliefs and attitudes towards employees impact on all Human Resources (HR) practices. Although few job advertisements nowadays specify age limits, preferences for a certain age group affect the decision as to which group is chosen for selection or redundancy. Moreover, various studies indicate that older employees (i.e., 50 years old and above) receive lower job performance ratings than their younger colleagues (see Jyrkinen & Mckie, 2012; Snape & Redman, 2003), although other studies show a more complex picture (Loretto & White, 2006).

There is also extensive evidence that ageism affects all age groups,



though women are more likely than men to experience ageist attitudes (e.g., Duncan & Loretto, 2004; Lyness & Heilman, 2006).

Understanding gendered ageism in the workplace is thus both critical and well-timed, if only because of the increasing numbers of older employees and the increasing participation of women in the workforce. However, while perceived age discrimination in the workplace has been attracting attention (e.g., Dennis & Thomas, 2007; Jyrkinen & McKie, 2012), less attention has been paid to gendered ageism (e.g., Duncan & Loretto, 2004; Granleese & Sayer, 2006; Jyrkinen & McKie, 2012; Wilks & Neto, 2013), and even ‘less is known [about] how ageism is gendered or how sexism is age(ed)’ (McMullin & Berger, 2006, p. 219). Gendered ageism poses a challenge for managers negotiating demographic changes in the contemporary workplace. Furthermore, a key challenge over the next decade is to attract and retain talent (Evans, 2013), which can only be achieved through a good management of diversity.

This chapter addresses the above gap in the literature by analysing the combined effect of age and gender in the workplace. It begins with an overview of the literature on the subject and concludes by arguing that age and gender should be tackled as a diversity issue.

Age Matters

Ageism is a worldwide phenomenon (Bodner, Bergman, & Cohen-Fridel, 2012). The concept of ageism, broadly speaking, refers to stereotyping and discrimination against categories of people on the basis of their age.

There is extensive evidence that age discrimination is widespread in the workplace, often in subtle ways such as by defining what is suitable and unsuitable (see Dennis & Thomas, 2007; Jyrkinen & McKie, 2012). In spite of anti-discrimination legislation, studies over the last fifty years indicate little improvement concerning age stereotypes (DeArmond et al., 2006). Prevalent beliefs regarding older employees are usually associated with declining intellectual and physical abilities. Often they are perceived as being less open-minded and less sociable when compared to their younger colleagues, reluctant to accept change and adapt to technology, inflexible and self-satisfied. Conversely, younger employees are perceived as being open-minded, sociable and more culturally sensitive than their older colleagues (see DeArmond et al., 2006; Posthuma & Campion, 2009).

It should be noted that not all studies show the existence of discriminatory attitudes based on age. Research carried out by Weiss and Maurer (2004), replicating a classic study conducted in the 1970s, did not find empirical evidence for discriminatory attitudes based on age for promotion, training, and hiring practices. However, the authors do not rule out the existence of stereotypes and discrimination.

Although age discrimination is more often associated with older people, younger people may also be discriminated against on the grounds of being too young. Snape and Redman (2003) report that younger undergraduate business students were seen as untrustworthy, and were thus accorded less responsibility. Therefore one employee may be considered too young to have the experience that the job requires, while another may be thought too old to be able to adapt to new work technologies. As a result, young employees are not afforded the opportunities, and older employees are deprived of new skills, as Snape and Redman (2003) point out.

As mentioned above, various studies confirm differences between the perception of older and younger employees, and although ageism is often associated with negative stereotypes, this is not always the case. Older employees are considered to be reliable and loyal (Loretto & White, 2006), and according to Dennis and Thomas (2007), managers tend to perceive workers aged 50 and over as having good work habits, being committed to quality and being punctual. As for young people, according to the same source, they tend to be considered less loyal and have a lower level of organisational identification. However, they are perceived as being dynamic and able to master technology, which is a big plus in a world increasingly based on this.

Ageist attitudes vary according to age and gender: they are more common among men than women, and young people tend to hold negative attitudes towards older people. Middle-aged participants were found to be more ageist than younger and older individuals, whereas the older people are, the more positive their attitudes towards older people tend to be. In any case, for both younger and older individuals, the process of aging is viewed negatively (Bodner, Bergman, & Cohen-Fridel, 2012).

Experiencing discrimination has negative consequences for both the individual and the organisation, and the impact of age discrimination on the levels of organisational affective identification has been reported (Snape & Redman, 2003). Furthermore, self-categorization as

an ‘older worker’ was found to be related to negative attitudes towards work, stronger desire to retire early and inclination towards intergenerational competition (Donatienne & Gaillard, 2008).

Ageism is based on age relations (Calasanti, 2005) and differences in generational cohorts in the workplace suggest that individuals of more recent generations, such as Generation X and Y, have different work values (see Hansen & Leuty, 2012).

While having a diversity of ages in organisations can be very positive, differences in the way in which generations function in the workplace may create some difficulties. The latter view is endorsed by Segal (2013), who argues that the contemporary mood is of ‘intergenerational warfare’ due to an increase in suspicion and anger between generations, exacerbated by the postponement of retirement. Old employees are seen as driving young people into unemployment. Young employees resent the privileges that their older colleagues enjoy. Thus, the possibility of intergenerational tensions cannot be excluded.

Ageing Is Gendered

‘Older people are not just old, they are either men or women’ (McMullin, 1995, quoted by Ainsworth, 2002, p. 581), so age impacts differently on both genders, as we shall see in what follows. Organisations are not gender-neutral (Granleese & Sayer, 2006), gender is built into the workplace through gendering processes and practices (see Benshop, Mills, Mills, & Tienari, 2012; Jyrkinen & McKie, 2012).

Research has repeatedly shown that gender stereotypes are alive and well (Heilman & Eagly, 2008). Admittedly, the question of gender in organisational life is in the process of changing (Jyrkinen & McKie, 2012), as it is in the larger social context, but while overt discrimination (where women are simply treated less favourably than men) tends to be less obvious, women are still over-represented in lower-paid jobs and under-represented in decision-making positions despite the high number of female graduates in EU (European Commission, 2012; Eurostat, 2014).

There is a strong business case for gender balance in management positions. Nevertheless, attempts to improve gender equilibrium in top managerial positions have so far failed. Some countries impose gender quotas in big firms’ boardrooms, and although the number of women in top managerial positions has been rising, it does not in any way match that of men (*The Economist*, 2013).

Data collected by the European Commission in 2012 show that, although women constitute 60% of new graduates, the average proportion of women on the top-level boards of the largest publicly listed companies around in the EU stands at just 15.8%. Women are also scarcely visible among the top business leaders of these companies. Ninety seven per cent are men.

Gender inequalities in terms of pay have been well documented. Although the gender gap has been narrowing since 2008, it increases the older one is, due to career breaks on the part of the women, particularly older women who have been unable to benefit from equality measures. This is confirmed by a slightly lower gender pay gap for employees below the age of 25 and an increasingly higher gap as one advances in age (European Commission, 2012).

The term ‘glass ceiling’ has been used to refer to the informal barrier that prevents women from reaching the upper management positions in organisations. However, as Ryan and Haslam (2005) have found, when organisations face a crisis, women have more opportunities to break the ceiling and are over-represented in leadership positions which are more exposed to risk of failing.

Traditionally, women have been more affected by unemployment than men, and this is still the case, in particular for older women, who experience more difficulties in the labour market than men (see Eurostat, 2014).

Age and gender are mutually reinforcing. However, being ‘too young’ or ‘too old’ impacts more on women than on men (Duncan & Loretto, 2004). Literature reviews on gender in organisations indicate that age discrimination is most frequent between 16 and 24 years old, and from 45 upwards. Women aged 30–40 are discriminated against for being too old as well as being too young, while men in their 30s reported negative treatment only on the grounds of being too young. The preferred age range seems to be from 25 to 35 (Granleese & Sayer, 2006). However, as Jyrkinen and McKie (2012) remark, when it comes to young women, there is a paradox: they are interesting because of their talent, but on the other hand they have the ‘disadvantage’ of the possibility of childbearing and other caring responsibilities. Nevertheless, they can be found in better job positions than older women as a result of the changes that have taken place in society at large and in organisations.

Extensive research on gender in organisations has found that gen-

der stereotypes still impact on how women are perceived in the workplace (e.g., Heilman & Eagly, 2008). Walker, Grant, Meadows and Cook (2007) examined the experiences and perceptions of women aged 50 or over regarding ageism in employment, and their findings indicate stereotypes about mental competence and intellectual decline. Their results also show that, while most women have faced both gender and age discrimination, their experiences and interpretations were embedded in the cultural and social contexts in which they have lived. It seems therefore that gender ageism impacts on women in different ways.

According to Sabelis and Schilling (2013), women around the age of 30 struggle to meet conflicting expectations: to become dedicated professionals and caring mothers, and supportive spouses, among other social roles. Often they experience career ‘failures,’ which are attributed to their own personality or incapacity. Women older than 50 face different contradictory expectations: they are expected to be at the top of their professional careers and at the same time in decline.

A review of forty years of managerial gender stereotype research conducted in several countries led to the conclusion that, despite all the changes that have taken place during that period of time, men are still perceived as being emotionally stable and strong, while women are viewed as emotionally unstable and weak. Stereotypes regarding women are in line with the traditional idea of women: they are seen as caring and attentive to others, and working well in teams, but having a lack of leadership skills (DeArmond et al., 2006). Curiously enough, surveys in 2008 report that overall, young women neither wanted nor trusted female bosses (Segal, 2013).

Studies also show that women and men experience age in different ways, albeit not in all sectors. In high status professions such as those of senior judges and politicians, being male and older is perceived as positive (Jyrkinen & McKie, 2012). Furthermore, women are frequently perceived as being old at an earlier stage than men, mainly by men (Granleese & Sayer, 2006).

The social worth of women has been more associated with their physical appearance when compared to men (e.g., Russell, 2005), and for Segal (2013), an ageing female has long been associated with frightening figures and ‘few adjectives combine faster than ugly-old-woman’ (p. 96).

Research has been carried out on the importance of physical ap-

pearance. According to research findings, looking old is viewed more harshly in relation to women than to men across different cultures (Russell, 2005). For instance, a study regarding the experiences of women managers in two northern European countries shows that ‘lookism’ is prevalent (Jyrkinen & McKie, 2012). Another study suggests that job candidates are discriminated against in relation to ‘their gendered and age(ed) bodies,’ while older women are denigrated compared to their younger counterparts (McMullin & Berger, 2006, p. 219). In the same vein, a study conducted by Granleese and Sayaer (2005) on women working in academia indicates that they are discriminated against on the basis of their age, gender and looks, and have thus, experienced a ‘triple jeopardy.’ Clarke and Griffin (2008) examined how older women experience and respond to employment-related ageism in relation to changing physical appearance and concluded that women engage in beauty therapy to fight against their ‘invisibility’ (see also Ainsworth, 2002).

Age is a key factor defining the experience of women in the workplace, but there are other bases of inequality such as race/ethnicity and class. In a recent study (see Moore, 2009), older women described how all the three social categories had structured their working lives, with discrimination supporting unfavourable conditions.

It seems, therefore, that while progress in gender equality has improved the overall status of women, this trend may have been counterbalanced by a tendency to undervalue older women.

From the research literature we can conclude that gender and age relations go hand in hand through ageism and sexism (McMullin & Berger, 2006). Furthermore, women are not only discriminated against on the grounds of their age and gender, but also on the basis of their looks.

Summary and Concluding Remarks

The current chapter has examined age and gender and their combined effect, still an under-researched subject, despite its increasing relevance to managers (Granleese & Sayaer, 2005).

This chapter provides a brief literature review on gendered ageism. Two main conclusions can be drawn. Firstly, age and gender remain crucial factors in organisations; stereotypes and discrimination are still in place, although overt discrimination is less prevalent (Weiss & Maurer, 2004), and has been replaced by more subtle forms.

The prevalence of common assumptions regarding age and gender influences HR practices, and discriminating on the basis of any particular characteristic has negative outcomes, costly to organisations: higher turnover, absenteeism, lower performance and productivity, low well-being and higher health care costs (DeArmond et al., 2006).

The current financial crisis may have amplified social antipathy towards the elderly in general and the trend towards generational scapegoating, as Segal (2013) claims. Furthermore, new technologies and rapid changes undoubtedly favour young people. Managers are thus faced with the complexity of integrating different ages, and their task is certainly made more difficult by adding gender to the equation. It is therefore necessary to take into account the significant gender dimension of ageing in the workplace, and the different ways in which it impacts on women (Walker et al., 2007).

The discourse on equality policies and affirmative actions has not produced the intended results. Consequently, more legislation is not likely to tackle discriminatory attitudes and practices.

To achieve workplace equality requires a change in organisational practices (Benshop et al., 2012), and first of all, we must ‘challenge the current rules of the corporate game,’ as Evans (2013, p. 876) puts it. What is at issue is the dominant culture. Organisations should move away from the male-young-dominant culture rather than expecting older women to adjust to it (or run from it).

Age and gender should be tackled as a diversity issue. Gender and age are salient social and identity categories, but to achieve a more equitable and better workplace, other categories must be taken into account. Ethnicity, sexual orientation, disabilities, and social class must be considered among other ‘differences’ if we are to create inclusive organisations.

Organisations will comprise greater diversity and will need to accommodate different points of view and different attitudes. Diversity managing is about understanding ‘difference’ and promoting workplace equality. It is a cause of misunderstanding, suspicion and potential conflict, but is also a source of creativity and innovation. By failing to value and promote diversity, organisations do not take full advantages of what their employees can offer.

Ultimately, how to manage increasing diversity is the question that managers need to answer. Long term demographic changes are very likely to make the issue of diversity even more relevant in the future.

Managing diversity is a complex task and various strategies have been proposed (see e.g., Stockdale & Crosby, 2004), but to cover literature on that subject lies outside of the scope of the current study. Here we can only suggest that HR policies and practices should include flexible work schedules and flexible incentives in order to accommodate different interests.

We would like to conclude on a reflexive note by pointing out that older employees may be viewed as valuable, but also as more expensive to hire and keep (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009). The current economic context may aggravate the tendency to replace older employees by younger people. Ageism and gendered ageism may in some cases be a managerial strategy for a mode of governance organised around cost-cutting, financial viability and even profitability (Deem, Morley, & Tlili, 2005). Nonetheless, it is in the best interests of employees and organisations to improve opportunities for the recruitment, development and retention of good employees whatever their individual characteristics might be.

References

- Ainsworth, S. (2002). The 'feminine advantage': A discursive analysis of the invisibility of older women workers. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 9, 579-601.
- Armstrong-Stassen, M., & Ursel, N. D. (2009). Perceived organizational support, career satisfaction, and the retention of older workers. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 82, 201-220.
- Ayalon, L. (2013). Perceived age, gender and racial/ethnic discrimination in Europe. *Educational Gerontology*, 40(7): 499-517.
- Benshop, Y., Mills, J. H., Mills, A., & Tienari, J. (2012). Gendering change: The next step. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 19, 1-9.
- Bodner, E., Bergman, Y. S., & Cohen-Fridal, S. (2012). Different dimensions of ageist attitudes among men and women: A multigenerational perspective. *International Psychogeriatric*, 24, 1-7.
- Calasanti, T. (2005). Ageism, gravity, and gender: Experiences of ageing bodies. *Generations*, 27, 8-12.
- Clarke, L. H., & Griffin, M. (2008). Visible and invisible ageing: Beauty work as a response to ageism. *Ageing and Society*, 28, 653-674.
- DeArmond, S., Tye, M., Chen, P. Y., Krauss, A., Rogers, D. A., & Sintek, E. (2006). Age and gender stereotypes: New challenges in a changing workplace and workforce. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36(9), 2184-2214.

- Deem, R., Morley, L., & Tlili, A. (2005). *Negotiating equity in higher education institutions* (Report to HEFCE, SHEFC, & HEFCW). Retrieved from http://sro.sussex.ac.uk/134/1/negotiating_equity.pdf
- Dennis, H., & Thomas, K. (2007). Ageism in the workplace. *Generations*, 31, 84–88.
- Donatienne, D., & Gaillard, M. (2008). When a ‘worker’ becomes an ‘older worker’: The effects of age-related social identity on attitudes towards retirement and work. *Career Development International*, 13, 168–185.
- Duncan, C., & Loretto, W. (2004). Never the right age? Gender and age-based discrimination in employment. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 11, 95–115.
- European Court of Human Rights. (2010). *Handbook on European non-discrimination law*. Luxembourg, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- European Commission. (2012). *Women in economic decision-making in the EU: Progress report*. Luxembourg, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- Eurostat. (2014, January 10). Employment statistics. Retrieved from http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Unemployment_statistics
- Evans, M. (2013). Women in leadership – a different story. *The Psychologist*, 26, 874–876.
- Granleese, J., & Sayer, G. (2006). Gendered ageism and ‘lookism’: A triple jeopardy for female academics. *Women in Management Review*, 21, 500–507.
- Hansen, J.-I., & Leuty, M. E. (2012). Work values across generations. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 20, 34–52.
- Heilman, M. E., & Eagly, A. H. (2008). Gender stereotypes are alive, well, and busy producing workplace discrimination. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1, 393–398.
- Jyrkinen, M., & Mckie, L. (2012). Gender, age and ageism: Experiences of women managers in Finland and Scotland. *Work, Employment & Society*, 26(1), 61–77.
- Loretto, W., & White, P. (2006). Employers’ attitudes, practices and policies towards older workers. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 16, 313–330.
- Lyness, K. S., & Heilman, M. E. (2006). When fit is fundamental: Performance evaluations and promotions of upper-level female and male managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 777–785.
- McMullin, J. (1995). ‘Theorizing age and gender relations.’ In S. Arber

- & J. Ginn (Eds.), *Connecting gender and ageing: A sociological approach*. Buckingham, England: Open University Press.
- McMullin, J. A., & Berger, E. D. (2006). Gendered ageism age(ed) sexism: The case of unemployed older workers. In T. M. Calasanti, & K. F. Slevin (Eds.), *Age matters: Realigning feminist thinking* (pp. 201–224). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Moore, S. (2009). No matter what I did I would still end up in the same position: Age as a factor defining older women's experience of labour market participation. *Work, Employment & Society*, 23, 655–671.
- Posthuma, R. A., & Campion, M. A. (2009). Age stereotypes in the workplace: Common stereotypes, moderators, and future research directions. *Journal of Management*, 35, 158–188.
- Russell, H. L. (2005). Gender and ageism. *Generations*, 29, 19–24.
- Ryan, M. K., & Haslam, S. A. (2005). The glass cliff: Evidence that women are over-represented in precarious leadership positions. *British Journal of Management*, 16, 81–90.
- Sabelis, I., & Schilling, E. (2013). Editorial: Frayed careers; Exploring rhythms of working lives. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 20, 127–132.
- Segal, L. (2013). *Out of time: The pleasures and the perils of ageing*. London, England: Verso.
- Snape, E., & Redman, T. (2003). Too old or too young? The impact of perceived age discrimination. *Human Resources Management Journal*, 13, 78–89.
- Stockdale, M., & Crosby, F. (Eds.) (2004). *The psychology and management of workplace diversity*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- The Economist*. (2013, 23 November). More women on boards. *The Economist*, p. 64.
- Walker, H., Grant, D., Meadows, M., & Cook, I. (2007). Women's experiences and perceptions of age discrimination in employment: Implications for research and policy. *Social Policy and Society*, 6, 37–48.
- Weiss, E. M., & Maurer, T. J. (2004). Age discrimination in personnel decisions: A re-examination. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 34, 1551–1562.
- Wilks, D. C., & Neto, F. (2013). Workplace well-being, gender and age: Examining the 'double jeopardy' effect. *Social Indicators Research*, 114, 875–890.



Inclusive Human Resources Management Practices for Older Workers

Aging Workforce and the Role of HR Managers

The aging of both population and workforce is a global issue that has created concern about labour and skill shortages. In Europe, if nothing is done, there could be only one person employed for every retiree by 2050, at the same time that labour market could shrink by nearly 15%. This would come with heavy costs for companies' competitiveness and the social security systems and the social cohesion would be affected.

Human Resource managers are in a key position to help organisation's deal with the challenges of an ageing workforce, and they need tools that help them to act according to the new and future needs of the organisations.

The project aims to:

- Develop an innovative training programme for Human Resource Managers on inclusive HRM practices for Older Workers, based in research and using mobile technology
- To provide the knowledge and competences needed for these professionals to deal effectively with the challenges of an aging workforce

The project will give a clear contribution to the Europe's 2020 and Employment strategies and to minimize the problems resulting of the aging workforce. It contributes to:

- Raise of the Older Worker's employment rate
- A healthier European society, where elderly people keep active for a longer period of time, escaping poverty and reducing the burden over the younger generations
- Increase in European businesses' and other organisations' competitiveness

Project No. 538832-LLP-1-2013-1-NL-ERASMUS-EQR

www.i-hrm.eu



Lifelong
Learning
Programme

In the last decade, the concept of diversity management has become popular in literature and business practice. Nevertheless, the issue of employee diversity is not a novelty, it originates back in the 60s, when the matter of gender equity emerged. Since the 80s, there has been generated quite a heated debate on diversity management, mainly in the USA. Today diversity management has caught considerable attention also in Europe, which mainly results from extensive change in the business environment.

The aging society, the emergence of new generations of workers, the influx of immigrants, or the internationalization of business activities necessitate the search for new HR models and management practices, which will promote better utilization of the employee potential. Drawing on diverse human resources could become an opportunity in this context.

ToKnowPress

BANGKOK · CELJE · LUBLIN

www.toknowpress.net



9 788365 020024