



Managing cultural diversity in SMOs

BACKGROUND PAPER - GERMANY

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EFMS - BAMBERG

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Backgroundpaper Germany



Co-funded by
the European Union

This project is co-funded by the European Union

EUDiM
Literature Review

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efms 2014

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1 Actual Statistics

1.1 Migration in Germany

1.1.1 Short history of migration and integration since 1949

For many decades Germany officially denied being a country of immigration and the formula “Germany is not a country of immigration” (“Deutschland ist kein Einwanderungsland”) dominated the political agenda. Although German governments recognized the necessity to address the social integration of migrants already in the 1970s, a systematic integration policy was introduced only at the end of the 1990s. After a government change in 1998 and with the beginning of the 21st century integration became a central policy concern. Having realized the importance of integration, German governments since then have been undertaking many efforts to develop an overall integration policy strategy.

In contrast to the long tradition of *ius sanguinis* in Germany, the new Citizenship Law of 2000 incorporated elements of *ius soli* and can be regarded as a first main step of a new policy. With the implementation of the Immigration Act of 2005, regulations for managing immigration and integration of resident migrants were joined in one legislative act. In 2006, Chancellor Angela Merkel declared integration a top priority (“Integration als Chefsache”) and organised a first so called integration summit. Moreover in 2006, then Minister of the Interior Wolfgang Schäuble established the German Islam Conference as a continuing dialogue between Muslims and the state. Since then integration has been considered as a cross-sectional task at all governmental levels, including the federal government, the Länder and the cities. The “National Integration Plan”, elaborated in 2007, which has been continued as the “National Action Plan” in 2011, also reflects this tendency.

1.1.1.1 Challenges of integration and integration policies

Today more than 16 million people with a migration background live in Germany. Several research findings show that migrant integration made significant progress (Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2011 and SVR 2010). Nevertheless, in several areas, such as education and vocational training as well as integration into the labour market, there is still a need for action to promote equal opportunities for migrants.

1.1.1.2 Migration history and the composition of the migrant population

Enormous flows of migration have marked German history since the end of the Second World War. Between 1945 and the beginning of the 1950s, about twelve million German refugees and expellees came to Germany. Furthermore, prior to the building of the Berlin Wall in 1961, 3.8 million people migrated from East to West Germany.

While migration processes right after the end of World War II were closely related to the war and its consequences, the increase of the foreign population from the 1960s until the early 1970s was primarily a result of the immigration of so called “Guest workers” (*Gastarbeiter*). Strong economic growth of the German post-war economy and internal labour shortages lead to the recruitment of foreign workers from 1955 until 1973.¹ Until the mid-1960s the main countries of origin were Turkey, Italy, Spain and Greece. With the recruitment ban in 1973 family reunification became an increasingly relevant form of migration. The foreign population living in Germany today still primarily consists of citizens originating from former sending countries (Borkert and Bosswick 2007).

In the late 1980s and especially in the early 1990s asylum seekers, war and civil-war refugees became other large groups of immigrants. Asylum migration reached its peak in 1992 with about 400.000 asylum applications. This number has significantly declined during the 90s, but has increased again since 2007 and especially during the last two years, with 127 000 applications in 2013.

The fall of the Iron Curtain at the end of the 1980s resulted in an increasing number of ethnic Germans (*Aussiedler* and *Spätaussiedler*²) from the territories of the former Soviet Union immigrating to Germany. Between 1990 and 2010 more than 2.5 Million *Spätaussiedler* and their descendants came to Germany. However, the annual number of immigrating ethnic Germans has recently declined sharply (BMI 2011: 53).

As a result of various immigration processes, the population with a migration background – including third-country nationals, EU migrants, naturalized Germans and migrants’ descendants – has been continuously rising: In 2013 nearly one-fifth of the 82 million residents have a migration background (about 16 million people) (Federal Statistical Office 2013b: 279). The definition of people with a migration background used by the Federal Statistical Office (2013b: 6) includes everyone who immigrated to the present-day territory of Germany after 1949, as well as foreigners born in Germany and every German who was born in Germany with at least one immigrated parent or one parent born as a foreigner in Germany. According to this definition, 5.2 million people with migration background have

¹ The first recruitment contract was signed with Italy (1955). In subsequent years Spain (1960), Greek (1960), Turkey (1961), Morocco (1963), Portugal (1964), Tunisia (1965) and former Yugoslavia (1968) followed.

² The terms *Aussiedler* and *Spätaussiedler* refer to specific dates of immigration (prior to 12/31/1992 and from 1/1/1993 onwards, respectively). The term *Spätaussiedler* has become the common term in everyday usage.

or had an EU-27 citizenship and 11.2 million a Non-EU citizenship. The group with personal migration experience consists of 10.9 million people, whereas those without migration experience make up 5.6 million. The majority is of Turkish origin (18.3%), followed by Polish (9.4%), Russian (7.4%) and Italian (4.6%) (Federal Statistical Office 2013b: 279 ff.).

1.1.1.3 State of integration

Labour market participation of the immigrant population is considered to be a key indicator for successful integration. Several research results indicate structural disadvantages for migrants on the German labour market. The unemployment rate among foreigners is nearly twice as high as among the total population (Beauftragte 2011: 75).³ Low-skilled and young persons with a migration background are especially affected by unemployment (SVR 2010: 173).

As to school education, there has been an increase in the educational achievement for both young people with and without a migration background. Yet, native Germans tend to acquire significantly higher school-leaving qualifications than migrant youth of which half obtain only lower school-leaving certificates (e.g. Hauptschulabschluss) or have no school-leaving qualifications (SVR 2010: 138). Nevertheless, a considerable increase in upper level school-leaving certificates can be observed amongst young people with a migration background (Beauftragte 2011: 34).

The access to adequate and affordable housing is considered an important factor for successful integration. In the past decades, living conditions of urban immigrant populations have improved, but there are still differences in the size of living space, rental costs and residential property between the migrant and the majority population (SVR 2010: 193). Residential segregation is often interpreted as a factor counteracting integration; although there are districts in several main cities with a large concentration of migrants, ethnic segregation in Germany is less of an issue than in other European countries (Mustered 2005: 335). Furthermore, in contrast to public perceptions no increase in ethnic segregation has been observed in recent years. Residential segregation in Germany appears to correspond mainly to social segregation rather than to ethnic segregation (Friedrichs and Triemer 2008). Until today, German municipalities apply certain allocation strategies to prevent the dominance of a single group of migrants in an urban district (Münch and Kirchhoff 2009: 523ff.).⁴

³ Official statistics of the Federal Employment Agency only distinguish between total population and foreigners.

⁴ Urban planning concepts in Germany follow the model of a balanced ethnic and social mix at urban district and neighbourhood level (see §19 Absatz 3 AGG, BauGB §1 Absatz 6, WoFG §6 Absatz 3-4). In addition, German housing associations employed their own strategies and quotas in order to achieve a desired mix (Münch 2009: 447).

1.1.1.4 Migrant integration policies and institutional developments

With the beginning of the 21st century, integration policy has become a central concern in Germany. The table below gives an overview on different periods of integration policy developments.

Table 1: Integration policy development in Germany (1955 - today)

Definition of the immigration situation	Integration policy development
Temporary guest worker recruitment (1955-1973)	no specific integration policy inclusion into welfare state institutions
Denial of the immigration situation (1973-1989/90)	controversies on integration policies appointment of a Federal 'Commissioner for foreigners' support of labour migrants' voluntary return
New immigration and beginning of policy paradigm shift (1990-1998)	continuing denial of immigration situation and lack of comprehensive political concepts at national level 1998 change of government and official recognition of the immigration situation
New Integration Policy (since 2000)	<u>Milestones of a new integration policy</u> New Citizenship Law 2000 New Immigration Act 2005 German Islam Conference 2006 National Integration Plan 2007 National Action Plan 2011

(Table: efms)

The recruitment of foreign guest workers started in 1955 and rapidly increased through the 1960s. All groups involved in the process perceived the situation as temporary and unique – employers, trade unions, the state and the foreign workers themselves. They all believed in the so-called “rotation system”, where new workers would substitute returning workers because of expiring labour contracts (Heckmann 2003: 51). But acceptance and practicability of the rotation system decreased towards the end of the 1960s, because employers wanted to keep workers who had been trained and socialized. The government reacted by facilitating extensions of work permits. As a result, many foreign guest workers gradually became permanent residents and processes of family reunification started. There

were no special integration policies, but foreign workers were generally employed under the same labour conditions as German workers, including membership in the welfare state institutions.

The end of guest worker recruitment in 1973 was meant to lead to a decrease of foreign workers and of the foreign population. But in general, even though the number of foreign workers decreased, the foreign population in Germany increased due to family reunification. Thus, temporary migration began to turn into a permanent settlement process. This should have led to a re-definition of the immigration situation by the government, but paradoxically the formula "Germany is not a country of immigration" became the official governmental definition and political guideline until 1998.

The denial of the immigration situation, however, cannot be equated with an overall lack of integration policies. Welfare organisations, unions and churches were advocates of migrants' social problems and helped in a practical way. In 1978, the German government installed a "Commissioner for foreigners". Still, from a contemporary perspective, the 1980s may be described as a decade of "lost years" for integration since "no coherent policy developments concerning migration and integration took place..." (Bade 1994: 73f.).

The new coalition government of Social Democrats and Greens in 1998 declared Germany to be a country of immigration. The new citizenship law in 2000 can be interpreted as a result of the official acknowledgement of the immigration and integration situation (Heckmann 2003: 53).

The emerging dynamic and a broadening consensus on migration and integration were highly promoted by the official establishment of the Independent Commission on Migration in the autumn of 2000. On the one hand, the commission's aim was to examine how to manage and how to determine Germany's immigration needs. On the other hand the commission was requested to elaborate a concept of integration.

Interestingly, the establishment of the commission had an impact on all political parties in Germany: "They, too, in a competitive process, installed their own commissions for migration [...] and published their own position papers. [...] The surprising result of the other parties' papers was that their positions were all quite close to those of the official commission" (Heckmann 2003: 54). This political paradigm shift was facilitated by labour market shortages in some segments of the labour market and an increasing awareness of the consequences of recent demographic changes.

1.1.1.5 Milestones of the new integration policy

The recommendations of the Independent Commission on Migration laid the foundations for a new integration policy in Germany: The New Immigration Act of 2005 can be considered a significant step, because "for the first time in Germany's legislative history, regulations for immigration, labour market access, resident regulations and the integration of migrants are

combined in one legislative act“ (Borkert and Bosswick 2007: 10). The new law defines the responsibilities of the federal government in the field of integration.

In response to the growing number of Muslims in Germany, the Minister of the Interior Wolfgang Schäuble institutionalized the German Islam Conference (DIK) in 2006, a dialogue between the German state, individual Muslims as well as Muslim associations to facilitate the integration of the German Muslim population. The establishment of the DIK can be considered as the official recognition of Islam as the third largest religion in Germany.

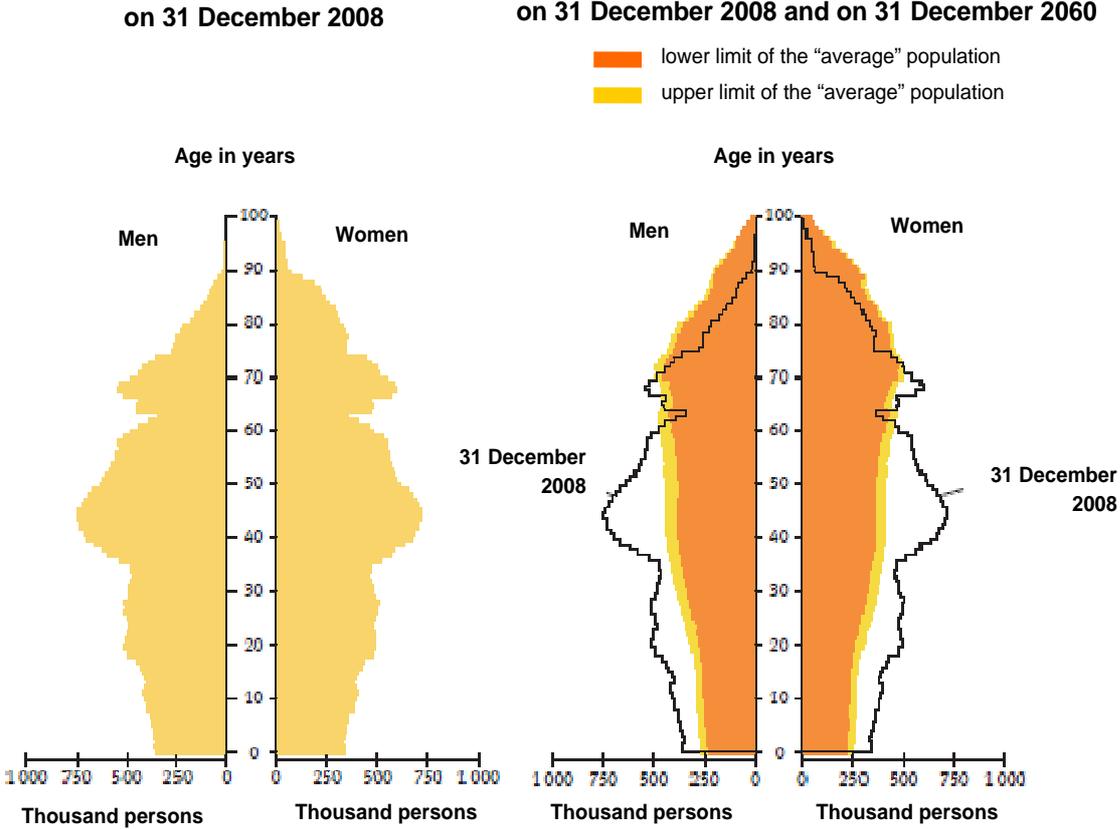
The National Integration Plan of 2007 constitutes another milestone in Germany’s new integration policy. It is a coordinated commitment by political and civil society actors at all levels of government and civil society to initiate certain integration policies in their field of responsibility. In December 2011 the National Integration Plan was converted into a National Action Plan including concrete, obligatory and verifiable targets (Federal Government 2011).

As part of the National Integration Plan the German Government committed itself to develop a monitoring system of indicators to make integration in Germany more measurable. In 2009, the first Report on Indicators of Integration established the basis for a monitoring system on the national level. The report aimed to provide an objective and evidence-based view on the living situation of the migrant population in Germany. Corresponding to developments at the national level, increasing importance has been given to integration policies at the local level. By using the formula “integration happens at the local level“, local policies have responded to new challenges by making integration policies a top priority. In the meantime, a large variety of initiatives and measures in German cities and municipalities have been implemented. The federal states, or Länder, also play a stronger role in the domain of integration, e.g. through the establishment of integration ministries or the institutionalization of integration commissioners. Today, integration in Germany is widely seen as a cross sectional task at all governmental levels.

1.1.2 Demographic situation

Various population forecasts for Germany predict a decrease of the population to 65 – 75 million by 2060 (Federal Statistical Office 2014a). This trend is due to a comparatively low birth rate which stagnates at an average of 1.4 children per woman since the end of the 1990s, and applies to a diminishing number of young women (Federal Statistical Office 2014b). The workforce population, necessary to sustain the welfare system, declines, while the proportion of elder people is growing. Therefore, there is a beginning recognition of the need for young immigrants and the career advancement of the unused potential in the existing population, which concerns mostly those who are understood to be part of a “diverse” workforce.

Figure 1: Estimated population development in Germany

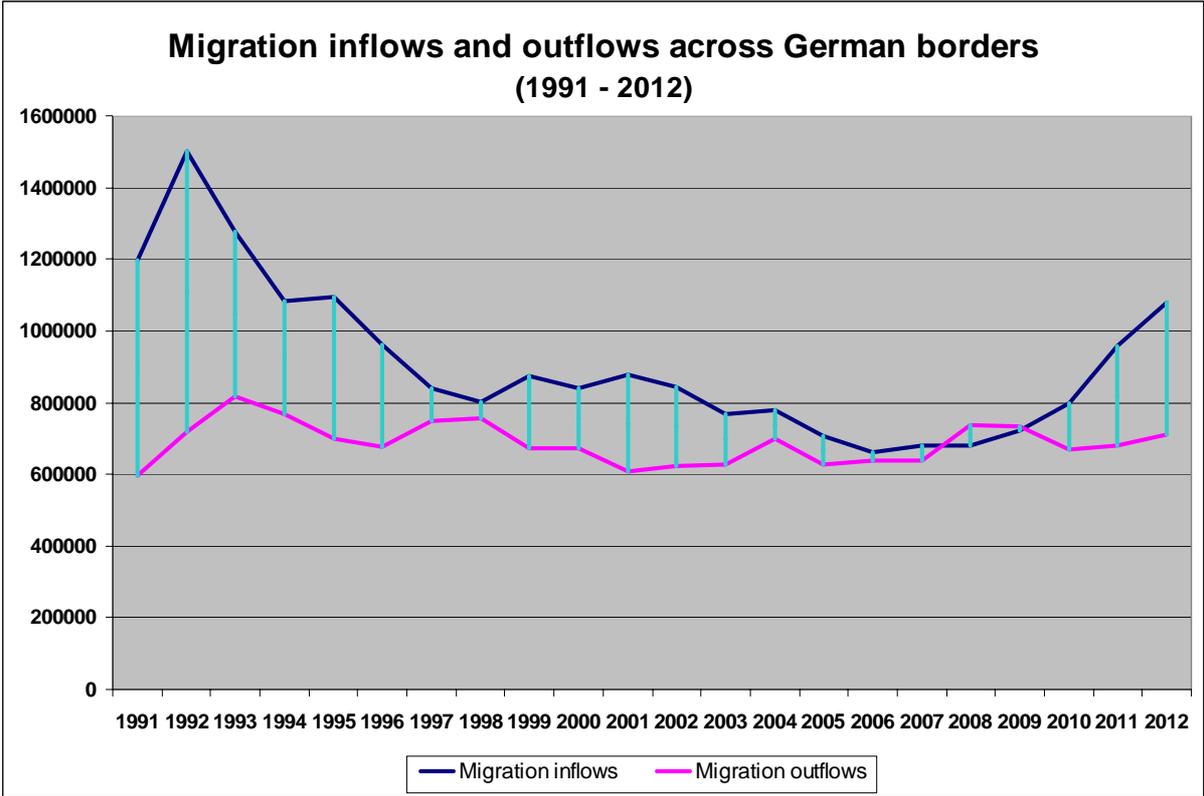


(Data: Federal Statistical Office 2009:15, fig.: efms)

The balance of migration reflects important historical events and to a certain extent the different stages of the federal migration policy. Since 1949, Germany had a clear influx surplus, which was especially high in the beginning of the 1990's after the German Reunification and due to an increased refugee movement from former Yugoslavia, with a peak of about 780 000 immigrants in 1992. In the following years, migrant influx went up and down from 47 000 in 1990 to 270 000 in 2001 to the lowest number ever recorded in 2008⁵ (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014a:14).

5 In 2008, a revision of the population register due to the nationwide introduction of the personal taxpayer's identification number took effect, affecting the balance of migration in 2008 and 2009.

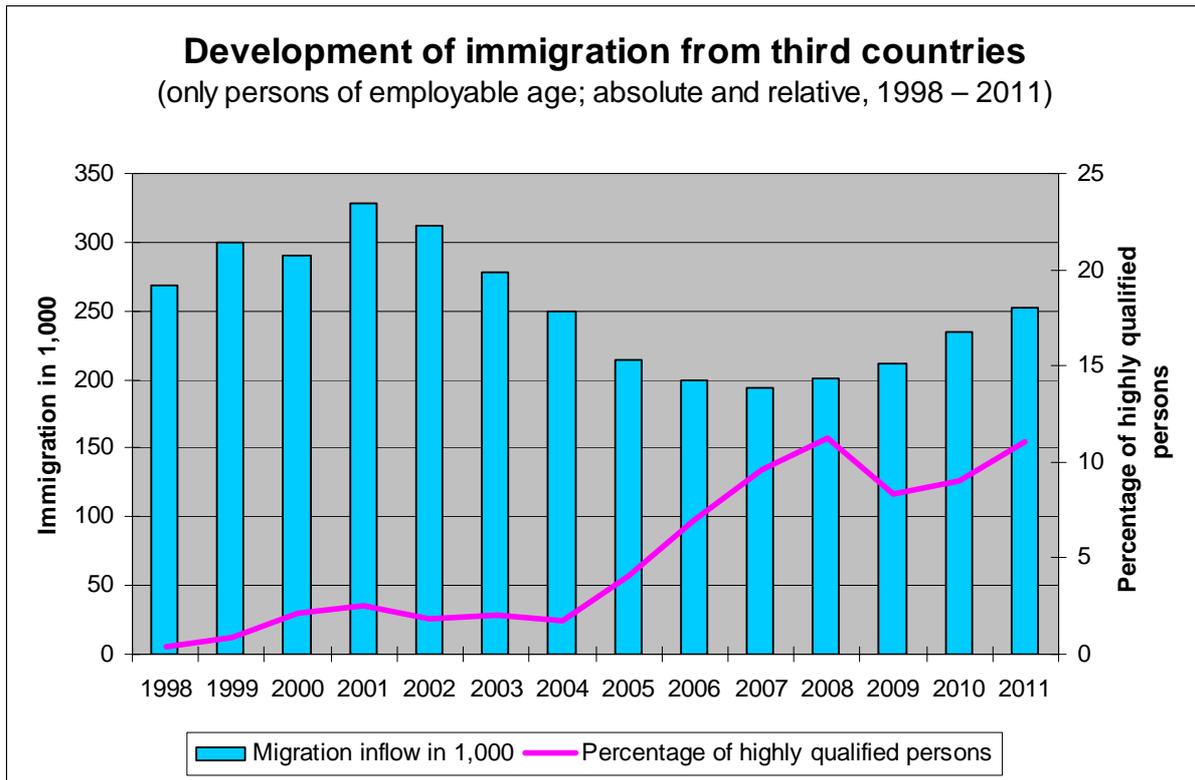
Figure 2: Migration inflows and outflows across German borders



(Data: Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014a: 13, Table: efms)

Regarding highly-qualified immigration a slow rise from 1998 to 2004 can be observed leading to an upsurge from 2005 on - the year when the Immigration Act was passed and Germany started to foster immigration. The percentage of highly-qualified third-country immigrants grew from 0.5% to 11% of the total influx, while the immigration of third-country nationals decreased in total (Bundesinstitut für Bevölkerungsforschung 2012).

Figure 3: Development of immigration from third countries

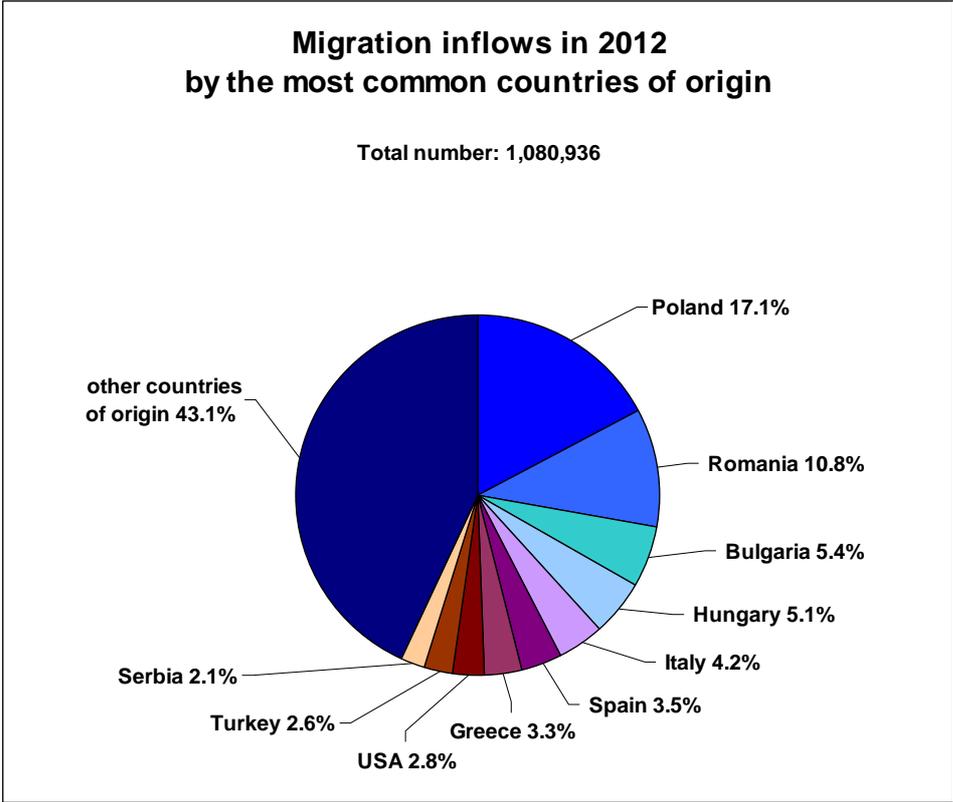


(Data: Heß 2009: 51, Table: efms)

Notes: For the year 2011 the figures on “immigration total” are based on estimations, since data of the migration statistics, differentiated by age and citizenship, do not yet exist for this year. The percentage of highly qualified persons in 2005 is an estimate.

In 2012, the latest EU enlargement caused a rise in the total influx to 370 000 (63.9 %). Poland has been the main country of origin of immigrants in Germany since 1996. In 2012 Polish immigration represented 17.1%, followed by Romania (10.8%) and Bulgaria (5.4%). Further countries of origin are Hungary (5.1%) and the EU-states affected by the financial crisis – Italy (4.2%), Spain (3.5%) and Greece (3.3%). The three largest Non-EU-immigrant groups in 2012 originate from the U.S. (2.8%), Turkey (2.6%) and Serbia (2.1%) (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014a:16 ff.).

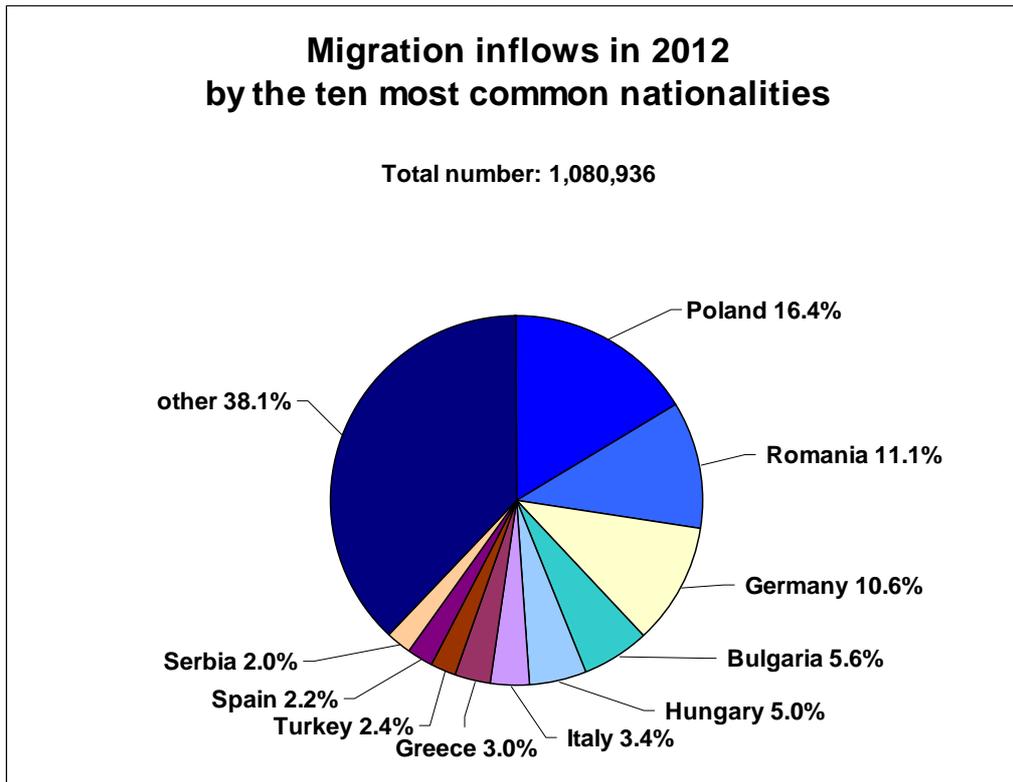
Figure 4: Migration inflows in 2012 by the most common countries of origin



(Data: Federal Bureau of Statistics, Table: efms)

However, the numbers for immigration from the U.S. are misleading, as many of them are German emigrants to the U.S. returning to Germany. That explains why, in terms of citizenship, Turkey takes the lead (2.4%), followed by Serbia (2.0%) (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014a: 24ff.). China is ranked third (1.82%), closely followed by the U.S. (1.80%) (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014a: 234).

Figure 5: Migration inflows in 2012 by the ten most common nationalities



(Data: Federal Bureau of Statistics, Table: efms)

1.1.3 Legal basis for the immigration of (highly-qualified) third-country citizens

The principal component of the Immigration Act of 2005 is the Residence Act (“Aufenthaltsgesetz”) regulating the stay, employment and integration of foreigners in Germany. It consists of two basic residence titles: the residence permit (“Aufenthaltserlaubnis”) allows a limited stay and is bound to a certain purpose of stay while the settlement permit (“Niederlassungserlaubnis”) is open-ended and free of a defined purpose (Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung 2007b). Immigrants who want to work in Germany have to apply for a residence title with the purpose of employment and need to fulfil general preconditions like holding a passport, having a secure livelihood during the stay, and no applicable grounds for deportation. For qualified people with an academic or comparable degree different options apply, depending on the purpose of the intended stay and the training as well as on specific qualifications (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2013):

Different options include: the limited residence permit for employment (AufenthG §18) for qualified professionals, the permanent settlement permit for highly-qualified persons (AufenthG §19) and since 2012 the Blue Card EU (AufenthG §19a), which enables highly-qualified third-country nationals to receive a temporary residence permit. Further

possibilities are the residence permit for research purpose (AufenthG §20) and the residence permit for self-employed persons (AufenthG §21) (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014b). Foreign graduates from a German university are allowed to stay up to 18 months after finishing their studies under section 16 subs. 4 Residence Act to search for a job at their qualification level (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014b: 16).

Scientists with special technical knowledge, as well as teaching personnel and scientific personnel in prominent positions qualify particularly for AufenthG §19, if the assumption is justified that integration in nationwide living conditions and livelihood without public assistance is guaranteed. Moreover, a firm job offer is required (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014b: 35). 244 immigrants obtained this permission in 2012, raising the total to 3,373 highly qualified persons residing in Germany under this Act. The main fraction comes from the U.S., followed by India and Russia (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014a: 75).

The Blue Card EU was appended to the Immigration Act according to the EU guideline 2009/50/EG in August 2012 - one year after the EU deadline. When issued for the first time, the Blue Card EU is valid for a maximum of four years. Apart from the higher educational qualification and a binding job offer or employment contract a proof of a minimum annual gross salary of 46.400 € is required. For shortage occupations like scientists, mathematicians, engineers, doctors and IT-specialists a lower salary threshold of 36.192 € applies (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014c). In 2012 the EU Blue Card was granted to 2,190 third country nationals. One third of these were allocated for shortage occupations. The main countries of origin were India, followed by the U.S. and Russia. If certain preconditions are fulfilled, highly-qualified foreigners may receive immediate open-ended residence permission under section 19 Residence Act (Federal Office for Migration and Refugees 2014a: 74).

The fundamental legal norm in Germany on anti-discrimination is Article 3 (3) of the Grundgesetz (Federal Constitution Act) from 1949, constituting that no one should be discriminated against or disadvantaged because of gender, race, language, homeland, origin, religious or political opinion, or disability (Bruchhagen 2010: 111). This law, however, applies only to the action of the state towards the citizens and not among the citizens themselves. In 2006, the General Equal Treatment Act (Allgemeines Gleichbehandlungsgesetz, AGG) introduced comprehensive legal regulation regarding non-discrimination (Federal Parliament 2006: 21 ff.). The law was enacted to comply to the EU directives 2000/43/EG; 2000/78/EG; 2002/73/EG and 2004/113/EG comprising the prevention and elimination of discrimination because of race or ethnic background, gender, religion or faith, disability, age or sexuality (§1). It provides legal protection against discrimination for private persons and companies and covers the areas of working life, social issues, education and access to and supply with products and services. It refers to direct and indirect discrimination (§3) and to both civil law and employment law, so every

employed person including job applicants and former employees are covered (§6(1)). The employer is obliged to implement instruments to prevent or react to the mentioned forms of discrimination (§12) (Bruchhagen et al., 2010: 111; Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung 2010).

1.2 Small and medium-sized organisations in Germany

The European Commission (2005) defines small and medium-sized enterprises (SME) according to the number of employees and the annual turnover or respectively the annual balance sheet total. It differentiates between micro, small and medium-sized enterprises as follows:

Figure 6: SME Definition European Commission

Enterprise category	Headcount: Annual Work Unit (AWU)	Annual turnover	or	Annual balance sheet total
Medium-sized	< 250	≤ €50 million <small>(in 1996 € 40 million)</small>	or	≤ €43 million <small>(in 1996 € 27 million)</small>
Small	< 50	≤ €10 million <small>(in 1996 € 7 million)</small>	or	≤ €10 million <small>(in 1996 € 5 million)</small>
Micro	< 10	≤ €2 million <small>(previously not defined)</small>	or	≤ €2 million <small>(previously not defined)</small>

(Fig.: European Commission 2005: 14)

However, there are certain qualitative features that are characteristic for SME (Siegemund (2008: 43 f.) and Lehmann (2012: 235)). First of all, SME are led by one person or family group who owns the majority of shares. This person is accountable and supervises all business activities. He or she shapes the values and social structure through his/her personality, socio-cultural background, behaviour and basic mental attitudes. Secondly, the hierarchy in the organisational structure is flat and the degree of formalization low. Thirdly,

close and often personal relations between employees, clients, suppliers and other stakeholders can be observed.

Due to these characteristics SME usually have a highly flexible operational management and short ways of communication which create a strong cohesion and motivation among the employees. However, they often suffer from limited financial, personal and time resources and prioritise the operative management, which leads to a neglect of the strategic management.

In 2011 the vast majority (99.3%) of two million enterprises in Germany could be ranked among small and medium-sized enterprises with 1.7 million being micro enterprises. More than 60% of the 24.9 million employees in Germany worked in SME, in almost equal parts in medium-sized, small and micro enterprises. Regarding the annual turnover, however, large companies were lying ahead, leaving the SME one third of the total turnover.

Depending on the industrial sector, SME have a greater or smaller economic impact. Thus, SME play an important role in construction and gastronomy where they achieved 80% of the turnover and employed 90% of the personnel. Moreover, they dominate the sector of commerce and services. The smallest stake is in the energy supply sector where SME make up less than 5% of the turnover and 13% of the employees (Federal Statistical Office 2014c).

According to statistics of the Federal Employment Agency 17% of the employees in Germany are working in micro enterprises, 24% in small, 28% in medium and 32% in large enterprises. About the same distribution occurs among foreign employees (micro 19%, small 23%, medium 27% and 31% large). As to the nationalities represented in the various enterprise sizes there are some distinctive features. Out of the EU-27 nationals, immigrants from France (45%) and Great Britain (40%) are strongly represented in large enterprises. In contrast, foreign employees originating from Poland (81%), Romania (81%), Hungary (78%) and Bulgaria (76%) are working to a greater extent in SME. Italian citizens are approximately equally distributed among the enterprise sizes. As for the Non-EU immigrants, most U.S. citizens (41%) are employed in large enterprises, whereas Ukrainian employees are more or less equally spread among the different divisions. Chinese citizens, interestingly, are working to about a third each in micro and large enterprises, leaving another third to small and medium enterprises combined. Out of the Turkish employees 63% are working in SME and 37% in large companies.

Table 2: Companies and employees per size and country of origin

Germany
valuation date: 30.06.2013

	Total	of these in companies with ... employees			
		1-9	10-49	50-249	>250
		micro	small	medium	large
Companies	2.124.144	1.684.225	344.681	81.152	14.086
total employees	29.268.918	4.908.779	6.940.895	8.080.383	9.338.861
Foreigners	2.386.243	463.426	540.216	640.801	741.800
BELGIUM	9.010	1.252	1.767	2.496	3.495
DENMARK	5.276	875	1.234	1.482	1.685
FRANCE	70.673	6.349	12.788	19.802	31.734
GREECE	110.469	23.580	20.683	28.271	37.935
ITALY	208.128	44.753	46.598	53.231	63.546
THE NETHERLANDS	33.814	5.370	7.491	9.491	11.462
AUSTRIA	59.279	8.355	11.906	14.956	24.062
PORTUGAL	51.391	8.868	13.532	15.140	13.851
SPAIN	48.546	6.397	10.190	13.168	18.791
GREAT BRITAIN	32.630	3.632	6.291	9.617	13.090
POLAND	221.025	58.628	60.231	59.237	42.929
ROMANIA	84.805	23.992	25.309	19.429	16.075
SLOVAKIA	17.807	3.578	4.900	5.151	4.178
SWITZERLAND	9.611	1.591	2.015	2.473	3.532
TURKEY	510.378	86.327	100.570	136.821	186.660
CZECH REPUBLIC	26.893	5.160	7.354	8.388	5.991
HUNGARY	49.596	9.557	14.260	14.728	11.051
UKRAINE	29.665	5.628	7.195	8.343	8.499
BULGARIA	32.530	8.784	9.042	7.057	7.647
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO	1.177	214	331	275	357
INDIA	19.149	4.179	2.983	4.035	7.952
CHINA	25.155	7.576	4.623	4.201	8.755
UNITED STATES	26.212	3.151	5.047	7.212	10.802

(Data.: Bundesagentur für Arbeit Statistik 2014, Table: efms)

1.3 Cultural diversity at the workplace

The total employable population (Erwerbspersonen) in Germany in 2012 consisted of 42.5 million people, with an unemployment rate of 5.5%. Out of the working population (40.2 million), people with a migration background made up for 18%. Of these, about a third had an EU-27 citizenship (2.6 million) and two thirds were Non-EU citizens (4.7 million). The unemployment rate of the population with migration background in 2012 was 8.9%, consisting of 6.5% of EU-27 citizens and 10.2% of Non-EU-nationals. If compared to the unemployment rate of the population without migration background (4.7%), people with a migration background are almost twice as often unemployed as those without migration background (Federal Statistical Office 2013b: 279 ff.).

According to Bruchhagen et al. (2010: 110), people with migration background are strongly under-represented in highly qualified and management positions and in contrast over-

represented in unqualified and undesirable jobs. Lukas (2011) confirms that the percentage of first-generation migrants (36%) working in the low-pay-sector is more than twice as high as the quota of people without migration background (16%). According to an OECD study (Chaloff/Lemaitre 2009: 38), only about 55% of highly qualified migrants do actually work in high-skilled jobs, whereas 70% of the highly qualified native population hold a suitable position. However, most of those who don't work in a job related to their qualification do not work in under-qualified jobs, but do not work at all. On the other hand, results of the European labour force survey from 2006 to 2010 suggest that 44% of the foreign engineers, architects and manufacturing engineers work in jobs for which they are over-qualified (Vogel 2013).

More detailed data on German residents with a migration background at the workplace are not yet available. The official German statistics only cover persons with a foreign citizenship, not accounting for naturalized persons or other German citizens with a migration background. Therefore, all data used in the following passages refer to foreign citizens, regardless of their birthplace and time of immigration.

A survey by the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (2009) on highly-qualified third-country nationals (with a title according to AufenthG §19) living in Germany shows that the main group of highly-qualified immigrants has a U.S. citizenship (20.1%), followed by Russian (16.8%) and Chinese (5.7%) citizens (fig. 7). However, if adjusted for the response rate of the sample, the order changes (see fig. 8) (Heß 2009: 23ff.).

Figure 7: Nationality of highly qualified persons in Germany (Statistical population)

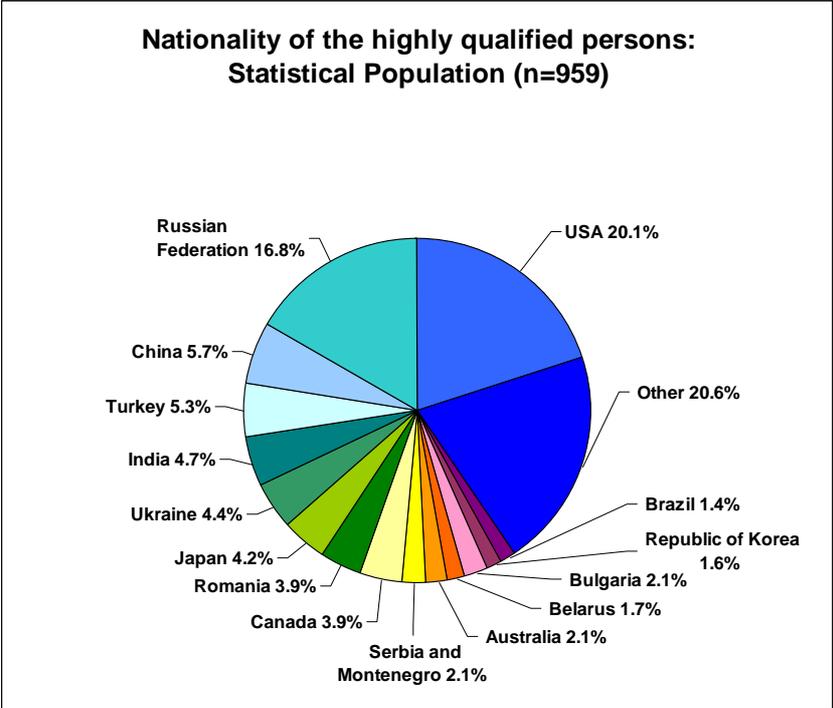
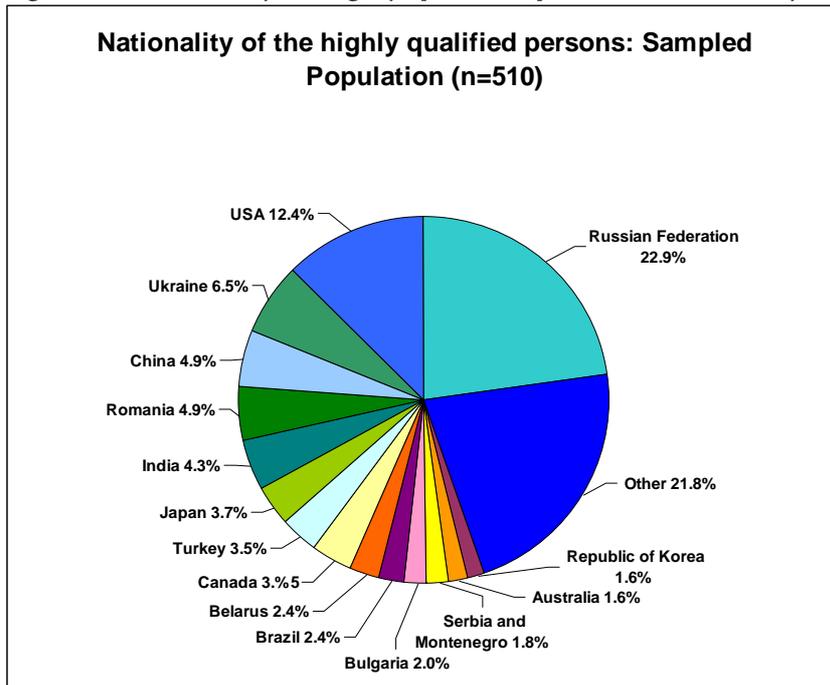


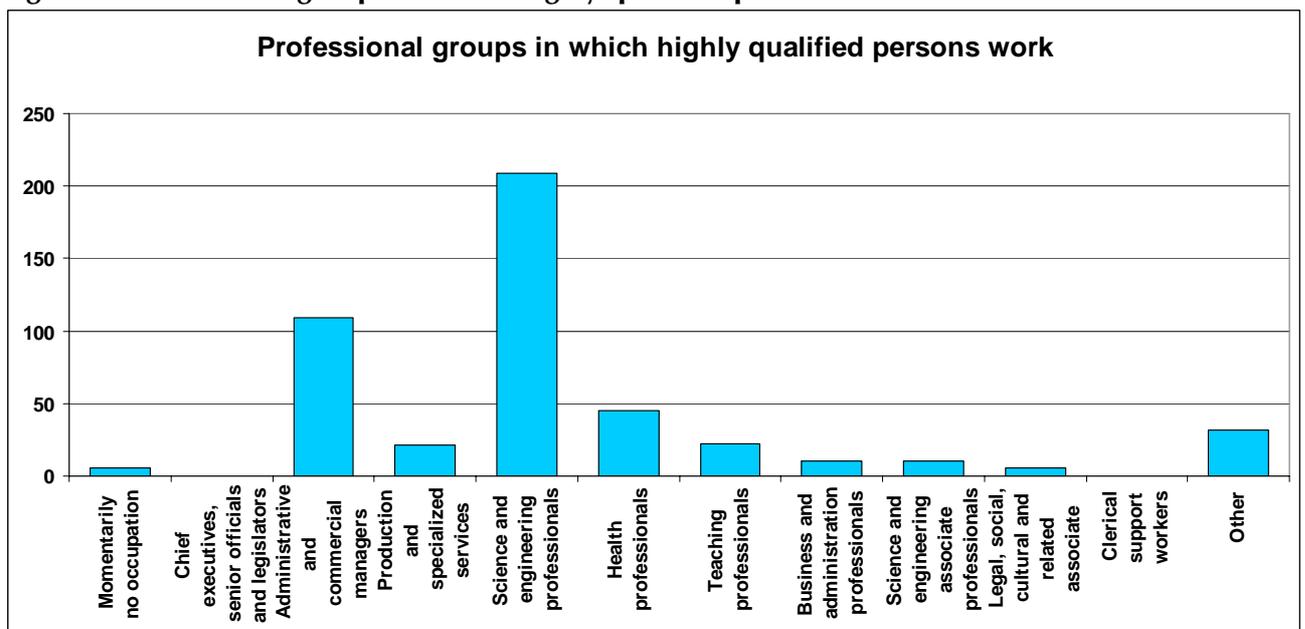
Figure 8: Nationality of highly qualified persons in Germany (Sampled population)



(Data: Heß 2009: 25, Table: efms)

Respondents were asked to self-categorize according to their professional group based on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) (International Labour Organization 2010).

Figure 9: Professional groups in which highly qualified persons work



(Data: Heß 2009: 44, Table: efms)

There is a clear accumulation of replies (44.5%) for the occupational category “science and engineering professionals”. Together with “administrative and commercial managers” (23.2%) they make up two thirds of the total. Following at some distance are “Health professionals” (9.6%), and “Teaching professionals” (4.7%).

There seems to be a correlation between the origin and the occupational category of some of the highly qualified immigrants. About 50% of the highly-qualified from the U.S. and more than 70% of the Canadians indicated to work as an administrative or commercial manager. 73% of the Russians operate in the field of “science and engineering” and “Health professionals”. The majority of the Chinese (56%) can also be found in these two groups (Heß 2009: 44).

Table 3: Sectors in which highly qualified persons work

Sector	Frequency	Percentage
Mining, quarrying for stones and earths	1	0.2
Production of goods	50	11.2
Energy and water supply	4	0.9
Construction (civil engineering, installation, other)	1	0.2
Trade; maintenance and repair of motor vehicles and consumer goods	5	1.1
Hotel and catering industry	2	0.4
Transport and communication	18	4.0
Credit institutions and insurance companies (excluding social insurance)	18	4.0
Real estate	4	0.9
Data processing and data bases	13	2.9
Research and development	153	34.2
Enterprise related service delivery and consulting	19	4.2
Public administration, social insurance	2	0.4
Education and teaching, institution of higher education	46	10.3
Health, veterinary, social services	24	5.4
Other	88	19.6
Total	448	100

(Data: Heß 2009: 46, Table: efms)

Apart from the occupational classification, the respondents were also asked to specify the sector they are working in. The majority (34.2%) of the highly-qualified immigrants works in the field of "research and development" (R&D), followed by "other" (19.6%), where the "automotive industry" was mostly quoted. Next comes "manufacturing" with 11.2%, closely followed by "education" (10.3%). Pursuant to the occupational categories, most of the highly-qualified Russians are employed in the R&D sector (52%), whereas more than half of the U.S. Americans are working in the "manufacturing" and "other" (52%) (Heß 2009: 46).

As the focus of the EUDiM study is on small and medium-sized enterprises, it is interesting to see how the highly-qualified are allocated amongst the size of the enterprise. 70% of the respondents stated to work for a large-size enterprise. Only 30% of the highly-qualified are part of SME, 15.2% in medium-sized ones and 14.7% in small enterprises.

Table 4: Enterprises in which highly qualified persons work by size

	Number	Percentage
Large enterprise (more than 250 employees)	271	70.0
Medium sized enterprise (50-250 employees)	59	15.2
Small enterprise (less than 50 employees)	57	14.7
Total	387	100
Not specified	123	

(Data: Heß 2009: 47, Table: efms)

Out of the valid responses, 72% stated to operate in a German company and 28% in a branch of a foreign organisation. In relation to the enterprise size, 69% of the German companies were large-sized, 15% medium and 16% small enterprises. 74% of the overseas branches were large-sized, 17.8% medium and 8.2 % small.

As to the nationality, one can notice that about the same amount of people from the U.S., Canada or Turkey are employed in German and foreign companies. Three quarters of the Chinese and Russians work for a German organisation (Heß 2009: 46f.).

Table 5: Collaboration with colleagues

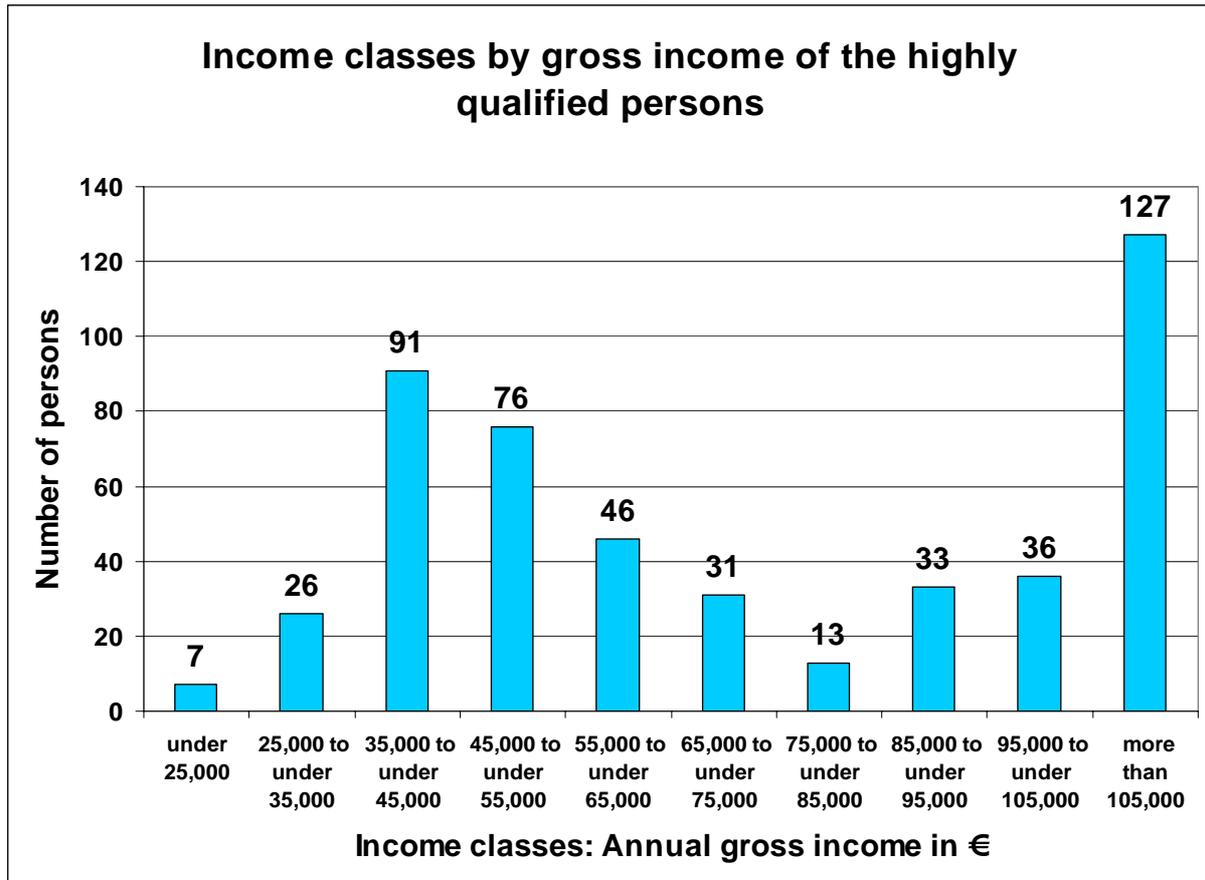
I mainly work together with...	Number	Percentage
German colleagues	233	50.1
Colleagues of my own nationality	4	0.9
International colleagues	182	39.1
Multiple answers	45	9.9
Total	64	100
Not specified	46	

(Data: Heß 2009: 48, Table: efms)

About half of the highly-qualified third-country nationals mainly work together with German colleagues. Nearly 40% predominantly team up with international colleagues and merely less than 1% works with colleagues of the same nationality (Heß 2009: 48).

The income of the highly-qualified is spread from a minority who earns up to 25.000 € per year until those who assert to have an income of more than 105.000 € per year who constitute more than a quarter (26.1%) of the respondents. Another income group revolves around the range of 35.000-45.000 € making up for 18%. If considering the country of origin, the income distribution varies. More than 70% of the U.S. and Canadian citizens and 50% of the Japanese can be found in the highest income group, whereas highly qualified from Russia or the Ukraine are representing only 6%. (Heß 2009: 50f.)

Figure 10: Income classes by gross income of highly qualified persons in Germany



(Data: Heß 2009: 51, Table: efms)

In general, the highly-qualified value their occupational situation positively. The majority of the interviewed are working full-time, are earning a very good salary and don't have to fight language barriers. 95% assess their job-related satisfaction with 5 points or more and 85% even 7 or more (Heß 2009: 54).

Figure 11: Satisfaction with the professional situation



(Data: Heß 2009: 54, fig.: efms)

1.4 Corporate Culture in Germany

While an entire research field has emerged on “corporate culture” since the 1980s, we will not further go into detail here. What is of interest in the context of diversity management approaches in SME are studies on comparative management styles and corporate culture providing a link between national culture and individual corporate culture in Germany.

Charles Hampden-Turner and Geert Hofstede have both intensely worked on this subject. According to Hamden-Turner, “the investigation of corporate cultures involves looking at how people in an organization behave; what assumptions govern their behaviour; and what bonds or glue hold the corporation together. But the macro-culture cannot be ignored because [...] corporate cultures act out themes and patterns of the wider culture” (1993: 12). In a comparative study on corporate cultures world-wide, Geert Hofstede analysed the German corporate culture through the lens of a 6 dimension model in order to relate it to other cultures. Out of the 6 dimensions, five seem to be especially relevant in the context of diversity management. As a pertinent indicator, the low vs. high context dimension by Edward T. Hall was also introduced to the table below, as communication is one of the major factors of DiM and has to be taken into account.

Table 6: Cultural Dimensions in Germany

Cultural Dimensions	Definition	Germany	Score
Low vs. High Context ⁶	In low-context cultures messages are communicated very explicitly, whereas in high-context cultures, the context is decisive.	Germany belongs to the low-context cultures characterized by a direct and verbal communication style. Communication is among the most direct in the world following the ideal to be “honest, even if it hurts” – and by this giving the counterpart a fair chance to learn from mistakes.	
Power Distance	The extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally	Highly decentralised and supported by a strong middle class, Germany is not surprisingly among the lower power distant countries. Co-determination rights are comparatively extensive and have to be taken into account by the management. A direct and participative communication and meeting style is common, control is disliked and leadership is challenged to show expertise and best accepted when it’s based on it.	35
Individualism vs. Collectivism	The degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members. It has to do with whether people’s self-image is defined in terms of “I” or “We”. In individualist societies people are supposed to look after themselves and their direct family	The German society is a truly individualistic one. Small families with a focus on the parent-children relationship rather than aunts and uncles are most common. There is a strong belief in the ideal of self-actualization. Loyalty is based	67

6 Dimension by Edward T. Hall

	only. In collectivist societies people belong to 'in groups' that take care of them in exchange for loyalty.	on personal preferences for people as well as a sense of duty and responsibility. This is defined by the contract between the employer and the employee.	
Uncertainty Avoidance	The extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations and have created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid these	Germany is among the uncertainty avoidant countries. In line with the philosophical heritage of Kant, Hegel and Fichte there is a strong preference for deductive rather than inductive approaches, be it in thinking, presenting or planning: the systematic overview has to be given in order to proceed. This is also reflected by the law system. In combination with their low Power Distance, where the certainty for own decisions is not covered by the larger responsibility of the boss, Germans prefer to compensate for their higher uncertainty by strongly relying on expertise.	65
Masculinity vs. Femininity	The motivation of people: wanting to be the best (masculine) or liking what you do (feminine). A masculine society will be driven by competition, achievement and success. In a feminine society quality of life is the sign of success and standing out from the crowd is not admirable.	Germany is considered a masculine society. Performance is highly valued and early required as the school system separates children into different types of schools at the age of ten. People rather "live in order to work" and draw a lot of self-esteem from their tasks. Managers are expected to be decisive and assertive. Status is often shown, especially by cars, watches and technical devices.	66
Pragmatic vs.	In societies with a normative orientation, most people have a	Germany's high score indicates that it is a pragmatic country. In	83

Normative	strong desire to explain as much as possible. In societies with a pragmatic orientation most people don't have a need to explain everything, as they believe that it is impossible to fully understand the complexity of life. The challenge is not to know the truth but to live a virtuous life.	societies with a pragmatic orientation, people believe that truth depends very much on situation, context and time. They show an ability to adapt traditions easily to changed conditions, a strong propensity to save and invest, thriftiness, and perseverance in achieving results.
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(fig.: compiled by efms based on data by Kaiser-Nolden 2008; Hofstede n.d.)

As the original concept of DiM originates in the U.S., scholars of diversity management have repeatedly pointed out the necessity of thorough adaptation to other national circumstances. Successful measures in U.S. enterprises might not as easily be introduced in Germany (Finke 2006). Therefore, it is interesting to compare the national corporate cultures. Germany like the U.S. belongs to the low context cultures with a direct communication style facilitating explicit expression of problems or dissent. Also, both countries have a low Power Distance score, which is a fertile ground for diversity values as participation and co-determination are highly estimated. According to Kaiser-Nolden, there has been evidence on the positive influence of individualism on diversity management. Individualism fosters equality and the respect for minorities, and Germany has a high individualist score. However, the high score in uncertainty avoidance might lead to a rejection of new and unfamiliar processes. The high pragmatic orientation encompasses a certain flexibility and capacity for adaptation (Kaiser-Nolden 2008: 46f.; Hofstede n.d.).

2 Challenges with diversity at the workplace

Many publications on diversity and diversity management (DiM) suggest that a diverse workforce is an overall asset for a company. This is the so called "value-in-diversity hypothesis", assuming that diversity brings "net-added value to organization processes" (Cox/Blake 1991: 46). However, there is also the antagonistic idea of "inevitability-of-diversity", stating that diversity is a result of demographic changes and pressure and can be seen as a problem that has to be dealt with (ibid.: 45). We will further elaborate on this in chapter 3.2 on goals and strategies of DiM. A general assumption underlying all approaches to DiM is that diversity within groups can have positive as well as negative effects (Watrinet 2008: 28). Diversity management is supposed to enhance the positive and reduce the negative effects (for a discussion of definitions see chapter 3.1). In order to understand

existing and develop new DiM measures, it is important to know the difficulties that are in need of being solved.

In Germany, different categories of highly qualified immigrants exist and need to be differentiated. One group that is currently in the focus of public debate consists of those who have migrated recently through targeted recruitment in the context of labour shortage. Moreover, there are also increased efforts to attract more foreign students to German universities, a certain amount of whom are susceptible to stay after they have graduated. Another pool of highly qualified with different cultural backgrounds are those with a migration background. All three groups are in need of very differentiated integration offers, which has to be considered when establishing a diversity management concept.

Difficulties at the workplace resulting from cultural diversity are both hindering for the company as well as for the employee. Therefore, we will consider them from an organisational and an individual perspective. However, they can hardly be separated and most difficulties concern both the organisational as well as the individual level. The same applies for difficulties arising in the process of targeted recruitment of candidates with diverse cultural background and those hindrances that appear due to already existing diversity in the enterprise.

2.1 Organisational perspective

From an organisational perspective, the recruitment of foreign employees bears some administrative obstacles, especially if the company does the procedure only rarely or for the first time. While some large international companies have a specific contact person at the foreigner's registration office at their disposal and can therefore treat these procedures as a routine, for SME that don't hire new staff regularly, the effort is considerably higher, due to the complexity and non-transparency of the procedures (OECD 2013: 22). Additionally, many SME don't have a HR department and recruitment lies in the hands of the owner or manager themselves. Therefore, many SME are highly reluctant to recruit foreign staff, because they are afraid of seemingly higher administrative and financial costs as well as communication and cultural barriers (Seiler 2013). This obstacle obviously only concerns newly recruited foreign employees and to a certain extent foreign graduates from German universities, but is not relevant for other people with a migration background. For foreign graduates, the procedure is slightly less complicated, however, they have to pass a "adequacy test" (Angemessenheitsprüfung), which is often perceived as an obstacle (ibd.).

In some cases, ethnic conflicts can surge between employees, a phenomenon that considerably harms the work atmosphere, reduces the motivation of staff and might lead to increased absence. In Germany, in the past this kind of conflict has been observed between Turks and Kurds; Serbians, Bosnians and Croatians; and between Germans and *Spätaussiedler* (Krislin/Köppel 2008: 8).

The major and most obvious obstacles that create difficulties result from language barriers. Especially for high skill positions, proficiency in German is a prerequisite for professional success and integration. Indeed, language skills are becoming more important in skilled jobs due to work practices and new technologies which enhance the importance of communication (Rosholm et al. 2006). In countries where the national language is rarely spoken outside the borders, as it is the case in Germany, the number of potential foreign applicants able to be recruited directly into a high-skilled job is limited. Even if it seems to become more and more usual that English is spoken and understood by nearly everyone in the workplace, it may not be the language of work, especially in SME (Chaloff/Lemaitre 2009: 40f.). A study on the integration of foreign graduates of German universities into the German labour market has shown that SME seem to have very high expectations regarding perfect language proficiency. As many German SME are situated in small cities or the countryside, language difficulties increase due to the often strong local dialects (Seiler 2013: 63f.). As this concerns graduates of German universities who already have a good working knowledge of German, the difficulties are highly probable to increase for employees who come from abroad and don't speak German yet. While large companies have the possibility to offer foreign employees language courses, SME often cannot afford this financially and can't stem the necessary administrative efforts (ibd.).

2.2 Immigrants' perspective

Language is also a major source of difficulties from the immigrant's perspective. In order to find a job and be as professionally successful as socially integrated, an immigrant will need to make a significant investment in language learning in order to reach an appropriately high level of language expertise. Recently, there has been a 'run' on German language institutes abroad such as the Goethe-Institutes. An OECD report on the immigration of foreign workers to Germany recommends the establishment of preparatory language courses abroad that are specifically designed for future migrants and prepare them for work life in Germany. According to the OECD, for those qualified to fill labour shortage, the German state should subsidise these classes (OECD 2013).

Regarding the recruitment of candidates with a migration background, there is evidence that they are discriminated against in Germany. The Expert Council of German Foundations on Integration and Migration (SVR) has recently presented results on the discrimination of high school graduates with German nationality and Turkish migration background in search for an apprenticeship (Schneider et al. 2014). A study by the Institute for the Study of Labour has shown that candidates with a Turkish name have a 14% lesser chance to be invited to a job interview than their counterparts with a German name, the percentage being even higher (24%) in SME (Kaas/Manger 2010).

Another important aspect for a productive work environment is a welcoming atmosphere towards and among employees regardless of their origin. If employees of different cultural background don't feel welcome, treated equally and don't have the same promotion prospects as the 'norm-employee', they are likely to quit their job. This creates a high staff fluctuation, compromising the work atmosphere and quality (Watrinet 2008: 28f.). In Germany, a debate on the non-existent "welcome culture" and the need for its development has recently evolved and resulted in projects such as "Ausländerbehörden werden Willkommensbehörden" (Foreigner's Registration Offices become Welcome Offices) (BAMF 2013).

3 Diversity Management

3.1 Definitions and Contextualisation

The German literature on diversity management mostly draws on definitions of diversity at the workplace and its management by established Anglo-Saxon scholars. According to Thomas and Ely (1996: 2) "diversity should be understood as the varied perspectives and approaches to work that members of different identity groups bring." Taylor Cox defines diversity management as "planning and implementing organizational systems and practices to manage people so that the potential advantages of diversity are maximized while its potential disadvantages are minimized" (Cox 1993: 11).

In contrast to the U.S., where the idea of diversity management originated in the human rights movement of the 1960s, the German debate about equal opportunities at the workplace started out with the concept of "gender mainstreaming". This concept has its origins in the 4th World Women's Conference of the UN in Beijing in 1995. With the signature of the Amsterdam Treaty of 1997 its implementation became obligatory for EU member states. According to the Council of Europe, gender mainstreaming means "the (re)organisation, improvement, development and evaluation of policy processes, so that a gender equality perspective is incorporated in all policies at all levels and at all stages, by the actors normally involved in policy-making" (Council of Europe 1998: 15). It is thus a cross-sectional task, in which all members of an organisation, all its programmes and decisions and all levels of hierarchy should be involved (Bruchhagen et al. 2010: 113).

While in the U.S. diversity management was advanced by equal opportunities legislation, in Germany it emerged primarily as a human resource (HR) management tool in the late 1990s (Krell 1996; Koall et al. 2002; Vedder 2006). This is reflected in the definition Andreas Merx chooses to capture DiM in Germany. He explains DiM to be a "human resource and organisational development approach that consists of a holistic concept to enhance staff diversity and to create a work environment free of discrimination, and of the entirety of all measures taken in order to achieve a targeted use, a positive configuration and a conscious

promotion of a diverse work force in the sense of a productive and appreciative treatment of differences" (Merx 2011).

As a consequence of Germany's long-time denial of being an immigration country, few efforts have been made in the past to implement diversity management practices. The legal anti-discrimination regulations have not yet been widely used by affected persons and neither the political actors, the labor unions, the interest groups of diversity target groups, nor the media have promoted DiM strongly. Therefore, other European countries with a self-conception of being a multicultural society, such as Great Britain or the Netherlands, have longer experience and a more far reaching distribution of such practices, not only in large and internationally operating companies, but also in small enterprises (Vedder 2008: 38). In recent years, German organisations could take advantage of these experiences by transferring them to the local context. However, a thorough adaptation to respective circumstances is absolutely necessary in order to implement diversity measures successfully. Merve Finke draws attention to the fact that by transferring definitions and understandings of diversity from U.S. literature into the German scientific debate, the complexity of the phenomenon is often reduced and many important aspects get lost (Finke 2006). Günther Vedder stresses that "every society has its own ethnocentric 'blind spots' and cultural biases" (Vedder 2008: 39). In Germany for example, not only the notorious guest-workers and their families have to be considered if speaking about cultural diversity, but also the *Spätaussiedler* who are often forgotten due to the fact that they automatically receive the German citizenship. In addition, long-term effects of the Nazi-Regime should not be neglected and difficulties resulting from the Reunification process, such as internal cultural diversity between Eastern and Western Germans should be thought of (Finke 2006: 9; Vedder 2008: 39).

3.2 Goals/Strategies

There are different reasons why companies adopt DiM measures. Thomas and Ely (1996) have proposed the following three ideal-type paradigms that are probably the most cited in the literature in order to explain different approaches to manage diversity:

(1) "discrimination-and-fairness"

This paradigm is, according to Thomas and Ely (1996: 2), the most widespread and oldest way of treating diversity and encompasses considerations of equal opportunities, fair treatment, recruitment, and compliance with equal employment opportunity regulations. It follows the liberal idea of everyone being equal and "idealize(s) assimilation and color- and gender-blind conformism" (1996: 5).

(2) "access-and-legitimacy"

From a more competitive and economic perspective of looking at diversity, this paradigm focuses on the differences and 'celebrates' them for their assumed power to provide access to new markets and consumer groups (1996: 5).

Since both approaches are rather one-sided and bear immense shortcomings of the complex idea of diversity, they propose a third perspective:

(3) "learning-and-effectiveness"

In this approach, the organisation makes the most of the diversity of its staff by learning with respect to their work approaches, strategic planning and problem solving capacities, as well as by questioning established processes and positions. Employees receive appreciation and certain freedoms in order to promote innovation and participation (1996: 6).

According to a study by the Bertelsmann foundation (Köppel/Yan/Lüdicke 2007), in contrast to Anglo-Saxon companies, which are rather driven by a "discrimination-and-fairness" approach, German companies approach diversity measures from an "access-and-legitimacy" perspective, meaning that they have a rather performance-minded understanding of the reasons for adopting diversity management. At the same time, this seems to be typical for companies with a less diverse workforce, which is the case in most German enterprises. A comparison between the German headquarters' employees of an international company and their departments in Malaysia, Singapore, South Africa and Argentina has shown an important discrepancy between the awareness of diversity with 18% in Germany versus 45% in the other countries, due to the homogeneous staff in Germany (Kaiser-Nolden 2008: 48).

What is more, diversity is often framed as a 'problem' for which a solution needs to be found. Diversity management is perceived as a necessary reaction to demographic pressure, instead of an innovative tool to enhance creativity and productivity. Köppel et al. (2007) esteem that German companies seem to emphasise more on the problems and perceived difficulties of DiM implementation than companies in other countries. Taylor Cox and Stacy Blake call this the "inevitability-of-diversity" approach (Cox/Blake 1991: 45f.). It is driven by "the need (because of national and cross-national workforce demographic trends) to hire more women, minorities, and foreign nationals" (Ibd.: 46). Carsten Hermann-Pillath calls this "reactive" DiM as opposed to "active" measures that view diversity as a resource (Hermann-Pillath n.d.).

While Thomas' and Ely's empirical observation of reasons why DiM is adopted by companies resulted in the establishment of ideal-type paradigms, Christine Watrinet (2008) proposes a far more detailed model to grasp the goals of DiM. She looks at DiM on three levels: the individual and group level, the organisational level and the societal level.

On the individual level, she is eager to emphasise that diversity within groups can have positive as well as negative effects. One reason to adopt DiM is to reduce the real and

potential negative effects by providing for a positive group composition (Watrinet 2008: 32ff.).

On the organisational level, according to Watrinet, economic efficiency is central to DiM motivations. Companies who apply DiM are supposed to have comparative cost advantages vis-à-vis those who don't. They can prevent high staff fluctuation that is due to a lack of integration of staff differing from the 'norm employee', insufficient promotion prospects and missing equal opportunities. However, these are assumptions that have yet to be proven empirically (Watrinet 2008: 28f.). Another goal of DiM on the organisational level is to react to demographic change and labour shortage by conducting active HR marketing towards a more diverse workforce. Going one step further, some companies seek to project the demographic structure to their employment structure. On the one hand, this is a HR counteraction to demographic change, on the other hand they try to be suited best for diverse clientele and stakeholders. In Germany, for example, 2.5 million people of Turkish descent have a purchasing power of 17 billion Euro, which corresponds to the purchasing power of the Saarland, the smallest federal territorial state (Kaiser-Nolden 2008). These marketing-strategies also include the targeted employment of people with different cultural background in order to be fit for internationalisation, i.e. gain access to international markets and have staff with inter-cultural competences. What is more, according to the majority of the DiM literature, diversity, if managed appropriately, enhances the creativity, innovation and problem solving capacity of teams. "The idea is that diverse groups have a broader and richer base of experience from which to approach a problem" (Cox 1993: 33). A final organisational aspect is the newly established connection between refinancing and ethics, since not only buying decisions but also investment decisions are more and more subject to ethical considerations.

This consideration also reflects on the third level, the societal level, where compliance to moral standards and legitimacy play a major role regarding the introduction of DiM. More and more companies adhere to what is called "corporate social responsibility" (CSR). According to a study of Süß and Kleiner (2005), this is an aspect that is especially applicable in Germany (see also Aretz 2006). Societal expectations can be communicated via public debate, but also through regulations such as equal opportunity laws. In fact, as the Commissioner of the Federal Government for Migration, Refugees and Integration points out, German companies who practise DiM have a lower risk of being subject to a AGG - damage suit (Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2008: 25).

3.3 Barriers

Köppel, Yan and Lüdicke (2007) identify four different problem dimensions regarding difficulties with the introduction of diversity management: implementation problems, problems of acceptance, complexity and costs, and contradiction to corporate culture.

German companies seem to have greater problems with the implementation of DiM measures than companies in other countries, especially in Great Britain and the U.S., which can be explained by the fact that there is less experience and best practice to rely on. Günther Vedder (2008) resumes the most frequent implementation mistakes: Quite often the human resource (HR) department is convinced of the necessity of diversity management, but there is a lack of support by the top management (too much bottom up). On the other hand, we can find lack of cross sectional implementation (too much top down), e.g. if only the top management is convinced by diversity measures, but fails to let these measures trickle down to lower hierarchical levels. In both cases, a lack of networks and implementation in operational chapters can be observed. Another usual obstacle to the successful implementation of DiM measures is a lack of financial resources, especially in the beginning of the implementation phase.

A major problem constitutes the lack of acceptance among the staff. Hansen assumes this resistance emanating from an excessive demand of coping with the 'other', a discomfort to take responsibility for unconventional decisions and the fear to lose power (Hansen 2006: 338). Another possible reason for the rejection of DiM measures is the feeling among the staff that these measures result from yet another trend and are not to be taken seriously (ibd.).

The third problem dimension concerns complexity and costs of DiM measures. However, according to Köppel et al. (2007), all the sampled companies estimated the benefits of DiM higher than the costs. This resolves in a paradoxon: in a business case model, this should resolve in all companies adopting such measures, but only 44% of the concerned companies did so. Unfortunately, the study does not provide for explanations of this discrepancy.

The last dimension refers to a possible contradiction to the corporate culture. In his elaborations on the connection between national and organisational culture in Germany, Thomas Armbrüster (2004: 67ff.) concludes that in Germany, cultural change is difficult to achieve due to a certain orientation at the past rather than appreciation of modernity and its account for reform pessimism and resistance to change and modernity. In general, pertinent scholars of corporate culture such as Hofstede and also Trompenaar and Schein assume culture to be stable and therefore resilient to quick changes. Others criticise this approach as outdated and view culture as a dynamic social construct, especially under the influence of intercultural communication (Lüthi et al. 2009: 17f.). This reflects the third dimension of Thomas and Ely, "learning-and-effectiveness".

Andreas Merx identifies three barriers to the implementation of DiM that partly include and partly go beyond the forementioned dimensions: “lack of knowledge”, “lack of will”, and “lack of ability”. Lack of knowledge comprises not knowing about the concept of DiM at all, not knowing about the benefits of DiM and not being able to assess the future significance of DiM. According to a study conducted among enterprises of different sizes in Hamburg (Klaffke 2008), one third of the interviewed companies had never heard of diversity management, among them 80% SME, 10% of the respondents didn’t see any benefit in DiM and one third could not estimate the significance in the future of DiM. Lack of will includes lacking motivation for change, lacking managerial responsibility, resistance against the concept⁷ and structural barriers. Lack of ability comprises the lack of temporal, personnel, financial and organisational resources (Merx 2011).

Some of the difficulties in implementing DiM, especially those concerning the permeability of hierarchies, do not or only to a limited extent apply for SME. Due to specific SME characteristics such as flat hierarchies and a strong influence of the owner’s or manager’s personal preferences on the corporate culture implementation of DiM measures is easier and by far less complex than in large companies. On the other hand, there are barriers and difficulties that occur specifically in SME. Limited financial, personal and time resources as well as a resulting priority for operative tasks play against DiM. As the financial aspect is of great importance to SME, tools for the measurement of the concrete economical advantages of diversity management should be developed according to Süß and Kleiner (2005: 10f.). Therefore, a systematic controlling and evaluation of the successes of diversity management needs to be implemented.

Managers of SME have to be even more courageous and overcome their resistances and fears than those of larger companies, as they have to accept the challenge of trusting in the judgements and capabilities of the staff regarding foreign markets and migrant target groups instead of being able to judge the overall situation and decide according to their own experiences, which they are used to (Krislin/Köppel 2008: 10).

3.4 Diversity management activities

In general, it can be said that diversity management activities are still at the beginning of their development and implementation in Germany (Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2008: 55). Although activities that could be labelled “diversity management” already existed prior to the concept’s introduction (Franke 2007: 28; Süß 2008: 426; Schmidt 2013: 1), the issue of cultural diversity plays a minor role by international standards (Köppel et al.: 9). For this reason, diversity management has been

⁷ For further elaboration on resistance to gender mainstreaming and diversity management measures, see Erfurt (2011).

claimed to be a “niche product” (hec et al.: 10) and a “fad” (Süß 2008: 406) in Germany. However, it is also recognized that its importance is growing and will continue to grow due to structural changes connected to demographic change (ibid.).

Although the German government and other societal actors have begun to actively encourage the spread of diversity management, whether it is actually implemented remains a matter of the decision of the various organisations while the immigrants themselves have only limited options (Klaffke 2008: 9; Dietz/Peterson 2005: 251; Jensen-Dämmrich 2011: 165).

The implementation of diversity management measures often takes place in the context of networks formed by various actors. Mostly these networks include actors from all of the three fields discussed below (organisations, immigrants, society). It is therefore impossible to justly assign a specific network exclusively to a particular field. As a rule, the networks will therefore be presented in more detail in the field for whose general activities they are exemplary. Where this is the case for more than one field, a network may also be mentioned several times.

3.4.1 Societal Activities

Two types of actors play a major role in fostering societal activities concerning the promotion of diversity management: political actors and intermediary organisations offering advice and support such as chambers of industry and commerce, chambers of crafts or training institutions. Political actors are responsible for designing the legal framework, but they also conceptualise campaigns and take a stand in the public debate. Intermediary organisations take influence on companies in their function as employers and therefore on (potential) managers. Actors from the academic field (universities, academies, foundations conducting research) are also playing an important role. They conduct studies, but also influence future managers by including diversity concepts in their academic programme.

In the last couple of years, political actors have sought to promote diversity management and the general concepts it is connected with. There has been much talk of the necessity of creating a culture which welcomes new immigrants and persons with a migration background. However, such a culture can only be established if diversity is appreciated. People in leading positions in society and organisations are expected to take on responsibility in this process, e.g. by promoting diversity management (Szukitsch 2013). In order to support this process, a number of government actors have published brochures and sponsored programmes addressing the issue (Szukitsch 2013: 82f). In 2005 a nationwide campaign was started under the title “You are Germany”. One of the aims of the campaign was to foster the appreciation of the diversity of the German society (Matuko / Heister 2011: 1107). As already mentioned, in 2006 the General Act on Equal Treatment (AGG) was passed. As a reminder, its aim is “to prevent or to stop discrimination on the grounds of race

ore ethnic origin, gender, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation" (AGG par. 1 sec. 1). The AGG is seen as the most important instrument up to date for institutionalising diversity management in Germany (Krell 2011: 168). Also in 2006 the "Charta of Diversity" was introduced, and in 2007/08 the Federal Office for Migration, Asylum and Refugees (BAMF) ran the campaign "Diversity as Opportunity" (Vielfalt als Chance). These developments and activities have led to increasing support for the concept of diversity management by political actors (ibid.). By now, the German government as well as other political actors on various levels are actively promoting the spread of diversity management (Klaffke 2008: 9; cf. Senatsverwaltung für Wirtschaft, Technologie und Frauen, Berlin 2010; Charta der Vielfalt 2013). The following paragraphs will briefly introduce some of these activities.

The "Charta of Diversity" has certainly become the most important institution in the field of diversity management in Germany. It was initiated by the companies Daimler, BP Europe SE (formerly Deutsche BP), the Deutsche Bank and the Deutsche Telekom in December 2006. Its patroness is the German chancellor and it is coordinated by the Commissioner of the Federal Government for Migration, Refugees and Integration. It aims to address organisations and is based on self-commitment to the Charta. So far, more than 1700 companies and public institutions have signed the Charta of Diversity and the number is increasing. In connection with the Charta, the "Charta of Diversity" e.V. was founded in 2010 and several projects were initiated to further the cause of diversity management in Germany. These projects include the organisation of a nationwide German Day of Diversity, yearly conferences, workshops and contests (Charta der Vielfalt, homepage; Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2008).

The campaign "Diversity as Opportunity" also promoted the idea of diversity management. In a brochure published in 2008 by the Commissioner of the Federal Government for Migration, Refugees and Integration, diversity is presented as a factor of success for companies and public institutions. The brochure includes best practice examples and presents a number of measures that are specifically thought to be realisable for SME (ibid.).

The Senate Department for Economy, Technology and Women of the State of Berlin even went one step further in order to regard the special situation of SME. In 2008, it conducted a survey among SME in Berlin, inquiring the diversity of their workforce and the criteria and principles according to which they conduct their HR policy. Based on these interviews, eleven companies were selected, due to their individual concepts of promoting diversity in their HR policy. The Senate department then published a brochure in 2010, presenting these examples and giving an overview of what measures SME could take to further diversity in their workforce (Senatsverwaltung für Wirtschaft, Technologie und Frauen, Berlin 2010).

Apart from programmes with the principal aim of promoting diversity management, government actors also support programmes that address the issue of diversity management along with other issues concerning diversity and immigration. One such programme is

“Integration through Qualification” (IQ) which is sponsored by the Federal Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, the Federal Ministry of Education and Science and the Federal Employment Agency. The programme’s main focus is to foster a culture that welcomes and appreciates diversity. It includes five thematic departments, including one that specifically addresses diversity management. The programme’s activities include a congress and setting up a nationwide network of local labour market actors that is supposed to help persons with a migration background find an adequate job (Szukitsch 2013: 82f).

Non-governmental actors have also shown increased interest and activity in the promotion of diversity management in the last couple of years. Next to the activities of companies and other employers mentioned above, especially intermediary organisations have done much to further the cause of diversity management. The term “intermediary organisations” encompasses a wide array of organisations which take influence on managers of SME. These include bank representatives, local administrative offices, or organisations offering training. Whether they actually further the case of diversity management depends highly on their own understanding of the concept and the way they present it to the managers they are in contact with (for diversity against discrimination et al n.d.: 28-32).

A group of very important actors for SME are the various chambers of commerce and other similar institutions. One of their tasks is to support companies in being prepared for the different challenges in connection with structural changes. Since these include the need to integrate persons with a migration background and utilise diversity more efficiently, they have begun to address these issues. They now offer a large variety of supporting means, including brochures, consultation, and actual projects (IQ – Fachstelle für Diversity Management 2013: 19-21; Merx 2013: 9).

Actors from the wider academic field have also taken up the issue of diversity. The means by which this has taken place includes standard academic activities, such as teaching programmes and research, but sometimes also goes beyond these to include the active promotion of diversity management. Many of these activities have a special focus on diversity management in SME.

Diversity management has become increasingly important in the field of academic training. One example to be mentioned here comes from the health care sector. While the issue of diversity takes on an increasingly important role in this sector, activities have often not been reflected thoroughly or have lacked official recognition and legal regulation (Tauchert 2013: 7). The APPOLLON University of Health Management now offers the module “Diversity management in the health sector” as a part of its masters programme in health economics since 2011 (Matuko / Heister 2011: 1111). Another example comes from the field of engineering. Already since 2006, the Bochum University of Applied Sciences offers the additional qualification of becoming an “Certified Intercultural Engineer”. The programme includes a basic course on “cultural training” as well as a number of courses on intercultural communication, international project management, and intercultural HRM. In addition to

these requirements, students have to provide proof of having studied abroad and of having participated in preparatory language courses (Paulus 2008: 21).

In the field of research on diversity management, the Bertelsmann Foundation is a major player in Germany. As a foundation, it has the advantage of not only being able to conduct research, but of also having the means to actively promote measures. Concerning its focus on diversity management, the foundation's activities therefore include both: The Bertelsmann Foundation does research on the German situation of diversity management in international perspective, while it also works to actively promote the concept among entrepreneurs (Köppel et al. 2007).

As it has an academic base, the project "BremerForum:Diversity" deserves mentioning, too. The forum is a joint project of actors from the Parity Training Institute, the University, and the University of Applied Sciences, all situated in Bremen. The project aims to address both persons with a migration background and managers of SME by offering trainings and organising forums and symposiums. It explicitly tries to win managers and employees of SME, helping them to become multipliers of diversity management in their own organisations (Brunken et al. 2010).

3.4.2 Organisational instruments and practices

Although the concept of diversity management has continually received more attention in the last years, it is still far from being applied extensively in Germany. Studies have repeatedly shown that the concept is still unknown to many managers (cf. Klaffke 2008: 3). While many of the large enterprises have already implemented diversity management, the concept is especially unknown of and seldom consequently applied by managers of SME (ibid.; Merx 2013: 9; Süß 2008: 425). On the other hand, diversity as a corporate objective as well as measures aiming to foster diversity often exist without being labelled as "diversity management" (Dietz/Peterson 2005: 254; Franke 2007: 28; Heese 2010: 868; Schmidt 2013: 1). What is lacking is an explicit strategy for integration (Anders et al. 2008: 25). Even among those enterprises that have already adopted the diversity approach, only very few have specified how they plan on implementing their goals (Die Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2008: 56). This is highly problematic, as organisations tend to be more content with their diversity management, the earlier they begin their activities and the more goals they have set themselves (ibid.: 56). While in Great Britain and the U.S. cultural diversity management is quite institutionalised through diversity-officers, information events and trainings, in Germany 'learning-by-doing' plays a major role. That means that people are not systematically introduced to how to deal with diversity, but experience intercultural contact during foreign assignments or through networking. This approach neglects the fact that intercultural contact doesn't automatically provide for intercultural competence, but needs a specific setting in order to develop into

intercultural learning and not into stereotypes and rejection (Köppel et al. 2007). In order to develop successful intervention measures, a manager has to have dealt with the problems of stereotypes and prejudices extensively. Otherwise the measures will only address these problems superficially, potentially leading to counterproductive effects (Dietz/Peterson: 249f). An important aspect that is tightly connected to this problem is that diversity management is applied in a top-down approach in the large majority of cases (Ihsen 2013: 240). This is certainly the most efficient approach, especially for SME, where manager and entrepreneur are usually the same person (Krislin / Köppel 2008: 7). However, this structure can also have problematic consequences. In order for a diversity approach to be successful in the long term, a cultural change of the whole organisation is needed (Kay 2012: 23). Diversity management therefore has to start with a change in the way employees are dealt with and in strategic decisions, but it cannot be a “revolution from the top” (Krislin / Köppel 2008: 13f). It has to be wanted “from above”, but also accepted and supported “from below” (Pullen 2010: 13). As diversity management is often applied simply from an economic perspective in Germany, it tends to take the form of an administrative process and often excludes those mostly affected by it from the process (Jensen-Dämmrich 2011: 165).

As SME are often managed by the entrepreneurs themselves they face special challenges in implementing diversity management. Their limited financial and human resources makes it necessary to find measures that fit their specific situation exactly and lead to positive effects quite soon (IQ – Fachstelle Diversity Management 2013: 11; Merx 2013). SME have to use a more pragmatic approach, dealing with existing problems and regarding their regional/local context (ibid.). As the following paragraphs will show, their solutions are proof for the thesis that each enterprise has to find its own individual concept (Brunken et al. 2010: 9).

Diversity management potentially affects all aspects of an organisation: orientation, functioning, and setting. The literature on diversity management makes out a whole number of different instruments and practices. In an important empirical study by Süß (2008), he summarises these measures into four packages: consultation and mentoring, institutionalising diversity management, commitment to diversity management, and diversity friendly labour organisation. As these packages are in accordance with the various recommendations found in the other literature (cf. Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2008; Fehl 2007; Keil, M. et al. 2008; IQ – Fachstelle für Diversity Management 2013; Merx 2013; Pullen 2010), they will be used as a guideline for presenting the instruments and practices found in empiric studies and best practice reports.

Consultation and mentoring focuses on managing minority groups in a way that reduces problems and purposefully makes use of their potential. The measures include creating the position of a diversity manager, providing opportunities for consultation for minority groups, mentoring programmes, diversity trainings, and the evaluation of diversity measures. Due to the limited resources of SME, such measures are generally not possible for them to realise

on their own. However, several networks that have been set up with the help of intermediary organisations have such measures in their repertoire. One example is the already mentioned EQUAL network, in which the position of a migration expert was created within a business association. Different projects within the network also provide consultation for minority groups, mentoring, and training (EQUAL Netzwerk "Kompetenz und Vielfalt" 2007). Another network worth mentioning is the corporate network RKW in Berlin. In 2010/11 it ran a model project called "Diversity Management in strategic staff development", in which 20 Berlin SME were prepared for applying diversity management in their organisation (RKW Berlin GmbH 2011). But even apart from the possibilities offered by networks, organisations have some options for including aspects of this package in their structure. The Berlin "ST raum a. Gesellschaft von Landschaftsarchitekten mbH" provides proof for this: from their first day of work on, new colleagues receive a mentor (Senatsverwaltung für Wirtschaft, Technologie und Frauen 2010: 22f).

The "Diversity as Opportunity 2008" programme of the Commissioner of the Federal Government for Migration, Refugees and Integration proposes a number of possible measures in this field. Similar to the example mentioned lastly, they recommend the introduction of "culture tandems". Two employees with a different cultural background work together and get to know the others culture, enabling a transfer of knowledge (Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2008: 28). Other measures focus mainly on the potential for recruitment of pupils with a migration background. They include sponsoring a school, visiting teacher parents conferences and introducing one's enterprise, and offering the possibility of internships. Another measure would be to support training measures that accompany persons with a migration background during their time of trade school (ibid.: 28-32).

Institutionalising diversity management. This package of measures aims at making diversity management an essential part of an organisation. It includes company agreements with rules on how to deal with staff diversity, creating diversity-oriented institutions, and regular training and a natural inclusion of diversity in the scope of personnel management. Of these measures only aspects could be found in the best practice examples of SME represented in the literature. One example is the Berlin company "Kapella Baustoffe GmbH", which has laid down a set of rules and principles, e.g. for the way conflicts should be dealt with (Senatsverwaltung für Wirtschaft, Technologie und Frauen 2010: 8f). The "ZIK – Zuhause GmbH" even developed a quality management manual on the basis of a survey among their staff. Among other things, the manual includes a standardised complaints procedure (ibid.: 26f). Another example is the "Klopotek & Partner GmbH", also based in Berlin, which includes its own academy for training its employees (ibid.: 10f). A survey among enterprises based in Hamburg (including 89 SME) reports the following activities among SME for integrating persons with a migration background: icebreaker workshops (27/89), training programmes for trainees and interns (19/89), language training (17/89), and assignments with customer contact (14/89). A comprehensive integration programme only exists in seven

out of 89 SME (Klaffke 2008: 20). Examples from the health care sector are the Stuttgart hospital which installed an international unit in 2008 (Braun 2012) and the Marienhaus Hospital Eifel which individually supports foreign employees in their efforts of language acquisition (Krämer / Schütte 2012: 21). The institutionalisation of DiM is still very limited which is not only confirmed by the results of Süß (2008). In a survey among 500 Berlin enterprises (not all of them SME), only 14 % had installed a commissioner for equal opportunities, a working group, or something similar. The percentage of enterprises that had implemented a diversity management programme was even lower: it amounted to 20 of 500 enterprises or 4 % (Anders et al. 2008: 44f).

“Diversity as Opportunity 2008” recommends similar measures as the ones mentioned above (Die Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2008: 28-32). Organisations should offer a variety of training measures: language training for persons with a migration background, sensitivity training for both managers and employees, and competence training for managers. Another possibility of institutionalising diversity management is by respecting different cultural holidays. Employees can receive a day off on the holidays they celebrate, using up overtime hours.

Commitment to diversity management encompasses measures to firmly fix diversity within the company culture. That this is not always easy to identify can be seen in the survey among 500 Berlin enterprises already mentioned above: While 84% stated that their corporate philosophy or mission statement included equal opportunities or respect against all employees, only 18% had a specific company agreement on equal opportunities and anti-discrimination. Of these 500 enterprises, 68% employ at least one person with a migration background, but only 9% specifically recruit persons from this group (Anders et al. 2008: 31.44f). The package of measures also includes evaluating past measures and identifying need for further measures. An example for this package is according to which criteria organisations recruit new employees. The “preznkomm gGmbH”, the “Paul Schulze Orthopädie Bandagen GmbH”, and the “stobotec GmbH” all include such categories as tolerance and openness to the profile they search for. Again, the role of networks is important here, as these communicate the will to appreciate diversity to the public. Next to the ones already mentioned above, the literature reports of further networks, e.g. the “DiversityForum:Bremen” (see chapter 3.4.3) or the “MACH 2” network in Herford (Krislin/Köppel 2008). Apart from these mostly regional actors, the nationwide “Charta of Diversity” now already includes more than 1,700 organisations publicly supporting the concept of diversity (see chapter 3.4.3).

Again, “Diversity as Opportunity 2008” offers ideas for further measures (Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2008: 28-32). Organisations can evaluate their job profiles and supplement their vacancies with a note on their interest in employing persons with a migration background, or possibly even use foreign-language media to publish their vacancies. As further measures, an organisation can inform the public

about their diversity measures via local media – this might further its reputation. As has already been mentioned in the above paragraph, joining or establishing networks bears many advantages.

Diversity friendly labour organisation. Since this package of measures requires the least effort, it is not surprising that many examples can be found in the literature. Mixed teams, often only put together for the length of a specific project, are seen to foster productivity and are standard procedure in many organisations committed to diversity management (cf. Senatsverwaltung für Wirtschaft, Technologie und Frauen 2010). International companies even promote the exchange of employees between their different company locations (ibid.: 10f) or gather the employees of the different departments once a year for a meeting (Kaufmann 2010). A general focus on training measures is also regarded important and can therefore be found in many organisations (ibid.; Senatsverwaltung für Wirtschaft, Technologie und Frauen 2010). Even if these training measures do not explicitly focus on multiethnic diversity, they play an important part in utilising the potential of all employees, and especially of those who are not able to cope with processes of change on their own. Therefore, organisations can go beyond promoting diversity in the higher positions and extend it even to unskilled employees (cf. ibid.: 12f). Another widespread measure regards flexible working hours. This can take different forms and sometimes even includes a general commitment to the possibility of a sabbatical (ibid.: 22f).

In “Diversity as Opportunity 2008” recommendations for two further measures can be found (Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2008: 28-32). The first is “Cook Your Culture”: employees bring specialities from their country of origin to a work party. Krislin and Köppel (2008: 8) report of a successful implementation of this kind of event by “Teckentrup GmbH & Co. KG”, calling those gatherings “appreciation events”. In the second measure, employees present solutions for business problems from the perspective of their culture of heritage. Not only does this increase the sensitivity for diverse staff among co-workers, but also regarding clients from different cultures.

In summary, it can be said that a great number of different measures already exist in the field of diversity management. However, even most of the companies listed as best practice examples are still far from having implemented a thorough diversity management programme. This is partly due to their limited resources as SME. But it is also true that diversity management has only yet arrived in the German context and a further increase can well be expected. Even among many large enterprises the concept has only been introduced quite recently: For example, out of 30 DAX-companies, 14 had established the position of diversity manager in 2007, while in 2000 it was only 3 (Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Migration, Flüchtlinge und Integration 2008: 15). For SME, networks have proven to play an important role. By joining them, they can compensate some of their natural hindrances. Since enterprises are usually not the actors who bring networks into being, some of the

networks already mentioned above will be introduced in greater detail in the chapters below.

3.4.3 Immigrants' options and coping strategies

Because diversity management is generally introduced by an organisation's management, persons with a migration background who are not part of the management have only limited options. This is also reflected in the literature by the fact that there is very little reference to immigrants' options. The extent of the immigrants' dependency as employees from the employers' policy can be seen in both employment in general and the positions they hold once they received employment. As diversity management i.a. implies a promotion of persons with a migration background compared to traditional management methods, their options are better the more organisations follow this policy. Their goal of fighting hindering stereotypes and discriminatory attitudes towards migrants makes organisations implementing diversity management more attractive for this group (Anders et al. 2008: 25; Matuko/Heister 2011: 1110). According to the "access-and-legitimacy paradigm" of Thomas and Ely (1996), such organisations are interested in supporting persons with a migration background in utilising their specific competences, which are seen to lie in (Franken/Kowalski 2006: 40; Tzanakakis/Merx 2013: 12):

- language competences / multilingualism
- cultural competences, especially in intercultural contexts
- flexibility, creativity and change of perspective
- intrinsic motivation and determination due to prior experiences of discrimination
- the mobility and resilience of young, single migrants
- the courage, risk-disposition and personal responsibility of those with a personal migration experience

Not all organisations in Germany follow a diversity-approach, however. This limits the options of persons with a migration background to unfold their potential. Two possible coping strategies are seeking empowerment or taking legal measures in cases of discrimination. The latter is made possible in Germany by the AGG. Concerning the former, different options remain. A person with a migration background can seek to become a member of the works council and then use her influence to strengthen the position of minority groups in a company (Anders et al. 2008: 46). In some sectors, labour unions also offer possibilities for engagement in order to strengthen the own position and enforce equal opportunities. If the circumstances are right, persons with a migration background can become company founders themselves. And as a last option they can contribute to the public discourse and the debate on diversity management (Jensen-Dämmrich 2011: 165.180). Their lacking presence in this debate has led to a discrepancy and the

predominant understanding of diversity management as a purely administrative process. Jensen-Dämmrich esteems that without the inclusion of immigrants in the development of diversity management programmes, these programmes will stay out of touch with real life and thus be ineffective (ibid.: 165).

A positive example of how persons with a migration background can further diversity management and increase their own possibilities, is the EQUAL “Competence and Diversity” network that has already been mentioned above (EQUAL Netzwerk “Kompetenz und Vielfalt” 2007; see 4.). As a regional network of more than 20 organisations, EQUAL includes a whole range of societal, corporate and administrative actors, but it is coordinated by the multi-cultural forum in Lünen, a migrant self-organisation. The network’s special aim is to help corporate actors realise the potentials that migrants bring along. Therefore, the activities mainly center around culturally sensitive management consulting on the one hand, and measures of intercultural qualification of employees on the other hand. Via different projects the network offers a wide array of possibilities. These include consultation for both organisations and persons with a migration background, intercultural and diversity trainings, seminars on how to gain access to new markets and groups of customers, and even a monthly radio show. The network helps both enterprises and persons with a migration background to a precisely fitting placement. In an effort to sustain a positive process of placement service, the network works to promote an employer-network. It also includes a project aiming to further the intercultural opening of public administrations. In summary, EQUAL is a network that includes persons with a migration background as equal partners and seeks to utilise their economic potential by offering help to all parties involved.

3.5 Effects of diversity management practices

Many effects of DiM practises have already been mentioned throughout the literature review, especially its desired effects that overlap strongly with the goals of DiM (see chapter 3.2). In contrast, negative or adverse effects of DiM are often neglected due to the general enthusiasm on DiM. That is why we will only focus on those adverse effects in the following paragraphs.

When establishing their paradigms on DiM, Thomas and Ely also described their negative aspects. If DiM is implemented in a “discrimination-and-fairness” perspective, it might lead to a levelling down of all employees, supposing that everyone is absolutely equal, neglecting the different needs and potentials each person carries with her. This can result in the oppression of conflicts instead of finding constructive solutions. Also, expected positive effects such as the enhancement of creativity through different work approaches will not take place if differences are not welcome (Thomas/Ely 1991). On the other hand, DiM measures implemented under the “access-and-legitimacy” paradigm emphasise differences and make use of them. In an extreme case, this can lead to the reduction of persons with a

migration background to their minority status, increased stereotypes (even if they are meant to be positive), reverse or positive discrimination and a limitation of career options for those candidates (Franken/Kowalski 2006: 41f; Kontos/Voswinkel 2010: 223; Tzanakakis/Merx 2013: 12).

As mentioned in chapter 3.1, compliance to moral standards and accountability have become strong motivations for many enterprises to implement DiM measures. However, as Christine Watrinet (2003: 24f.) points out, if an organisation is confronted with too many different expectations, e.g. diversity management, environmental responsibility, corporate social responsibility and sustainability, the measures will not be implemented in a way consistent with the corporate culture of the company, but merely serve as a façade of legitimacy (see also Bruchhagen et al. 2007: 131).

In chapter 3.4.1, we have seen that in many German enterprises, especially in SME, diversity management is lacking institutionalisation. Many companies follow a 'learning-by-doing' approach, in which employees experience intercultural contact through foreign assignments or networking abroad. However, without proper instruction and systematical training, this can lead to the development of reinforced stereotypes and rejection and therefore emphasise existing or even produce new negative effects of diversity (Köppel et al. 2007). What is more, if diversity management is lacking a systematical approach and an able trainer or leader, it can result in the obstruction of work processes. Günther Vedder reports of delayed decision-making, fragile trade-offs and an increase of complexity that can overcharge and confuse teams and thus disturb the work flow (Vedder 2008).

4 Conclusion

By examining the literature on DiM approaches and their implementation in Germany, we could identify certain aspects that are especially relevant for the German national context and interesting as a basis for comparison with the other project countries (Austria, Italy and Spain) as well as international scholarship and experiences. Besides, we were able to identify a number of research gaps, some of which we aim to fill with the results of this research project.

A very general problematic aspect of the research field concerns the actuality of the data. Although a few scientific studies have been conducted among German enterprises in this field, they date from about seven to ten years ago. However, in the last few years, there have been several new societal and organisational initiatives in order to promote and advance DiM. It is thus very probable that the situation has changed and there is a need for actualisation and amplification of scientific data on DiM in Germany.

The few existing studies on the implementation of DiM in Germany have shown that companies tend to approach DiM from a performance-minded perspective and to frame it as

a necessary reaction to demographic change. Diversity is mostly perceived as a 'problem' that needs to be solved. DiM is rather applied in a 'reactive' than an 'active' manner. This implies that DiM is only approached from an organisational perspective. While organisational advantages and barriers of DiM seem to be quite well understood, there are no findings on the individual perspective of employees with a migration background. Although the entire idea of cultural diversity management concerns these persons directly, their point of view is non-existent in the current state of literature. This also reflects the fact that they seem to be underrepresented in the public debate on diversity management, which results in a legitimization problem.

Our research project aims to focus on small and medium-sized organisations. The literature findings confirm the necessity of this priority. While many large companies in Germany, especially those who work in the international sphere, have already implemented DiM and adapted it to their proper needs, SME are just about to discover the concept and seem to need information and support on the subject. This is all the more problematic as SME are the organisations most concerned by skilled worker shortage.

In addition, few or almost no scientific publications exist specifically on diversity management in SME. While there is an array of brochures with best practice examples praising the advantages of DiM for SME published by state institutions and intermediary organisations in order to promote DiM in SME, there is a clear lack of scientific studies and systematic evaluation of these practices.

Experienced and perceived difficulties with DiM that are specifically relevant for SME seem to occur mainly during the recruitment process. They involve the complexity of administrative procedures associated with the recruitment of foreign candidates, very high expectations regarding perfect proficiency of German and discrimination in the recruitment process. However, there is little information on difficulties that appear within an already existing diverse workforce in SME and therefore, there is no basis on which measures to alleviate these difficulties can be developed.

As the existing research literature on DiM in Germany is in general at a very early stage and limited in scope, it mainly revolves around two research foci. One part of the studies treats large and international companies, while the other part is reduced to regional findings, mostly of cities such as Berlin and Hamburg. Thus, there is not only a lack of data on SME, but also on enterprises in other parts of the country. Besides, there has been no differentiation of target groups and the specific practises they are in need for so far. A more differentiated research is necessary in order to better adapt cultural DiM to these different needs. One possible categorisation would be to differentiate between newly immigrated workers, foreign graduates of German universities and second or third generation migrants. Another criterion should be the qualification level of the employee, and finally, we should inquire if there are differences regarding DiM between EU and Non-EU migrants.

5 Literature

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Managing cultural diversity in SMO

Backgroundpaper Germany



Co-funded by
the European Union

This project is co-funded by the European Union