



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS
Leeds University Business School

Globalised Workplaces: Exploring Attitudes towards Cultural Diversity in the
Graduate Workplace

Aditya Jindal

University of Leeds

With Academic Supervisor Maria Hussain

August 19, 2023

Abstract

This literature review delves into the study of cultural diversity within the context of globalized workplaces. With the modern world progressing towards increased interconnectedness and greater integration, workplaces are evolving into multicultural environments. Recognizing the profound significance of cultural diversity, this review explores the attitudes held toward this phenomenon and the value placed on cultural diversity by examining evidence of its social and economic ramifications.

Analysis of existing literature unveils the prevailing perceptions surrounding diversity within graduate workplaces. It scrutinizes the intrinsic value attributed to cultural heterogeneity, shedding light on how such perspectives impact collaborative dynamics, innovation, and creativity. The impact of these factors on overall organizational performance and growth allows for presenting an account detailing the advantageous contributions as well as potential drawbacks.

Following this discussion leads to the consideration of diversity management. The review outlines the need for comprehensive cultural education, training and for organizations to proactively manage cultural diversity, harnessing its potential while mitigating the challenges. The synthesis of evidence-based insights ultimately positions this work as a stepping stone for future explorations, inviting further investigation into the mechanisms through which multicultural workplaces can be optimized for the mutual benefit of individuals, organizations, and society at large.

This research project feeds into a wider LITE project, 'Enhancing the value placed on diversity: from classroom to workplace'.

Introduction

Cultural diversity has been defined as “the representation, in one social system, of people with distinctly different group affiliations of cultural significance” (Cox, 1993). It is seen as the presence of variation in human culture within the same geographical region, where each group has its own distinguishing features (Al-Obaydi, 2019). The diversity may be a result of ethnicity, country of birth, religion, and many other factors (Vertovec 2007), with varying influence on people’s lives. More generally, it refers to a reality of coexistence of diverse knowledge, beliefs, arts, morals, laws, customs, religions, languages, abilities and disabilities, genders, ethnicities, races, nationalities, sexual orientations, etc., of human beings (Lin, 2020). Workplaces that increasingly resemble microcosms of the global community have led to the need to embrace cultural diversity. Its significance can be observed in various aspects of life, from education and healthcare to business and politics, engendering a transformative impact on society as a whole.

Delving deeper into understanding the strengths and weaknesses that diversity brings along with presents a dual narrative. While it is celebrated for its potential to realise novel methods of working, bring creativity and foster inclusivity, it is scrutinized for potential challenges such as communication barriers and conflicting values. Hence, the concept of diversity management emerges as a pivotal theme within this exploration, signifying the delicate equilibrium required to harness the benefits while mitigating the drawbacks of cultural diversity in the workplace.

Moreover, there exists an undeniable need for greater education and awareness surrounding this multifarious subject. This literature review provides an overview of the current knowledge landscape and functions as a

foundational framework for future inquiries that seek to understand the dynamic interplay between cultural diversity, graduate workplaces, and the broader spectrum of society.

Social Impact

Immigrants have been awarded 38% of the Nobel Prizes won by Americans in Chemistry, Medicine and Physics since 2000, as analysed by the National Foundation for American Policy (NFAP). In the same time span, the share of immigrants in the general population of the US has only grown steadily from 10% to a little under 14%. This is thought-provoking as such high-level research in hard sciences is generally organised through teamwork and collaboration.

Cultural diversity can be seen to have both a positive and negative influence on people's lives based on theoretical arguments. It could serve as a positive social amenity leading to greater personal choice and freedom through a variety of services available (Mazzolari and Neumark 2012) and may indicate the presence of a tolerant local population (Florida 2002). However, competition for scarce resources among culturally diverse groups may result in racism and social conflicts (Alesina and La Ferrara 2002; Putnam 2007; Sturgis et al. 2011) and a decrease in trust (Costa and Kahn 2003; Letki 2008).

Cultural diversity allows for building an atmosphere accommodating multiple ideas and perspectives. Scott Page (2007) spoke about each individual possessing an internal language, a unique way of seeing and describing the world different from all others. A perspective can then be thought of as a map from reality to an internal language such that each

distinct object, situation, problem or event gets mapped to a unique word. Herein lies the intrinsic value of diversity, the ability to perceive our universe and communicate about it in different manners. Scientific breakthroughs and business solutions often come from looking at the problem differently. However, bringing together people from diverse backgrounds and harmonising their views to complement each other requires a lot more time and effort. Social dynamics are complex, with people categorising others into in-groups and out-groups and then deriving part of their self-worth from the in-group value; according to self-categorisation theory (Turner, 1982) and social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). There is also the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) where actual and perceived differences lead to reduced interpersonal interaction and attraction, with people feeling uncertain and anxious in a dissimilar social environment (Stephan & Stephan, 1985).

Hence diversity can enhance social cohesion and lead to cultural enrichment. However, it requires overcoming communication barriers and social conflicts as individuals struggle with questions about their own identity and the role of diversity in social interactions. By accepting cultural change society can open up to new perspectives and ways of thinking. This can lead to the birth of hybrid art, music, and dance forms and help different communities work together toward common goals.

Economic Benefits of Cultural Diversity

Theory has both advocated for and against diversity's economic impact. As for the benefits, undertaking production in a range of distinct diversified goods and services adds to a collection of unique desirable amenities that would have been otherwise unrealised and therefore inaccessible to locals,

if not for the foreign element. The novel ideas and abilities that foreigners bring forth could well complement those of natives, enhancing efficiency and boosting production. However, natives may feel uncomfortable at the thought of living in a multicultural environment - with alien third parties encroaching on their cultural territory. Combining it with intercultural frictions and the idea of losing out on workplace opportunities due to international competition could potentially slow down productivity and growth. Thus in principle, there seem to be mixed effects of diversity which call for an evidence-based approach and greater deliberation into the exact economic value derived or perhaps lost at the hands of diversity.

For a long time, empirical literature mainly discussed ethnic and linguistic fractionalization: the probability that two random people selected in a country will fall into separate ethnic or linguistic groups; which depicted negative effects on economic growth in cross-country comparisons (Easterly and Levine 1997; Collier 2001; Alesina et al. 2003, Forthcoming), with the possible exception of select wealthy nations (see Alesina and La Ferrara 2005, for a survey on these issues). Ashraf and Galor (2013a, b) focus on genetic diversity and show that it exhibits an inverse u-shaped relationship with income per capita. So the results seemed to suggest that the negative effects of diversity dominate over potential positives. However, Alesina, Harnoss and Rapoport (2016) published an extensive article detailing that birthplace diversity is largely uncorrelated with ethnic, linguistic or genetic diversity based on empirical testing. Immigrant diversity was then shown to relate positively to measures of economic prosperity such as income per capita. It demonstrated how increasing the diversity of skilled immigration by 1 percentage point led to an increase in long-run economic output by about 2 %. Perhaps the most unique contribution of the paper lies in the idea of production optimisation through cultural distance. The correlation held especially true for skilled

immigrants in richer countries at intermediate levels of cultural proximity. This may suggest a trade-off equilibrium between the communication and social costs of diversity against benefits gained from skill complementarities through native-immigrant pairs.

Exploration into the role of cultural diversity in improving urban diversity by Gianmarco I.P. Ottaviano, Giovanni Peri (2006) was conducted by studying the long-run equilibrium of wages and prices across US cities. The focus on cultural diversity was through nationality and measured by an index of “plurality” of countries of origin. The study of how diversity exerts influence on local production and consumption led to the documentation of a robust correlation: US-born citizens reaped economic benefits in metropolitan areas that saw an increase in the share of foreign-born between 1970 and 1990, with the gains translating through increased wages and rental pricing offered by housing. Even after accounting for endogeneity bias regarding causal effects and spatial selection of native workers - locals more “tolerant” towards multiculturalism are attracted to areas with a higher concentration of diversity, the findings remained consistent with a dominant positive effect of diversity on productivity: a more multicultural urban environment makes US-born citizens more productive. Another study (Wolf and Blien, 2012) investigated the German labour markets and reinforced the idea that cultural diversity benefits native workers through improved productivity.

Research into value creation through diversity also probes deeper questions about addressing exact pathways and mechanisms through which benefit derivation can be recognised. Foreign-born residents naturally possess different skill sets and abilities as compared to their local counterparts, which could serve as beneficial factors in the production of distinctive goods and services. Jacobs (1969) has attributed the economic success and

prosperity of cities to their industrial diversity, looking at cities as a prerequisite for the sustenance of rural economies and further generating growth through the support of the local economy. Quigley (1998) and Glaeser et al. (2001) value heterogeneity and identify the diversity in availability and accessibility of consumption as one of the attractive features of cities. A quality blend of differentiated goods and services has effects on density demand and a positive impact on quality of life. Florida and Gates (2003) advocate for urban inclusiveness and stress that the development of high-tech industries relies on the diversity of creative professionals employed in research. More generally, Fujita et al. (1999) utilised the 'love of variety' in preferences and technology as one of the foundational principles in their theory of spatial development.

The overall view on cultural diversity's economic value seems to be positive. However, the effects are not guaranteed and their magnitude varies on the context. As theory has suggested, evidence of social conflict (Alesina and La Ferrara, 2005), decreased economic growth (Easterly and Levine, 1997) and social trust (Putnam, 2007) has been documented while there are also cases of enhanced innovation (Saxenian, 2002) and growth (Alesina et al., 2013). This leads to the discussion of a potential diversity equilibrium and balancing the productivity gains with the social downsides.

Organisational Performance

With increasing globalisation and evergrowing international pressure, companies have been trying to create diverse, multicultural teams to tackle more complex worldwide problems and gain a competitive edge. The workforce is becoming ever more diverse in all different dimensions such as gender, race, and nationality (Fullerton 1987; Johnston 1991). World

population demographics delineate how none of the traditional industrial powers of the world has adequate fertility rates to replace the current population, thereby driving labour demand from immigrants and underrepresented participant groups. (Cox,1993) For the adaptation and operation of specialised production processes firms may further turn to outsourcing. Faced with these facts, organisations have been focused on creating cross-functional teams to gain a competitive advantage as early as the 1990s.

A diverse workforce unites individuals with unique backgrounds, experiences, and perspectives, fostering a rich pool of ideas and creativity. Research by Nielsen and Nielsen (2013) demonstrated that companies with diverse teams are more likely to introduce new products to the market and exhibit higher levels of innovative activity. Recent studies have also supported the claim that cultural diversity has a positive impact on innovation and creativity, provided the fundamental team dynamics are understood and underlying barriers are addressed and overcome. To derive maximum gains from a diverse team, cross-cultural competence of members is required (Jones et al., 2020). A South African case study (Govender et al., 2017) added how recruitment and retention of diverse workers led to improved employee engagement. By establishing such an inclusive culture, firms can cater to and attract bright talents available in international markets. Guillen et al., (2018) studied Human Resource Management (HRM) practices in Spain and discovered that HR policies and practices oriented towards seeking employee commitment rather than control, are conditioned by diversity such that performance improves when firms have a diverse workforce with respect to age and functional speciality (Sujin, 2005).

Modern problems and organizational challenges continually require multifaceted solutions. In this respect, cultural diversity can contribute to

more effective problem-solving through the promotion of a broader spectrum of approaches. Diverse teams draw insights from their varied cultural contexts, resulting in the formation of comprehensive analyses and strategies. A study by Horwitz and Horwitz (2007) highlighted that diverse teams tend to outperform homogenous teams in complex problem-solving tasks. Employees with diverse language skills and cultural awareness can better understand and navigate the complexities of international business. Adapting to different cultural norms and preferences in this way allows organizations to tailor their products and services to diverse consumer segments. This enables them to formulate business proposals better targeted towards local regions, allowing operations to expand. In a survey conducted by Deloitte (2017), 85% of respondents agreed that diversity is crucial for their organization's success in new and existing markets. A report by McKinsey (2018) revealed that companies with higher gender and ethnic diversity are more likely to outperform their peers in terms of profitability. They followed up these findings with a new report strengthening the case for diversity and inclusion in corporate leadership detailing how with greater representation came a higher likelihood of outperformance (Dixon-Fyle et al., 2020). Such findings show that inclusion and diversity are not mere quotas to fulfil that improve companies' optics. They have instead led to making a strong business case for diversity's role in corporate excellence and outperformance.

Diverse teams can also lead to more robust decision-making processes by encouraging open discussions and critical evaluations. However, effective conflict resolution is essential to manage potential disagreements stemming from cultural differences. The aspect of miscommunication due to cultural differences can hamper such decision-making processes. Hunt (2007) shared how overseas nurses and health professionals were brought

in due to domestic shortages. These workers were exposed to discriminatory practices involving the overuse of complaints and grievances against them. Early survey data reported by Jones (1986) and Fernandez (1981) demonstrates how non-majority group members are much more aware of group identities with many perceiving race to be a hindrance in career progression and promotion. Hence this calls for further research into areas of cultural frictionalities and devising new proposals and techniques to combat and overcome such obstacles. When handled appropriately, these conflicts can lead to better decision outcomes. A study by Jehn et al. (1999) highlighted that task-related conflicts in culturally diverse groups can lead to improved decision quality. Successful interaction across cultures requires cultural intelligence. Such development requires cognitive, affective, and behavioural training (Earley and Ang, 2003). Knowledge integration, suggestion identification, and judgment suspension until information is available can be very helpful in improving interaction in multicultural organisations (Traindis, 2006).

Innovation is a driving force behind organizational growth and competitiveness. By fostering an inclusive environment, organizations utilise the potential of diverse perspectives to drive innovation, improve problem-solving, and enhance employee engagement, pillars of the “Value-in-diversity” philosophy (Cox, Lobel and McLeod 1991; Mandell and Kohler Gray 1990; Marmer-Solomon 1989; Esty 1988; Copeland 1988). Although challenges exist, strategies such as inclusive leadership, effective conflict resolution, and targeted diversity initiatives can help organizations leverage cultural diversity to gain a competitive edge and excel in the complex and interconnected business landscape. For management to realise the most gains, it requires active supervision over maintenance and expansion of their diversity pool along with minimising barriers to optimise performance.

Diversity Management

While the above discussion has revolved around the impact of cultural diversity in economic, social and educational domains along with merit-demerit analysis, the actual realisation of those benefits may still prove to be a challenge. Research on diverse work groups has yielded mixed results. On the one hand, there is evidence associating diversity in work groups with positive outcomes such as enhanced flexibility and creativity (e.g., Earley & Mosakowski, 2000). On the other hand, diversity has also been associated with negative social consequences such as conflict and miscommunication (e.g., Milliken & Martins, 1996; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999), and with less job satisfaction, higher turnover rates, and lower performance (e.g., McKay et al., 2007; Thomas, 1999; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992; cited by Meeussen et al., 2014). Moreover, unconscious bias and discrimination can undermine the advantages of diversity. Communication barriers, stereotypes, and misunderstandings may hinder effective collaboration. Proper intervention through effective diversity management can help overcome these disadvantages. Research by Kalev et al. (2006) emphasized the role of managerial practices in mitigating the negative effects of diversity-related conflicts. Addressing these challenges requires proactive measures such as diversity training and creating a safe space for open dialogue. Leadership development programs that emphasize cross-cultural competencies can prepare leaders to manage diverse teams successfully. A study by House et al. (2004) highlighted the positive correlation between inclusive leadership and organizational performance.

Culturally diverse work groups do not always reach their full potential compared with less diverse groups. A study by Meeusen et al. (2014)

examined value alignment processes among low and high diversity groups reasoning that actual and/or perceived differences between group members could complicate the journey to reach a shared understanding of primary group values and goals for highly culturally diverse groups. Previous research has demonstrated that work group functioning is negatively affected when group members do not share the same values (See Jehn, Northcraft and Neale, 1999). Reaching a shared understanding and consensus of group goals helps effectively allocate time and effort to different project targets. Conducted at a Belgian University, they found high diversity groups performing significantly worse and lacking value convergence when compared to the low diversity groups. So value addition through cultural diversity needs to be balanced against the increasing difficulty for group members to develop shared values (See Jehn, Chadwick, & Thatcher, 1997; Luijters et al., 2008). Since highly diverse groups need to incorporate multiple viewpoints and perspectives, such findings address the issue of management policy, removing barriers to better exploit the potential advantages of cultural diversity in the work context and in society at large.

Training individuals to embrace diversity begins at school. The educational environment provides a learning atmosphere where students can cultivate a deeper understanding and appreciation for different cultures. Such a grounded approach could ultimately contribute to a more inclusive and harmonious work setting. According to a study conducted by the American Psychological Association (APA, 2018), exposing students to diverse cultures during the formative years of learning improves cognitive flexibility and empathy, vital traits for effective collaboration and peaceful conflict resolution in professional settings. Educational institutions that embrace multiculturalism through curricular and extracurricular activities enable students to engage with various perspectives, fostering open-mindedness and reducing prejudice.

The potential for international students to reshape educational content and delivery indicates the need for cultural diversity training that enhances intercultural communication for all stakeholders (e.g. Bennett, 2004; Lo Bianco, Liddicoat, & Crozet, 1999; Ward, 2001). Salvadori (1997) shares how the attainment of multicultural education relies on the birth of a hybrid culture originating through the shared values of both parent cultures and its adaptation by classroom students and faculty (pp. 187–188). Similarly, Cadman (2000) suggests that for intercultural education to be truly effective at its deepest level it needs to involve facilitating a meld of classroom cultures. Furthermore, research published in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* (Harrison et al., 2020) emphasises how celebration of cultural diversity in educational experiences fosters a sense of belonging and psychological safety. Students who feel valued for their unique backgrounds are more likely to exhibit a positive attitude towards differences in the workplace, thereby contributing to a healthier organizational culture.

So integrating cultural diversity into education helps develop the skills students require to navigate differences effectively. With appropriate training, remodelling curriculums and accommodating cultures through a blend of diverse values, students can be better prepared to face differences in professional work environments. When coupled with inclusive leadership and appropriate HR practices, this can further boost cultural intelligence in organisations. Developing traits like cognitive flexibility, empathy, and promoting a sense of belonging, will allow future professionals to embrace diversity and participate in inclusive workplaces. There is further scope of research on how firms balance the diminishing social costs and capitalise on diversity benefits for group success.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this literature review serves as a lens to look at the current landscape of discussion around cultural diversity and its perceived value in graduate workplaces. Its study is crucial to understanding how it allows for harmonizing a myriad of unique perspectives, thereby enriching problem-solving, creativity, innovation, and decision-making processes. In the workplace, diversity fosters inclusivity and bolsters employee satisfaction. However, the road to realisation is not without obstacles - communication barriers, intercultural frictions, and a potential loss of individual identity necessitate thoughtful consideration. Moreover, addressing discrimination and prejudice is paramount. This underscores the perpetual need for effective diversity management, with roots in educational institutions that span to corporate entities, as we strive to build towards more egalitarian and inclusive societies.

The study of cultural diversity goes beyond mere definition; embodying a profound relevance extending across diverse environments and contexts. As we've seen, it is not a one-size-fits-all concept but rather a multifaceted gem like a diamond. Characteristic of their scarcity value, diamonds require careful polishing and refining to reveal their true brilliance. Similarly, multicultural teams demand astute attention and careful management which allows them to bring out the best in people. The journey so far has been underpinned by a significant shift in diversity management policies. Initially designed to combat discriminatory practices, they have now evolved to encompass a broader perspective, recognising diversity as an asset with inherent value (Lauring and Colin, 2004). In this contemporary landscape, perhaps now there is a need for further redefining the value of diversity within workplaces, where it serves not only as a moral imperative but also as a catalyst in enhancing competence and driving overall

organisational growth, ultimately leading to a more inclusive and prosperous society.

Reference list

Al-Obaydi, L.H. (2019). Cultural Diversity, Awareness and Teaching : A Study in an EFL Context. *The Journal of AsiaTEFL*, 16(3), pp.987–995.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2019.16.3.15.987>.

Alesina, A., Harnoss, J. and Rapoport, H. (2016). Birthplace diversity and economic prosperity. *Journal of Economic Growth*, 21(2), pp.101–138.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10887-016-9127-6>.

Alesina, A. and La Ferrara, E. (2002). Who trusts others? *Journal of Public Economics*, 85(2), pp.207–234. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1016/s0047-2727\(01\)00084-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0047-2727(01)00084-6).

Alesina, A., Michalopoulos, S. and Papaioannou, E. (2016). Ethnic Inequality. *Journal of Political Economy*, 124(2), pp.428–488. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1086/685300>.

Ashraf, Q. and Galor, O. (2013). Genetic Diversity and the Origins of Cultural Fragmentation. *American Economic Review*, 103(3), pp.528–533.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.103.3.528>.

Baltagi, B.H., Blien, U. and Wolf, K. (2012). A dynamic spatial panel data approach to the German wage curve. *Economic Modelling*, 29(1), pp.12–21.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2010.08.019>.

Berger, F., Fulford, M.D. and Krazmien, M. (1993). Human Resources Management in the 21St Century: Predicting Partnerships for Profit. *Hospitality Research Journal*, [online] 17(1), pp.87–102. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/109634809301700108>.

Byrne, D.E. and Internet Archive (1971). *The Attraction Paradigm*. [online] *Internet Archive*. New York, Academic Press. Available at:

<https://archive.org/details/attractionparadi0000byrn/page/n9/mode/2up>.

Choi, I., Nisbett, R.E. and Norenzayan, A. (1999). Causal attribution across cultures: Variation and universality. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(1), pp.47–63.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.1.47>.

Collier, P., Honohan, P. and Moene, K.O. (2001). Implications of Ethnic Diversity. *Economic Policy*, [online] 16(32), pp.129–166. Available at: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/3601036>.

Costa, D.L. and Kahn, M.E. (2003). Civic Engagement and Community Heterogeneity: An Economist's Perspective. *Perspective on Politics*, 1(1), pp.103–111.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1017/s1537592703000082>.

Deakins, E. (2009). Helping students value cultural diversity through research-based teaching. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 28(2), pp.209–226.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360902725074>.

Dixon-Fyle, S., Dolan, K., Hunt, V. and Prince, S. (2020). *Diversity wins: How inclusion matters*. [online] McKinsey & Company. Available at:
<https://www.mckinsey.com/featured-insights/diversity-and-inclusion/diversity-wins-how-inclusion-matters>.

Earley, P.C. and Mosakowski, E. (2000). Creating Hybrid Team Cultures: An Empirical Test of Transnational Team Functioning. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(1), pp.26–49.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.2307/1556384>.

Easterly, W. and Levine, R. (1997). Africa's Growth Tragedy: Policies and Ethnic Divisions. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, [online] 112(4), pp.1203–1250. Available at:
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/2951270>.

Essawi, M. and Oleg Tilchin (2013). A Constructive Confrontation Approach to Managing Organizational Culture. *Journal of Business and Management Sciences*, [online] 1(4), pp.71–76. doi:<https://doi.org/10.12691/jbms-1-4-5>.

Florida, R. (2003). Cities and the Creative Class. *City and Community*, 2(1), pp.3–19.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-6040.00034>.

Florida, R. (2014). *The Rise of the Creative Class--Revisited: Revised and Expanded*. [online] *Google Books*. Basic Books. Available at:
<https://books.google.co.in/books?id=9d44DgAAQBAJ&printsec=frontcover#v=onepage&q&f=false>.

- Fujita, M., Krugman, P. and Venables, A.J. (1999). *The Spatial Economy*. [online] The MIT Press. doi:<https://doi.org/10.7551/mitpress/6389.001.0001>.
- Fullerton, S. and Coiner, R. (1987). University/community action: An innovative approach to community contracting. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 15(3), pp.408–416. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6629\(198707\)15:3%3C408::aid-jcop2290150314%3E3.0.co;2-8](https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6629(198707)15:3%3C408::aid-jcop2290150314%3E3.0.co;2-8).
- Glaeser, E.L., Kolko, J. and Saiz, A. (2000). Consumer City. *SSRN Electronic Journal*, [online] 1(1). doi:<https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.237462>.
- Govender, P., Mpanza, D.M., Carey, T., Jiyane, K., Andrews, B. and Mashele, S. (2017). Exploring Cultural Competence amongst OT Students. *Occupational Therapy International*, 2017, pp.1–8. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/2179781>.
- Harrison, D.A., Price, K.H., Gavin, J.H. and Florey, A.T. (2002). Time, Teams, and Task Performance: Changing Effects of Surface- and Deep-Level Diversity on Group Functioning. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(5), pp.1029–1045. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5465/3069328>.
- Harrison, N., Baker, Z. and Stevenson, J. (2020). Employment and further study outcomes for care-experienced graduates in the UK. *Higher Education*, 83. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-020-00660-w>.
- Horwitz, S.K. (2005). The Compositional Impact of Team Diversity on Performance: Theoretical Considerations. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4(2), pp.219–245. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484305275847>.
- Horwitz, S.K. and Horwitz, I.B. (2007). The Effects of Team Diversity on Team Outcomes: A Meta-Analytic Review of Team Demography. *Journal of Management*, 33(6), pp.987–1015. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307308587>.
- Hostager, T.J. and De Meuse, K.P. (2002). Assessing the Complexity of Diversity Perceptions: Breadth, Depth, and Balance. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, [online] 17(2), pp.189–206. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1019681314837>.

Hunt, B. (2007). Managing equality and cultural diversity in the health workforce. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 16(12), pp.2252–2259.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2702.2007.02157.x>.

Ikeda, S. (2020). The Economy of Cities: Jane Jacobs's Overlooked Economic Classic. *The Independent Review*, [online] 24(4), pp.605–618. Available at:

<https://www.jstor.org/stable/48583526>.

Jehn, K.A., Chadwick, C. and Thatcher, S.M.B. (1997). To Agree or Not To Agree: The Effects of Value Congruence, Individual Demographic Dissimilarity, and Conflict on Workgroup Outcomes. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 8(4), pp.287–305.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/eb022799>.

Jehn, K.A., Northcraft, G.B. and Neale, M.A. (1999). Why Differences Make a Difference: A Field Study of Diversity, Conflict, and Performance in Workgroups. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, [online] 44(4), pp.741–763. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2307/2667054>.

Johnston, R. and Holligan, C. (1991). Reading Difficulties and Learning to Read: Insights from Academic Research. *Literacy*, 25(1), pp.2–4.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9345.1991.tb00014.x>.

Jones, G., Chirino Chace, B. and Wright, J. (2020). Cultural diversity drives innovation: empowering teams for success. *International Journal of Innovation Science*, [online] 12(3), pp.323–343. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/ijis-04-2020-0042>.

Kalev, A., Kelly, E. and Dobbin, F. (2006). Best Practices or Best Guesses? Assessing the Efficacy of Corporate Affirmative Action and Diversity Policies. *American Sociological Review*, [online] 71(4), pp.589–617. Available at: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/30039011>.

Letki, N. (2008). Does Diversity Erode Social Cohesion? Social Capital and Race in British Neighbourhoods. *Political Studies*, 56(1), pp.99–126.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9248.2007.00692.x>.

Lin, C. (2019). Understanding Cultural Diversity and Diverse Identities. *Encyclopedia of the UN Sustainable Development Goals*, [online] 1(1), pp.1–10.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-69902-8_37-1.

- Longhi, S. (2014). Cultural diversity and subjective well-being. *IZA Journal of Migration*, 3(1), p.13. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1186/2193-9039-3-13>.
- Luijters, K., van der Zee, K.I. and Otten, S. (2008). Cultural diversity in organizations: Enhancing identification by valuing differences. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 32(2), pp.154–163. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2007.09.003>.
- Mazzolari, F. and Neumark, D. (2011). Immigration and product diversity. *Journal of Population Economics*, [online] 25(3), pp.1107–1137. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00148-011-0355-y>.
- McKay, P.F., Avery, D.R., Tonidandel, S., Morris, M.A., Hernandez, M. and Hebl, M.R. (2007). Racial Differences In Employee Retention: Are Diversity Climate Perceptions the Key? *Personnel Psychology*, [online] 60(1), pp.35–62. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00064.x>.
- Meeussen, L., Schaafsma, J. and Phalet, K. (2014). When values (do not) converge: Cultural diversity and value convergence in work groups. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 44(6), pp.521–528. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2031>.
- Milliken, F.J. and Martins, L.L. (1996). Searching for Common Threads: Understanding the Multiple Effects of Diversity in Organizational Groups. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(2), pp.402–433. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1996.9605060217>.
- Nielsen, B.B. and Nielsen, S. (2013). Top Management Team Nationality Diversity and Firm Performance: A Multilevel Study. *Strategic Management Journal*, [online] 34(3), pp.373–382. Available at: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/23362662>.
- Ottaviano, G.I.P. and Peri, G. (2012). Rethinking the Effect of Immigration on Wages. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, [online] 10(1), pp.152–197. Available at: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41426727> [Accessed 9 Oct. 2021].
- Page, S. (2007). *The Difference: How the Power of Diversity Creates Better Groups, Firms, Schools, and Societies (New Edition)*. [online] JSTOR. Princeton University Press. Available at: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt7sp9c>.

Putnam, R.D. (2007). E Pluribus Unum: Diversity and Community in the Twenty-first Century The 2006 Johan Skytte Prize Lecture. *Scandinavian Political Studies*, [online] 30(2), pp.137–174. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9477.2007.00176.x>.

Quigley, J.M. (1998). Urban Diversity and Economic Growth. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 12(2), pp.127–138. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1257/jep.12.2.127>.

Ross, C. and Luring, J. (2004). Research Notes: Cultural Diversity and Organisational Efficiency. *New Zealand Journal of Employment Relations*, [online] 29(1), pp.89–103. Available at: <https://www.nzjournal.org/nzjerfeb04291.pdf>.

Stanford University Press (2019). *Cultural Intelligence: Individual Interactions Across Cultures* | P. Christopher Earley and Soon Ang. [online] Sup.org. Available at: <https://www.sup.org/books/title/?id=3184>.

Stephan, W.G. and Stephan, C.W. (1985). Intergroup Anxiety. *Journal of Social Issues*, 41(3), pp.157–175. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.1985.tb01134.x>.

Tajfel, H. and Turner, J.C. (2010). *Tajfel & Turner Psych of Intergroup Relations CH1 Social Identity Theory*. [online] Available at: http://web.mit.edu/curhan/www/docs/Articles/15341_Readings/Intergroup_Conflict/Tajfel_&_Turner_Psych_of_Intergroup_Relations_CH1_Social_Identity_Theory.pdf.

Thomas, D.C. (1999). Cultural Diversity and Work Group Effectiveness. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 30(2), pp.242–263. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022199030002006>.

Triandis, H.C. (2006). Cultural Intelligence in Organizations. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(1), pp.20–26. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601105275253>.

Triguero-Sánchez, R., Peña-Vinces, J. and Guillen, J. (2018). How to improve firm performance through employee diversity and organisational culture. *Review of Business Management*, 20(3), pp.378–400. doi:<https://doi.org/10.7819/rbgn.v20i3.3303>.

Tsui, A.S., Egan, T. and O'Reilly, C. (1991). Being Different: Relational Demography and Organisational Attachment. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1991(1), pp.183–187. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5465/ambpp.1991.4976867>.