Diversity in the higher education work community.
Diversity in the higher education work community:
A comparative study between two European universities
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ABSTRACT

This study compares the perceived diversity climate in two universities; the University of Tampere and the University of Zurich. Main emphasis is on gender, age and race & ethnicity as they are some of the most readily detectable and common diversifying characteristics on almost any workplace. Yet, discussion over the equality of these groups, and many others, has not ceased or lost its relevance. The study will also explore the connections between diversity climate, inclusiveness and commitment.

The data was collected with an e-questionnaire that includes some open questions. Three language options were made available (Finnish, German and English) and finally analyzed quantitatively with IBM SPSS Statistics 19. The questionnaire targets the main themes of the study and asks specifically about gender, age, cultural equality, general diversity equality, work equality, inclusiveness as well as commitment. It was sent to 1048 people in Tampere, of which 175 answered and 3769 people in Zurich, of which 215 responded. The faculties/schools match to the degree possible in an international comparison.

The study reveals that the two universities do differ in some of the equality aspects though mostly they are similar. The University of Zurich differed statistically significantly from the University of Tampere in cultural and work related equality; the University of Zurich perceived equality in these two cases higher than the University of Tampere. In further investigation, it was discovered that this was due to some of the schools in Tampere receiving a low score compared to some others. In other equality aspects, the universities did not differ in great detail from each other though different emphasizes could be discerned. The link between inclusiveness and diversity equality was also found to be strong. Whereas, diversity equality did not have a great effect on affective commitment, still it was statistically significant.

The issue of diversity and related equality is relevant in the European context as we experience vast demographic changes and ever-expanding mobility. This study gives an overview of the issues prevalent in two national contexts and shows possible areas for improvement through comparison.

Keywords: Diversity Climate, Higher Education, Work Community, Equality, Inclusiveness, Commitment

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1. INTRODUCTION

Globalisation¹ and internationalisation have had a great effect on the reality of organizations in the last decades and thus also diversity issues have become increasingly important. When one thinks about equality and diversity related issues, it is usually gender equality that first springs to mind, though perspectives have vastly expanded. Some other diversity related characteristics have become equally important; age, ethnicity, disability and sexual orientation to name but a few. Therefore, the importance of good diversity management has gained momentum especially in the new millennium. The Diversity Charter is a good example of the growing awareness and of the significance of furthering diversity and equality in the workforce. Funded partly by the European Union, the charter seeks to make diversity known in organizations and to encourage them to invest in diversity supporting initiatives. France was the first country to initiate the project in 2004; since then seven others have joined in and new projects are being planned. Finland initiated a Diversity Charter project early 2012. (FiBS 2012.)

This study will begin with a conception of diversity and its relevance in the organizational context and move on to a more detailed account of some of the aspects. Figure 1 on page 9 will further demonstrate the links between different theoretical aspects that have been used. The views of Michàlle E. Mor Barak (2011) on diversity issues in the 21st century as well as her ideas about inclusivity in the workplace have had a significant influence, thus combining the concepts of diversity and inclusivity. Annaliisa Colliander, Isto Ruoppila and Leena-Kaisa Härkönen's (2009) work and views on diversity issues and diversity management have also greatly influenced the theory part. The section about organisational commitment, in turn, follows John P. Meyer and Lynne Herscovitch's (2001) conceptions of the issue. The University of Tampere and the Finnish system of higher education in general (policy etc.) will be at the forefront and serve as an example in many cases.

Diversity, like culture, is understood to be a complicated concept, with an almost infinite amount of variation in it. One can move from one level to the next, from concrete to abstract and from visible to invisible; that is essentially what makes the phenomenon an interesting research topic. This particular study follows that understanding, though only some of the more visible aspects of

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¹ Globalization is a complex concept that can be perceived from different angles (technological, economical, ecological etc.). In this research it is understood to refer to all the possible aspects of the term and is seen as a general trend in the world that affects people in different ways.

diversity are discussed in detail; mainly gender, age and ethnicity and race. The unit of analysis in organizational climate research has usually been either the work group or the organization in general. Generally, researchers have calculated a climate score for an organization or a specific group; this score is indicative of climate relating to a certain specific area like safety or diversity. Climate is indicative of patterns of behaviour while culture shines a light on the shared values, beliefs and norms in an organization; climate can thus be called a surface structure of organization. (Patterson et al. 2005, 380-381.) Since climate is indicative of perception, it suits the purpose of this research better than organizational culture would. The principal aim is to discover whether employees' perceptions differ in diverse groups, and to assess the overall diversity climate in two institutions of higher education.

The three aspects of diversity (gender, age, ethnicity and race) were chosen as the focus of the study based on previous literature (Mor Barak 2011, Colliander et al. 2009) and because they are easily the most common visible aspects of diversity in most work groups. Moreover, however popular these topics might be, they are still relevant; a fact that can easily be forgotten as new focuses surface. The data was collected from employees of higher education organizations because of the nature of work in a university setting. Institutions of higher education are often seen as places that are beyond and above such issues, yet they are not isolated from the overall society; their employees, just like everyone else, are similarly influenced by their environment. I chose the previously mentioned three diversity dimensions to focus on, but will not ignore other diversity factors in the analysis if they appear. Diversity management and its' relevance for the diversity climate will also be discussed, concentrating mainly on what makes diversity management functional and meaningful. Lastly, I will take a look at the level of commitment that the employees of higher education experience in relation to the organization, keeping the diversity aspect in mind.

The data was collected with a structured questionnaire using pre-existing and proven scales and questionnaires with two open questions to offer respondents a chance to give a more detailed description of some of the diversity related issues. The questionnaires that were used were Mor Barak's (2010) inclusion-exclusion scale, the OTM-scale (Colliander et al. 2009) and Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) organizational commitment scale. The data was collected from two universities, the University of Tampere and the University of Zurich in order to make transnational comparison possible. There are many similarities between these two European welfare countries, but some differences were assumed and thought to emerge. Finland is a Nordic country with a

reputation of being fairly advanced in some aspects of equality (gender in particular) but still certainly not as multicultural as Switzerland.

The results were analysed with IBM SPSS Statistics 19, mostly with the help of multivariate analysis, especially analysis of variance and linear regression. The data was then divided into sum variables according to the phenomena under study. Background variables were used, in order to find out what characteristics had an effect on the different diversity factors as well as inclusion and commitment. The comparative perspective serves as the backbone of the study.

The main results are introduced at the end of the study. Some results concerned both countries equally. For example, it was clear that the perceived diversity equality had an effect on the level of inclusion in the organization. The schools in Tampere seemed to differ statistically significantly in some of the equality aspects while such differences could not be discerned between faculties in Zurich. However, all in all the country groups were fairly similar with some differences in emphasis. The countries only really differed in two of the sum variables, the perceived cultural equality and work equality. In both cases, the mean score in work and cultural equality was statistically significantly higher in Zurich.

2. DIVERSITY, CLIMATE AND DIVERSITY CLIMATE

The next subchapters explore some of the central themes and "umbrella terms" in this research and aim at a fair and accurate conceptualization of those terms, advancing from the general to the particular. Furthermore, it will explain how these terms relate to the study in question. It will also introduce the links and connections in which the theory section is based on (figure 1).

2.1 Diversity – an overview

There are different perceptions of the concept of diversity and lot of different emotions can be attached to it. In simplistic terms it refers to group variation. However, it can be difficult to determine the kind of variation that is implied exactly; the concept can after all be understood very broadly, very specifically and everything in between. In broad terms, five groups are often mentioned in work and diversity related literature: gender, age, sexual orientation, disability and ethnic and racial diversity (Mor Barak 2010). These are, for the most part, outwardly obvious

characteristics. One can argue that diversity is a more complex, layered concept than that. Susan E. Jackson, Karen E. May and Kristina Whitney make a distinction between readily detectable and less-visible diversity. Readily detectable diversity includes recognizable characteristics such as ethnicity, gender and age whereas educational, functional and socio-emotional background as well as technical abilities, personality characteristics and one's values are not so straightforwardly perceptible. Moreover, underlying attributes are usually subject to change unlike readily detectible attributes. Indeed, it is good to remember that diversity does not exist at an individual level of analysis. Nevertheless, individual characteristics are included as aspects of the whole and together they comprise this complex phenomenon. Individual attributes do after all reflect the content of diversity in a team, department or an organization for example. (Jackson et al. 1995, 217-218.)

Frances J. Milliken and Luis L. Martins point out that the reason a distinction is made between a readily detectable and less-visible diversity is that readily detectable diversity characteristics are rather evident and as such provoke prejudiced and stereotypical responses more easily that the ones that are not visible. These two categories are, however, not mutually exclusive and can in some cases be associated with each other. Although it is common to be aware of diversity in the readily observable sense like age or gender, the chief reason why diversity is such a complex issue for group dynamics are the differences in perspectives, values and beliefs with which the observable characteristics are correlated. (Milliken & Martins 1996, 404.) Individual traits and outward characteristics mould and shape people in numerous different ways. Some are more visible than others, some more changeable than others, but all such characteristics have an effect in the functionality of a group. According to Elsie Y. Cross (2000, 4), diversity and its management entail dealing with different forms of discrimination. Organizations must anticipate oppression so that those problems and tensions can be solved. Likewise, Colliander, Ruoppila and Härkönen (2009, 300) state that good diversity management requires good conflict management and vice versa. Many managers have internalized stereotypes² about visible diversity characteristics. These stereotypes are incorporated into the make-up of the society at large and so they become part of the organization as well. (Cross 2000, 2.) When prejudiced views are not recognised, they cannot be dealt with, which can lead to conflict and a poor diversity climate. Therefore, offering education and knowledge on diversity, prejudice, values and customs can help better diversity management. In

² Following Hamilton & Sherman (1994, 2-5) stereotype is understood to mean the cognitive structures people use to distinguish groups of people (not individuals) based on certain attributes and thus forming certain expectations about them.

so doing, the organisation provides a space for difference and may encourage innovation and wellbeing. (Colliander et al 2010.)

Diversity is an issue that has gained a lot of attention in recent years, mostly due to globalisation, but also because of demographic changes in Europe and North-America; more attention has been paid to equal rights issues between groups. Mor Barak mentions the increase in women's independent labour migration in the last decades (albeit women usually end up working in traditionally female-dominated industries) as a particularly noteworthy development. In fact, the increase of women in the labour market might still be one of the most important components of diversity at a national level. In addition to women, modern medicine extends people's lives, so that there are generally more people with physical disabilities as well as older people that are capable of work. These groups benefit, along with the state, from the greater monetary reimbursement that employment brings them. Last but certainly not least, strong economy and the technology industry's boom have produced a multicultural, multinational workforce in the developed countries since the 1990s. After that, global legislative trends have coaxed many countries into creating national policies that forbid discrimination against groups of people that have been discriminated against in the past; including in the workplace. Consecutively, minority groups can actually sometimes have a competitive advantage when seeking employment. (Mor Barak 2010, 4-5, 103-104.)

Disregarding these developmental trends towards a more diverse workforce may have dire consequences to organizations. It could for instance lead to intra-organizational conflict, government sanctions, loss of investors and the tarnishing of the company's image, to name a few possible outcomes. Moreover, discrimination against certain groups (that may vary from country to country) seems to transcend national boundaries. Many countries continue to struggle with it; nevertheless, the development has been towards a more heterogeneous workforce. While these new developments can create serious problems for organizations, they can also be an advantage if properly managed. (Mor Barak 2010, 5-6.) Moreover, there are many characteristics that can be discerned as excluding. In addition to the ones already mentioned, language and religion, for example, can define group memberships as cultures regulate the context of social exchange and reward distribution (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). It can therefore be hard to determine exactly what characteristics (outward or otherwise) effect the diversity climate most in any community at any given point in time.

Mor Barak draws attention to the different research traditions in the field of inclusion and diversity in the workforce. The subject has mainly been studied in Europe and in the United States but the premise for research differs greatly between the continents. In the United States, the need for research has stemmed from the historical experience as an immigrant country, whereas Europe has been comparatively homogenous and research in the area is the result of fairly recent changes and challenges brought on by the social and emotional difficulties of integration. (Mor Barak 2010, 6-7.) Indeed, it seems diversity has become a popular topic in the European context. There seems to be a common belief that diversity is not only inevitable, but can lead to better productivity, innovation, and a better organizational image. The official stance might be supportive of diversity, but the reality does not necessarily support that view; the individual attitudes within organizations are only revealed in comprehensive research.

2.2 The concept of organizational climate

There are two general approaches to organizational climate; the cognitive schema approach and the shared perception approach. The former focuses on employee's cognitive schema of their work environment, thus putting the focus on the individual. The latter on the other hand, is connected to the shared perception of the group. The two approaches are not completely exclusive and elements of both will be presented here though the main focus is on the shared perception approach. (Anderson & West 1998, 236.) In the shared perception approach climate tells us of the manner in which things are done in an organization. More accurately, it consists of the informal and formal policies, practices and procedures of an organization. Furthermore, it is a moral concept that reveals the appropriate goal attainment procedures of the organization as well as the appropriate goals. It can also have a specific referent, like diversity (climate) or safety (climate). The definitions and examinations of climate are very similar to those of organizational culture as both are defined as something that is simply present in the organisational setting, thus making climate and culture closely related concepts. (Reichers & Schneider 1990, 23.) However, climate concentrates more on the members' perceptions of how things are than in the meaning of things, though there is a meaning that is implied in the perception (Bruner 1964, 2; Reichers & Schneider 1990, 23). Climate is therefore a manifestation of culture, culture being more of an unconsciously held set of meanings, at least when the concepts are understood in a strict sense. When the phenomena are viewed more broadly, the concepts overlap a great deal. Especially, when they are in a process with each other, one influencing the other in an endless cycle. (Reichers & Schneider 1990, 24.)

Lawrence R. James, Lois A. James and Donna K. Ashe present another perspective on the matter; in their view climate is greatly influenced by personal values and so the level of analysis has no effect on the perception of climate whereas culture is collective and is created by system values. Climate takes individual differences in perception into account while culture is something that exists in the collective only. Culture is essentially something that a person can either commit to or not, while the concern of climate is the personal orientation of individuals. James et al. refer to Martin and Siehl (1983) when they state that variations in meaning that are attributed to the same environmental characteristic, may be a sign of a lack of a collective culture, or the existence of sub- and counter cultures. Therefore, when researching phenomenological experiences, we need to be sensitive to similarities and variations in personal experience. Moreover, psychological climate is an experience that is influenced by the contextual and social realities like culture. (James, James & Ashe 1990, 41, 46-48, 77-78.) In organizations, climate refers to the meaningful interpretations that individuals have of their work environment, these interpretations can vary between employees (Kopelman, Brief & Guzzo 1990, 290). Depending on the viewpoint, there is a varying amount of similarities between the concepts of climate and culture. In this research, (diversity) climate is viewed as a concept that is similar to culture and thus deals with "the way things are done around here". Climate is something that exists in the organisation in the same sense as culture though people's perception on it can vary to a degree. As Joyce and Slocum (1984) state, there are multiple climates in an organization as groups of people share common perceptions (Reichers & Schneider 1990, 23).

Work environments are not generally described as psychologically orderly; similarly the members of an organization, the employees, should be regarded as active perceivers and participants in the interpretation of that environment. The importance of certain actions is implied by the perceived climate through rewards, support and expectations that are essentially embedded in official policies, practices and procedures. Organizational climate is not the work environment, nor is it the mere perception of the work environment, but "the medium through which the effects of the environment on attitudes and behaviour pass". (Kopelman et al. 1990, 294-295.) Thus we can assume that diverse groups might have different perceptions of the organizational climate.

As the shared perception approach suggests, climate is expected to be widely shared in a single organization because of the mutual policies and practises at work; it can also be multidimensional. Richard E. Kopelman, Arthur P. Brief and Richard A. Guzzo list five dimensions drawing on prior conceptualisations: goal emphasis, the level of perceived emphasis on the types of outcomes employees should accomplice; means emphasis, the perceived level of emphasis on certain

expected methods; reward orientation, how the rewards are perceived to be distributed due to performance; task support, the extent to which the employees feel they are given resources to perform their work and last but not least socioemotional support, the perceived level of support and caring from the management. (Kopelman et al. 1990, 296.) In the case of diversity climate, the emphasis is on how well and to what extent the organization supports diversity through policy, practice and procedures. Moreover, following the conceptualisation of organizational climate above, it can be deduced that if an organization's employees perceive the climate to be unsupportive of diversity, one of the five dimensions of climate is perceived to be inadequate.

2.3 Diversity Climate

Diversity climate effects the whole organization, as well as some of its stakeholders. Organization's diversity climate may for example "spill over" to customer service when the shared sense of internal diversity management modifies the employees' views so that the internal relations have a direct effect on the external relations. (Chen, Liu & Portnoy 2012, 97.) Hence, diversity management (or lack thereof) has an effect on the customers as well. Following the logic above, diversity climate and diversity management can have far-reaching ramifications beyond the organization and the issue should not be disregarded as something that only pertains to inner relations.

Organizational climate influences employee motivation and job satisfaction (Sacher 2010, 4). Additionally, of all five climate dimensions, socioemotional support might affect satisfaction and work motivation most clearly because the personal feelings and needs of employees are an apparent concern in this particular dimension (Kopelman et al. 1990, 304). Indeed, Paul J. Andrisani discovered in his study of women's job satisfaction that black women who were highly satisfied in their work, stated that interpersonal relationships were of great importance to them. However, the same was not true for white women. (Andrisani 1978, 595-598.) This might be an indication of the existence of subcultures; it might also say something about the diversity climate in the organisation. The aim of this research is not to find subcultures as such but to discover whether there is variation in the perception of different presupposed groups in how individual difference and needs are taken into account. Diversity climate refers to the employees' perception of the level of diversity that the organisation promotes with its policy, practise and procedures. By studying said climate, we can potentially observe whether the current diversity management practises are sufficient.

Some groups seem to be more satisfied with the status quo than others. In their research, Ellen Ernst Kossek and Susan C. Zonia discovered that white employees were most likely to think that their organization's diversity climate was sufficient and be opposed to change. Conversely, ethnic minorities were most likely to support organization's diversity efforts. Between men and women, white women were more likely to believe cultural minorities were given less departmental resources. Overall, the more women and ethnic minorities in the workplace the more favourably efforts to promote diversity were valued regardless of gender, race etc. Furthermore, one of the reasons for the discrepancy between white people and other ethnicities was that white employees were more individualistically oriented in their views and values while other ethnicities were more collectivistic in their thinking (about individualism/collectivism see Hofstede 1995). As diversity efforts are usually based on collectivistic ideas, this conclusion seems sensible. It is not surprising that the ruling group (usually white heterosexual men) is satisfied with how things stand if the current order supports them first and foremost; however Kossek and Zonia concluded that white women and men did not differ significantly in most of the aspects under study. (Kossek & Zonia 1994, 326-330.)

According to Christopher P. Parker et al. (2003), psychological climate, defined as individual perceptions of the work environment, has a significant connection to attitudes, motivation and performance in the workplace. This, along with the other theories introduced above, is one of the key concepts of Figure 1. It illustrates the role of (organizational) culture, (organizational) climate, diversity climate, management, commitment, motivation and job satisfaction and their interrelationships in a clearer manner.

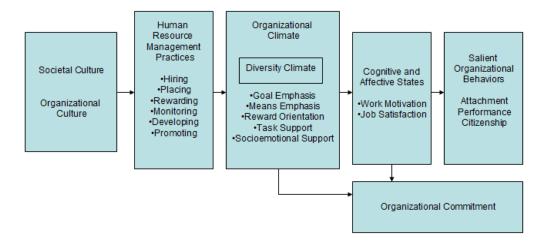


Figure 1. A Model of Culture and Diversity Climate and their effects on work motivation and job satisfaction. ((Modified from the Richard E. Kopelman, Arthur P. Brief and Richard A. Guzzo's "A Model of Climate, Culture, and Productivity" 1990, 289) with alterations based on more recent research, mainly Parker et. al (2003) and Deborah Hicks-Clarke & Paul Iles (2000), and the ideas represented by Mor Barak (2011), Colliander et al. (2009) and Meyer and Herscovitch (2001))

Kopelman, Brief and Guzzo state that though there are similarities in organizational cultures beyond the cultural contexts, different societal cultures produce unique sets of influence. Principally, societal culture influences the human resource practises of an organization more than organizational culture. Consequently, the human resource practises within a society should have some similarities; more so than the human resource practises between societies. (Kopelman et al. 1990, 288-290.) Thus we can presume that in a comparative study between organizations that exist in different cultural contexts, the societal culture will impact the results as the norms, attitudes and values of the cultures differ beyond the organization. Such an arrangement creates an excellent opportunity to learn from one another and it should not be forgotten in the analysis.

Human resource practises are important when determining organizational climate. The construction of climate entails common environmental conditions, even though the interpretations are to an extent unique to individuals. As previously mentioned, climate is the result of people's interpretations of their work environment. Human resource management practises can change organizational climate in a positive way which in turn can have an encouraging effect on productivity, employee performance and the level of attachment and commitment to the organization. (Kopelman et al. 1990, 290-291.) In this case we concentrate on the way that institutions of higher education treat employees and how the written and unwritten rules of the organization affect the diversity climate. The workforce itself can best value the human resource practises in the workplace. Their opinion on the matter is a clear indication of its effects, both positive and negative.

3. FROM GENDER AND AGE TO ETHNICITY AND RACE

The next chapters will concentrate on the most common, readily detectable diversity characteristics; mainly gender, age and ethnicity and race. These characteristics were chosen because of their relevance in the diversity discussion and because they are so central in their universality; indeed these characteristics are present in most workplaces today. Other features of interest would and could have been sexual minorities, those with disabilities and people from different socio-economic backgrounds to name a few. However, in order to effectively define the topic of study, these three were chosen as the focus.

3.1 Gender equality – following the male norm?

Gender and especially women's position in the workplace is an issue that has long been highlighted when equality and diversity have been under discussion. The topic of gender has not lost its relevance in the 21st century; far from it. Mor Barak claims that more and more women are entering the workforce around the world; in fact women have become one of the most important components of diversity almost everywhere but particularly in the developing countries. Even in regions where women have traditionally been encouraged not to work outside the immediate home, women's share in the labour force has increased. (Mor Barak 2010, 4.)

According to Marilyn J. Davidson and Ronald J. Burke (2000, 14), women in Europe are highly qualified and just as well educated (if not better) as men. Indeed, Statistics Finland states that in 2011, in the universities of applied sciences, 63 % of all students completing their degree were women (Statistics Finland 2011a). Almost as impressive, the percentage of women completing a regular university degree was 60 % (Statistics Finland 2011b). Switzerland is not far behind; in the year 2009 of all the graduates from universities of applied sciences 50, 5 % were women and 49, 5 % men. At university level however, the majority of graduates were still men (53, 8 %). (Swiss Federal Statistical Office 2009.) However, there were significant differences among universities in Finland regarding gender distribution. For instance, the Tampere University of Technology had 1578 male graduates and only 514 female graduates in 2010. In addition, the new Aalto University in Helsinki, which also includes a school of engineering, had a majority of male graduates (males: 2559, females: 1125). (Statistics Finland 2011c). Hence, there seems to be a discrepancy between schools and faculties when it comes to gender. Though the amount of female students has increased at university level, this development does not apply to every field of study to the same extent. Furthermore, it should be noted that gender equality issues do not only pertain to women; though not the subject matter of this study, it is concerning that the amount of male students in higher education (in Finland) is lower than the amount of women and appears to be on the decline.

One of the often-recited difficulties for women and minorities in the workplace is the limited access to informal interaction networks that are critical to career advancement and job effectiveness (Lincoln & Miller 1979; Kanter 1977; Ibarra 1993). Women often lack the support they need to advance to higher positions. Sylvia Ann Hewlett, Kerrie Peraino, Laura Sherbin and Karen Sumberg argue that this is because women are reluctant to look for sponsorship from senior

managers and employees. Women often fail to understand the significance of good sponsorship or are not able to cultivate it effectively. Women tend to think that hard work alone will help them advance their careers and feel reluctant to ask for favours. In addition, sponsorship or mentorship on a high managerial level usually involves an older married male and a younger unmarried female and can thus be regarded as suspicious; if the woman is later promoted, her achievements might be undermined. Indeed, the cross-gender mentorship relationship is more often susceptible to rumours and complications than same-gender mentorship especially when the mentor is male and the protégée female. Subsequently, highly qualified women, as well as high-positioned men avoid it. (Hewlett et al. 2010, i.; McKeen & Bujaki 2007, 202-208)

According to Gary N. Powell promotions to top management positions do not usually happen in any consistent way. They are usually handled as individual cases and as a result there is no record of the process itself. Decisions about promotions are consequently unstructured and biases can influence the outcome. (Powell 2000, 244.) If women indeed lack sponsorship like Hewlett et al. (2010, i) suggest and decisions about promotions to upper levels of management are made based largely on existing relationships coloured by bias, then it is not surprising that women do not rise to that level. Additionally, if women cannot reach top management positions, it is most likely hard for other minority groups as well. Gender is an important diversity factor also because it is so obviously present in most work environments. Silvia and Barbara Poggio are of the opinion that gender is a feature that is created over and over again in everyday interactions and communication and if organizations do not understand the dichotomies at use, any attempt to change the existing order is going to be a failure. What it means to be a woman or a man in the organization is a result of the discourse that takes place daily. Just like any culture; gender culture is based on values, beliefs and conventions. (Gherardi & Poggio 2001, 246.)

Societal values and conventions affect both men and women in the workplace; the gender roles continue their existence in all societies and this relationship is present in the organizational setting as well. Gherardi and Poggio found that when women work in fields that are traditionally male, they often have to make a choice between the organization and family, whereas men seemingly do not have to choose. In order to succeed in male dominated fields, women are often expected to act like men and accentuate male qualities in the work environment. Often, the norms of masculinity are presumed to be universal and genderless and are therefore invisible. In order to survive in an organization, female employees regularly use tactics that are called "one-down strategies" meaning that women are often expected to act in a humble, non-aggressive and caring way so as to not

compete with the male employees. They use the female stereotypes to comply with the gendered organizational culture. (Gherardi & Poggio 2001, 253.) This is illustrated fittingly in an article about Sheryl Sandberg of Facebook where a colleague of hers, Chris Cox, describes Sandberg's entry into the organization accordingly: "She walked up to hundreds of people's desks and interrupted them and said, 'Hi, I'm Sheryl Sandberg,' "... "It was this overt gesture, like, 'O.K., let your guard down. I'm not going to hole up with Mark. I'm going to try and have a relationship with you guys.' ". (Auletta, The New Yorker, 11.7.2011.) This is but a one example of traditionally female behaviour in the workplace.

There is an apparent dissonance in women's tactics to adapt to an organisation as different behavioural strategies prompt different reactions. This is because organizations are traditionally male domains, while the home environment is traditionally female. When women enter the organisation, they are often given remedial work so as to ease the tension they create, typically lower level or segregated jobs. Women themselves seek to justify their entering the male domain by doing repair work and thus acknowledging the breach. Men and women draw their conceptual meaning from the contraposition between genders as they constantly define each other. Consequently, organizations should be aware that gender is something that is in fact produced and thus not a natural phenomenon. To ease women's admittance to organizations, and especially to higher management positions, management should strive to find a way to make the defining nature of masculinity, which underlines the discourse of gender relations, visible. (Gherardi & Poggio 2001, 255-257.) It seems that the lack of mentorship and poor knowledge of the gendered discourse in the organization are partly to blame for the absence of women in top positions, especially in male dominated fields. Women are not inherently less driven but the gender dichotomies unwittingly steer them towards certain behaviour and strategizing. Possibly, both female and male employees are unaware of the gender culture in their organization. (Gherardi & Poggio 2001). The law does, however, promote equal treatment at work in many countries; the Finnish law on equality, for example, specifies that in order to advance equality, the employer must make sure that both men and women apply for all open positions. (Laki naisten ja miesten välisestä tasa-arvosta 609/1986, 6§3). Similarly, in Switzerland, the Federal Act on Gender Equality states that employees must not be discriminated, directly or indirectly because of their gender, including, by reason of pregnancy and family situation (Gender Equality Act, SR/RS 151.1, Art. 3). The intent then is good but the

³ An addition to the gender law concerning the employer's duty to promote equality was made on 15. 4. 2005 (232/2005, 68)

application to practise is not always straight forward. Organisations can for example have controversial notions of what equality is and who it concerns. Hanna Ylöstalo concludes in her dissertation that organisations expect women to behave in a male-like manner in order to achieve equality, but at the same time they disapprove of this behaviour because it is not woman-like (not in accordance with what is traditionally expected of a woman). Furthermore, equality, or furthering equality, is ordinarily perceived as something that is women's responsibility because it is perceived as promotion of women's rights alone. (Ylöstalo 2012, 266.) It seems that gender-based issues are still very much relevant today and will continue to be so in the future. Thus, gender equality and the line-drawing between men and women at work deserve the continuous attention that they get.

Universities in Finland are, required by law to form an equality plan when they have more than 30 employees (Laki naisten ja miesten välisestä tasa-arvosta 609/1986, 6a§⁴). Therefore also the University of Tampere has an equality commission consisting of management, staff and student members. This commission makes suggestions for change, supervises the realisation of equal treatment and organises activities related to equality. The commission is appointed by the rector for three years at a time. In addition, different units have their own representatives. (Committee for Equal Opportunities 2009.) The female/male student ratio in the higher education context has already been mentioned in the beginning of this chapter; however, the gender distribution among the employees paints a slightly diverging picture from the fairly positive evolution in the student base. Indeed, though there are more female than male students in most Finnish universities today, the division of labour in the university does not necessarily mirror this development. In the University of Tampere, 65 % of all employees were women in 2011, of the professors however, only a third (33 %). Nonetheless, compared to 2010, the amount of female professors increased by 5 %. All in all, there has been a fairly steady increase from the year 2000 onwards when 22 % of all professors were women. (Henkilöstökertomus 2011.)

Finland has traditionally had a good reputation when it comes to gender equality and women in higher education. Still, women's university careers seem to stagnate after the doctorate degree (SA 1997). Liisa Husu researched the attitudes of women in academia regarding equality and the different programs and committees promoting it. She concluded that women do, in fact, value

⁴ An addition to the gender law concerning the measures to promote gender equality was made on 15. 4. 2005 (232/2005, 6a§)

equality programs but do not have very positive expectations for the future of their careers. Gender is still a hindrance in academia and women seem to be aware of this. (2004, 4-5, 18.)

In the University of Tampere, allegations of possible gender-based discrimination were last raised in 2010. At the end of the year, as part of the recent organizational changes, nine new managers were chosen for the new schools that were formed in place of the old faculties. The chosen managers were all men. The case was taken to the Ombudsman for Equality who concluded that the recruitment process had not been sufficiently consistent when comparing applicants' qualifications. The Ombudsman's report emphasises the importance of a comparison of merit that is based on the law on equality. Moreover, the university should further explore ways to advance equality when it comes to female professors and other experts in the university. The Ombudsman suggested that in order to reach a more equal work community, positive reinforcement might be appropriate. Such measures might include special mentoring programs for women, as well as further management training, Thus far however, the university has not thought it necessary to instigate a specialised program in order to further the status of women. On the other hand, the University of Tampere does not differ in any great detail from the other Finnish universities when it comes to equality and in fact, the proportion of female professors is the highest in all Finnish universities. The university also highlights the need for gender neutral management training. (Tasa-arvovaltuutettu 13.6.2011; Yliopistojen opetus- ja tutkimushenkilökunta tutkijanuravaiheittain 2011.) Since there is an imbalance of gender in the professorship and other management positions in the higher education, a more comprehensive plan might help bring forth the issues that cause it. It could help reveal and then dissolve practices, and indeed thinking that leads to such disparity. Acknowledgement and openness might help change the established way of doing things and thus the organizational culture so it becomes more equal.

3.2 The dividing nature of age

Everybody has an age that changes with time, thus everybody can be subject to age discrimination at different times of their lives. Malcolm Sargeant proposes four different groups: young age discrimination (16-24), middle age discrimination (25-49), older age discrimination (50- pension age), and senior age discrimination (over pension age). The age of the employee influences the type of discrimination they might face in the working life. For example, exiting an organization can have vastly different consequences for the younger and the older employees. When older employees

leave, it is more likely that they leave the workforce permanently and retire as a consequence of discriminatory recruitment practises; it is thus much rarer that older employees resign willingly even though this is not explicitly stated at the time of resignation. (Sargeant 2007, 79-80.) The youngest and the oldest employees are, in fact, the ones most aware of age discrimination (Duncan & Loretto 2004, 104). The young employees are in the beginning of their career path and their position in the organization is generally not yet established. The older employees on the other hand might feel insecure because of their looming departure from the workforce as well as the fact that they are usually the most costly to keep.

The possible consequences of age have not gone unheeded in the Finnish society. As one definitive step, the Finnish Government established a National Age Programme in the years 1998-2002. The goal was to prolong the average age of retirement as well as to bring aging unemployed people back to the workforce. (Kouvonen 1999, 1-2; Kansallisen ikäohjelman 1998-2002 loppuraportti.) A study by Anne Kouvonen was part of the project; it concentrated on the subjective experience of age discrimination at work taking the viewpoints of the employees, the employers and the unemployed into account. This study was the first of its kind in Finland. (Kouvonen 1999.) It was followed by others with goals similar to those of the National Age Programme, like the NOSTE programme for example. This programme took place between the years 2003-2009 and its goal was to lengthen and develop the careers of employees with low levels of education by educating them further, and consequently diminishing the pressure created by the post-war generation exiting the workforce, along with improving the employment rate. The projects main objective was to improve access to vocational education and training through, for example, further funding. (Noste Programme 2003-2009. Final Report 2010, 11.)

The definition of age discrimination has changed and broadened in the course of time. Anne Kouvonen understands direct age discrimination to be discriminatory behaviour that is openly stated to be the result of high age. A good example of such behaviour is when an age limit is directly stated in job advertising. Age related name-calling by the co-workers is also considered direct age discrimination. Alternatively, indirect discrimination refers to situations where discrimination is noticeable or "felt" but not directly stated. Again, age limits can be used in job advertising in a roundabout way. (Kouvonen 1999, 5-8.) However, as suggested earlier, age discrimination is not only directed toward the older employees. Many recent studies and books regard it as discrimination towards any age group (Sargeant 2007; Kunze, Boehm, & Bruch 2011).

The demographic facts in Europe are revealing; there are more and more aging people in the EU whilst the amount of older employees in the workforce is diminishing. Indeed, aging in relation to working life has received an increasing amount of attention in the 21st century as proven by how speedily changes taking it into consideration have been made in recent years. (Julkunen & Pärnänen 2005, 17, 21.) An EU directive prohibiting age discrimination came into effect rather hastily in the year 2000. It states that any direct or indirect discrimination based on age should be prohibited. However, the directive also asserts that differences in treatment can sometimes be acceptable, and that distinguishing between negative discriminatory treatment and treatment that is justified, is important. It further permits difference of treatment when there is a genuine occupational requirement that explains the exclusion of a group of people on the basis of age. The EU thus reserves the right to evaluate cases on individual basis and deems that in some cases it is necessary to hire people of a certain age. (Council Directive 2000/78/EC.) Nonetheless, directives can cause confusion, since their application into practise depends essentially on local governments and employers. The European Union Commission and Parliament have faced cases where the age limits have been challenged in member states. The Ombudsman has previously criticised the European Commission regarding its age policy in employment (see European Ombudsman, case 0185/2005/ELB) and in some cases changes have been made (see European Ombudsman, case OI/3/2006/BB).

In Finland age discrimination was prohibited in 1970 in the Employment Contract Law; the employer must treat the employees equally regardless of their origin, religion, age, political affiliation, membership to a trade union and other such matters (Työsopimuslaki 320/1970 17§.) The Employment contract law was taken to include recruitment in 1987 and the issues of justifiable unequal treatment were brought about by the previously mentioned European Union directive in the revision of the original law in 2001 (Työsopimuslain 17 ja 54 §:n muuttamisesta 935/1987, Työsopimuslaki 55/2001, chapter 2, 2§).

In her research of perceived age discrimination, Kouvonen found that people regarded age limits in recruitment as a major problem. The employers can easily ignore applications by older people, even if the age limits are not openly stated. The interviewed people had experienced direct age discrimination in the actual job interview situation, either face-to-face or over the phone. The older employers also experienced discrimination from their younger co-workers, usually at times of conflict and competition. This behaviour manifested itself through rude comments and name-calling and as a reluctance to work with older employees. Furthermore, promotions, educational

opportunities and organizational changes brought about perceived discrimination by employers. Cases of indirect discrimination were present as well; job advertisements were thought to be indirectly discriminatory when they used euphemisms instead of openly stating an age limit. For instance, they might imply that long experience is not necessary which indirectly suggests that the organization is looking for a younger employee. Some advertisements sought people with certain educational background that older people cannot realistically have attained. Moreover, many women brought up the significance of a youthful appearance when applying for a job. Women thus experienced multiple discrimination (gender and age) as well. (Kouvonen 1999, 136-137.)

Indirect discrimination was most common in phone interview situations. Many of the interviewees stated that when they disclosed their age over the phone, the tone of the interview changed and became increasingly uncomfortable. In addition, regardless of a promise to do so, the interviewees were not contacted about the job later. In dismissal situations, some experienced indirect discrimination when a younger employee was hired in the place of an older one, while the tasks remained the same. In conclusion, aging employees do experience both indirect and direct age discrimination. Nonetheless, experiences of indirect discrimination were a little more common in Kouvonen's data. Furthermore, discrimination seemed to be most common in recruitment. (Kouvonen 1999, 137-139.) International research and literature seem to support this assessment (Büsch, Dahl & Dittrich 2009; Gregory 2001).

Age equality has been researched in the university world as well; the University of Helsinki conducted an age equality survey in 2010. This survey concerned the (Helsinki) university library employees exclusively. The study shows that more than 20 % of them have either experienced or perceived age discrimination. Interestingly, discrimination was perceived to be equally common among men and women and between different age groups. The participants considered being called a boy or a girl, fixed-term contacts and unfair division of tasks (lesser responsibilities or physical strength for example) as age discrimination against younger employees. The older employees mentioned the deprecation of their learning abilities as age discrimination against them. They felt that young employees were given more chances to improve and develop themselves and that upper age limits in recruitment and career development are discriminatory. The employees stated that it is very rare that people over the age of 50 are hired; also women's generally poorer status in the labour market was again brought up. On the other hand, recruitment and career development were perceived problematic by the younger employees; acquiring a permanent position for instance was seemingly more difficult. (Järviö 2010, 13, 17-18.) Research has proven that employees are aware

of age discrimination; the consequences to organizations have been researched and some of those results are closely related to this study. Florian Kunze, Stephan Boehm and Heike Bruch researched the link between age diversity and performance through mediators such as the perceived age discrimination climate and collective affective commitment. They found that age diversity does have a negative effect on the perceived age discrimination climate and indirectly to affective commitment and performance. Thus, the more representatives of different age groups there are, the higher the perceived age discrimination climate and the lower the affective commitment of the employees. (Kunze et al. 2011.) The negative outcomes have consequences to the employees as well as to the organization. Similar to the aforementioned study, this study aims to make the connection between the perceived diversity climate and, for example, affective commitment visible. It is assumed that a negatively perceived diversity climate is connected to employee dissatisfaction.

It appears organizations might avoid many of the age related problems if they took it properly into consideration in their practices. Annelies E. M. Van Vianen, Betty A. G. W. Dalhoeven & Irene E. De Pater studied older employees' training and developmental willingness and concluded that it is often lower compared to the younger employees. However, the effect is moderated by the employees' self-theory and perceived developmental support. When the employees had an entity self-theory (the belief that one's abilities and personality are unchanging) and lower perceived developmental support, they had a lower training and developmental willingness. (Van Vianen et al. 2001, 240-242.) Van Vianen et al. (2011, 243-244) suggest that by changing employees' beliefs they might become more flexible. Furthermore, the supervisors should be aware that their explicit and implicit behavior influences employee attitudes towards further training. Juhani Ilmarinen, Satu Lähteenmäki and Pekka Huuhtanen more or less agree; good age management helps an organization create an equal work environment for all its employees. However, a functioning and developing work environment requires more knowledge on age attitudes and the effects and features of certain age groups; it also calls for changes in those attitudes as well as a better management style. The goal is to take employees of all ages into account in organizational functions; this not only benefits the employees but the organization too. In an organization that practices good age management, the needs of the employees are taken into consideration and their skills sufficiently utilized. (Ilmarinen et al. 2003, 8-9.)

In order to achieve the benefits that good age management brings, certain aspects should be taken into account. For example, when an organization plans its age management strategy, it would benefit from an extensive overview of the current situation. To do that it needs to be aware of the

age structure, division of labour, recruitment and retirement practises, organizational hierarchy, training practises, as well as the amount of absences and sick leaves. The analysis should lead to an accurate assessment of whether age itself is a fundamental issue in the work environment. The developments and changes should be aimed at increasing knowledge, changing the age attitudes and diminishing stereotypes. It is essential that the whole organization commits to a dialogue over its attitudes and values, including top management. Setting concrete goals and planning the strategy thoroughly helps ensure success. Follow-up and further assessment on the other hand, will help fix possible drawbacks. (Ilmarinen et al. 2003, 149-153.)

In the Helsinki university library, age was seen as a resource and an opportunity. The employees did not think there was an inherent difference between age groups in the workplace, yet they hoped that if difference was apparent, it would be taken into account. It is part of good age management to see employees as a whole; a combination of characteristics. (Ikätasa-arvoselvitys 2010, 26-27.) Eeva-Leena Vaahtio (2006, 123) reasons that even though changes do happen with age, it does not mean that people are not equally valuable in the working life. Certainly in the case of older employees, there is an important resource in tacit knowledge. Youth, on the other, hand is often connected to innovation (though this belief is also questionable).

The institutes of higher education might have a slightly different profile than other organizations when it comes to age. In academia, merit and scientific achievement are thought to weight more than anything else. Accumulative knowledge and experience are in high regard; academic employees who have proven themselves on the international arena and have the respect of the national and international research community, are valuable experts in their field. However, there are other employees that should be taken into account. For instance in the University of Tampere 45 % of the employees had a supporting role (other than teaching or research) in 2011 (Henkilöstökertomus 2011). The overall age structure seems to support the assumption that the university institution is respectful of older age. Nonetheless, there is a discrepancy between the younger and older employees when it comes to fixed-term employment; the average age of employees without permanent contract was four years younger than the average age of all employees and twelve years younger than the average age of employees with permanent contracts. Overall, permanent contracts are somewhat of a rarity in the university. In 2011, 435 (excluding internships, 366) new employees were recruited but only eleven of them on permanent contract. (Henkilöstökertomus. 2011.) However, much of the work at university is fixed-term in nature and so not necessarily indicative of discrimination. Indeed, sometimes those on fixed term contract can

be more satisfied than those with permanent contracts (McDonald & Makin 2000), but contrary findings have also been made (Petrongolo 2004). The older age of the teaching staff is understandable when one considers that these individuals have often obtained a doctorate degree and then moved on to teaching, professorship and further research. Indeed, the University of Tampere regards the age structure as challenging because 23 % of the permanent teaching and research staff will reach the age of 65 in the next five years and half in the next ten years (Henkilöstökertomus 2011). Nonetheless, the age structure does seem fair from the point of view of the older employees. Earlier, the study by Kunze et al. (2011) demonstrated than a comprehensive age structure does have a positive effect on the perceived age discrimination climate, so perhaps the age structure in this case might have a positive effect on the views of the older employees.

3.3 Race and Ethnicity in the age of internationalization

Race and ethnicity are the last of the explicit diversity characteristics introduced in this study. They are included because of the nature of the globalising world and because one of the core tasks of the university is research, usually characterised as strongly international. Most importantly, many nations have minorities whose status is not entirely unproblematic. Colliander, Ruoppila and Härkönen call attention to the ethnically and racially diverse history of Finland. Indeed, cultural and lingual minorities have always been part of the Finnish society; there are the Sami people, the Swedish speaking minority and the Romani people to name a few well known groups. All the same, Finland has long been linguistically and geographically homogeneous. (Colliander et al. 2009, 183-187.) However, the amount of foreign-born people has steadily increased in the last few decades (Statistics Finland 2011d). Finland has also made the change from an immigration to a migration country fairly recently (Colliander et al. 2009, 183). These changes have surely had an effect on political thinking about multiculturalism and globalisation in the resent years. The strong focus on foreign policy in the parliamentary elections of 2011 certainly seems indicative of new developments.

According to Mikko Lehtonen and Olli Löytty, urbanisation is a fairly new phenomenon in Finland, hence the homogeneous state of the nation. 'The cities used to be comprised of working class communities instead of middle and educated classes that could have created a more pluralistic society. Moreover, the rural heritage is still very much present in the culture. Learning to live with diversity requires new, advanced methods that emphasize its ordinariness, and do not regard it as

something alien that people are forced to get accustomed to. Even the most seemingly homogenous groups have differences, and it would be more beneficial to acknowledge this instead of concentrating on making further divisions. (Lehtonen & Löytty 2003, 8, 13.) Karmela Liebkind discloses that the aim of the Finnish immigration policy is to make the immigrants more equal by offering measures that help them require the necessary skills and knowledge to properly become part of the society, while acknowledging their own cultural and linguistic background. Official policies are a step in the right direction, but if not properly applied, they are largely ineffective. (Liebkind 2000, 172.) The responsibility often falls on the managers, the workforce and the overall society.

Currently, the concept of multiculturalism is used quite extensively; some important distinctions should, however, be made so as to not add to the confusion. Stuart Hall argues that multicultural and multiculturalism are often thought to be interchangeable concepts. However, a distinction should be made; *multicultural* is an adjective that describes all those social features and problems of control that societies face in the globalising world. *Multiculturalism*, on the other hand, is a noun that describes the political strategies and processes that are incomplete; it is not a doctrine designed to create an ideal state. Instead, it refers to the strategies and methods used to control the diversity and the problems that arise because of it. Just like there are different kinds of multicultural societies, there are also different kinds of multiculturalisms. (Hall 2003, 233-234.)

Indeed, there are a number of multiculturalisms that are applied today. Conservative multiculturalism seeks to diffuse the newcomer to the existing culture while liberal multiculturalism wants to integrate other cultures to the existing one, but leaves space for some undisclosed difference. It recognises that people are equal and focuses on the sameness in everyone. Pluralist multiculturalism on the other hand, admits the differences between cultures and consequently grants different rights to communities; its focus is on the dissimilarity, not the similarity. Commercial multiculturalism assumes that if cultural difference is taken into account in commerce, problems will automatically disappear through consumption. Therefore, there is no need for redistribution of power. Corporate multiculturalism wants to control cultural differences dictated by the needs of those in power, and critical multiculturalism is committed to social justice and believes in empowering the minorities through modes of resistance. It concentrates on ethnicity (and white supremacy) and tries to discover what gives rise to inequalities. (Hall 2003, 235; Steinberg & Kincheloe 2001, 3-5.) Pirkko Pitkänen states that in Finland the liberal approach has been prevalent. During the last decade, however, policy documents have been following a more pluralistic approach.

(Pitkänen 2006, 117.) Indeed, as Shirley R. Steinberg & Joe L. Kincheloe (2001, 4) emphasize, pluralistic multiculturalism has become the mainstream definition of multiculturalism.

The functionality of multiculturalisms (and the related policy) is a different matter completely. Olli Sorainen points out that the organizational approach to multiculturalism often differs from the approach of other social actors. Government officials try to create equal opportunities for all; their goal is to integrate the migrants into the working life and the society and provide them with the same rights as the rest of the population. Some organizations, however, cannot or will not follow official policy as well as they should. (Sorainen 2007, 179; also Sippola 2007, 55-60.) Prejudiced opinions can be hard and slow to modify since they are often a product of history and lack of experience. According to Karmela Liebkind, there is irrational racism in Finland just like everywhere else (irrational racism being something that is not based on facts or research and does not follow any real logic). Indeed, the most negative assessments come from those who have had the least amount of interaction with actual immigrants. Furthermore, getting to know someone from another culture has been proven to have a positive impact on people's opinions and prejudices, just as long as the relationship does not remain superficial. (Liebkind 2000, 172-173.) It seems natural that knowledge increases with interaction and simultaneously makes differences less intimidating. Creating personal relationships with co-workers could make the work place more functional and problem free. Education alone does not guarantee entrance to the labour force, though it is often perceived to have certain interchangeable value in the new cultural context. In reality the where, the what and the when of the education have a great effect on its actual worth in the labour market (Forsander 2002, 121). Indeed, Colliander, Ruoppila and Härkönen (2009, 191) report that Finnish employers often assess Finnish education and Finnish work experience as better than education and experience acquired elsewhere.

Nonetheless some, usually large, organizations seek culturally diverse employees on purpose in order to create an economic advantage. They believe that a diverse workforce translates into a competitive advantage. More accurately, it helps them understand new markets and meet the needs of an ever diversifying clientele; it might also improve the organizational image. The employees benefit from it too; multicultural atmosphere makes for a happier, more innovative work place and attracts other skilled employees from various backgrounds. (Sorainen 2007, 180.) This perspective, although encouraging, mainly concerns the highly skilled migrants and other minority groups. Interestingly, the institutes of higher education might have similar objectives and aspirations to the aforementioned, since more or less all universities seek to be internationally relevant, innovative

and diverse. The question is, does the university organization acknowledge possible discrimination against its culturally diverse, but mostly highly skilled, expert employees. The internationalization of higher education will be discussed with more detail in the next chapter.

According to Pirkko Pitkänen, culturally diverse work communities are becoming more common in Finland. This means that the organizational culture is changing too. (Pitkänen 2006, 115). Cultural diversity creates a whole new set of versatile managerial issues: the existing employees' prejudices, linguistic skills, other communicational problems and professional skills to name but a few. Subsequently, adjusting to cultural diversity requires flexibility from the whole organization. The new employees can have fundamentally different understandings of central issues, such as work, the concept of time and gender roles. Thus, the risk of conflict can be greater in a culturally diverse workforce, and it is important to recognise the cause for it so that these situations can be turned into cultural learning experiences instead. With the help of proper management, the organization can take full advantage of the benefits while averting or dealing with most of the problems. (Sorainen 2007, 180-181; Pitkänen 2006, 116.) When striving for a truly multicultural work environment, the whole personnel has to be prepared for a change. Consequently, educating the personnel becomes paramount. (Pitkänen, 2006, 131.)

3.4 A closer look at cultural diversity in Higher Education

Patricia Dewey and Stephen Duff (2009, 491-492) state that the need for global competence dictates the need for internationalization ⁵ in higher education. Indeed, this has lately been a widely acknowledged fact all over the world (Findlay & Tierney, 2010; De Wit, Jamarillo, Gacel-Ávila & Knight 2005; Strategy for the Internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions in Finland 2009–2015 2009). To some extent, internationality has always been a matter of importance to universities; research demands peer review that possibly leads to more research. Indeed, this is a fundamental requirement and so there is often an element of cross-cultural communication present in institutions of higher education. Nonetheless, universities are very much national institutions that reflect their environment i.e. the surrounding society. As Stephanie Schwartz and Ulrich Teichler point out, the university institution is often very much a representative of national climate, following certain structures, developmental trends, curricula, governance and organization. Universities claim to be

⁵Altbach and Knight (2007, 290) maintain internationalization refers to the policies and activities that are used by institutes of higher education to cope with globalisation.

universal in nature but are actually very much influenced by cultural processes. (Schwartz & Teichler 2000, 1.)

Academic mobility is one of the ways to gain international experience in the world of higher education. The usual options are short term mobility, including exchanges and visits; applying for a doctoral or a post-doctoral research position abroad; and the most permanent, academic migration. The flow of academic migration is very much dependent on the obstacles and incentives effective in the receiving country. Funding, teaching covers and the recognition of the professional value of mobility for teaching purposes are also factors. Moreover, some academic knowledge is just not transferable or marketable outside the national context. (Cradden 2007, 11-13, 38.) As a consequence, it seems some academic workplaces are more culturally diverse than others; it stands to reason that some could be more experienced in the field of cultural diversity and its management than others

The Ministry of Education's *Strategy for the Internationalization of Higher Education Institutions in Finland for the Years 2009–2015*, emphasises staff competence, networking skills and multicultural knowledge as important assets in higher education. The report affirms that Finland actively takes part in educational and research related cooperation in the European context. Yet numerous studies show that the lack of internationality is considered a weakness; mobility has decreased in recent years and there are not enough foreign-born students, researchers and teachers. The new strategy emphasises multiculturalism and cultural pluralism and stresses the importance of understanding and appreciation when it comes to diversity. It also states that institutions of higher education must provide students and personnel with the required competencies to function in a multicultural, educational community. Promoting positive attitudes towards multiculturalism means that the employees take an active role in the process. (Strategy for the Internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions in Finland 2009–2015 2009, 5, 43-46.)

Foreign personnel and foreign students are an important asset in the internationalization process of the overall society; their quantity in higher education should reflect their quantity in the community. Furthermore, international experiences and global networks have a positive effect on the quality of research. The Ministry of Education emphasises the importance of a comprehensive knowledge base for structuring and monitoring internationalization and plans a wide co-operation between different national actors. (Strategy for the Internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions in Finland 2009–2015 2009, 52-54.) Indeed, David M. Hoffman (2007, 134) states that the amount of

research about the policy and practise of academic migration and mobility is not yet sufficient. The new strategy and the consecutive changes are just starting to take place, so nothing can be said of the effects as of now. Nonetheless, the Finnish ministry of education seems to be taking the process of internationalization in higher education seriously and genuinely believes in its importance. Research in the area of diversity is certainly justified in the light of some new developments. The University of Tampere, for instance, had 140 foreign employees (5, 5% of the whole staff) from 34 different countries in the year 2011; almost a tenth (9, 2 %) of the teaching and research staff was foreign-born (Henkilöstökertomus 2011).

4. DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

The world is becoming more and more complex due to globalisation and the need for internationalization. Technological connectedness, multinational corporations and demographic changes for instance have an effect on organizations of all sizes and functions, as there is pressure for them to better accommodate these changes. It is difficult to discuss organisational diversity and the diversity climate without also mentioning diversity management. Indeed, good near superior management has been proved to have a link on the perceived job satisfaction (Kauhanen 2012). Similarly, good diversity management is often expected to lead to positive results for the organization; therefore, a short introduction on the matter is appropriate.

According to Susanna Bairoh and Marja-Liisa Trux, diversity management has been understood to refer to different types of ideologies and philosophies as well as the values and practises that are related to the purposeful management of diversity in organizations. The term itself, *diversity management*, originated in the United States in the 1980s as an alternative to affirmative action that emphasized racial equality. Today the main focus (as demonstrated earlier) is usually on economic benefits that are believed to be the by-products of diversity and its proper management. (Bairoh & Trux 2010, 193-196.) There has been a trend towards work related research in Finland lately. One such collection of projects was the Mosaiikki (Mosaic) project in the years 2001-2005. It was among the first in Finland that concentrated on equality, diversity and diversity management. Moreover, it was one of the broadest, most long lasting development projects aimed at furthering equality and diversity even from an international perspective. (Colliander, Ruoppila & Härkönen 2009, 11.)

Diversity management can help harness some of the underlying assets in the organizations. Tacit knowledge for example, is particularly important and often crucial in innovative and creative work. In order to share this knowledge, organizations need to be able to take risks and encourage interaction. Employees should strive for a positive but healthily critical relationship with each other. In knowledge work, not only individual skills, but also the quality of interaction between individuals, is essential in order to get good results. Employees must learn to evaluate their thoughts and feelings critically so that they are able to guide their own thought processes and develop them further. Individuals can react in varying ways to different kinds of phenomena, based on different diversity characteristics. When they become conscious of a discrepancy they can either accept the new understanding or deny it. Understanding and learning from diversity is challenging because we need previous knowledge, experience and conscious learning in order to cope with it. (Colliander, Ruoppila & Härkönen 2009, 25-30.) According to Olli Sorainen (2007, 203), diversity management is still a fairly new phenomenon in Finland, but will soon be one of the most important fields for organizational development.

Colliander, Ruoppila and Härkönen appear to employ ideas from the social cognition and the social identity theory (see Kulik &Bainbridge 2006), when they state that it is natural for people to have prejudices as well as stereotypical and generalising reactions to different kinds of phenomena. It makes coping in the vastly complex world easier. Furthermore, it is common to view your own group behaviour as superior to others'. However, in order to become a part of the diverse workforce, an employee must be able to hold on to their own independent self and at the same time be able to genuinely relate to others. To create this kind of open environment, both the organization and the individual employees have to be able to trust each other and make that trust visible. (Colliander, Ruoppila & Härkönen 2009, 22-23.) The following chapters will concentrate on different sides and perspectives of diversity; starting from its management and the policymaking that often precedes it, and proceeding to the more individual, employee-oriented viewpoints.

4.1 Dealing with diversity – The good kind of diversity management.

Joerg Dietz and Lars-Eric Petersen (2006, 223-224) mention two kinds of approaches to diversity management; the macro approach refers to the organizational designs for diversity and suggests that organizational change toward a more multicultural way of being will lead to good results, while the micro approach refers to the psychological aspects of discrimination that can be used to create

models that diminish the chance of conflict. One of the most famous theories of diversity management (that take the macro approach) was compiled by David A. Thomas & Robin J. Ely. They argue that organizations can only truly benefit from diversity, when they realise it is not merely an external feature but something inherent that exist in all individuals. Organizations have traditionally utilized two strategies when dealing with diversity. They either expect people to blend into the existing workforce, or they give them jobs that relate to their specific backgrounds so that they might for example interact with their own identity groups in customer service. These employees are merely assumed to excel at knowing their own people. This supposition can, however, be detrimental and limiting. (Thomas & Ely 1996, 79-80.)

Thomas and Ely point out that different diversity groups do more than just bring competitively relevant knowledge to the organization. They offer new perspectives that can help improve and change conventional ways of doing things like designing processes, creating effective teams and leading. Furthermore, they can help improve the strategies, procedures and practices of an organization. The performance effectiveness that diversity provides is dependent on how organizations define it and what they do with it. Two paradigms have been commonly used: the discrimination-and fairness paradigm and the access-and-legitimacy paradigm. (Thomas & Ely 1996, 80.) Ely and Thomas have also established a third one; the integration-and-learning paradigm. (Ely & Thomas 2001)⁶.

The discrimination-and-fairness paradigm is perhaps the most frequently used conception of diversity in organizations. It offers fairness and equal opportunity in an effort to respond to societal changes in regard to diversity and policymaking. In this paradigm, however, the work does not become versatile, only the employees do. In the end, it concentrates on numbers and meeting quotas and tends to accentuate the sameness in people. Consequently, the employees do not get to draw from their personal experience and their background and it can actually be harder for them to identify with their work. The paradigm essentially stumps the organization's capacity to learn and become more effective. Furthermore, top management does not necessarily realize there is a problem in the way they manage their employees contributing an example of a cognitive blind spot, when diversity is not seen as an issue at all. (Thomas & Ely 1996, 81-83.)

⁶ In their previous study (Thomas & Ely 1996) the third paradigm was called the learning-and-effectiveness paradigm.

Companies tend to use the second, access-and-legitimacy paradigm, when they need cultural knowledge in what is often an immediate, urgent situation. They need employees with specific cultural competencies who can understand a specific cultural setting, but often without actually analyzing what these competencies are and how they could be incorporated into the general organizational culture. In this case, the leaders do not know what skills, beliefs and practises are being used in the specific markets and situations. In addition, the access-and-legitimacy paradigm is generally not beneficial for the employees hired for their cultural expertise. They often do not get the same opportunities for advancement as others and are the ones first discharged when organizations have to downsize. (Thomas & Ely 1996, 83.)

Companies that use the integration-and-learning paradigm in their diversity management, understand that different cultural backgrounds create different skill-sets that will in turn influence the way people work and how that work is experienced. Organizations can use this knowledge to their advantage in strategy, product development and business practises. Diversity is seen as a resource that everyone can employ in order to expand their networks and their knowledge base. The paradigm focuses on mutual comprehension and learning processes as well as on the belief that the real advantage of diversity is the growth in overall cultural competence. (Ely & Thomas 2001, 240-242.)

Though research at macro level continues to be scant, Thomas and Ely's theory has been at least partly tested. It follows the assumption that diversity management has a moderating effect concerning diversity and organizational results and will thus have an effect on processes like economic growth. In brief, it maintains that when organizations practise diversity management, high workforce diversity will lead to high organizational performance. The evidence, however, has been somewhat contradictory. (Joerg Dietz & Lars-Eric Petersen 2006, 224–225.)

The micro approach to diversity management concentrates on the psychological sense-making that individuals practise. According to Carol T. Kulik and Hugh T. J. Bainbridge (2006), people tend to categorize phenomena and things cognitively to make sense of the world (for example schema theory; see Bartlett 1954). As previously mentioned, people are believed to use a similar approach with each other (stereotyping; page 4). In social cognition theory forming stereotypes about social groups based on demographic characteristics is easy and efficient. Once a person has formed a stereotype, further categorizing can be done based on the old model. Even if the target person does not behave in the same way as some other group members of a category, old stereotypes can still

influence the perception of that person. (Kulik & Bainbridge 2006.) Elaborating the micro approach a bit further, Bairoh and Trux (2010, 202) state that the current academic mainstream research relies heavily on two basic, complementing theories; the social identity theory and self-categorization theory. In social identity theory people define themselves through their affiliation to the groups in which they themselves belong to; thus stereotyping themselves as they internalize the characteristics and behaviour they connect with that group. When they encounter someone new, they compare that someone to themselves first. Incidentally, assigning oneself in a social group is called self-categorization. (Kulik & Bainbridge 2006.)

Kulik and Bainbridge state that social identity theory has an evaluative function (and thus differs from social cognition theory); it assumes that one's own group is seen in a positive, superior light in comparison to others. The organizational context frequently determines whether a certain stereotype will have a positive or a negative effect for the individual under scrutiny. This process resembles the matching process in which hiring is based on the assumption that the decision-maker matches the organizational context with their impression of the applicant. (Kulik & Bainbridge 2006, 28.) Dianna L. Stone and Adrienne Colella (1996, 378), use it to explain the discriminative treatment of disabled job applicants. However, other groups might suffer from the same procedure (Kulik & Bainbridge 2006, 32). By way of conclusion, there are various different perspectives to diversity management and its effect on people and organizations. This research does not straightforwardly study diversity management, however, the close relationship between organizational diversity and diversity management cannot be ignored.

4.2 Discrimination in employment: definition and affirmative and positive action initiatives

Discrimination in employment is a complicated phenomenon that can take various forms and have far-reaching consequences. Mor Barak gives it a comprehensive definition: basically, it occurs when individuals, institutions or governments treat people in a differentiating way due to personal characteristics like race, gender, or disability rather than their ability to do their job properly. These actions can have negative consequences for the employees, such as difficulty accessing work, promotions, or compensation. Furthermore, discrimination can be either overt or covert. Overt discrimination occurs when there is an actual law or a policy that promotes discrimination. Covert discrimination, on the other hand, takes place when discrimination is, for instance, an implicit side

effect of a policy and therefore not intentional. (Mor Barak 2010, 60-63.) Indeed, as laws and policies become more detailed, discrimination starts taking new forms and becoming more subtle and elusive (Makkonen 2010, 36). Discrimination can also take place on different levels. *Individual* discrimination takes place when a person commits a discriminatory act of their own volition and not in behalf of any institution or organization. Alternatively, discrimination is *institutional* when it is part of an institutions common practises. (Mor Barak 2010, 63.)

Mor Barak (2011, 59-65) considers laws and policies to be negative when their goal is to prohibit discrimination. However, policy making is positive when it concentrates on changing behaviour and actively promoting minority rights. Positive reinforcement and promotion of rights is more commonly called positive action (Europe) or affirmative action (the United States). The case for positive and affirmative action stems from the belief that banning discriminatory behaviour does not lead to sufficiently positive outcomes. Advocates of affirmative action believe that in order to achieve a truly equal workplace, it is important to compensate disadvantageous groups by trying to right the past wrongs. They should be given more opportunities for advancement and their amount in the workforce increased. When minorities are actively taken into consideration, societies no longer need to pay attention to difference. Nonetheless, the concept of affirmative action can create controversy and opposition. The majority group, for instance, can feel that giving advantage to minorities discriminates against them (Li & Goldschmidt 2009, O'Cinneide 2009.) Moreover, as suggested in the previous chapter, it might not be possible to completely eradicate differentiating cognitive behaviour as it seems to be automatic and, to an extent, unavoidable.

There are different theories explaining the need for affirmative action policies as well as theories that speak against it. The neoclassical economists, for example, believe that organizations that don't take minorities into account will eventually lose their competitive advantage. Thus there is no need for policy making; the economy itself will ensure that minorities are treated equally. This theory does not take into account the fact that prejudice is usually deeply ingrained in people and not easily changeable. At the other end of the spectrum is the equal opportunities school. They believe that policy making is important because it gives the minorities a chance to rise to high-level positions and help other members of their groups do the same (through networking and mentorship). They believe that discrimination is culturally preserved and only by giving minorities the same resources as the dominant group, will they eventually become equal. (Mor Barak 2011, 64-65.)

It is typical for positive and affirmative action programs to act as measures of intervention. They are meant to be temporary, withdrawn once the situation is rectified. The specific goals and targets may, however, differ between nations and continents. (Mor Barak 2011, 69.) In Europe, positive action programs create a competitively equal footing for groups that have been discriminated against in the past; this is supposed to bring the disadvantaged groups to the same level with others. It does not guarantee success by favouring some above others but merely levels the playing field. Thus, positive action is supposed to avert the problem of reverse discrimination and differ from affirmative action. (Caruso 2002, 1-8). Furthermore, specific historical and cultural backgrounds influence national policies. In some countries, like India, the affirmative action policies effect the majority, not the minority, though admittedly it is usually the other way around. The policies typically increase the amount of minorities in the workforce by way of quotas (certain amount of minority employees in the workforce) or by appointing government incentives that encourage businesses to recruit and promote employees from minority groups. Some governments have an official body that makes sure that organizations comply with these policies. (Mor Barak 2011, 70-74.) In Finland the law on equality states that positive action is a justified means to achieve equality. The law also validates the use of positive discrimination (or affirmative action) to achieve actual, de facto equality. (YVL, 20.1.2004/21, 7§.) Consequently, sometimes minority groups can be put into an advantageous position compared to others in order to achieve equality.

The debate about the necessity of affirmative and positive action is ongoing. The supporters base their opinion on three main points: compensatory justice, distributive justice and social utility. More specifically, the minorities should be compensated for past wrongs, the wealth of the nation should be distributed equally and everybody should contribute to the economic and social system. Opponents, on the other hand, argue that such policymaking leads to reverse discrimination, the deterioration of the free-market economy and individualism and a decline in quality when incompetent people are admitted to high positions. The proponents also acknowledge the possible harmful consequences of quotas and reverse discrimination. Such measures might unintentionally imply that minorities are not actually qualified for the jobs they require and that they could not achieve the same on their own merit. (Mor Barak 2011, 75.)

Governments often run into trouble with the interpretation of the law when it comes to affirmative and positive action policies. Consequently, the debate over their necessity has persisted. Some governments and institutions have continued implementation while others have revoked them. (Mor Barak 2011, 75-79). Karoliina Ahtela (2004, 108) argues that positive action and positive treatment

should be used as a last resort when all other measures have failed. Indeed, it seems that any kind of discrimination attracts negativity, even when it is meant to be temporary and targeted at the majority. Perhaps comprehensive communication and careful planning would help employees understand the purpose and nature of positive action. The University of Helsinki has done just that with its plan against discrimination. It defines the concepts of diversity and discrimination in the higher educational context and clearly states the measures for achieving its goals. Moreover, the plan mentions communication and distribution of information as important methods when striving for true equality. (Niemi & Saarikoski 2006.)

4.3 The Inclusive Workplace Model

Mor Barak has developed an inclusive workplace model that introduces the ideal organizational context for inclusion. An inclusive workplace consists of different levels, four to be exact, and does not only concentrate on the internal and organizational but also the external and societal. The *first level* of inclusion is the internal level, it refers to the relations within the organization and between its employees; it is essentially the micro level of the model. An excluding workplace tries to adapt employees to existing institutional habits, while the inclusive workplace relies on mutual respect and equal contribution of values and norms regardless of one's cultural background. In an inclusive workplace communication is free, democratic and continuous and the organization is able to constantly change its values and norms to reflect the diversity needs. Inclusive workplace delves deep into the concept of diversity. Its functions consist of recruitment, mentorship, training, evaluation and cultural auditing among others. It is a component in the overall strategy and will consequently lead to tailored diversity policies and practises for the organization in question. (Mor Barak 2011, 256-257.)

There are different practical ways to further diversity in organizations. Common initiatives include the *management* developing or starting major diversity projects (consultants etc.), *educational* initiatives like courses and seminars designed to increase awareness, *performance* related initiatives like goal attainment that is usually linked to compensation, practical ways to organise work according to *life situations* and lastly offering *career planning* schemes for the minorities so as to raise more minority members to top managerial positions. (Mor Barak 2011, 258). In Finland, women's career development was the subject matter of one partly EU funded educational project;

the EMMA project was aimed at women who were finishing, or had just completed their university studies. It concentrated on mentoring and requiring knowledge on female managers' career paths (EMMA). Similarly, The University of Zurich has offered extensive mentoring programs for women (University of Zurich. 2011b).

Active recruitment is commonly used in order to make the workforce more diverse. Rosabeth M. Kanter (1977, 209, 283-284) argues that when there is an increase in the amount of minority members in the workforce, they are likely to encounter less obstacles (Kanter's theory of Tokenism). A better balance between different groups can lead to better tolerance and less discrimination; there is less pressure for conformity. Appointing a corporate officer to manage diversity initiatives and electing or naming diversity committees from different departments and levels is fairly common as well. (Mor Barak 2011, 259). The SITR network in Tampere could be counted as such on a larger scale. It consists of the three major universities in the region: the University of Tampere, the Tampere University of Technology, and the Tampere University of Applied Sciences. The goal of the network is to increase internationalization in different ways. It provides services and information on studying and working in Tampere for international students and staff in the joined universities. (SITR.)

Many of the initiatives are targeted at the top management and focus on their management skills. However, Mor Barak acknowledges the importance of developing diversity skills in all levels (Mor Barak 2011, 259). Diversity is a challenge for both the majorities and the minorities; both groups have to learn to respect and value one another. The organization has to create an atmosphere that promotes appreciation for diversity. The aim is to create individuals and teams that can use their knowledge when they work toward organizational goals and feel motivated to do so. Management alone cannot achieve an environment that utilises diversity; the whole work community should take part in the process. (Colliander, Ruoppila & Härkönen 2009, 15-16.) Indeed, discrimination and prejudice are only some of the barriers that organizations face. Competitive relationships between identity groups bring forth conflicts and these relations are often further complicated by crosscultural misunderstandings. (Mor Barak 2011, 261.)

The *second level* of inclusive workplace is the communal level. It states that organizations have a social responsibility to the immediate community. An inclusive workplace supports this ideology and tries to advance its collaboration with the outside world through its employees. The organization is aware of its significance in the community and its noneconomic influence on other

institutions; giving back is also often expected by the stakeholders. The inclusive organization integrates these social actions into its functions while an exclusive organization only recognizes a responsibility for the stakeholders. (Mor Barak 2011, 274-276.)

For institutes of higher education, communication with the society is often imperative because of the strong social responsibility towards the community. Universities provide the society with highly educated experts; therefore the relationship is fundamentally reciprocal. The university has several responsibilities; it has to be able to provide the students with the kind of education that reflects societal needs but also be able to do relevant research on both national and international level. In addition, universities are in constant discourse with other important institutions like government bodies and the private and public sectors in general (through their demand for appropriate workforce, for instance), as well as other educational institutions and international organizations. Clearly, universities have civic responsibilities, but unlike corporations, there is no history of productivity. The demand for large scale efficiency and competition is seemingly fairly new and has only gained momentum with globalisation. The University of Tampere has strong ties to the social sphere and its institutions. It is the largest provider of social scientific and administrational education in Finland. Consequently, the university collaborates with the state, municipalities, companies and non-governmental organizations. Furthermore, it has shared educational and research projects with other institutions of higher education and it organises adult education to answer to the challenges of the working life in the vein of lifelong learning. (Omaleimainen Tampereen yliopisto. 2011.)

According to Ahmed C. Bawa, higher education should take social inclusion seriously, especially on account of some viewing it as a selective institution that is partly responsible for creating and preserving elites. For that reason, students are often encouraged to become more aware of current issues by linking their learning to actual societal needs. Furthermore, the academic community might feel there is an ideological need to engage and bring the overall community closer to it. When students or members of staff try to broaden the learning experience by making it more communal, they often try to make community based experiences equal with other types of learning experiences. Therefore, many universities have, for instance, community development projects where staff and students are encouraged to engage in some sort of service activity, be it volunteerism, research or development. The community itself can also force the higher education institutions to provide certain services. (Bawa 2007, 56.) Social programs are, however, commonly supported by both the community and the employees (Mor Barak 2011, 280).

The third level of inclusive workplace is the national level. Mor Barak feels that inclusive corporations have an obligation toward disadvantaged groups and should provide them with career and educational opportunities (Mor Barak 2011, 290). Finland already has government appointed institutions that offer these services free of charge (the employment office, training centres and vocational education etc.). Moreover, the University of Tampere has had a working life driven approach to degree formulation. Admission into university is possible for people with different educational backgrounds, not just for those that have completed the matriculation examination. It is also the first university in Finland to have started Open University operations. It appears to be age neutral and tries to target groups that are disadvantaged when it comes to education, like younger people and those without a degree. (Elinikäisen oppimisen strategia 2008, 2-4.) Tampere Summer University on the other hand, organizes education for older people; the goal is to create a chance for them to acquire scientific knowledge, improve self-esteem and remain active and in a way that serves their purposes and needs best (Ikääntyvien Yliopisto 2012).

The fourth inclusive workplace level is inclusion through international collaboration. An inclusive workplace is pluralistic and treats other cultures with respect. It sees value in collaboration and mutual interests (Mor Barak 2011, 314-315). Again, in business organizations, highlighting this aspect makes perfect sense; equal and respectful relations are important in the globalised world. In higher education, the international aspect is already assumed, in fact, the more collaboration the better. For educational institutions, especially at university level, it is virtually imperative. However, that does not mean progress cannot be made. In the Finnish context, the previously mentioned Strategy for the Internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions in Finland 2009–2015 (2009) is a good example of development in the fourth level (other levels are arguably included).

Like most other universities, the University of Tampere sees internationalization as an asset; indeed, a program was published in June 2011 further detailing the exact, strategic objectives. The new internationalization program encourages mobility and the use of foreign-languages in teaching among other things. Employees have been appointed for every department to oversee the specific educational changes. Furthermore, international staff members will receive assistance through new, improved service channels and researchers will be provided with better mobility services. (Internationalization – a means to improve quality 2011.) In this case, the first inclusive level is also catered for; internationalization is now part of the official university strategy in the form of an internationalization program and individual employees have been appointed to oversee the changes.

4.4 Diversity management and organizational commitment

The academic workplace has characteristics that distinguish it from other types of work organizations. The society places objectives to organizations of higher education by way of financial incentives and rewards, yet specifically universities are first and foremost places of study and research. Thus, it can be assumed that people seeking a career in academia feel motivated and committed to their field of study and have scientific aspirations that precede the decision to seek a career in the university organization. As a place of science, the university organization holds certain gravitas in the society and carries with it an air of intellectual authority. However, just like employees in other organizations, university employees are a part of different institutional networks, communities and hierarchies. The employees face certain expectations and have certain obligations, just as they have expectations for the organization. Thus organizational commitment is a relevant subject for study in the university organization.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, 301) argue that commitment is a separate concept from others that are similar such as motivation and attitudes. Especially commitment and motivation are often mentioned in the same context and they are considered to be closely related constructs (see Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe 2004, 991). However, according to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, 301), different dimensions of commitment can be linked to negative or positive motivation which means that the incentives for commitment can differ. Consequently, commitment is viewed as a separate concept in this study as well. In recent years researchers have questioned the continued relevance of organizational commitment. The demands of work have changed and much more emphasis is placed on flexibility and efficiency. Forms of employment have also diversified and it is possible that temporary and part-time employees view other forms of commitment as more important. However, the employer-employee relationship and the changing employment practises advocate continued research on all kinds of commitment. Aaron Cohen points out that it might be in the organizations best interest to be more aware of employees' needs and expectations in order to attract the best and the most suitable in times of future demographic changes. In addition, research into organizational commitment helps ensure that the employees stay loyal and trusting of the organization. (Cohen 2003, 5-6.)

Many different models and perceptions about commitment have been created over the years. Some consider it to be one dimensional while others think of it as a multidimensional construct, the

multidimensional viewpoint is currently more widely accepted. Meyer and Herscovitsch specifically, believe it to consist of three dimensions; affective, continuance and normative. Each dimension is accompanied by a certain mind-set. Affective commitment reflects the desire to follow a course of action; continuance commitment is based on the perceived cost and normative commitment on the perceived obligation. Most other multidimensional models acknowledge the existence of similar constructs; particularly affective commitment and continuance commitment. (Meyer & Herscovitch 2001, 307.) Howard S. Becker (1960), for instance, publicized his side-bet theory some fifty years ago, drawing attention to the personal cost of leaving an organization, providing an apt example of what is essentially continuance commitment.

Affective commitment is often considered the most desired form of commitment because it usually correlates with a wider range of outcomes than both continuance and normative commitment. When commitment is accompanied by the mind-set of desire (like in affective commitment), the behavioral consequences of it are perceived to be broader than when commitment is accompanied by the mind-set of perceived cost or obligation. (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001, 311-312.) Furthermore, affective commitment is believed to have an effect on such positive outcomes as lower turnover intentions, lower absenteeism, and higher acceptance for change while the link between other commitment dimensions and positive outcomes is weaker (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky 2002; Somers 1995; Iverson & Buttigieg 1999). Affective commitment has been proven to be linked to some very positive outcomes and that is why it is one of the focuses of this study. As the research questions will show, the aim is to discover if commitment in general and affective commitment in particular differ in Tampere and Zurich and what sort of issues influence that commitment while keeping the level of inclusiveness and the overall diversity climate in mind.

It is good to remember that commitment can focus on other entities besides the organization when examining institutes of higher education. Indeed, other focuses might be becoming more prevalent as originations and work environments change; there are new ways to do work, as well as new places to do it. One can have very little interaction with an actual organization and a work community might be completely absent. Consequently, some of the new entities may well become more relevant as organizations change. In an attempt to further clarify the meaning of commitment, Meyer and Allen state that two directions have been prevalent. The first point of view tries to illustrate the nature of commitment while the second distinguishes between the entities to which an employee can commit. (Meyer & Allen 1997, 8) Career commitment and community commitment,

for instance, have been proven to differ from organizational commitment (Cohen 2003, 46-77). However, this study will mainly focus on organizational commitment and in particular on organizational membership.

It has been stated that in order for diversity initiatives to work, the management has to be committed to them. They should be able to see diversity work as something that will help the organization reach its core tasks. Therefore, it is the management's responsibility to successfully communicate the importance of diversity initiatives and be able to provide it with sufficient resources. Showing respect for diversity initiatives is important so that the employees learn to respect them too. (Visti & Härkönen 2005, 41.) Diversity has been proven to have mixed effects on job satisfaction and the level of performance, while diversity management is believed to have a positive effect on them (Pitts 2009). When diversity is perceived as positive and it is actively promoted, it becomes more probable that the employees' perception chances to a more positive and inclusive one. (Mor Barak & Levin 2002). It seems equally important that organizations talk about equality and diversity openly, so that it is possible for the employees to express their more negative experiences and feelings (Visti & Härkönen 2005, 38). In order to manage commitment, organizations' should try to influence those perceptions. The management should be skilled in organising the employees and the physical workplace itself in a way that is well received by all, thus potentially enabling the workforce to become more committed and subsequently positively effecting the whole organization. Indeed, employees who believe their organization is supportive of them tend to become affectively committed. (Meyer & Allen 1997, 66.) Furthermore, a recent study concluded that employees who believed diversity training to be effective felt committed to the organization and satisfied with their careers, while those who did not believe in its affectivity were less committed and less satisfied (Yap, Holmes, Hannan & Cukier 2010).

Moreover, good diversity climate can explain positive attitudes toward the organization, the work itself and the career as indicated by perceptions of policy support, organizational justice, diversity support and the recognition of the need for diversity. Thus, a positive diversity climate (especially perception of organizational justice) has an effect on job satisfaction and indeed, organizational commitment. (Deborah Hicks-Clarke & Paul Iles 2000.) Overall, there seems to be a link between job satisfaction, commitment and diversity initiatives/training. Showing support to diversity initiatives can increase the chances of (affective) commitment as it might lead to better acceptance of all groups present in the organization. If the management succeeds in conveying this attitude, the results could benefit the whole organization and help create a more satisfied staff. Keeping the

above linkages in mind, my aim is to find out how different group memberships and work related factors influence commitment in higher education. Meyer & Herscovitsch's (2001) model is used as the basis and their questions about organizational commitment (membership focus) will be used in the questionnaire.

5. METHODOLOGY

According to Jari Metsämuuronen (2003, 4-5) research in human sciences can be divided into four groups: one that has to do with the receiver of action (e.g. the pupil), one that deals with the primary administrator of the action (e.g. the teacher), research to do with action (e.g. teaching) and last but not least research about the regulating and restricting elements of action (e.g. learning, teaching). Education uses the same methods as other human sciences; its methodology is therefore not unique to the discipline. However, research on education can be rather fragmented; people are, after all, challenging subjects for study. Opinions, motives, goals and attitudes have an effect on the phenomena under scrutiny. (Metsämuuronen 2003, 4-5.)

When deciding on a research topic, it is good to acknowledge that an interesting subject matter does not guarantee a good study. It is important to know how to define the borders of a topic, so that one can find one worth studying. The precise formulation of research problems helps with this task. (Metsämuuronen 2003, 7.) This study is concerned with the diversity climate and state of perceived equality in the university organization. The relationship between perceived equality and feelings of inclusion and commitment will be studied as well. The perspective will be comparative so as to give more insight into the differences and similarities between two institutes of higher education. In order to make the comparison more interesting, one of the universities is Swiss and the other Finnish. In accordance with the division introduced above, this study is concerned with the regulating and restricting elements of action. Diversity is ingrained in all organization; it is part of the composition yet it is never neutral. Indeed, there are many aspects that influence a diversity climate. Strategic choices, vision and organizational culture all affect the perception of diversity in an organizational setting. Hopefully, further research and acknowledgement of diversity issues will lead to better understanding and a better awareness of such matters.

5.1 Quantitative and qualitative research

Qualitative research is often associated with personal experience and the meanings that people give to phenomena. Even the word itself refers to a quality, in-depth review. Quantitative research on the other hand relies on figures and volume, and is closer to natural sciences in that regard. The concepts themselves contain certain associations within themselves. Jouni Tuomi and Anneli Sarajärvi (2004, 19) state that the method and its controlled use alone do not make the research successful. The subsequent results cannot be separated from the method or the observer; instead they influence the results. The aim in qualitative research is not objective observation; a study is always a singular event and it is not possible to create a new research frame that is exactly the same ever again. One can however, observe a phenomenon either theoretically or empirically, the difference is in the perspective which can be reduced to a difference between data and argumentation. The real contrast is in the analysis; theoretical analysis focuses on one individual and his/her thought processes (therefore identification is important) empirical analysis on the other hand strives for anonymity. (Tuomi and Sarajärvi 2004, 20-21.) In this research, the principle of anonymity will be adhered to when gathering the data.

The difference between quantitative and qualitative research is often thought to be epistemological. The dichotomy between the two methods is based on earlier world views and views about the nature of science. The most severe form of realism, positivism supported an understanding that all information is already in the world; it can be studied at will and thus we learn truths about the world. This view was very much based on natural sciences. Qualitative research on the other hand, was supported by those who believed in subjectivism, i.e. that there is no truth that can be separated from the observer. History has shown that there is always an actor in every action and his/her world views (political/social/attitudinal) will always influence the research in question. This sort of strict dichotomy has since subsided and most researchers today believe in a more pragmatic approach. (Muijs 2004, 3-5.) Most researchers admit that the research questions determine the method that will be used as different methods produce different kinds of answers (Töttö 2000, 74). In addition to numerical information, quantitative method can help give information about the state of a phenomenon; this information will help explain some aspects of it. It is also well suited for the testing of hypotheses. Nevertheless, sometimes qualitative research is considered more in-depth than quantitative. (Muijs 2004, 7-9.)

Qualitative research is sometimes deemed superior in comparison to quantitative research because it is believed to be more theoretical than its counterpart. Consequently, the analysis (possibly) becomes more penetrating. Quantitative research, on the other hand, jumps from one level to another. It starts with the question *what*; this is when the concepts and the phenomenon are defined and the limits of measurement decided upon. Conversely, the empirical question *how* places the phenomenon in a time and a place. In a descriptive study, one is more interested in *how much*, though explanatory quantitative research can also ask such questions. In addition, one can ask *why* (explanatory), in which case causal relationships are of interest. Finally, questions that start with an explanatory *how* concentrate on the links between the correlating phenomena and its sub-factors. (Töttö 2000, 81–83.) The following figure can be produced of the aforementioned questions:

Table 1. Quantitative research questions (Töttö 2000).

	Descriptive	Explanatory
Theoretical	What?	How?
Empirical	How (much)?	Why?

According to this model, quantitative research entails both empirical and theoretical aspects. However, qualitative research can also have quantitative elements and answer questions like *how much*. Another major difference between the two methods (besides the difference in the phrasing of research questions) is that the qualitative method studies expression and speech whereas the quantitative does not. In other words, qualitative research seeks to find meaningful constructs of speech (Töttö calls this semiotic analysis) whereas quantitative analysis concentrates on causal relationships. (Töttö 2000, 82-86.)

5.2 Research instruments and research questions

The research method used in this study is the quantitative research method. It was thought most suitable for various reasons, not least because it makes the gathering of data from the two countries easier and because it can reveal general patterns of thought and behavior. Even though generalizability is an important part of quantitative research and often thought to be a significant reason for using the method (Newman & Benz 1998, 54), one cannot, in this case, say anything

conclusive about the actual population. Proper sampling could not be used because there would have been a real risk of an insufficient amount of responses. Instead, the study aims to give an idea of the differences and similarities between the two universities and to give an insight into the prevalent diversity issues at play.

The aim of this study is to collect as much data as possible, from two different organizations of higher education. I will be using a structured questionnaire compiled of three parts with some openended questions for better validity. The first part is Mor Barak's inclusion-exclusion scale which measures the degree to which people feel included in their organization and work community through the level of participation, access to information networks and the decision-making process. The scale is compiled of 15 questions which are further divided into sets of three according to the theme or focus; they concentrate on the work group, the immediate supervisor, the higher management, the organization and the informal aspect at work. Previous research demonstrates the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. (Mor Barak 2011, 324-327.)

The second part of the questionnaire is the OTM- scale that measures the level of diversity and equality in an organization (Colliander, Ruoppila, Härkönen 2009). The questionnaire has been previously used in Finland in the Mosaic – research project. The project intended to expand the concept of diversity from gender diversity to all groups, promote and improve diversity management skills and help put diversity plans into practice. It also wanted to create an assessment tool for the evaluation of equality and diversity. Eight independent organizations took part in the project with 8511 employees and about 500 people from other Finnish organizations. (Colliander, Ruoppila & Härkönen 2009, 34-35.) Additionally, the questionnaire in this research contains a set of defining background questions. The nature of the study was taken into consideration when including these questions. The third part of the questionnaire is Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) organizational commitment (membership focus) scale, which includes a set of six questions. They measure the three types of commitment introduced earlier: affective, continuance and normative. A copy of the questionnaire can be found in the appendices section (Appendix A, B & C), all language options are available.

These three scales were chosen because they were the most suitable for the research questions and aims of the thesis. All have been used before in previous studies and concluded reliable. Reliability was further investigated with Cronbach's Alpha and the results were, for the most part, in

accordance with previous results. The organizational commitment scale was not as reliable as was hoped but it has been declared reliable in some other previous studies (see Myllylä 2010).

The research questions in this study are formulated using the interrogatives "what" and "how". The questions refer to a more theoretical approach to the subject matter and have both descriptive and explanatory elements:

- 1. What sort of diversity climate is prevalent in the Universities of Tampere and Zurich and how do the two universities differ?
 - How do the diversity characteristics (gender, age, culture etc.) affect the perceived diversity climate?
 - How is the perceived diversity climate in different groups related to (affective) commitment and feelings of inclusivity?
- 2. How inclusive are the universities in the study and how do they differ in inclusiveness/what similarities can be found?
 - What factors affect feelings of inclusiveness other than the perceived diversity climate?
- 3. How committed (to the organization) are the employees in the universities under comparison?
 - How do employees from Tampere and Zurich differ in commitment and affective commitment in relation to different groups?

5.3 Data characteristics; a more detailed description

The data for this study was collected from two universities; the University of Tampere and the University of Zurich. The University of Tampere was introduced in some detail in the theory section while it was used as an example on various diversity related issues. However, a short introduction of the University of Zurich is in order so as to make the comparison more meaningful. This introduction is not intended to be exhaustive in any way; it will merely give a very general overview of the university and some of its diversity policies.

The university of Zurich is made up of seven faculties covering around a 100 subject areas and has 26 000 enrolled students. There are 507 professors, 2897 non-professorial academic staff, 1977 administrative and technical staff working in the university making 5382 employees altogether.

(Facts & Figures 2011.) The amount of female students has increased in the last ten years from 52 to 57 percent. However, there is variation between faculties; the Faculty of Economics, Business Administration and Information Technology has a fairly low amount of female students while the division is somewhat more equal in almost all other faculties. Among the employees in the nonprofessorial teaching staff, 46 % were female (two thirds of the non-professorial positions are assistant positions). However, it seems the higher the position the smaller the proportion of women; 17 percent of the professors are female. Nonetheless there has been a steady increase in the amount of female professors in recent years; four percent in the last seven years to be exact. (Schröder et al. 2009.) The University of Zurich has initiated programs that offer mentoring for women to improve and further their academic careers. It has done so under the Federal Program for Gender Equity at Swiss Universities and concentrated specifically on peer mentoring and the formation of networks while some other projects have offered events, further education and web guidance for young female academics. (University of Zurich. 2011b.) Furthermore, the university has established a Gleischstellungskommission that concentrates on equality between genders (Universität Zürich 2011). As for nationality among the staff, 57, 81 % of all the staff is Swiss while the biggest proportion of foreigners comes from Germany with 20, 32 %. Of the 527 professors 238, 5 are Swiss and 185, 4 German. The rest are from other countries all over the world with the biggest proportion coming from the neighboring countries and the USA. (Proportion of nationalities and staff groups.)

As previously mentioned, the data was collected with a structured (internet-based) questionnaire that was sent to Zurich (the German version) and Tampere (Finnish version), an English version was also available to both country groups. The questionnaire was tested in both countries before sending the final version. However, it must be said that some later adjustments were made based on comments by respondents. Some questions were left off the analysis because they did not suit the respondent base.

In Tampere, the data was collected from the School of Education, the School of Management, Language Center, the School of Medicine and the of Social Sciences and Humanities. It was sent to the whole staff, 1048 receivers altogether of which 175 people responded to the questionnaire. In Zurich all together 3769 people received the questionnaire of which 215 completed it. The respondents in Zurich were part of the scientific staff (except professors), junior and senior researchers and doctoral candidates. The questionnaire also went to the staff of the central administration. As it was not clear exactly who would receive the questionnaire in Zurich (apart

from the faculties), some parts of the questionnaire were disregarded so as to accommodate the addition of this respondent group.

5.3.1 Gender, age and internationality

73, 3 % of the respondents in Tampere were female and 26, 7 % male. The amount of male respondents was slightly higher in Zurich as 34, 4 % of them were male and 65, 6 % female. (table 2).

Table 2. Gender distribution in the country groups.

	Tampere	Zurich	Total
famala	126	141	267
female	73,3 %	65,6 %	69,0 %
	46	74	120
male	26,7 %	34,4 %	31,0 %

There was more variation in the age distribution of the country groups (table 3). Half of the respondents in Zurich belonged to the second age group (30-39 year olds) while 40, 5 percent of the respondents in Tampere were in the last age group (over 50).

Table 3. Age distribution in the country groups.

		Tampere	Zurich	Total
age	0–29	18 10,4 %	36 17,0 %	54 14,0 %
	30–39	47 27,2 %	106 50,0 %	153 39,7 %
	40–49	38 22,0 %	44 20,8 %	82 21,3 %
	50–89	70 40,5 %	26 12,3 %	96 24,9 %

The same exact percentage of people in both country groups fall under the first category of international work experience (less than one year). The groups are also very similar in the second category (1-3 years), but a more significant difference can be detected in the last two categories (more than 3 years and no international work experience).

Table 4. International work experience in the country groups.

	International work experience						
less than a year 1-3 years more than 3 years no international work experien							
Tampere	29,7%	18,6%	6,4%	45,3%			
Zurich	29,7%	20,8%	22,2%	27,4%			
Total	29,7%	19,8%	15,1%	35,4%			

The use of foreign languages was generally more common in Tampere than in Zurich. The use of foreign languages in teaching specifically, was more common in Tampere (38, 3 %, Zurich: 17, 6 %) while the use of languages with students in other situations was similar in both groups (Tampere 38, 3 %, Zurich 28, 7 %). However, overall, languages were most frequently used in interaction with co-workers (Tampere 68, 6 %, Zurich 43, 1 %). Finally, 12, 6 % of respondents from Tampere said that they didn't have to use languages at all in their work environment. The figure was considerably bigger in Zurich (35, 6 %).

In Zurich most of the respondents had a Swiss citizenship. However, as many as 39, 2 % of the respondents had a citizenship somewhere else. 59, 6 % of the respondents were originally from Switzerland and 40, 4 % were originally from somewhere else. In Tampere, the vast majority of respondents had a Finnish citizenship and only two respondents had a citizenship in another country, those two respondents were also originally from somewhere else. The amount of foreign employees in the University of Zurich could explain the amount of respondents with more than three years of international work experience.

5.3.2 Occupation and length of employment

44, 6 % of the respondents in Tampere and 32, 9 % of the respondents in Zurich reported that teaching was a part of their job description. 5, 1 % in Tampere and 30, 6 % in Zurich reported that

they did administrative work and 39, 4 % in Tampere and 63 % in Zurich did research. Some of the work related tasks overlapped to a degree. In some rare cases all three tasks were relevant to one's work. There were also respondents that reported that their job was none of the above and instead did something else (Tampere 13, 1 %, Zurich 10, 2 %).

29, 1 % (the largest group) of the respondents had worked at the University of Tampere from 5, 1-10 years but all respondent groups were fairly similar in size. In Zurich, most of the respondents had worked for that university for less than two years (38 %) and only 6 % had worked there for over 10 years. The differences were evened out slightly in Zurich in accumulative work experience (universities in general), the largest group being those who had worked for 5, 1-10 years (27, 3 %). Whereas in Tampere the largest amount of respondents belonged to the last group (over 15, 1 years). (tables 5 & 6).

Table 5. Work years in the current organization.

work years c. o.a							
	Freq. %						
0–2	41	23,4					
2,1–5	1–5 39 22,						
5,1–10	5,1–10 51 29,1						
10,1–40							

a. group = Tampere

work years c. o. ^a						
	Freq. %					
0–2	82	38,0				
2,1–5	1–5 60					
5,1–10	2,1–5 60 27,8 5,1–10 40 18,5					
10,1–40	13	6,0				

a. group = Zurich

Table 6. Work years in the University organization.

work years U. o. ^a					
	Freq.	%			
0–2	22	12,6			
2,1–5	34	19,4			
5,1–10	36	20,6			
10,1–15	25	14,3			
15,1–41	53	30,3			

a. group = Tampere

work years U. o. ^a					
	Freq.	%			
0–2	52	24,1			
2,1–5	56	25,9			
5,1–10	59	27,3			
10,1–15	20	9,3			
15,1–41	16	7,4			

a. group = Zurich

5.3.3 Level of Education

Most commonly, the respondents in Tampere had either a master's degree or a doctorate, this group comprising 79, 8 % of all answers. In Zurich most of the respondents had a licentiate or a doctorate (82, 2 %).

Table 7. The level of education in both country groups.

	level of education							
		Secondar y School Graduate (or lower)	Graduate from a University of Applied Sciences	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree	Licentiate	Doctorate	other
_	Freq.	1	10	10	59	13	79	1
Tampere	%	,6 %	5,8 %	5,8 %	34,1 %	7,5 %	45,7 %	,6 %
	Freq.		7	8	4	97	81	2
Zurich	%	7,5 %	3,3 %	3,7 %	1,9 %	45,1 %	37,7 %	,9 %

Students in Finland apply for a doctorate when they apply for a post-graduate degree. A licentiate's degree can be attained while pursuing a doctorate. However, it is noteworthy that the amount of doctorates obtained every year has been consistently larger than the amount of licentiates in Tampere. The amount of licentiates has been decreasing while the amount of doctorates has been increasing in the last ten years (Tampereen yliopiston tutkinnot 2002-2011). The large amount of licentiate's degrees in Zurich is explained by the fact that before the Bologna process was put in effect in Switzerland in 2004 a "lizentiat" was the equivalent of a master's degree. (Ser Bologna process National report 2005-2007)

A majority of the respondents are in non-management positions in both groups. 80 % of the respondents in Tampere and 83, 3 % of the employees in Zurich had a non-management position. The groups are, however, very similar when it comes to permanent and fixed-term employment. 31, 6% of the respondents in Tampere were permanently employed, while 34, 3 % in Zurich were permanently employed. 64 % of all positions in the University of Tampere were fixed-term in the year 2011, whereas in this data, the number of fixed-term contracts was 68, 4 % (Henkilöstökertomus. 2011).

5.3.4 Faculties

The faculty of Arts in Zurich contains master's programmes such as the social sciences, psychology, politics and education (among others). Therefore, it perhaps most resembles the School of Social Sciences and the School of Education in Tampere but also has similarities with the School of Management (politics mainly). It is also the largest faculty in Zurich with 48 % of the student population in the faculty which explains the relatively large amount of respondents (University of Zurich 2011a, University of Tampere 2012). The Faculty of Economics, Business Administration and Information Technology differs somewhat from the School of Management in Tampere since the latter holds such degree programmes as the degree programme in politics, degree programme in business studies and the degree programme in administrative studies. (University of Tampere website) There were also a number (34) of respondents in Zurich that did not belong to any of the faculty choices given in the questionnaire, which was most likely due to the fact that these respondents were part of the general administration (Zentrale Dienste) and thus not part of any faculty.

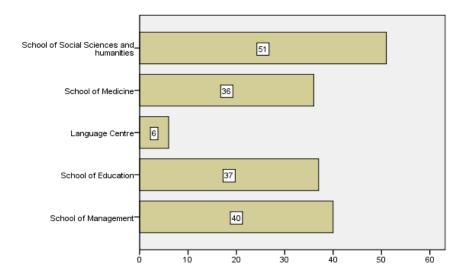


Figure 2. Respondents distribution into schools in Tampere.

In Tampere, of the 175 respondents, 51 were from the School of Social Sciences and Humanities, 36 from the School of Medicine, 6 from the Language Centre, 37 from the School of Education and 40 from the School of Management.

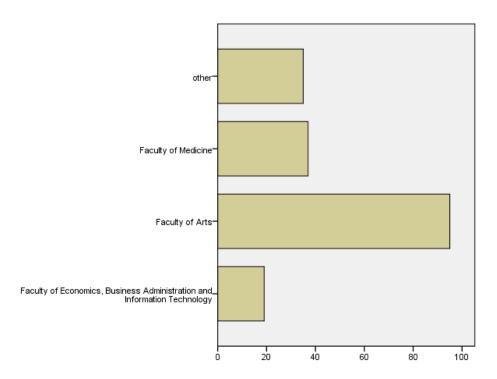


Figure 3. Respondents distribution into faculties in Zurich.

In Zurich, of the 215 respondents, the vast majority i.e. 95, were from the Faculty of Arts, 37 from the Faculty of Medicine, 18 from the Faculty of Economics, Business Administration and Information Technology, 5 from the Language Centre and 34 chose an empty category in the questionnaire.

6. RESULTS

The results will be processed by first going through the equality sum variables including the open answers and then moving onto inclusion and commitment. The open answers are marked in a way that indicate first the place of response, then the number of the respondent in the internet questionnaire and last the gender of the respondent. There are also two *years of employment* variables in the data: the years of employment in the current workplace and the years of employment in the university organization (in general). These will sometimes be referred to as years of employment c. w. (or c. o. for current organization) and years of employment u. o. (university organization) to save space.

6.1 Gender equality sum variable

The gender sum variable is reliable (Cronbach $\alpha = .880$) and it follows normal distribution. First, a two independent samples T-test was conducted in order to determine whether the two country groups differ from each other. According to the Levene's test, equal variances are assumed (p>.05). H0 hypothesis is accepted, because the p-value is 0.214. The groups do not differ statistically significantly (t(389) = -1.244, p>.01).

Next, an exploratory linear regression was conducted for the gender sum variable. The explanatory variables were age (in years), employment (full-time/part-time), position, gender, international experience (no international work experience/international work experience), language use at work, years of employment in the c. w., years of employment u. o., level of education (dummy coded into two groups: postgraduate degree, no postgraduate degree), country group, employment (fixed-term, permanent) and background (employment country/not employment country). All variables that were not continuous were dummy-coded if they were not already divided into two categories. These variables explain 21, 2 % of the variation in the gender sum variable. Model fits the data according to the F-test (p<.01).

Some explanatory variables were removed from the model because they were not good predictors of the gender sum variable. What remained was gender, age, years of employment c. w., use of languages and position. These predictor variables explain 14, 9 % of the variance (table 8).

Table 8. The variables that have a statistically significant effect on gender equality sum variable.

Coefficients

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
gender	,487	,086	,279	5,670	,000
use of languages at work	-,256	,092	-,137	-2,781	,006
years of emplyment c.o.	-,019	,006	-,155	-3,086	,002
position	,294	,113	,130	2,592	,010
age	-,002	,001	-,120	-2,427	,016

The coefficient of determination in Tampere is .194 with the variables from the previous test (groups were divided with split file). Age and years of employment did not have statistical significance (table 9). In Zurich, the coefficient of determination is .139 but position and language use at work only approach statistical significance (table 10).

Table 9. The effect of gender, position and the use of languages at work on gender equality in Tampere.

Coefficients

	Unstandardized Coefficients S		Standardized Coefficients		
Model	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
gender	,603	,137	,323	4,398	,000
use of languages at work	-,414	,180	-,167	-2,301	,023
years of employment c. w.	-,010	,009	-,098	-1,165	,246
position	,373	,161	,172	2,310	,022
age	,001	,006	,018	,205	,838,

Table 10. The effect of gender, years of employment at the current organization and age on gender equality in Zurich.

Coefficients

	Unstandardized Coefficients S		Standardized Coefficients			
Model	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	
gender	,340	,113	,210	3,009	,003	
use of languages at work	-,204	,112	-,127	-1,830	,069	
years of employment c. w.	-,037	,013	-,204	-2,801	,006	
position	,301	,165	,133	1,828	,069	
age	-,002	,001	-,180	-2,582	,011	

Many respondents mentioned issues relating to gender equality in the open questions. In Zurich, some mentioned the significance of pregnancy for women, when applying for a job or pursuing a career in the university:

Personally I do not feel that women or men are discriminated against (naturally, the issues that women and men face when it comes to equal treatment, are not the same (e.g. pregnancy; the man can wait until just before birth until he tells the boss, a woman of course not! -. consequences). Every woman can now achieve the same here as a man, only the price is different (much higher) because the physical prerequisites are not equal. (Z118F)

Some respondents felt there was a danger that pregnancy (or its possibility) could seriously hinder women's chances in a hiring situation. The issue was not brought up in Tampere, perhaps because the childcare and early education systems are somewhat different in the two countries under examination. In many cases, the gender quotas were also addressed as well as the nature of discrimination:

Although I myself am a woman, I think in terms of gender equality in the universities, men are currently more underprivileged when it comes to job allocation. Additives in job advertising like "Among equally qualified applicants, we aim to increase the proportion of women" is not equality in my view, but on one hand leads to discrimination of male applicants and to labelling such as "quota woman" etc. and it should therefore be abolished. Nowadays, such statements should not be necessary. (Z198F)

Women often pull the short straw in competitions (for a position) or face subtle discrimination (such as division of labor within the team: women must take care of administrative work, men of the scientific/research related work, though all are on the same level). (Z166F)

In Zurich, the gender quotas and gender specific advertising were mentioned more than once. People seem to view such measures as old fashioned or believe they are actually working against, either women themselves, or another group i.e. bright young (male) talent or other minorities:

There is always talk about equality between men and women. The university authorities just about only care about women's issues. Gay men, however, still have to organize themselves alone to be taken seriously at all. (Z208M)

In Tampere attention was paid to the nature and direction of discrimination:

In the selection of managers (all men) for the new schools, equality was talked about in the papers afterwards but nothing was really done about it except women were chosen for deputy managers. They weren't apparently however, pointed a clear supremacy of their own - e.g. the power to decide about issues related to research or internationalization in the schools etc. (T274F)

When it comes to gender equality, and why not other previously mentioned equality issues, we have to recognize the significance of unofficial procedures that maintain unequal customs without being noticed. For example, male professors think of their own research areas as the core of their discipline and won't let female researchers nearby, or they don't value other research areas very high and thus as such that would make those areas accessible for women. (T394F)

The open answers indicate that people seem to have mixed feelings about gender equality and the measures used to achieve it. Gender equality is arguably one of the most common aspects of readily detectable diversity and so the fact that it engenders contradictory viewpoints is understandable. Diversity initiatives are indeed perceived as good and important, but respondents seem to believe employment should ultimately be based on merit and qualifications. Nonetheless, it appears possible that gender equality, though often talked about, might be rather superficial at times; people can fail to acknowledge their own role in creating it as well as the "unofficial procedures" at work.

6.2 Diversity equality sum variable

First, two independent samples T-test was conducted in order to determine whether the two country groups differ from each other in their attitude to the diversity sum variable. According to the Levene's test, equal variances are assumed (p>.05). H0 hypothesis is accepted, because the p-value is .139. The groups do not differ statistically significantly (t(354) = -1. 482, p>.01). The diversity sum variable is reliable (Cronbach α =.900) and it follows normal distribution. Four explanatory variables were chosen according to correlation coefficients i.e. gender, years of employment in the current workplace, age and language use at work.

When the linear regression analysis was conducted on these variables (using enter model), the coefficients table gave the age variable a high sig. value (.871), and therefore it was removed. The result of the F-test was significant (Sig. =.000), so the model that remains explains the variation statistically significantly (p<.001). Significant predictor variables were the years of employment in the current workplace, gender and the use of languages at work (table 11). The test indicates that when an employee has worked a shorter time in the organization, the belief in equality between diverse groups is greater. Men's belief in diversity equality is higher than women's and the language use at work seems to be linked to a higher belief in equality between diverse groups. Nonetheless, the coefficient of determination was fairly low ($R^2 = .092$).

Table 11. Coefficients for the diversity equality sum variable.

Coefficients

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			
Model	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	
gender	,347	,091	,188	3,791	,000	
use of languages at work	-,262	,098	-,132	-2,668	,008	
years of employment c. o.	-,028	,007	-,212	-4,271	,000	

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to further study the same phenomenon; the test makes the link between the years of employment in the current workplace and the diversity sum variable even clearer. The homogeneity of variance assumption applies (p>.05). For the purposes of the test, the variable, the years of employment (c. w.) was classified into four groups (figure 4). The years of employment in the current workplace did have main effect F(3, 356)=4.23, p<.01. The differences between employment year groups were further studied with the help of a Boferroni Post Hoc test. The test indicates that those who have worked the least amount of time in their current organization (0-2 years) differ from all other groups statistically significantly when the level is .05. However, the difference is most significant compared to those who have worked in the current organization the longest (p=.004).

Lastly, a comparison was made between country groups. According to the Levene's test, there is homogeneity of variance in both country groups (p>.05). However, the main effect of the years of employment (c. w.) was not statistically significant in Tampere (although, the mean score was the highest in the first group (0-2 years: 3.84)). In Zurich, the years of employment (c. w.) does have main effect on the diversity sum variable. Those who have worked in their current workplace for 0-2 years differ statistically significantly from those who have worked there for 5, 1–10 years (as indicated by the Bonferroni Post Hoc test) (figure 4).

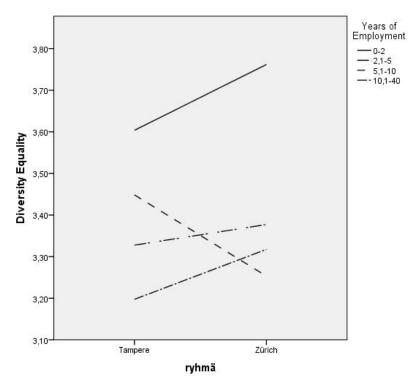


Figure 4. The effect of the country group and the years of employment in the current workplace on the diversity sum variable.

The effect of language use in the workplace was also further studied with an ANOVA test using split file to divide the country groups. The test proves that the use of languages at work has a statistically significant effect only in Tampere F (1, 173)=8.90, p<.01.

In the open answers, respondents paid attention to structural and policy changes that might make the workplace more inclusive. In Tampere, some asked for a less hierarchical environment that would allow for more (as well as more open) interaction. It is possible that faculties/schools might differ in this regard.

It's important to create a structure that allows people from different groups to have contact with each other - e.g. the architecture of the school/faculty (do professors have their own corridor and doctorate students their own, how much interaction). How do we promote an atmosphere that allows open discussion about work (methods used in seminars and meetings) and other issues (informal contact). (T20F)

Promoting equality should not be detached from other development activities. It would be good to establish methods that would allow anyone to bring forth experiences of inequality (without fear). In most cases, the experiences are downplayed, particularly in management positions and especially when they concern those in management position. (T25F)

Similar issues were brought up in Zurich; some respondents mentioned the role and responsibility of the management:

Optimization of the management structures and more efficient team formation. (Z147M)

Interestingly, one respondent questioned the role of the (dominant) religion at work and called for more sensitivity when it comes to other religions.

The omnipresence of Christianity at the University should be thought of more critically (failure to take account religious festivals such as Ramadan, Passover, but a focus on Christian holidays). The familiar situation calls for an increased focus on flexibility and mobility. (Z234F)

Such issues might be becoming increasingly important in the future.

6.3 Age equality sum variable

First, two independent samples T-test was conducted in order to determine whether the two country groups differ from each other when it comes to age equality sum variable. According to the Levene's test equal variances are assumed (p>.05). H0 hypothesis is accepted, because the p-value is =.882. The groups do not differ statistically significantly (t(389) = -.149, p>.01).

Age equality was first studied with linear regression. The sum variable follows normal distribution and is reliable (Cronbach α = .880). Age, years of employment in the university organization, years of employment in the current workplace and gender were taken as the predictor variables in the model. The model fits the data F(4,360)= 3. 68, p<.01. However, gender is the only variable with statistical significance (β =.183, p=.001) and the coefficient of determination remains very low (R²=.039).

Next, an analysis of variance was conducted for the whole data. Gender and age were again used as the explanatory variables. There is homogeneity of variance (p>.05). The test shows that both of the explanatory variables have main effect; women and men differ in their belief in age equality F(1, 387)=7. 92, p<.01 and there is a statistically significant difference between age groups as well F(3, 387)= 3. 15, p<.05. The interaction effect also approached statistical significance F(3, 387)= 2. 23, p=.084. The differences were further studied with a Post Hoc test (Scheffe). The difference was

statistically significant (on the .05 level) between the first (0–29) and the last age group (50–89). In other words, younger people believed in age equality more than older people.

Lastly, the same test was conducted for both country groups individually. It was discovered that in Tampere the model was not suitable, nor was there any indication of main or interaction effect. In Zurich however, both gender and age had main effect (gender: F(1, 204) = 10.98, p<.01, age: F(3, 204) = 2.84, p<.05) but no interaction effect (age: figure 5).

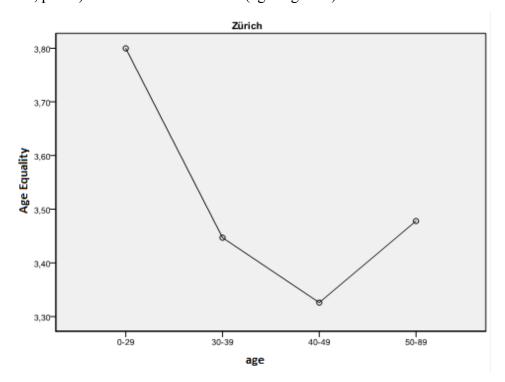


Figure 5. The main effect of age on age equality in Zurich.

Age related issues were brought up in the open answers; attention was paid to attitudinal issues in particular:

Zurich:

The institute where I work is one of the few that supports an academic career in clinical research at my age. The general attitude is, he/she who does research after they've turned 35 have simply missed the train. From my perspective, this is in contrast to the Scandinavian countries. (Z223F).

Tampere:

Last time people were hired into the organization, a lot of young people were consciously chosen. They brought new blood to the work community; however the gap between the old and the new employees is still quite large. (T50F).

6.4 Work equality sum variable

First, two independent samples T-test was conducted in order to determine whether the two country groups differ from each other when it comes to work equality sum variable. According to the Levene's test, equal variances are assumed (p>.05). H0 hypothesis is rejected because of the p-value =.001. The groups differ statistically significantly from each other (t(389) = -3.510, p<.01). The mean is higher in Zurich, so the belief in work equality is statistically significantly higher compared to Tampere.

Work equality was further studied with linear regression analysis. The sum variable follows normal distribution and is reliable (Cronbach α =.908). Explanatory variables used (based on theory) were age, years of employment in the university organization, years of employment in the current workplace, employment (fixed-term/permanent) and level of education. The model fits the data (p<.01). The coefficient table (table 12) shows that years of employment in the university organization, gender and position have statistical significance. However, the coefficient of determination is quite low (R²=.051).

Table 12. The effect of gender, position and years of employment in the university organization on the work equality sum variable.

Coefficients^a

Cocincians							
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients				
Model	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.		
Gender	,205	,095	,110	2,153	,032		
position	,358	,127	,148	2,822	,005		
Years of employment u.o.	-,018	,005	-,186	-3,515	,000		

Next, the sum variable was studied with the (one way) analysis of variance in both country groups individually. The faculty and the level of education were used as the explanatory variables. There is a homogeneity of variance (p>.0.5) in both country groups. In Tampere, the faculty has main effect on the belief in work equality F(3,160)=3.45, p=.018. The Bonferroni Post Hoc test specifies that statistically significant difference can be discerned between the School of Education and the School of Medicine (p=.012) (figure 6). The faculties in Zurich, on the other hand, did not differ statistically significantly when it comes to their belief in work equality.

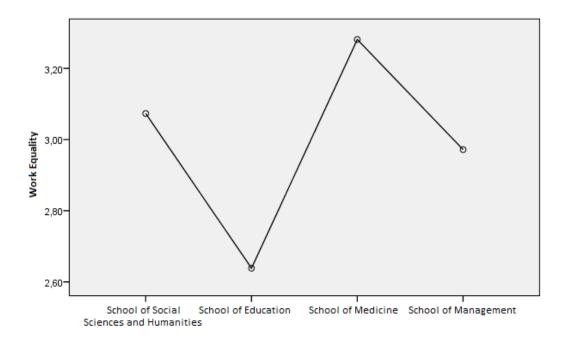


Figure 6. The belief in work equality in Tampere (between schools).

In the open answers, both country groups mentioned the experienced inequalities in employment (permanent/fixed-term), as well as the experienced inequalities between hierarchical levels. In Tampere, some respondents also felt that the research staff was unequally treated in comparison to some other employee groups:

Zurich:

Equality between equally qualified colleagues that have a different employment status (e.g. permanent vs. temporary). (Z232M)

Equitable distribution of workload while taking into account the differences in the life situations of temporary and permanent employees. In my environment it is partially clear: The permanent staff takes it easy, while the temporary employees work ever so hard: the self-portrait here is just the opposite. (Z163F)

Equality in terms of equal appreciation of the work performance despite hierarchical levels, it can't be that the doctorate students and assistants do the work and the so called leaders collect the money (wages) and everything even though they have no leadership skills. (Z85F)

Tampere:

Researchers continue to have fixed-term positions. The most experienced and those with doctorates should be permanently employed. (T22M)

Another crucial point, really the most important thing is the amount of part-time/fixed-term contracts: there are still a lot of them, some actually clearly not in accordance with

the law. This actually works against the university because the best talent might consequently leave the university as no amount of merit will credit a permanent contract. Is administration the core task of the university and research not? The questions above do not reach this core problem (the research staff's weak and unequal position next to administration). There is a blatant problem here, next to which everything else is just fine-tuning. (T22M)

6.5 Cultural equality sum variable

The cultural equality sum variable follows normal distribution and is reliable (Cronbach α = .941). A t-test was first conducted in order to find out whether the two country groups differ from each other. According to the Levene's test, equal variances are assumed (p>.05). H0 hypothesis is rejected while the p-value is 0,000. The groups differ statistically significantly from each other (t(389) = -3. 98, p<.01). Respondent's estimation of cultural equality is statistically significantly higher in Zurich than in Tampere.

Next, the sum variable was studied with linear regression analysis. The explanatory variables were age, years of employment in the current workplace, years of employment in the university organization, background (in Zurich), language use at work, level of education and international work experience. In the first test, the only statistically significant predictor of belief in cultural equality (in Zurich), was use of languages at work (β = -.220, p =.005) In Tampere, use of languages at work was the only predictor variable that approached statistical significance (β = -.140, p=.083).

The issue was then studied with an ANOVA test; language use at work and the country group were taken on as explanatory variables in order to see if these two variables have any main or interaction effect. The test shows that both variables have main effect but no interaction effect on the cultural equality sum variable. Yet again, those who use languages at work differ from those who do not, when it comes to their belief in equality between people from different cultures F(1, 387)=7.56, p<.01 (figure 7).

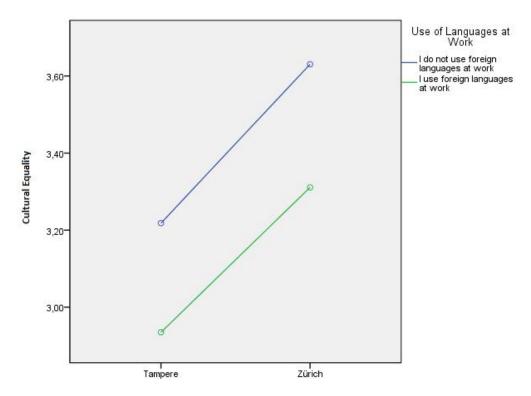


Figure 7. The effect of language use at work on the belief in cultural equality in both country groups.

Finally, a one way ANOVA test was conducted in order to find out whether the faculty/school had any effect on the belief in cultural equality. According to the Levene's test, there is homogeneity of variance because p>.05. In Tampere, the faculties do differ from each other when it comes to the belief in cultural equality F(3,160)=7.76, p<.01). The Post Hoc test (Tukey) reveals that the difference is statistically significant between the School of Education and the School of Medicine (p=.000). The difference between the School of Medicine and the School of Social Sciences and Humanities is also statistically significant (p=.010). Figure 8 shows that the belief in cultural equality is low in the School of Education compared to the School of Medicine (the language center was not taken into consideration in this test because of the small amount of respondents).

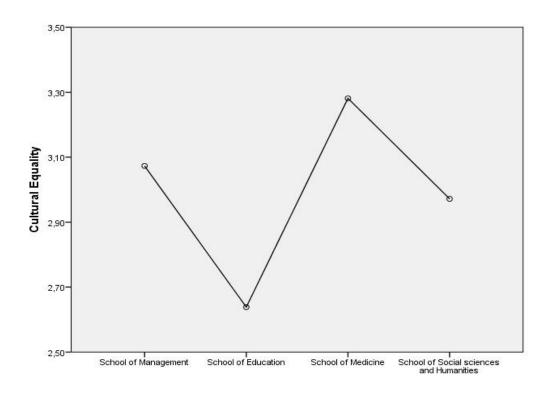


Figure 8. Cultural equality in Tampere (between schools).

In Zurich, the faculties did not differ statistically significantly (F(3,182)=2.29, p>.05). However the p-value did approach statistical significance. (p=.080). Moreover, the Post Hoc test (Tukey) reveals that the difference between Faculty of Economics, Business Administration and Information Technology and the respondent group labeled *Other* was almost statistically significant (p=.053). As previously mentioned, the questionnaire also went to the general administration and it is possible, even likely that those in the *Other* category are in fact in general administration. However, we cannot be sure of this, so reliable conclusions cannot be made.

Cultural equality was mostly mentioned among other equality characteristics. Some suggested (in Zurich) that cultural diversity can be an advantage when the management stresses its benefits for the work community instead of using coercive measures and polarizing quotas. The nature of the field of study might also play a role:

Ultimately, in a rather male-dominated industry with an increasingly dried-up labour market, the employment situation is vital. On the whole we are just glad to find suitable candidates. Ethnicity, gender, age or disability, are secondary characteristics. Overall, it is my experience that "multicultural" team (Switzerland, Iran, Turkey, Germany and second generation immigrants from Croatia and Italy) with an age range from 30 to 60 and a female share of about 30%, very rewarding for the work and the interaction. This increase in proportions has only grown since the active planning of quotas.

The promotion of diversity as moral/ethical/legal obligation with coercive measures is not very promising in my opinion. Rather, managers need to indicate in the form of clear benefit orientation the benefits and the use that diverse teams can have. (Z164M)

In Tampere, descriptions were more general. However, respondents did pay attention to cultural equality as well:

The circumstances of people of foreign origin and foreigners, especially non Finnish-speaking is not yet good enough from an equality perspective. In other issues (gender, age, etc.) things are better. (T22M)

This institution on the whole as well as my department, one with many international staff, have no true understanding of diversity. There is no attempt to be inclusive, it is assumed that everyone will follow Finnish norms, and there is no attempt to benefit from diversity. There are only empty words which actions contradict. (T384F)

6.6 Inclusion-exclusion sum variable

Inclusion-exclusion sum variable follows normal distribution and is reliable (Cronbach α = .801). First, two independent samples T-test was conducted in order to determine whether the two country groups differ from each other. According to the Levene's test, equal variances are assumed (p>.05). However, the groups do not differ statistically significantly, t(385)=-1.16, p = .249. The mean is fairly high in both groups (Table 13).

Table 13. The level of inclusion in both country groups.

	group	N	Mean
Inclusion	Tampere	173	3,7214
	Zurich	214	3,8115

The explanatory variables in the linear regression analysis were: years of employment in the current workplace, years of employment in the university organization, international work experience, language use at work, gender, level of education, background (in Zurich) and age. The model fits the data (p<.05). Both enter and stepwise methods were used, however, the coefficient of determination was not very high in either country groups (when using split file).

Next, a new model was constructed with only the employment variables: employment (permanent/fixed-term), work time (part-time/full-time) and position. The model fits the data (p<.001). When stepwise method was used, the most significant predictor of inclusion was position (R^2 =.064). All three variables included, the coefficient of determination was not much higher (R^2 =.073).

Last, all of the variables above were included in a single model while the country groups were separately studied using split file. The model fits the data in Zurich (p=.000). The coefficient of determination was much higher with these variables and they explained 25, 1 % of the variation in the inclusion-exclusion sum variable. The best predictors of inclusion were position, gender and use of languages at work (p < .05). The coefficient of determination was .173.when a linear regression analysis was again conducted with these variables only; i.e. position, gender and use of languages at work explain 17, 3% of the variation in the inclusion-exclusion sum variable. Nevertheless, as table 14 indicates only position explains variation in inclusion statistically significantly (and 15, 6 % of the variation on its own).

Table 14. Coefficients for inclusion-exclusion sum variable in Zurich.

149

.895

Coefficients

position

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
gender	,112	,106	,068	1,062	,290	,996	1,004
use of	-,188	,105	-,115	-1,792	,075	,996	1,004
languages							

386

6.024

995

1.005

The test was conducted with the same variables in Tampere (excluding background). The model did not fit the data (p>.05) and further testing did not reveal other significant interrelationships (a T-test in Tampere confirmed that position did not affect inclusion statistically significantly).

Finally, a test was conducted in order to find out whether there is a connection between employment (permanent/fixed-term) and inclusion. As there was only one explanatory variable, two independent samples T-test was the most suitable (split file was used to divide the country groups). In both groups equal variances are assumed (Levene's test value is <.05). According to the test, employment (permanent/fixed-term) does effect inclusion in Zurich (t (207) = 2. 69, p= .008) but

not in Tampere (t (168) = .87, p>.05). In Zurich, those who are permanently employed feel more included that those who are not (figure 9).

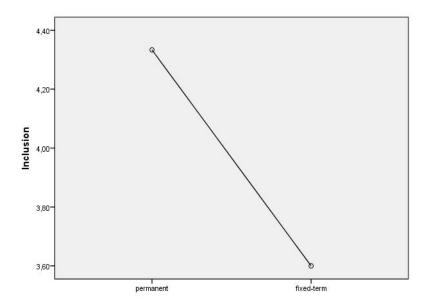


Figure 9. The effect of employment on feelings of inclusion in Zurich.

6.7 Commitment sum variable

The commitment sum variable follows normal distribution but the reliability is fairly low (Cronbach α =.573). Removing variables from the indicator did not raise the reliability, so all six variables were left in. The reliability was much higher for affective commitment (Cronbach α =. 799) which will be the focus of further testing. First, two independent samples T-test was conducted in order to determine whether the two country groups differ from each other when it comes to commitment. According to the F-test there is homogeneity of variance (p=.062), so equal variances were assumed. The country groups do not differ from each other in commitment (t (389) =-1.44, p=.152).

Two independent samples T-test was conducted in order to determine whether the two country groups differ from each other when it comes to affective commitment (affective commitment sum variable follows normal distribution). According to the Levene's test for equality of variance, there is homogeneity of variance (p=.289), so equal variances are assumed. The country groups do not differ from each other in affective commitment (t (389) =-1.59, p=.113).

The commitment sum variable was first studied on the whole with linear regression analysis. However, the model did not fit the data and there were no conclusive results. Therefore, affective commitment was taken into consideration. Affective commitment was studied in the country groups individually using the split file command. In linear regression analysis, age and employment were used as explanatory variables. The model fits both country groups (p <.01). In Tampere, age was the only statistically significant predictor of affective commitment (β =.393, p =.000) with a relatively high coefficient of determination (R^2 =.172) (table 15). In Zurich, age (β =.002, p =.979) is not a good predictor of affective commitment but employment is (β = -.266, p =.000). However, it only predicts the variation in affective commitment 7, 1 % (table 15).

Table 15. Tampere: age's effect on affective commitment; Zurich: (permanent) employment's effect on affective commitment.

Tampere	9

			Adjusted R	Std. Error of the
Model	R	R Square	Square	Estimate
1	.415 ^a	.172	.162	.99447

Zurich

			Adjusted R	Std. Error of the
Model	R	R Square	Square	Estimate
1	.266ª	.071	.062	.99795

Next, an analysis of variance was conducted (for commitment sum variable) in both country groups individually, using gender and employment (permanent/fixed-term) as explanatory variables. According to the Levene's test, there is homogeneity of variance in both groups (p>.05), so the test is possible. The test shows that only the interaction effect of gender and employment is statistically significant (p=.016) (figure 10).

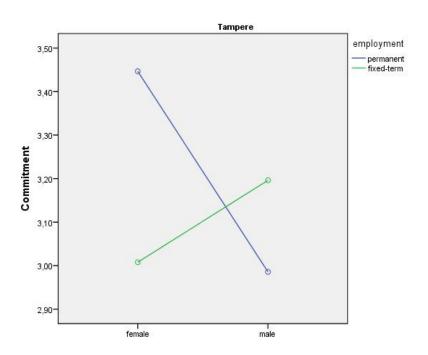


Figure 10. The interaction effect of gender and employment in Tampere.

In the next (analysis of variance) test, the country group and age (classified into four groups) were used as explanatory variables and commitment sum variable as the dependent variable. The test proves that age and country group both have main effect on commitment (age: F(1, 337) = 3.17, p<.05, group: F(1, 337) = 5.13, p<.05), but no interaction effect. To see which age groups differ from each other, a Post Hoc (Bonferroni) test was conducted. According to the test, the age group 40-49 (year olds) differs from the age group 50-89 (year olds) statistically significantly (p<.05). The test was then conducted again for both country groups individually. The difference is statistically significant in Tampere (age: F(3,169) = 2.87, p<.05) but not in Zurich, though the means are similarly divided between the age groups (Tampere: figure 11).

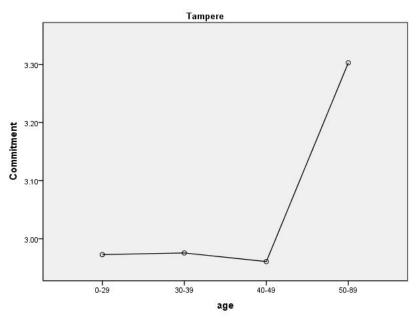
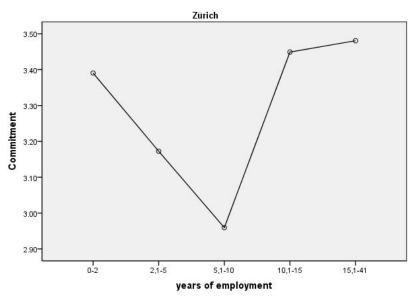


Figure 11. The effect of age on commitment in Tampere.

Finally, years of employment c. o. was taken on as an explanatory variable (commitment as dependent). The analysis of variance test was conducted on both country groups individually. Age was chosen as a covariate. According to the Levene's test, there is homogeneity of variance in both groups (>.05). The variable years of employment does not have main effect in Tampere (F(4, 162) = 1,53, p>.05) but it does have statistically significant main effect in Zurich (F(4, 195) = 4, 52, p=.002).

In order to find out which groups in Zurich differ from each other, a Post hoc (Bonferroni) test was also conducted. The difference is statistically significant between those who have worked for 5, 1–10 years and almost all other groups (excluding the 2, 1-5 years group). The difference is the greatest between 0-2 years and 5, 1-10 years in the current organization (p=.007) (figure 12).



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: age = 42.42

Figure 12. The effect of the years of employment (in a university organization) on commitment in Zurich.

Last, the faculties were taken into consideration. The faculties/schools did not differ from each other when it comes to commitment. However, in Tampere they do differ in affective commitment F (3, 160)=3.84, p<.05. According to Levene's test, there is homogeneity of variance (p>.05). According to a Post Hoc (Tukey) test, the School of Education and the School of Management differ from each other statistically significantly (p=.007) when it comes to affective commitment. The employees in the School of Education are more affectively committed than the employees in the School of Management (figure 13).

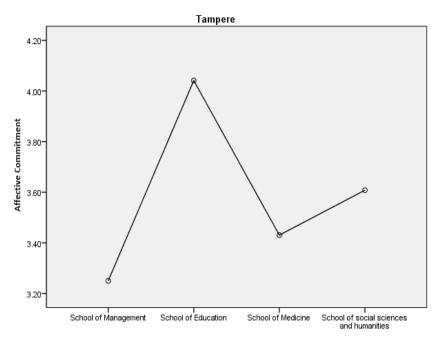


Figure 13. Affective commitment in Tampere between schools.

6.8 Connections between sum variables

Finally, the equality sum variables were used as explanatory variables and inclusion as the dependent variable in a linear regression test (using split file to divide the groups). In Tampere the model fits the data (p<. 05). According to the coefficients, diversity equality is the only one that effects inclusion statistically significantly (table 16).

Table 16. Coefficients for all equality sum variables in Tampere when inclusion is the dependent variable.

Coefficients							
	Unstandard	dized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity S	Statistics
Model	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	2,226	,257		8,675	,000		
SUMgender	,058	,092	,064	,628	,531	,407	2,458
SUMage	-,047	,104	-,049	-,452	,652	,367	2,725
SUMcultural	-,099	,075	-,107	-1,330	,185	,654	1,528
SUMwork	,110	,080,	,131	1,379	,170	,471	2,124
SUMdiversity	,425	,073	,487	5,828	,000	,612	1,633

The coefficient of determination is R²=.27. So diversity equality sum variable explains 27% percent of the variation in inclusion. The sense of inclusion is higher when belief in diversity equality is higher. The same is true in Zurich where a higher belief in diversity equality explains 22 % of the variation in inclusion (table 17).

Table 17. Coefficients for all equality sum variables in Zurich when inclusion is the dependent variable.

Coefficients

	Unstanda Coefficien		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity S	Statistics
Model	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	2,216	,257		8,618	,000		
SUMgender	,142	,101	,141	1,405	,161	,370	2,704
SUMage	,051	,101	,049	,508	,612	,400	2,502
SUMcultural	-,024	,070	-,026	-,341	,734	,643	1,555
SUMwork	-,093	,092	-,095	-1,015	,311	,418	2,395
SUMdiversity	,367	,074	,417	4,976	,000	,528	1,894

Next, the same test was executed, using affective commitment as the dependent variable. In Tampere, diversity equality was the only variable that had statistically significant effect on affective commitment (using stepwise method). The, model fit the data (p<.05) but the coefficient of determination was very low (R²=.044) so diversity equality explains only 4, 4% of the variation in affective commitment. In Zurich, diversity equality was also the only variable that remained in the model (in stepwise method). The coefficient of determination was slightly better than in Tampere but still fairly low (R²=.108), so diversity equality explains 10, 8% of the variation in affective commitment.

The connection between affective commitment and inclusion was also studied. When inclusion is used as the dependent variable and affective commitment as the explanatory variable in Tampere, there is a statistically significant link between the sum variables. The model fits the data (p < .01) The coefficient of determination is $R^2=.117$), i.e. affective commitment explains 11, 7% of the variation in inclusion. In Zurich, the coefficient of determination is $R^2=.128$, i.e. affective commitment explains 12, 8% of the variation in inclusion.

6.9 Main results

The country groups did not differ from each other in gender equality, i.e. the means scores were similar in both groups. Men regarded equality between genders higher than women in both country groups. In Zurich, those who had been in the current workplace a shorter amount of time regarded equality between genders higher than those that had worked there longer; also, the younger the respondent, the higher the belief in gender equality. In Tampere, the use of languages at work increased the belief in gender equality as did having a management position (figure 14).

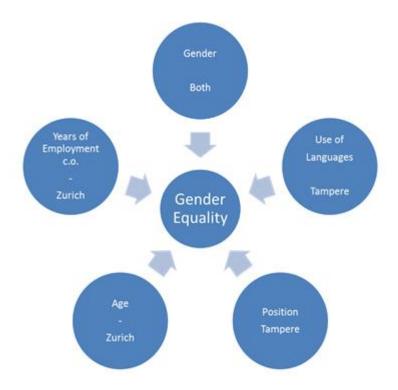


Figure 14. Variables that influenced gender equality.

The country groups did not differ from each other in overall diversity equality. Years of employment, gender and use of languages at work explained the variance in diversity equality 9, 2%. However, after further testing, it was clear that years of employment had an effect on diversity equality in Zurich only. Those who had worked in the University of Zurich for less than two years believed in diversity equality the most and differed statistically significantly from those who had worked there for 5, 1-10 years. However, when the whole data was explored, the 0-2 year group differed statistically significantly from all other groups. Nonetheless, the difference was most

significant between 0-2 years and both 5, 1-10 and over 15 years. As to gender, men seemed to have a higher belief in diversity equality than women; this was true in both groups (figure 15).

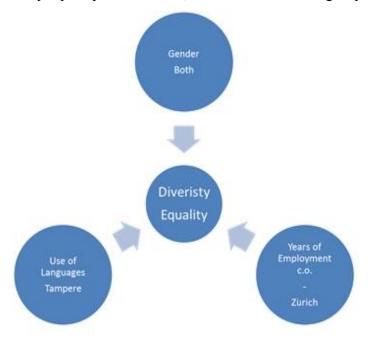


Figure 15. Variables that influenced diversity equality.

Country groups did not differ from each other when it comes to overall age equality. Nonetheless, further testing proved that in Zurich women had a lower belief in age equality. Also the youngest age group (under 29) had the highest belief in age equality; there was little difference between the other age groups (figure 16).



Figure 16. Age and gender had an effect on age equality in Zurich.

Country groups did differ in *work equality* and *cultural equality*. Respondents in Zurich believed the work equality to be higher than respondents in Tampere. In Tampere, the School of Education and the School of Social Sciences and Humanities differed statistically significantly from the School of Medicine when it comes to work equality. The former two had a low belief in work

equality while the School of Medicine had a relatively high one. The country groups also differed from each other in cultural equality; the belief in cultural equality was higher in Zurich than in Tampere. In Tampere, the schools differed in their belief in cultural equality as well; in the School of Education, the score was statistically significantly lower than in the School of Medicine. Lastly, the use of languages at work affected cultural equality in Zurich (table 18).

Table 18. School means in Tampere for work equality, cultural equality and affective commitment. The means outlined with red (high mean) differ from the means outlined in orange (low mean) statistically significantly.

	School of Education	School of Social Sciences and Humanities	School of Medicine	School of Management
Work equality	mean score	2, 97	3, 28	3, 07
Cultural equality	2, 79	3, 08	3, 62	3, 21
Affective commitment	4, 04	3, 61	3, 43	3, 25

In Zurich position and employment had an effect on inclusion. Those in management position and with a permanent work contract felt more included. This connection could not be discerned in Tampere (figure 17).

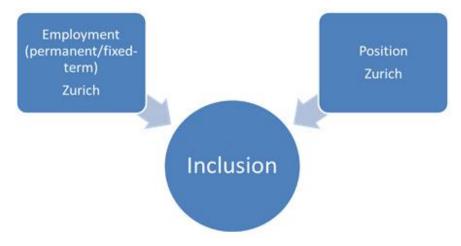


Figure 17. Employment and position influenced inclusion in Zurich.

In Tampere, age predicted affective commitment fairly highly (17, 2%). The older the respondent, the more affectively committed they were. The schools differed also. The School of Management differed statistically significantly from the School of Education. The respondents in the School of Education were more affectively committed than the respondents in the School of Management (table 16). In Zurich, employment affected affective commitment. Those with fixed term contracts were less affectively committed (figure 18).



Figure 18. Affective commitment in both country groups.

In overall commitment, gender and employment had interaction effect in Tampere. Permanently employed women were the most committed while permanently employed men were the least committed. As to age, the oldest age group (over 50) is the most committed of all the age groups in Tampere. In Zurich in turn, years of employment influenced commitment. The most committed group were those who had worked for 5, 1-10 years. They differed statistically significantly from those who had worked for less than two years and those who had worked for over 10 years (figure 19).

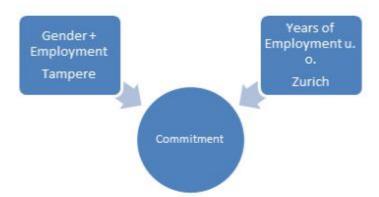


Figure 19. Gender and Employment had interaction effect in Tampere and years of employment c. o. main effect in Zurich when it comes to commitment.

In both country groups, diversity equality had an effect on inclusion; the higher the perceived diversity equality, the higher the level of inclusion. In Tampere diversity equality explained 27 % and in Zurich 22 % of the variation in inclusion (figure 20).

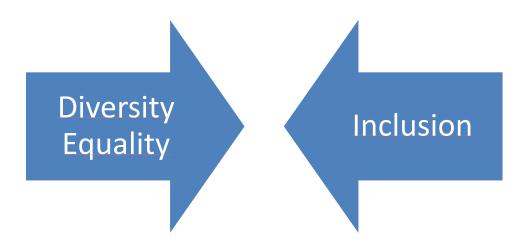


Figure 20. Diversity equality effects inclusion statistically significantly.

The connection between diversity equality sum variable and affective commitment was statistically significant in both country groups but the link was not very strong. The diversity equality sum variable explained variance in affective commitment 10, 8 % in Zurich and only 4, 4 % in Tampere. The connection between affective commitment and the level of inclusion was statistically significant in both country groups. However, affective commitment only explained 11, 7 % of the variation in Tampere and 12, 8 % in Zurich.

7. SUMMARY

The main purpose of the study was to discover what characterizes organizations of higher education when it comes to their diversity climate, as well as to observe how inclusive these institutions are and what affects that inclusion. Lastly, the level of employees' commitment and affective commitment were studied. The data was collected with a questionnaire that includes three sections; each one concerned with one of the main research questions introduced earlier.

Due to the comparative arrangement, one of the aims of the study was to see if the universities under scrutiny differed in diversity and equality related issues. More specifically, the respondents were asked about their belief in equality in gender, work, culture, diversity and age related matters. In most cases, no difference could be discerned between the country groups. However, in two cases, statistically significant difference was apparent. Zurich had a higher mean score in both *cultural* equality and work equality. According to Colliander et al. (2009, 373-375), Tampere received an average result in cultural equality while the score in Zurich indicated an above average result. This

seems to support the earlier suggestion that a larger amount of minorities in the workforce can influence it positively by making it more tolerant in the long run (Kanter 1977, 283-284). On the other hand, the work equality score in Zurich corresponds with an average result while the score in Tampere refers to a below average outcome (Colliander et al. 2009, 373-375). The discrepancy in work equality might have something to do with an (experienced) unfair distribution of fixed-term contracts. At any rate, the open answers in Tampere seem to suggest that there is some dissatisfaction about the fixed-term nature of university careers.

There were other subtle differences and similarities that could be discerned in a more detailed investigation. As mentioned in the beginning, organizational gender roles are reproduced and reintroduced over and over again; they are the result of a constant discourse and deliberation (Gherardi & Poggio 2001). In both country groups, gender effected the belief in gender equality as women perceived it to be lower than men. The result seems only natural as many studies show that women are more conscious of gender inequality than men (Davis & Robinson 1991). Studies also show that women feel more discouraged to pursue an academic career because of issues such as parenting, mobility, academic environment and lifestyle (van Anders 2004). Indeed, some respondents in Zurich mentioned pregnancy as a problem for career development. Interestingly, age and the years of employment in the current organization had a negative effect on gender equality in Zurich; the younger employees estimated the gender equality to be lower as did those who had been in the current organization a shorter while. In Tampere, high position and the use of languages at work affected the views on gender equality in a positive way. As mentioned earlier, the diversity climate and diversity management can have a positive influence on other aspects of work such as performance and commitment (Sacher 2010; Kopelman et al. 1990). Conceivably, as a diverse workplace can have an effect on the general diversity climate, it can also have an effect on gender equality (as suggested by the result about language use at work). Gender is after all a very visible aspect of diversity.

Age and gender had main effect on the belief in age equality in Zurich only. Age and gender might have a mutual effect in the work organization as indicated by a previous study. It is interesting that since this study was conducted in Finland, there was no indication of such relationship in Tampere. (Kouvonen 1999.) In Zurich however, women had a lower belief in age equality than men while the youngest respondents had the highest belief in age equality. A result that seems natural, even though young employees can experience age discrimination too (Sargeant 2007); in this case it seems to be more of an issue for the older employees.

There was a connection between the perceived diversity equality and years of employment in the current organization/workplace in Zurich. Those who had been in the employ the least amount of time (0-2 years) differed from those who had been employed from 5, 1 to 10 years. Overall, it seems, people who have worked in the organization longer have a lower belief in diversity equality. In Tampere, the use of languages had an effect on the perceived diversity equality. The result seems logical as a diverse workforce can make the work community more open in general (Colliander, Ruoppila & Härkönen 2009). Furthermore, gender had an effect on the perceived diversity equality as women in both country groups had a lower belief in it than men. This result is perhaps not surprising as women themselves can have a minority role in the workplace. Nonetheless, other studies have concluded that white men and women have similar attitudes to diversity efforts; gender does not necessarily influence perception towards diversity initiatives in a straight forward manner. A more balanced workforce (e.g. gender, ethnicity) however, can affect both genders' attitudes in a positive way. (Kossek & Zonia 1994.)

In further relation to work equality, many respondents mentioned the discrepancy between permanently employed people and those on fixed-term contracts in the open answers. In Zurich, employees brought up the general perceived unfair treatment and the extra stress non-permanency creates while in Tampere the perceived unfair treatment of different employee groups (mainly administration and research) was mentioned on multiple occasions. Having a fixed-termed contract can admittedly add to the level of stress and it can have a negative effect on job satisfaction (Petrongolo 2004). Correspondingly, employment type had an effect on the level of inclusion experienced. Those who were permanently employed felt more included than those who were not.

Respondents in Zurich viewed affirmative and positive action as measures that are discriminating themselves. The open answers indicate that the employees have fairly strong opinions of such initiatives and some view them as downright discriminatory. People sometimes express uneasiness with policies that appoint quota systems for different groups of people because they are thought to possibly lead to reverse discrimination while employees' real achievements and qualities are disregarded. Indeed, affirmative and positive action initiatives have always generated controversy. (Mor Barak 2010, 75-80.) The fact that such matters were mentioned in Zurich is perhaps not surprising as it seems gender-based hiring and advertising might be more common in Switzerland than in Finland (assessment is based on open answers as the issue was only raised in Zurich). Moreover, the role of management in diversity related matters was mentioned in the open answers and its participation was thought to be important. Indeed, good near superior management has been

proven to effect perceived job satisfaction (Kauhanen 2012). Thomas and Ely (1996 and 2001) believe in the positive influence (on the diversity climate) of proper management as well.

Interestingly enough, in Tampere some of the schools differed statistically significantly in their belief in work equality and cultural equality. More specifically, the School of Education had a fairly low belief in both work and cultural equality in comparison to the School of Medicine. Furthermore, the School of Social Sciences and Humanities differed from the School of Medicine in cultural equality. (table 18.) It is difficult to discern what causes this dissatisfaction and why Zurich did not display similar differences between faculties. Remarkably, despite these tendencies, the employees in the school of education were the most affectively committed of all the schools in the research (in Tampere), even though the difference was statistically significant only in comparison to the School of Management. As previously mentioned, people who believe that their organization is supportive of them usually become more affectively committed (Meyer & Allen 1997, 66). Perhaps the atmosphere at the school of education is positive and encouraging despite the perceived drawbacks related to the cultural and work equality.

Age had a relatively strong impact on affective commitment in Tampere; the older the respondents, the higher the level of the affective commitment. Nonetheless, older age and employment had no interaction effect, so the result is apparently not tied to job security. People's self-theory and perceived developmental support affects their training and developmental willingness (Van Vianen et al. 2011). Perhaps, in higher education, the employees' self-theory is more informed compared to some other organizations. Furthermore, it is likely that employees are encouraged to evolve and learn throughout their careers. The university institutions appreciate merit, scientific achievement and knowledge; all things that come with time. Indeed, the age profile in academia could differ from other types of organizations. In Zurich on the other hand, employment did influence affective commitment. Both results verify what others have verified before; age and tenure are considered antecedents of commitment (Cohen 1993).

Gender and employment had interaction effect on general commitment in Tampere. The permanently employed women were the most committed while permanently employed men were the least committed, leaving those with fixed-term contracts somewhere in between. The result is perhaps not so surprising if it is assumed that those on fixed-term contracts are not necessarily less committed to their work than permanently employed people (McDonald & Makin 2000). However, feelings of insecurity at work have been linked to lower commitment in the past. Nevertheless,

other factors can have a greater effect; well-being and work attitude can be low among those who, though permanently employed, still experience a lot of insecurity. (Mauno & Kinnunen 2005.) Insecurity can be related to job features as well as job stability; loss of important job characteristics, demotion and career insecurity can also make employees feel insecure (Sverke & Hellgren 2002, 27-30).

One of the most clearly significant results in the study is the connection between diversity equality and inclusion. It was clear in both country groups (though slightly more so in Tampere) that diversity equality had an effect on the sense of inclusion; employees feel that they are more included in the decision-making processes, that they have a better access to information networks and that the level of participation is higher when people from different groups are well accommodated. The result seems to indicate that diversity climate does affect employees' well-being rather significantly; in fact, it was the only equality sum variable that had a significant effect on inclusion. Respondents seem to feel that better acknowledgement of diversity leads to a better sense of inclusion. Indeed, Michàlle E. Mor Barak's (2010) assessment seems accurate: diversity can be of an advantage to the organization if properly managed and a disadvantage when ignored (see also Colliander, Ruoppila, Härkönen 2009). At the very least, it seems to have an effect on people's sense of well-being.

8. DISCUSSION

Gathering data from the two countries was challenging but nevertheless offered a unique and revealing basis for comparison; it gives the research a broader perspective than an internal comparison within Finland would have done. The countries are similar in that they are both European and classified as democratic western states. However, there are historical, societal, demographic and political differences that can be assumed to have an effect; Switzerland is and has long been a very multicultural state. It consists of linguistically diverse areas and the strong cantonal system and has easy access to neighboring countries; the amount of foreigners living in Switzerland is quite substantial. The Nordic countries on the other hand, have a reputation as being pioneers when it comes to equality (gender equality specifically) and though Finland is a bilingual country, it is also fairly homogenous and the flow of immigration is considerably lower in comparison to Switzerland. These national characteristics were thought to make comparison in diversity related issues interesting.

The analysis indicates that diversity equality effects inclusiveness quite significantly, a result that verifies some of the suppositions stated in the beginning, i.e. diversity climate does affect employees' wellbeing and thus has a connection to other important organizational functions. Moreover, this phenomenon was observed in both country groups. It would be interesting to research this connection further and specifically study management's role and influence when diversity climate is concerned, and specifically, how it affects inclusiveness and/or commitment. The perceived diversity equality affected affective commitment in both country groups even if the significance was fairly low. However, the variation between countries is interesting; the perceived diversity equality did explain variance in affective commitment in Zurich more than in Tampere (6, 4% difference between groups). It would be interesting to explore this slight tendency a bit more, for example with the help of a narrative analysis. A qualitative, narrative method might reveal linguistic and thus social structures that can now only be guessed at.

It was discovered that the country groups differed in some of the equality aspects. This connection was further analyzed and it was revealed that some of the schools in Tampere differed significantly in cultural and work related equality. As such differences could not be discerned in Switzerland, it would be interesting to study the faculty/school related differences further. Perhaps more attention should be paid to this discrepancy and its reasons in Tampere; the schools do after all follow the same equality plan. Furthermore, though the School of Education received a low score in work and cultural equality, it received a very high score in affective commitment. It is indeed curious that though the perceived equality is low in some aspects it does not affect affective commitment. Therefore, the school related differences would also offer an interesting topic for future research. All in all, the quantitative research method was suitable in this case but in further research triangulation might help the researcher delve deeper into the reasons and nuances that cause such interesting phenomena. Interviewing representatives of the staff could give some additional insight into the differences between schools (in Tampere).

Form of employment affected the results in many occasions. Therefore, it would be interesting to explore its effects on the diversity climate, for example in higher education workforce, further. Indeed, in the year 2011, the amount of people with fixed-term contracts who did not choose such a contract but were unable to find a permanent position, was 62, 7%. Yet, 27 % of the respondents did not, in fact, want a permanent position. (Statistics Finland 2011e) The effect of work contracts was part of the questionnaire among other diversity aspects but its relevance was not at first anticipated. Nonetheless, the changing nature of work and its possible significance in the future was mentioned

in chapter 4.4. Moreover, the open answers in Tampere indicated that the research staff feels discriminated against when compared to other worker groups; the administrational staff in particular. It seems this discrepancy and the apparent irritation is related to the perceived work inequality; this too offers an interesting and important topic for further research.

Gathering data from the two countries was demanding also because respondent groups are difficult to control from abroad and detailed information is often hard to come by, let alone understand in the right historical and social context. At a large scale, an internationally comparative study would benefit from research partners that would have specific knowledge of their own systems of higher education and the national culture in general. International research, though interesting and beneficial, can lead to unexpected issues and challenges. The use of an internet based questionnaire that was sent to everyone on an e-mailing list brought its own idiosyncrasies to the current study. It is possible that people who feel compelled to answer a questionnaire related to diversity and equality might feel the subject matter somehow connects to them. Therefore, further research might target a specific group of respondents, the management for example or the research staff, and further study their perception of the same phenomena. Additionally, some parts of the questionnaire were left out because they did not either fit the respondent base, or did not suit the final definition of the research topic. The concept of discrimination for example, though part of the questionnaire, was largely left out because of this.

Further research into the significance of racially and ethnically diverse groups might reveal something more about the attitudes towards immigration and its effect on perceived cultural equality. The fact that different immigrant groups might be treated differently was alluded to in the theory section of this study (page 23). Indeed, the foundation of equality, though well established in Finland, does not necessarily reach all groups in an equal manner. (Sippola 2007, 55-60) It might be beneficial to compare highly skilled immigrants in the university institution to other immigrant groups, and whether or not immigrants in expert position perceive cultural equality and discrimination differently from those other groups. Indeed, some of the open answers given by foreign employees suggested that culture is almost never seen as something neutral and often garners strong reactions; some want to further equality, while others seem to feel it is always a forced concept and true equality cannot even be obtained.

In my opinion, this research manages to showcase the relevance of diversity in the workplace; it is evidently something that needs continued attention. The topic has grown in popularity within the European context fairly recently, as indicated by initiatives like the Diversity Charter mentioned in the introduction. This study offers an international comparative viewpoint to diversity related issues. However, a comparison between institutions of higher education within the national context might be illuminating as it might reveal something about the effects of university size, location and staff composition as well as school and faculty related differences

This study gives an overview of the state of perceived equality in both universities and reveals something about the differences between the two nations. It also exposes the link between equality, inclusiveness and to an extent, (affective) commitment. Though more similar than different, the focuses of the countries differed slightly. Switzerland seems more advanced when it comes to cultural equality while Finland seems more developed in gender equality. Further international cooperation might offer chances for mutual development. As I mentioned in the introduction, awareness about diversity has grown in recent years and new diversity initiatives have been introduced in the 21st century. Diversity is understood as a wide concept entailing not only visible, external characteristics but also internal characteristics such as sexual orientation, socio-economic background etc. Diversity is an interesting topic and it keeps arousing interest all over the world. Yet, nations have gone through a lot of changes in recent years as they have slowly opened their borders to work-related immigration and external influence and now, after new developments, to a more nationalistic direction again (at least in political climate) among other demographic changes. In my opinion, amongst all this change and rearranging, the development and further understanding of diversity issues and policies, is very important.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: The questionnaire in Finnish:

kokemuksiasi kuvaava.	svaihtoehtoja ei kannata pohtia turhan pi	aajan henkilöllisyys ei paljastu. Valitse oikea vastausvalhtoehto tai kirjoita vastaus sille varattuun kkään, sillä ensimmäiseksi mieteen tullut vastaus on usein parhaiten Sinun omia ajatuksiasi ja
austatiedot		
Valitse sopiva vaihtoehto		
Syntymävuosi (esimerkiksi		
1963):		
Koulutustaso peruskoulu ammattikoulu ylioppilas ammattikorkeakoulututi alempi korkeakoulututi ylempi korkeakoulututi ilisensiaatin tutkinto tohtorin tutkinto muu	nto	
Työssäolovuodet yliopisto- organisaatiossa:		
Työssäolovudet nykyisessä työpaikassa:		
-Kansainvälinen työkokemus		
alle vuosi 1-3 vuotta		
yli 3 vuotta ei kansainvälistä työkoko	musta	
-Vieraiden kielten käyttö työ opetuksessa	ssa	
opiskelijoiden kanssa as työyhteisössä minun ei tarvitse käyttä		
Missä tieteenalayksikössä työ –Tieteenalayksikö	skentelet:	
	ö	
–Tieteenalayksikkö Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustieteiden yksiki Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjall Kielikeskus	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
-Tieteenalayksikkö- 	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
–Tieteenalayksikkö Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustieteiden yksikl Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjall Kielikeskus Lääketieteen yksikkö Yhteiskunta- ja kulttuur	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
—Tieteenalayksikkö— □ Johtamiskorkeakoulu □ Kasvatustieteiden yksiki □ Kieli, käännös- ja kirjali □ Kielikeskus □ Lääketieteen yksikkö □ Yhteiskunta- ja kulttuur —Sukupuoli □ nainen	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
Tieteenalayksikkö □ Johtamiskorkeakoulu □ Kasvatustieteiden yksiki □ Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjali □ Kielikeskus □ Lääketieteen yksikkö □ Yhteiskunta- ja kulttuur -Sukupuoli □ nainen □ mies	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
-Tieteenalayksikkö- Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustieteiden yksiki Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjali Kielikeskus Lääketieteen yksikkö Yhteiskunta- ja kulttuur -Sukupuoli nainen mies -Syntyperä suomalainen	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
-Tieteenalayksikkö Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustletelden yksikl Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjall Kielikeskus Lääketieteen yksikkö Thelskunta- ja kulttuur -Sukupuoli nainen mies -Syntyperä suomalainen joku muu	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
Tieteenalayksikkö Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustieteiden yksikl Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjall Kielikeskus Lääketieteen yksikkö Thteiskunta- ja kulttuur Sukupuoli nainen nies -Syntyperä suomalainen joku muu Kansalaisuus suomalainen joku muu	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
Tieteenalayksikkö Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustieteiden yksikk Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjall Kielikeskus Lääketieteen yksikkö Yhteiskunta- ja kulttuur Sukupuoli nainen mies Syntyperä suomalainen joku muu Kansalaisuus suomalainen joku muu Työtehtävä opetushenkilökunta	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
Tieteenalayksikkö Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustietelden yksiki Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjali Kielikeskus Lääketieteen yksikkö Yhteiskunta- ja kulttuur Sukupuoli nainen mies —Syntyperä suomalainen joku muu Kansalaisuus suomalainen joku muu Työtehtävä	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
Tieteenalayksikkö Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustietelden yksiki Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjall Kielikeskus Lääketieteen yksikkö Yhteiskunta- ja kulttuur Sukupuoli nainen mies -Syntyperä suomalainen joku muu Kansalaisuus suomalainen joku muu Työtehtävä opetushenkilökunta hallinto tutkija joku muu	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
Tieteenalayksikkö Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustieteiden yksikk Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjall Kielikeskus Lääketieteen yksikkö Yhteiskunta- ja kulttuur Sukupuoli nainen mies Syntyperä suomalainen joku muu Kansalaisuus suomalainen joku muu Työtehtävä opetushenkilökunta hallinto tutkija	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustieteiden yksiki Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjeli Kielikeskus Lääketieteen yksikkö Yhteiskunta- ja kulttuur Sukupuoli nainen mies Syntyperä suomalainen joku muu Kansalaisuus suomalainen joku muu Työtehtävä opetushenkilökunta hallinto tutkija joku muu Asema organisaatiossa en ole esimies	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	
Tieteenalayksikkö Johtamiskorkeakoulu Kasvatustieteiden yksiki Keil-, käännös- ja kirjalt Keilikeskus Lääketieteen yksikkö Yhteiskunta- ja kulttuur Sukupuoli nainen nies Syntyperä suomalainen joku muu Kansalaisuus suomalainen joku muu Työtehtävä npetushenkliökunta nailinto tutkija joku muu Asema organisaatiossa en ole esimies	.ö suustieteiden yksikkö	

Vastaa asteikolla 1-5, kun 1= vahvasti eri mieltä, 2= kohtalaisesti eri mieltä, 3= jossain määrin eri mieltä, 4= jossain määrin samaa mieltä, 5= kohtalaisesti samaa mieltä, 6= vahvasti samaa mieltä

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pystyn vaikuttamaan työtehtäviin liittyviin päätöksiin työryhmässäni.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Kollegani työssä jakavat vapaasti työhön liittyvää tietoa kanssani.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Otan yleensä osaa ja minut kutsutaan mukaan työhön liittyviin aktiviteetteihin työryhmässäni.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Pystyn vaikuttamaan organisaationssani päätöksentekoon.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Saan tiedon organisaationi tärkeistä muutoksista viimeisten joukossa.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Minut kutsutaan yleensä tärkeisiin kokouksiin organisaatiossani.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lähin esimieheni kysyy usein mielipidettäni ennen tärkeää päätöstä.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lähin esimieheni ei jaa informaatiota kanssani.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Osallistun aktiivisesti tarkastus ja arviointi kokouksiin lähimmän esimieheni kanssa.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Minua pyydetään usein ilmaisemaan mielipiteeni tapaamisissa, joissa on läsnä myös korkeammantason johtohenkilöstöä.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Korkcampi johto tiedottaa minua aktiivisesti (muistiot, sähköposti).	0	0	0	0	0	0
Minua usein pyydetään osallistumaan kokouksiin, johon ottaa osaa myös korkeampi johtohenkilöstö.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Minua pyydetään usein suunnittelemaan sosiaalisia tapahtumia, jotka eivät suoraan liity työhöni.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Saan tiedon yliopiston informaalista sosiaalisesta toiminnasta ja tapahtumista.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Kollegani kutsuvat minut harvoin mukaan työajan ulkopuolella tapahtuvaan sosiaaliseen toimintaan (lounaalle, ravintolaan).	0	0	0	0	0	0

Lähimmän	tvory	/hmani	monimuo	toisuuden	arviointi

(lähin työryhmä = kaikki ne työyhteisösi henkilöt, joiden kanssa olet työssäsi päivittäin tai viikoittain yhteistyössä tai vuorovaikutuksessa)

Valitse sopiva vaihtoehto:

Vastaa asteikolla 1-5, kun: 1= vahvasti eri mieltä, 2= kohtalaisesti eri mieltä ,3= jossain määrin eri mieltä, 4= jossain määrin samaa mieltä, 5= kohtalaisesti samaa mieltä, 6= vahvasti samaa mieltä

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Lähimmän työryhmäni ikäjakauma on hyvin laaja	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lähimmässä työryhmässäni työsuhteen laatu ja työaika vaihtelevat suuresti	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lähimmän työryhmäni jäsenten koulutustaustat ovat hyvin erilaisia	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lähimmän työryhmäni jäsenten arvot tai kulttuuritaustat ovat hyvin erilaisia	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lähimmän työryhmäni jäsenten yksityiselämäntilanteet ovat hyvin erilaisia	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lähimmän työryhmäni jäsenten äidinkielten kirjo on laaja	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lähimmässä työryhmässäni on tietotaitoa laajalta alueelta	0	0	0	0	0	0

Yksikköni opiskelijoiden moninaisuuden arviointi

Valitse sopiva vaihtoehto:

Yksikköni opiskelijoista on

| miehiä vähintään 70%
| naisia ja miehiä lähes yhtä paljon
| naisia vähintään 70%

Vastaa asteikolla 1-5, kun: 1= vahvasti eri mieltä, 2= kohtalaisesti eri mieltä ,3= jossain määrin eri mieltä, 4= jossain määrin samaa mieltä, 5= kohtalaisesti samaa mieltä, 6= vahvasti samaa mieltä

	1	2	3	4	5	6
ssikköni opiskelijoiden ikäjakauma on hyvin laaja	0	0	0	0	0	0
sikköni opiskelijoiden kulttuuritaustat ovat hyvin erilaisia	0	0	0	0	0	0
sikköni opiskelijoiden äidinkielten kirjo on laaja	0	0	0	0	0	0

Tasa-arvo ja moninaisuusosaaminen yksikössäni

Anna omiin tietoihisi ja kokemukseesi perustuen työpaikallesi arvosana asteikolta 1-5: 1= toteutuu erittäin heikosti, 2= toteutuu melko heikosti, 3= toteutuu tyydyttävästi, 4= toteutuu melko hyvin, 5= toteutuu erittäin hyvin

ninen				
1	2	3	4	5
		0		
	0	0	0	
	0	0	0	
	0	0	0	
	0	0		
	0	0	0	
	1		1 2 3	1 2 3 4 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

ohdon ja esimiesten valitsemisessa enkilöstön valitsemisessa	0	0			(6)																			
enkiloston valitsemisessa alkkauksessa	0	6	0	0	0																			
	0	0	0	0	0																			
ralla etenemisessä	0	0	0	0	0																			
oulutus- ja opiskelumahdollisuuksissa		0	0		0																			
osiaalisessa kanssakäymisessä		0.000	0																					
The result of the control of the con		_	100			2150 F																		
tnisten ja kulttuuristen vähemmistöjer	1 tasa	-arv		teut 4		en																		
ohdon ja esimiesten valitsemisessa	0	0	3		0																			
enkilöstön valitsemisessa	0	0	0	0	0																			
alkkauksessa	0	0	0	0	0																			
ralla etenemisessä	0	0	0	0	0																			
oulutus- ja opiskelumahdollisuuksissa	0	0	0	0	0																			
osiaalisessa kanssakäymisessä	0	0	0	0	0																			
ilaisissa työsuhteissa olevien (määräail	kaise	, va	kin ai:	set,	sijais	et, v	uoro-,	päivä-	tai osa-	aikaty	/össä	oleva	at) tas	a-arvon	toteut	umine	1							_
	1	2	3	4	5																			
ohdon ja esimiesten valitsemisessa	0	0	0	0	0																			
enkilöstön valitsemisessa	0	0	0	0	0																			
oalkkauksessa	0	0	0	0	0																			
ralla etenemisessä oulutus- ja opiskelumahdollisuuksissa	0	0	0		0																			
osiaalisessa kanssakäymisessä		0	0		0																			
osinum sessa narissanäylliisessä					0																			
Auiden ryhmien tasa-arvon toteutumine	en-																							
						2 :																		
Γasa-arvo eri ammattiryhmien kesken Γasa-arvo erilaisen koulutustaustan oma	andon	kor	kon				0 0																	
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Organisaa	tioon	sitou	tuminen

Vastaa rastittamalla asteikolta 1	1-5: 1	täysin eri mieltä,	2= jokseenl	dn eri mieltä,	3= siltä väliltä	4= jokseenkir	n samaa mieltä, 5	 täysin samaa mieltä
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	1	2	3	4	5
Pysyminen tämän organisaation jäsenenä on minulle tärkeää.	0	0	0	0	0
Viettäisin mielelläni lopun uraani tässä organisaatiossa.	0	6	0	0	0
Lähteminen tästä organisaatiosta nyt tulisi minulle kalliiksi.	0	0	0	0	0
Tällä hetkellä pysyminen tässä organisaatiossa on välttämätöntä minulle.	0	0	0	0	0
Tuntisin syyllisyyttä jos lähtisin tästä organisaatiosta nyt.	0	0	0	0	0
En koe, että minulla on mitään moraalista velvollisuutta pysyä nykyisessä organisaatiossa.	0	0	0	0	0

Ristiriitatilanteet ja epävarmuus työssä

Strategian ym. muutokset						
Asia- ja näkemyseroja						
── Vastuun- ja työnjakoa						
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Tasa-arvoa edistävät toimenpiteet

Onko organisaatiossasi tehty tasa-arvoa tai moninaisuutta edistäviä aloitteita tai muutoksia? Jos on millaisia ne ovat olleet ja koetko, että nillä on ollut vaikutusta?						
Kiitos vastauksistasi!						
11100 10001010101						

Appendix B. The questionnaire in German:

Akademische Diversität/Vielfalt und die Realisierung von Gleichheit Die Antworten der Befragung werden vertraulich und anonymisiert behandelt, so dass einzelne Personen nicht erker (durch Anstreichen oder Ankreuzen der entsprechenden Antworten) oder schreiben Sie die Antwort in das Feld neb

	Antwort	
Geburtsjahr (zum Beispiel: 1963):		
-Bildungsabschluss:		
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7000 90090 NV 02-0		
Anzahl Jahre der Beschäftigung an der Universität:		
Anzahl Jahre der		
Beschäftigung am aktuellen Arbeitsplatz:		
-Internationale Arbeitserfah	rung:	
Mehr als 3 Jahre		
Keine internationale Arb	peitserfahrung	
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Meine Kolleginnen/Kollegen tauschen sich offen über Arbeitsangelegenheiten mit mir aus.							0					
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Ich werde normalerweise zu wichtigen Besprechungen in meiner Organisation eingeladen.							C)		0	0	0
Mein Vorgesetzter fragt mich oft nach meiner Meinung, bevor er wichtige Entscheidungen trifft.									0	0	0	0
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Gleichberechtigung und Diversity-Kompetenz in meiner Fakultät

Ich habe Diskriminierung in meinem unmittelbaren Arbeitsumfeld beobachtet oder erlebt.

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Appendix C. The questionnaire in English:

Background Informat	ion
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-Level of Education-	
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Years of employment in the university organization:	
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nclusion in the organisation												
nswer on a scale from 1 to 6 when: 1= strongly disagree, 2= moderately disagree, 3= slightly disagree, 4	4= slig	ghtly	agre	e, 5=	mod	lerat	ely a	gree	6= str	ngly agr	ee	
				1	2	3	4	5	6			
have influence in decisions taken by my work group regarding our tasks.				0	0	0	0	0	0			
ly co-workers openly share work-related information with me.				0	0	0	0	0	0			
am typically involved and invited to actively participate in work-related activities of my work group.				0	0	0	0	0	0			
am able to influence decisions that affect my organisation				0	0	0	0	0	0			
am usually among the last to know about important changes in the organisation.				0	0	0	0	0	0			
am usually invited to important meetings in my organisation.				0	0	0	0	0	0			
ly supervisor often asks for my opinion before making important decisions.				0	0	0	0	0	0			
ly supervisor does not share information with me.				0	0	0	0	0	0			
am invited to actively participate in review and evaluation meetings with my supervisor.				0	0	0	0	0	0			
am often invited to contribute my opinion in meetings with management higher than my immediate s				0	0	0	0	0	0			
frequently receive communication from management higher than my immediate supervisor (i.e. memo	os, e-	-mails	5).	0	0	0	0	0	0			
am often invited to participate in meetings with management higher than my immediate supervisor.				0	0	0	0		0			
am often asked to contribute in planning social activities not directly related to my job function.				0	0			0				
am always informed about informal social activities and university related social events.				0	0	0	0	0	0			
am rarely invited to join my co-workers when they go out for lunch or drinks after work.				0	0	0	0	0	0			
☐ at least 70 % male ☐ has an equal amount of men and women												
□ at least 70 % male □ has an equal amount of men and women □ at least 70% female	iøh tlv	, agre	e. 5	= mo	dera	telv	agre	e. 6=	strong	v agree		
at least 70 % male has an equal amount of men and women at least 70% female	990	50	7000	Meso	100	000	agre	e, 6=	strong	y agree		
at least 70 % male has an equal amount of men and women at least 70% female swer by choosing from 1-6: 1= strongly disagree, 2= moderately disagree, 3= slightly disagree, 4= sl	1	2	3	4	5	6	agre	e, 6=	strong	y agree		
at least 70 % male has an equal amount of men and women at least 70% female at least 70% female at least 70% female swer by choosing from 1-6: 1= strongly disagree, 2= moderately disagree, 3= slightly disagree, 4= sli	1	50	3	4	5	000	agre	e, 6=	strong	y agree		
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at least 70 % male has an equal amount of men and women at least 70% female swer by choosing from 1-6: 1= strongly disagree, 2= moderately disagree, 3= slightly disagree, 4= s	1	2	3	4 0 0	5	6	agre	e, 6=	strong	y agree		
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The educational backgrounds vary greatly in my immediate work group There is great variation in the values and cultural backgrounds in my immediate work group There is great variation in the life situations of the employees in my immediate work group There is much variation in the native languages of my immediate work group The members of my immediate work group have knowledge and skills from a wide area tudent diversity Tick the right option: The student base in my department is: at least 70% male has an equal amount of men and women at least 70% female Answer by choosing from 1-6: 1= strongly disagree, 2= moderately disagree, 3= slightly disagree, 4= slightly disagre	1	2	3 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	4 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	6 0 0 0 0 0 0 0						

Equality and diversity competence in my department

Scale your work place based on your knowledge and experience, when: 1= has not been realized, 2= is realized poorly, 3= is realized in a satisfactory way, 4= is fairly well realized, 5= is very well realized

Equality between genders in																		
	1	2	3	4	5													
the selection of managers and supervisors	0	0	0	0	0													
the selection of personnel	0	0	0	0	0													
salary	0	0	0	0	0													
career advancement	0	0	0	0	0													
education and learning opportunities	0	0	0	0	0													
social interaction	0	0	0	0	0													
Equality between different age groups in																		
	1	2	3	4	5													
the selection of managers and supervisors	0	0	0	0	0													
the selection of personnel	0	0	0	0	0													
salary	0	0	0	0	0													
career advancement	0	0	0	0	0													
		0	0	0	0													
education and learning opportunities	0	,																
social interaction	0	0	0	0	0													
Equality between ethnic and cultural mino	rities																	7
	1		3		5													
the selection of managers and supervisors		0	0	0	0													
the selection of personnel	0	0	0	0	0													
salary	0	0	0	0	0													
career advancement	0	0	0	0	0													
education and learning opportunities	0	0	0	0	0													
social interaction	0	0	0	0	0													
Equality between employers with different	t kinds	s of c	contr	acts	(temp	orary	/, pe	rmaner	ıt, subs	titute	, shi	ft w	ork, daytime job, part-time work) i	n				
the selection of managers and supervisors	0	0	0	0	0													
the selection of personnel	0	0	0	0	0													
salary	0	0	0	0	0													
career advancement	0	0	0	0	0													
education and learning opportunities	0	0	0	0	0													
social interaction	_	0			_													
Equality in other groups—																		_
Equately in other groups						1	2	3 4	5									
Equality between professionals from various	us are	as				0	0	0 0	0									
Equality between people with different ed			hack	grou	ınds			0 0										
Equality between people in different life s			Duci	5.00				0 0										
Diversity competence—																		
															1	2	3	4
Diversity and the appreciation of diversity	y in my	wor	kplad	ce											0	0	0	0
My personal assessment of the equal treat	tment	ofin	divid	luals	and g	roups									0	0	0	0
My assessment of the influencial possibiliti	ies be	twee	en in	divid	duals a	nd gr	oups	i							0	0	0	0
The respect for experiences, points of vie	w, bel	havio	ours a	and a	approa	aches	that	have I	oeen in	fluenc	ed b	y div	ersity and difference as well as lea	rning from them.	0	0	0	0
MERCO VIST - 1 - 1 AS DV - 24 - 3 DE MORE E TODO - 24 - 24 AS DE MO		STW	5-50 - 50 -	100	1/2/	S 12		eas seed	1924	23	as a	row.pi	DESCRIPTION OF RESTREET	A20				
Bullying and discrimination (exaples of bully examples of discrimination: When age, gen- on work arrangements, the distribution of	der, e	thnic	corr	natio	nal or	igin, r											ect	
How often have you observed or experienc 1= very seldom or never, 2= fairly rarely, 3=												/ears	? Choose between 1-5, according t	o the frequency o	of the	ever	nt:	
									1	2	3	4	5					7
				,														
There are a considered and a constant of the c									0	0	0	0						
I have perceived or experienced bullying in						V0 ±				-		-						
Steps have been taken to prevent or week	d out b	bullyi	ing ir	n my					0	0	0		0					
	d out bation i	bullyi in my	ing ir y wor	my k co	mmun	ity?			0	0	0	0 0 0	0 0					

The development of equality

200000000000000000000000000000000000000	0			4 5													
Gender equality Equality between age groups	0	0	0	0 0													
Section and the section of the secti	0			0 0													
	0	~		0 0													
Equality of minorities	0	0.000		0 0													
Equality of fillifolities			~														
n my opinion, it would be mportant to take the following matters into account as well:									~								
rganisational commi	tme	nt															
Respond by choosing the right	optic	n on	scale	1-5: 1= st	rongly disagree, 2= sor	newh	at di	sagre	ee, 3	B= in t	oetween, 4= s	omewhat ag	ree, 5= co	mpletely as	ree		
						1	2	3	4	5							
Remaining a member of this o	rganis	ation	is im	portant t	o me.	0	0	0	0	0							
Remaining a member of this o		rost	of my	career w	ith this organisation.	0	0	0	0	0							
	d the	1030			9												
I would be very happy to sper				ation nov		0	0	0	0	0							
I would be very happy to sper It would be costly for me to le	ave t	nis or	ganis			0	0	0	0	0							
I would be very happy to sper It would be costly for me to le Right now, staying with this o	eave t organi:	nis or ation	ganis is a	matter of				0		0							
I would be very happy to sper It would be costly for me to le Right now, staying with this o I would feel guilty if I left this I do not feel any moral obligat	eave to organic organic organic organic on to ainty	nis or ation isation rema	ganis is a in no in w	matter of w. th my cu rk	necessity.	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	nges Differen	ces of opin	on or poin	t of view	Responsibi	lities and (divisio
I would be very happy to sper It would be costly for me to le Right now, staying with this of I would feel guilty if I left this I do not feel any moral obligat Conflicts and uncerta If there is a conflict situation of labour Daily routines Pers Strategic and other kind Differences of opinion of Responsibilities and divi Daily routines	organisorganisorganison to	nis or sation isation rema / at ny un Relati	wo t, it	matter of w. th my cu rk	necessity.	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	nges Differen	ces of opin	on or poin	t of view	Responsibi	lities and d	divisio
I would be very happy to sper It would be costly for me to le Right now, staying with this of I would feel guilty if I left this I do not feel any moral obligat Conflicts and uncerta If there is a conflict situation of labour Daily routines Pers Strategic and other kind Differences of opinion of Responsibilities and divi Daily routines Personal Relations	eave to organic organi	nis or nation rema / at nange t of v	wo wo t, it cons	matter of w. th my cu rk	necessity. rent organisation. kely about: Strategic	© © 0 and c	© ©	© ©	o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o	o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o						lities and a	divisio
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I would be very happy to sper It would be costly for me to le Right now, staying with this of I would feel guilty if I left this I do not feel any moral obligat Conflicts and uncerta If there is a conflict situation of labour Daily routines Pers Strategic and other kind Differences of opinion of Responsibilities and divi Daily routines Personal Relations Respond by choosing the right	ainty ainty organison to ainty organison to ainty organison of c	nis or action is action of	ganissis a non no wood work would be worked to be work of the work	matter of w. th my cu rk is most ti	necessity. rent organisation. kely about: Strategic strongly disagree, 2=	© © Some	© ©	© ©	o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o	© © © 5						lities and (division
I would be very happy to sper It would be costly for me to le Right now, staying with this of I would feel guilty if I left this I do not feel any moral obligat Conflicts and uncerta If there is a conflict situation of labour Daily routines Pers Strategic and other kind Differences of opinion of Responsibilities and divi Daily routines Personal Relations	ainty	/ at name of the control of the cont	ganis is a n no wo wo t, it tons is siew ur	rk is most li le 1-5: 1=	necessity. rent organisation. kely about: Strategic strongly disagree, 2=	o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o	o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o	© © © 3	o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o	© © © 5						lities and (tivisio
I would be very happy to sper It would be costly for me to le Right now, staying with this of I would feel guilty if I left this I do not feel any moral obligat Conflicts and uncerta If there is a conflict situation of labour Daily routines Pers Strategic and other kind Differences of opinion of Responsibilities and divi Daily routines Personal Relations Respond by choosing the right My work community knows I	ainty	isation of the control of the contro	wo t, it ons is a n no t, it ons is is d d d d d d d d d d d d d	rk is most li the 1-5: 1=	necessity. rent organisation. kely about: Strategic strongly disagree, 2=	some	© © ©	© © O	© © © O	6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6						lities and (tivisio