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60 Years of Discrimination and Diversity Research in Human Resource Management:

A Review with Suggestions for Future Research Directions

María del Carmen Triana

Vanderbilt University

Pamela Gu

University of Wisconsin-Madison

Olga Chapa

University of Houston-Victoria

Orlando Richard

University of Massachusetts Amherst

Adrienne Colella

Tulane University

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Abstract

This article reviews discrimination and diversity research published in *Human Resource Management* (HRM) over the past 60 years. While discrimination and diversity are very different constructs, it is often informative to study them together, because when people recognize each other’s diversity, this can result in bias, stereotyping, and discrimination. We conducted bibliographic searches for terms related to discrimination and diversity as well as a

manual search through every title and abstract published in HRM over the last 60 years to assess article relevance. The search resulted in 135 research articles with 136 unique studies (i.e., samples) which are reviewed in this paper. Sex and race are the demographics that have been examined the most in HRM, while religion has been examined the least. Moreover, the number of studies examining lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) employees in the workplace in HRM has grown quickly within the past ten years, culminating in a recent meta-analysis. Our review looks at some of the earliest research published, the most recent research published, and the overall trends we identified in the research over the years for both discrimination and diversity articles. We then make future research suggestions and recommendations to advance the study of discrimination and diversity in the coming years.

 *Keywords*: discrimination, diversity, review, race, sex, gender, LGBTQ, age, ability, disability, religion

60 Years of Discrimination and Diversity Research in Human Resource Management:

A Review with Suggestions for Future Research Directions

The purpose of this article is to review discrimination and diversity research published in *Human Resource Management* (HRM) over the past 60 years. It is illuminating to review discrimination and diversity jointly, because when people recognize each other’s diversity through the process of social categorization (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), biases are often triggered, and this can result in discrimination. Moreover, diversity management practices are often implemented in diverse work settings as a means of preventing perceived or actual discrimination in the workplace.

We begin our review of the literature by defining discrimination and diversity and explaining why looking at these two constructs together is worthwhile. Discrimination is defined as denying some people equality of treatment based on their group membership (Allport 1954). Diversity is defined as the distribution of differences among group members with respect to some attribute (Harrison & Klein, 2007). Harrison and Klein (2007) explain that the construct of diversity is often inadequately defined in organizational research and is best conceptualized as three distinct types of diversity: diversity as separation, diversity as variety, and diversity as disparity. Diversity as separation focuses on differences within a group where individuals differ in some value, belief, or attitude. This view of diversity as separation often focuses on potential conflict and decreased performance outcomes due to dissimilarity and results in a bimodal distribution of group members when diversity is highest. Diversity as variety emphasizes a distribution of experiences and information that broadens a group’s repertoire, improving its ability to make effective decisions and think creatively. A maximally diverse group regarding diversity as variety is a group that has an even spread of group members across different categories of some attribute. Finally, diversity as disparity highlights the socially valued resources and assets group members have and how inequality in the concentration of these resources contributes to within-group differences. A group with high diversity as disparity would reflect a situation where only some group members hold the vast majority of the socially valued resources. As we will note in the diversity section of this review, much of the diversity research in *Human Resource Management* conceptualizes diversity as either diversity as separation or diversity as disparity.

One clear observation in our review of discrimination and diversity literature in HRM is that the earlier articles tend to focus on discrimination while the more recent articles still study discrimination but also have a heavy emphasis on diversity and inclusion. Since the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the Civil Rights Act of 1964 were passed, the areas of sex/gender and race/ethnicity have received much attention. Indeed, the most frequently studied characteristic in HRM has been sex/gender, with 60 research articles having at least a partial focus on sex/gender. The second most often studied characteristic was race, with 27 articles in the race and ethnicity category.

With respect to discrimination in organizations, it is striking to see how some things have greatly improved while other things have remained nearly the same since the 1960s, as the recent #BlackLivesMatter movement has brought attention to. One noticeable improvement was in the language used to refer to Blacks, or African-Americans, over time. For example, the use of language deemed offensive today disappeared from the literature by the late 1960s after the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was passed. Northrup (1964) and Purcell (1962), the oldest articles in our review and both pertaining to the subject of fair employment practices during the time of Jim Crow laws and racial segregation, use the word “Negro” which seemed to be common at that time. That word was used again in 1966 (Blum & Schmidt, 1966), but has not been used in HRM since then. These articles were published early during the journal’s history when the journal was named *Management of Personnel Quarterly.*

One fact that has changed little since the article written by Northrup (1964) is the unemployment rate of Black compared to White Americans. Northrup noted that the unemployment rate for Black employees had been twice that of White employees since the 1950s. That rate is similar today. As of the first quarter of 2020, White unemployment in the U.S. was 3.6%, while Black unemployment was 6.6% or 1.83 times that of White unemployment (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). In one of the more recent articles on racial and ethnic background, Goldberg, and Allen (2008) assess the content of websites and how that content affects applicants’ intentions to apply for jobs. Results show that diversity statements on websites are more positively associated with candidate engagement and intentions to apply for the job for Black participants as opposed to White participants. The fact that the research conversation has shifted to ways of being more inclusive and designing recruitment webpages to attract diverse applicants is a sign of progress in firms and in human resource management over the last 60 years.

Regarding sex/gender, studies in HRM also show slow and steady progress made by women over the years. However, the progress has not been as great as some researchers writing decades ago had hoped for or predicted, which is also consistent with the problems the recent #MeToo Movement has brought national attention to. Raynolds (1987) is an interesting paper in that it made predictions about what women’s employment and participation in the upper echelons would be in the year 2000. Specifically, the author predicted that in the year 2000 women’s earnings overall would be equal to 80% of men’s earnings overall. The paper also referenced predictions by a futurist that by 1998 10% of *Fortune 500* firms would have female CEOs. The prediction regarding women’s wages overall relative to men’s overall wages was slightly optimistic, as women overall earned about 77% of men overall in the year 2000 (Semega, Kollar, Creamer, & Mohanty, 2019). Regarding the prediction about the number of women CEOs, that 10% of *Fortune 500* CEOs would be women by 1998, that prediction was overly optimistic, for as of the year 2020 (22 years after the date of the prediction) women currently compose 7.4% of the CEOs of the *Fortune 500* firms (Hinchliffe, 2020). In one of the most recent articles, Athanasopoulou, Moss-Cowan, Smets, and Morris (2018) conducted in-depth interviews with 12 female CEOs and 139 male CEOs of global firms. They found that women CEOs embrace a form of leadership where both feminine and masculine characteristics are displayed. The fact that this research was able to access enough women CEOs for qualitative interviews and analysis is a sign of the slow but steady gains women have made in reaching the upper echelons of organizations over the last 60 years.

Bailyn (1992) describes the challenges of women in the workforce in the U.S. compared to women in Britain and Sweden, including the notion that families and children are part of the private domain versus the public domain (i.e., workforce) and that women are responsible for child care and eldercare. Bailyn concludes that attempts to equalize the gender roles in society were most evident in Sweden compared to Britain and especially compared to the U.S. Further, in an individualistic, achieving society, it is difficult to have work-life balance because society values work achievement over personal life. The same concerns are echoed in a much more recent study by Chang, Chin, and Ye (2014) based in South Korea, where the authors showed that working mothers had lower career expectations than their peers, which included single women, married women without children, and male peers both with and without children at all levels of occupations. Moreover, working mothers showed higher levels of work-family conflict than their peers at the associate manager level.

Of the remaining characteristics, all received substantially less attention than sex and race. Sexual orientation and gender identity represent 12 of the studies published in HRM over the past 60 years, while age represents 11 studies, ability represents seven studies, national origin represents four studies, and religion represents only one study, making religion the most under-studied protected category. Of these, the research on sexual orientation and gender identity is the most recent, with the first two articles having a publication date of 2008 (Day & Greene, 2008; Huffman, Watrous-Rodriguez, & King, 2008) and an increasing number of articles being published in this area over time, with several articles published in the year 2018 (Lim, Trau, & Foo, 2018; Pichler, Blazovich, Cook, Huston, & Strawser, 2018; Webster, Adams, Maranto, Sawyer, & Thoroughgood, 2018). The initial articles presented a case for sexual orientation diversity management in organizations and more research on this topic (Day & Greene, 2008). A more recent article published by Webster et al. (2018), ten years later, is a meta-analysis about workplace contextual supports for lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) employees, demonstrating the growth of this area, such that a meta-analysis was possible. Moreover, we anticipate further growth of studies in the area of sexual orientation and gender identity, and about lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) employees. The need is real both throughout the world and particularly in the United States, now that the Supreme Court ruled in June of 2020 that sexual orientation and gender identity are covered under the “sex” protected category language included in Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Bostock v. Clayton County, 2020).

In the pages that follow, we present a comprehensive review of research on discrimination and diversity published in HRM over the last 60 years, and we organize the research according to category (e.g., gender, race, age, LGBTQ, ability). We first review the HRM research on discrimination, followed by the research on diversity, and we review the articles in roughly chronological order. We then provide future research directions for the study of discrimination and diversity in the area of human resource management.

In order to conduct the review, we searched every article published in HRM which contained the phrases “divers\*” or “discrim\*” in the abstract, with the asterisk (\*) serving as a wildcard for the database search which will find any combination of letters from that point forward (e.g., diverse, diversity, diversify, discrimination, discriminated, discriminating). We conducted different searches for specific terms like “sex\*” “gender\*” “fem\*” “rac\*” and “age\*”[[1]](#footnote-1). We also manually read through every title of each paper published in HRM over the last 60 years to assess relevance and reviewed abstracts for the articles that appeared relevant to determine whether they should be included in this review.

The search resulted in 135 research articles with 136 unique studies (i.e., samples) which are reviewed in this paper. Two of the authors coded article characteristics for each article included in this review. The articles we reviewed utilize a wide range of theoretical and methodological approaches. Several different kinds of articles on discrimination and diversity have been published in HRM over the past 60 years, including seven case studies, 34 conceptual articles, 89 empirical articles, two review articles, and two articles summarizing other important workforce issues. Of the empirical studies, 27 were qualitative, 61 were quantitative, and only one recent article published by Ladge, Humberd, and Eddleston (2018) used a mixed-methods approach with qualitative and quantitative studies. Of the 61 quantitative empirical studies, 21 of them presented moderators in the paper, while 17 papers presented mediators. A summary of the information coded is described in Table 1 below. A complete table of characteristics coded in Excel is available from the first author upon request.

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Insert Table 1 about here

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**Discrimination**

According to Harrison and Klein (2007), discrimination is primarily a result of diversity as disparity where group members differ in their possession of socially valued resources and assets, causing inequality. In 1964, the United States passed the landmark Civil Rights Act prohibiting discrimination based on race, sex, religion, color, or national origin. Importantly for human resource researchers, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits employment discrimination based on race, sex, religion, color, or national origin (U.S. National Archives, 2018). Historical events leading up to and following the passage of the landmark Civil Rights Act and the Equal Pay Act of 1963, which prohibited wage discrepancies due to gender, spurred the start of research on discrimination and diversity in the human resources literature. Following these historical events, early work in *Human Resource Management* focused on reviewing the new legislation's effect on labor-management relations (Harris, 1975; Slevin, 1973; Pati & Reilly, 1977) and providing actionable guidelines for implementing inclusion practices (e.g., Cohen, 1974; Higgins, 1977). Since then, research in *Human Resource Management* has continued to make important contributions toward understanding employees’ experiences with discrimination and the consequences of such discriminatory disparities for employees across multiple dimensions of identity.

**Gender Discrimination**

Following the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the movement of more women into the workplace, much of the early work on gender within *Human Resource Management* focused on describing workplace gender discrimination and identifying differences between males and females as distinct categories. This research also examined how disparities between these distinct categories contribute to inequality in organizations. Researchers identified gender differences in perceived fit for jobs that were stereotypically female versus male-oriented jobs (Cohen, 1976), managerial beliefs on organizational legitimacy (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1975), and representation in the media (Fox & Renas, 1977). After these initial studies and as conceptualizations of gender categories and stereotypical gender roles came into question, research evolved to focus on the many more subtle ways gender discrimination continued to affect women's workplace experience even after the passage of the Equal Pay Act.

Despite the increased implementation of diversity management practices in organizations over time (Richard, Roh, & Pieper, 2013), women continue to face discrimination in the hiring, pay, and performance appraisal processes within organizations. In the recruiting process, researchers find that men are preferred over women unless reference checks play a role in selection (Kaplan, Berkley, & Fisher, 2016). According to a study by Kaplan and colleagues (2016), raters' evaluations of whether women applicants were qualified for the job were significantly more positive after receiving additional information from a reference check. Once hired by an organization, women are still paid less than their male counterparts (Drazin & Auster, 1987; Woodhams, Lupton, Perkins, & Cowling, 2015). Even after controlling for variables such as job tenure, education, and job function, pay gaps between men and women persist (Drazin & Auster, 1987) and growth in pay for women as compared to men remains slow-paced (Woodhams et al., 2015).

In addition to pay gaps and slow wage growth, researchers have identified various sociocultural and organizational reasons why women face barriers to career advancement not faced by their male counterparts. Early research on gender discrimination reports that despite participants' satisfaction with their achievement of career goals, most women had not advanced significantly in their careers over a 10-year period (Missirian, 1978) and that this lack of career progression may be due to social pressures that condition women to be complacent in their careers (Veiga, 1976). More recent work suggests that barriers to women’s career advancement may also be a function of prejudice experienced in the workplace (Davidson & Cooper, 1987), higher work-life pressures (Adya, 2008), and the underlying belief that career progression is a result of women's personal choices rather than discriminatory barriers (Tatli, Ozturk & Woo, 2017) since their career aspirations are often tied to traditional social conventions of gender roles (Cooke & Xiao, 2014). Cultural expectations and conventional gender roles pressure women to prioritize family, which adds stress and time demands (Albrecht, 1978), increases work-family conflict (Rosen, Miguel & Peirce, 1989), and impedes women’s careers (Shellenbarger, 1992) through effects on a long-term commitment to careers (Adya, 2008). In addition to sociocultural barriers, women’s career progression may also be influenced by organizational politics (Rosen et al., 1989) and organizational attitudes towards women (Carney & O’Kelly, 1987). In order to help remove barriers to advancement for women and reduce disparities between men and women, companies should implement career planning and development opportunities (Rosen et al., 1989; Veiga, 1976) and address crucial work-family practices (Raynolds, 1987) that lag behind employees’ quickly changing needs (Shellenbarger, 1992).

Barriers to career progression are also evident in the lack of gender diversity among organizational leadership positions. Women are less likely to be appointed to managerial roles (Tung 2008; Davidson & Cooper, 1987) and less likely to be assigned to important expatriate roles (Shortland, 2016; Adler, 1987). Women who are successfully appointed to leadership roles must be highly qualified as they are perceived as risky appointments (Van Esch, Hopkins, O’Neil, & Bilimoria, 2018) and often must demonstrate strong agentic characteristics (Mölders, Brosi, Bekk, Spörrle, & Welpe, 2018). Ironically, these same agentic characteristics have been found to penalize women if they are seen as less likable (Heilman, 2001; Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs & Tamkins, 2004). Given the significant barriers to women's career progression, it should be unsurprising that female managers, across different cultures and countries, are less satisfied with performance management procedures than their male counterparts (Festing, Knappert & Kornau, 2015). In summary, these studies suggest that, despite the passage of the Equal Pay Act nearly 60 years ago, much progress needs to be made in the path towards gender equality.

**Race Discrimination**

Early work on discrimination often focused on implications for organizations after the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. In *Human Resource Management's* first study on racial discrimination, Pati and Reilly (1977) review the negative reverse discrimination backlash to Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) programs, noting that critics of EEO programs misunderstand the purpose of the Civil Rights Act. Since this initial study, surprisingly few articles in *Human Resource Management* have explicitly focused on racial discrimination, with most researchers opting for a diversity management focus (e.g., Konrad, Yang, & Maurer, 2016; Chanland & Murphy, 2018; Lavigna, 2002). Despite this, research finds that racial minorities face discrimination throughout the employment process, beginning in the hiring phase when White applicants receive better treatment than racial minority group members (Bendick, Jackson, Reinoso, & Hodges, 1991). This treatment continues with performance appraisals, where appraisals generally favor White employees (Bernardin, Konopaske, & Hagan, 2012). This discrimination can lead to negative individual outcomes when employees withdraw in response to discrimination (Wagstaff, Triana, Kim, & Al-Riyami, 2015). Wagstaff and colleagues (2015) also find that employees may seek social support from peers in response to discrimination, an important source of support organizations should seek to develop given that racial minorities are often deprived of social support networks in organizational settings (Thomas, 1989).

**Age Discrimination**

According to Lain and Loretto (2016), the number of 65-69-year old employees doubled between 2001 and 2014, mostly due to employees working longer. Furthermore, this change in concentration of older workers is not limited to lower-level occupations and is also present in mainstream jobs (Lain & Loretto, 2016). These age demographic shifts are important for researchers to explore because they also increase the likelihood of intergenerational conflict in the workplace (Williams, 2017), which organizations will need to manage effectively. Research published in *Human Resource Management* examines the discriminatory experiences of older workers based on a number of different characteristics. Within a customer service-based organization, Amarnani and colleagues (Amarnani, Restubog, Bordia, & Abbasi, 2019) find that mistreatment by customers threatens workers’ self-esteem, affecting performance at work. The authors find that age simultaneously exacerbated the effect of customer mistreatment on self-esteem threat, yet reduced the relationship between self-esteem threat and performance, suggesting a double-edged sword effect of age on performance. Often, the negative sword’s edge regarding age is the belief that an aging workforce reduces innovation in an organization. Consistent with previous research (e.g., Park & Kim, 2015; Meulenaere, Boone, & Buyl, 2016), Guillén and Kunze (2019) find that an aging workforce is not directly related to decreased innovation, but rather, its effect is more complex and often dependent on the diversity management strategies employed by the firm. Their results suggest that discrimination against older workers largely stems from low competence perceptions that can be mitigated when older workers collaborate with interdepartmental colleagues (Guillén & Kunze, 2019). Finally, a study by Triana, Trzebiatowski, and Byun (Triana, Trzebiatowski, & Byun, 2017) further explicates the effects of age discrimination and suggests that the negative effects of age discrimination (e.g., withdrawal) may be exacerbated when the employee feels overqualified for the job, lowering the threshold for what one might interpret as discriminatory experiences. As these studies discuss, the assumption that older employees possess fewer socially valued abilities than their younger counterparts often underlies the discrimination experienced by older employees.

**LGBTQ Discrimination**

Our review of Human Resource Management identifies only one study focused on the discriminatory experiences of LGBTQ individuals (Lim et al., 2018), with the majority of LGBTQ studies focused on different diversity practices. Lim and colleagues (2018) examine the selection of LGBTQ employees into high-task-independent occupations and challenge previous research's suggestion that LGBTQ employees self-select into high-task-independent occupations in order to better manage their identities since they do not need to interact with others. Instead, the researchers find that hiring personnel perceive gay and lesbian applicants as less fit for high-task-interdependent roles, and this may be because hiring personnel do not want to make current employees uncomfortable. This suggests that the concentration of LGBTQ employees in high-task-independent jobs may be due to discrimination during the hiring process rather than self-selection by LGBTQ individuals (Lim et al., 2018).

**Diversity**

*Human Resource Management's* earliest diversity article called for communities to take concrete steps toward integrating African-Americans in the workplace by providing leadership roles, unions, and job training in school systems (Blum & Schmidt, 1966). Many early researchers followed suit focusing on reducing disparities through providing practical flowcharts and checklists for the inclusion of women in the workplace (Slevin, 1973), specific guidelines for reducing employment barriers (Cohen, 1974), and resources for auditing an organization’s equal opportunity employment performance (Higgins, 1977). These articles were a response to the sweeping ramifications of legislation including the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Harris, 1975). Since this early work, diversity research in *Human Resource Management* has expanded to exploring diversity management practices’ complexities and highlighting the outcomes of different approaches toward inclusive diversity management.

**Gender Diversity**

Throughout the last 60 years of diversity research in *Human Resource Management,* gender diversity has, by far, proven to be the most popular and thoroughly explored dimension of diversity. Organizations that invest in gender diversity can reap the benefits of a more productive workforce (Roh & Kim, 2016). However, there are often significant barriers to gender diversity in the workplace. Improved upward mobility ultimately leads to women in management and leadership positions, but the struggles women face in the workplace do not stop once they have obtained leadership roles. Women are much more likely to be in lower management roles than their male counterparts (Pichler, Simpson & Stroh, 2008), to fear marginalization due to scrutiny (Kakabadse, Figueira, Nicolopoulou, Yang, Kakabadse, & Özbilgin, 2015), and must fight the bias that women are riskier selection choices as compared to men with equal and even lower qualifications (Van Esch et al., 2018). In the context of academia, women on the track towards top faculty roles experience isolation, need to work harder to gain the same credibility as their male counterparts, and have fewer role models in the career progression process (Bilimoria, Joy & Liang, 2008). While addressing issues surrounding women leaders may seem challenging, women in leadership positions can benefit organizations through improved competitive success (Adler, Bordy & Osland, 2000) and improved individual and organizational performance through transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Women leaders also often utilize nontraditional management styles (Muller & Rowell, 1997) and adapt well to cross-cultural business situations (Altman & Shortland, 2008), contributing to their high success in expatriate assignments (Adler, 1987) and geographically dispersed virtual teams (Muethel, Gehrlein & Hoegl, 2012). Furthermore, organizations that address the lack of women in senior management roles can expect to see improvement in female representation at lower levels (Gould, Kulik & Sardeshmukh, 2018), and more work-family program offerings (Mullins & Holmes, 2018). This alludes to the conceptualization of diversity as separation since women leaders and work-family policies may appeal to women due to shared experiences and perceived similarity to other employees in the organization. In order to foster women in leadership, early work by Herbert and Yost (1978) suggests a hands-on approach where organizations provide formal coaching, role modeling, opportunities for observation, and training and development to address the shortage of capable women leaders. Since then, researchers in *Human Resource Management* have proposed models to overcome the leaky pipeline of women’s career progression (Bilimoria et al., 2008) through building organizational mentoring opportunities (Virick & Greer, 2012), creating and monitoring formal diversity succession planning (Greer & Virick, 2008) and encouraging women to take more proactive control of their own career development (Athanasopoulou et al., 2018). These studies emphasize diversity as disparity by recommending diversity management practices that can help to remove barriers to advancement for women in the workplace.

**Racial Diversity**

As discussed previously, the earliest diversity article in *Human Resource Management* appeared two years following the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, with Blum and Schmidt (1966) encouraging communities to integrate African Americans by providing leadership roles, unions, and job training opportunities to reduce existing disparities. Throughout the decade following the Civil Rights Act, early researchers focused primarily on providing practical recommendations and directly applicable resources for organizations to better incorporate racial minorities (e.g., Slevin, 1973; Cohen, 1974; Higgins, 1977). Since this early work, employee demographics have continued to change (Loveman & Gabarro, 1991), and research has evolved from practitioner-oriented checklists to examining the effectiveness of, and best methods for, implementing specific diversity management practices.

Much of the research published on racial diversity efforts has focused on the value of peer and mentor support for racial minorities. Researchers suggest that cross-race mentoring relationships may be difficult to sustain due to unspoken racial taboos against liaisons between White and Black individuals and that as a result, racial minorities may be deprived of valuable mentoring relationships (Thomas, 1989). Furthermore, Thomas (1989) suggests that these taboos not only forbid the action of forming a liaison, but they also forbid the mere thought of the taboo action. Thus, organizations need to foster formal mentoring relationships to increase psychosocial support for minorities in the workplace (Murrell, Blake-Beard, Porter, & Perkins-Williamson, 2008). These mentoring relationships are especially important in supporting minorities on the path towards leadership positions since minorities often lack role models and key informal networks necessary for upward mobility (Chanland & Murphy, 2018). Greer and Virick (2008) specifically suggest succession planning for women and racial minorities through establishing the appropriate monitoring, communication, and development practices is especially important given that little attention has been paid to diversity succession planning to date. These studies suggest conceptualizations of diversity as both disparity and separation, wherein organizations must implement formal mentoring relationships to provide a socially valuable informal network as well as to attract and retain racial minority employees. Organizations have utilized a variety of different diversity management practices to encourage greater diversity at the management level. However, not all methods for achieving diversity management are successful. Richard, Roh, and Pieper (2013) find that firms employing minority opportunity-based diversity management practices and manager accountability practices, through incentive pay for diversity goal achievement, are most successful in achieving diversity among managers.

Several studies in *Human Resource Management* also offer findings and guidelines for the recruitment strategies and performance appraisals used in diversity management practices. Although performance appraisals with specific criteria have been touted as a solution for eliminating bias, Hennessey and Bernardin (2003) find that racial minority-group members did not fare any better when an appraisal system with more specific criteria was used. Furthermore, when comparing three different performance appraisal methods, Bernardin and colleagues (Bernardin et al., 2012) report that assessments generally favored White individuals, suggesting the need for rater training. Concerning recruitment methods, organizations ought to develop creative methods for assessing job applicants (e.g., incorporating skills inventories, achievement questionnaires, and “take home” exams in addition to reviewing resumes; Lavigna, 2002) and be conscious of the messaging their recruitment materials send to potential applicants (Williamson, Slay, Shapiro, & Shivers-Blackwell, 2008; Goldberg & Allen 2008). Researchers find that the language used to describe an organization’s diversity practices in recruiting advertisements and how organizations explain their support for diversity have differential effects on how attractive a firm appears to diverse applicants (Williamson et al., 2008). Specifically, Williamson and colleagues (2008) find that recruitment messages with ideological justifications for diversity were viewed more positively by Black interviewees, who viewed ideological messaging as an organization aiming to provide greater employment access, than White interviewees, who perceived ideological messaging as a threat to future career opportunities. Similarly, Goldberg and Allen (2008) find that the diversity statements on an organization’s website influence intentions to pursue employment more strongly for Black than White applicants. These studies suggest that the relationship between diversity messaging and intent to pursue employment is complex. A single type of message likely does not have the same effect for all applicants depending on their own past experiences with discrimination (Williamson et al., 2008)

Lastly, research published in *Human Resource Management* suggests that racial diversity management practices should be tailored to the specific organization in question, as integration efforts will not be equally as effective across all organizations. First, the diversity management strategies employed should be uniquely tailored to the organization’s business strategy as vertically linking diversity to strategy is important in ensuring diversity management effectiveness (Konrad et al.,2016). Second, researchers suggest that diversity efforts should be tailored to the existing racial and gender composition of the organization as different demographic groups may react differently in terms of job involvement, organizational commitment, and levels of perceived control and confidence (Menon & Kotze, 2007). Finally, organizations should also take into consideration their industry and whether their organization is public or private. As Metz and Kulik (2008) discussed, public organizations must take into consideration broad social and legal systems in facilitating change, which may require the combined use of both top-down and bottom-up diversity management strategies.

**Age Diversity**

Similar to the research on age discrimination, comparatively few studies in *Human Resource Management* have explored age diversity as opposed to diversity along dimensions such as race or gender. Researchers find that older employees are more affected by different leadership styles when receiving performance appraisals (Russo, Miraglia & Borgogni, 2017), may be less tolerant of discriminatory treatment due to perceptions of overqualification (Triana et al., 2017), and are also perceived to be less innovative employees if interdepartmental collaboration is not encouraged (Guillén & Kunze, 2019). However, older workers show stronger citizenship behaviors and self-control than younger workers (Amarnani et al., 2019) and contribute greatly to organizations. Thus, if organizations effectively manage age-diverse teams, they could benefit from the improved firm strategy associated with age diversity and, subsequently, increased firm performance (Li, Chu, Lam, & Liao, 2011). According to studies in *Human Resource Management*, to better manage age diversity, organizations should encourage interdepartmental collaboration, especially for older employees because it allows for broader exposure to work issues and diverse perspectives (Guillén & Kunze, 2019). Diverse perspectives and knowledge subsequently allow older employees to form innovative ideas that facilitate intergenerational collaboration (Guillén & Kunze, 2019). Employers should also implement age-specific training to tackle negative attitudes employees may have toward older individuals (Donnelly, 2015), suggesting a diversity as separation conceptualization where younger individuals differ in attitude from older individuals.

**Ability Diversity**

Despite the passage of the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) in 1990 prohibiting discrimination against individuals with disabilities (Lee, 2001), research on disability in the workplace and diversity management practices to better include those with disabilities remains scarce (Colella & Bruyère, 2011). It lags behind other dimensions of diversity (Colella, Hebl & King, 2017), especially in top-tier journals (Dwertmann, 2016). Consistent with these trends, only a handful of recent studies in *Human Resource Management* investigate the inclusion of persons with disabilities (PWDs) with an emphasis on the unique burdens faced by PWDs (Baldridge & Swift, 2016; Lee, 2001), the psychological and social integration of PWDs (Zhu, Law, Sun, & Yang, 2019; Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2011), and their potential as a pool of untapped talent (Lengnick-Hall, Gaunt & Kulkarni, 2008).

An important difference between PWDs and individuals of other marginalized identities is the burden of seeking and establishing protection. Establishing disability is more complicated than establishing race or gender as courts often defer to the judgment of employers (Lee, 2001) and PWDs may be perceived negatively when they request disability accommodations (Baldridge & Swift, 2016). While supportive policies are important and necessary, if these policies are not adequately enforced by the organizational climate, PWDs may not request accommodations afforded by those policies for fear of judgment from others for going against the norm (Baldridge & Swift, 2016). Thus, in order to ensure that the underlying values proposed by HR policies actually translate to the treatment of employees, employers must invest in creating a positive culture for PWDs (Buys et al., 2017) through the socialization of PWDs in the existing workplace (Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2011). Suggested socialization tactics for PWDs include creating common experiences for new employees, adhering to a specific time frame that allows employees to get used to new roles, and using role models to socialize employees (Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2011). Conceptualizing diversity as disparity, researchers recommend creating a positive organizational climate that increases job satisfaction for PWDs (Pérez, Alcover, & Chambel, 2015), provides them with the support they need to perform their job duties (Neal-Boylan, 2019), and bolsters the self-efficacy necessary for allowing PWDs to thrive at work (Zhu et al., 2019). A more recent review of the disability literature by Beatty, Baldridge, Boehm, Kulkarni, and Colella (2019) provides a comprehensive overview of the treatment of PWDs in the workplace and identifies several gaps for future research. The authors observe that the construct of workplace treatment varies greatly across studies, and the disability label is frequently used in studies in a way that groups PWDs into a homogeneous group. The lack of clearly defined, consistent constructs across studies may lead to misunderstandings regarding how PWDs are treated in the workplace and limits the development of a coherent literature surrounding PWDs.

**Religious Diversity**

Our review of diversity research in *Human Resource Management* reveals a clear gap in the literature surrounding the dimension of religious identity. Only one recent article by Héliot, Gleibs, Coyle, Rousseau, and Rojon (2019) focused on religious identity, reviewing the literature in management, healthcare, and other professional contexts. The authors identify value differences, identity tensions, and connections to well-being and work outcomes as some of the most prominent themes regarding the interaction of religious and occupational identity. Importantly, they discover three identity states associated with religious identity that are influenced by personal and situational factors: identity congruence, identity incongruence, and coexistence. Following their review, the researchers recommend that future studies address the need for more research on religion as a social identity, multilevel approaches, and fault line activation processes for religious identity (Héliot et al., 2019). Given the apparent gap in the literature on religious identity in the workplace, we echo the authors' recommendations and suggest future researchers examine the complexities of religious identity diversity in organizations.

**LGBTQ Diversity**

**Business case for LGBTQ diversity***.* The articles in *Human Resource Management* examining LGBTQ employees are primarily aimed at making the case for LGBTQ diversity in organizations (e.g., Pichler et al., 2018; Wang & Schwarz, 2010) and how to best implement diversity management practices to include LGBTQ individuals (e.g., Everly & Schwarz, 2015; Jiraporn, Potosky, & Lee, 2019).

 Like the sex and race discussions, the recent literature on LGBTQ diversity also examines the business case for LGBTQ diversity (i.e., the impact of LGBTQ diversity on firm performance). Research on the business case for LGBTQ diversity echoes the double-edged sword findings in both the race and sex discrimination literature. Research shows firms with LGBTQ-supportive policies are associated with better credit ratings (Chintrakarn, Treepongkaruna, Jiraporn, & Lee, 2020), improved firm value, and profitability (Pichler et al., 2018). Research also finds that LGBTQ policies interact with firm innovation to positively influence firm performance (Hossain, Atif, Ahmed, & Mia, 2019). Specifically, these findings suggest that LGBT-supportive policies have a positive impact on firms’ innovation that ultimately increases firm performance, indicating workplace diversity policies as one of the drivers of firm performance (Hossain et al., 2019). Uniquely, these studies emphasize diversity as variety and how diversity through LGBTQ-supportive policies contributes to improved firm-level outcomes. However, the divisive nature of LGBTQ issues may affect consumer reactions to firms that adopt LGBTQ-supportive policies such that an apathetic stance on LGBTQ policies may negatively influence consumers’ purchase intentions (Ginder, Kwon, & Byun, 2019). These studies suggest that while proper management through the implementation of LGBTQ policies may benefit firms in some domains, it may hurt them in others.

 In *Human Resource Management,* Day and Greene (2008) are the first to examine the case for sexual orientation diversity, arguing that to be competitive in the labor market and appeal to customers of different demographics, organizations must adopt inclusiveness. Several researchers expand on this discussion, suggesting that progressive firms with LBGT-supportive policies perform better than their same-industry counterparts with respect to stock price (Wang & Schwarz, 2010). Recently, Pichler and colleagues (2018) examine the relationship between LGBT-supportive policies and firm outcomes, finding that increased firm value, profitability, and productivity are associated with the implementation of LGBT-supportive policies.

 **LGBTQ policies***.* Although the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission has previously interpreted discrimination against employees due to sexual orientation and gender identity as covered under sex in Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (EEOC, 2015), only very recently has a landmark U.S. Supreme Court case explicitly ruled that LGBTQ employees should be protected under the “sex” category of Title VII (Bostock v. Clayton County, 2020; Williams, 2020). Due to the lack of clarity up until this point, the responsibility for implementing LGBTQ policies has rested within the private sector where researchers have pushed for employers to be proactive in creating their own norms (Hebl, Barron, Cox, & Corrington, 2016) by providing LGBTQ-friendly worker education, health insurance, and policy updates (Zugelder & Champagne, 2018).

 Since LGBTQ-supportive policy adoption was up to the discretion of individual organizations until very recently, what factors influence whether an organization chooses to adopt LGBTQ-supportive policies? Recent research suggests that firms are more likely to invest in LGBTQ-supportive policies when there are state laws addressing LGBTQ rights, when other companies in the focal firm's industry are implementing LGBTQ-supportive policies (Everly & Schwarz, 2015) and when there is greater gender diversity on the board of directors (Everly & Schwarz, 2015; Glass & Cook, 2018). However, the sexual orientation of the firm's employees (Everly & Scwarz, 2015) and the gender of the CEO (Glass & Cook, 2018) do not relate to a firms' propensity to adopt LGBTQ-supportive policies. The inconsistencies between diversity in leadership and adoption of LGBTQ-supportive policies could be explained by agency conflict between management teams, who represent employees, and corporate boards, who represent shareholders (Jiraporn et al., 2019).

 Once an organization has adopted an LGBTQ-supportive policy, it is also important to ensure the policy is embraced at multiple levels of the organization (Webster et al., 2018) and that existing policies, such as work-life balance programs, are expanded to include the needs of LGBTQ employees (Stavrou & Ierodiakonou, 2018). A recent review of the LGBTQ literature identified three different levels of support organizations utilize: (1) formal policies, (2) supportive climates, and (3) supportive interpersonal relationships in the workplace. The researchers found that while policies were still influential, they were least impactful compared to supportive climates and supportive work relationships in predicting positive work outcomes for LGBTQ employees. The findings suggest that while policies and practices are necessary, they are not sufficient. They must also be consistently implemented, enforced, and embedded in the organization’s culture (Webster et al., 2018). In conjunction with formal policies, fostering LGBTQ-friendly climates with social support from co-workers is associated with more psychological safety (Trau, 2015), and higher job and life satisfaction (Huffman et al., 2008), and can help facilitate LGBTQ employee voice (Bell, Özbilgin, Beauregard, & Sürgevil, 2011).

**Calls for more research***.* While there is not as much research on LGBTQ diversity as there is within the areas of race and gender, the research on LGBTQ employees has grown in recent years with research in the U.S. leading the charge. It will likely continue to grow as researchers call for more studies on LGBTQ employees (Webster et al., 2018), and improved theories that cater to the unique experiences of LGBTQ individuals are developed (Hall, Hall, Galinsky, & Phillips, 2019; Pichler, Ruggs, & Trau, 2017). A review by Webster and colleagues (2018) of LGBTQ research over the last 20 years argues that, to date, the research surrounding LGBTQ issues has been fragmented across different disciplines, with each discipline viewing LGBTQ issues through a different lens. This discontinuity means that it is difficult for researchers to obtain a clear picture of LGBTQ employees’ issues in the workplace and that more research is needed to fill in the gaps in the literature. Research on LGBTQ individuals is especially important because societies and organizations often have strong problematic heteronormative biases that disadvantage LGBTQ people (Rumens, 2016). Thus, it is important for managers to understand and address the needs of LGBTQ employees (Robinson, Van Esch, & Bilimoria, 2017).

**Diversity Management Strategies**

The majority of *Human Resource Management* articles focused on diversity management strategies and how the complex ways in which strategies are implemented may yield varying outcomes. While diversity initiatives aim to help groups that face disadvantages in the workplace, they do not always work as intended (Leslie, 2019). Researchers examine diversity management practices in order to help resolve the double-edged nature of diversity inclusion policies (Guillaume, Dawson, Otaye-Ebede, Woods, & West, 2017; Jackson, Lafasto, Schultz, & Kelly, 1992) and to highlight the importance of diversity management strategies in organizational settings due to continued demographic shifts in employee composition (Bieling, Stock, & Dorozalla, 2015; Loveman & Gabarro, 1991). Articles in *Human Resource Management* offer insights and recommendations regarding work-life programs, improving specific HR processes, and how best to implement diversity practices to promote inclusion at multiple levels of the organization.

**Work-Life policies*.***Much of the research assessing diversity management practices focuses specifically on work-family policies. Work-family conflict engenders conflict between employees' home and work lives (Adya, 2008) and can lead to increased opt out of employment (Ladge et al.,, 2018) and turnover intentions (Singh, Zhang, Wan, & Fouad, 2018) as well as strain due to lower subjective well-being (Shang, O'Driscoll & Roche, 2018). This is the case even though working mothers are no less committed to their organizations than their peers (Chang et al., 2014).

In efforts to resolve work-family conflict, researchers in *Human Resource Management* recommend that organizations equalize gender roles rather than pushing new parents toward meeting traditional male work demands (Bailyn, 1992) and create supportive climates that include managerial support and flexible work hours to help reduce disparities (Ladge et al., 2018). Furthermore, in implementing work-family policies, organizations ought to consider cultural differences in how work-family conflict strains employees (Shang et al., 2018)

Finally, although the value of work-family policies is often discussed in the context of gender diversity, work-family policies should be inclusive of employees of various identities (Stavrou & Ierodiakonou, 2018). Stavrou and Ierodiakonou (2018) criticize the existing work-life balance discourse and propose that work-life balance policies need to be expanded to include LGBTQ employees. The authors argue that the discourse around work-life balance has effectively challenged traditional roles but falls short of challenging the dimensions of sexual orientation and gender identity. To help address this issue, they propose a stakeholder view of LGBTQ employees so that organizations can better cater to the needs of LGBTQ individuals who have systematically been excluded from the work-life conversation (Stavrou & Ierodiakonou, 2018)

**Recruitment and hiring**. Research shows that an organizational talent management system can positively influence a firm's absorptive capacity (i.e., a firm’s ability to learn from its context) and subsequent firm performance (Latukha & Veselova, 2019), but fairly little is known about how diversity management practices may affect recruitment (Avery, Volpone, Stewart, Luksyte, Hernandez, McKay, & Hebl, 2013). Authors in *Human Resource Management* offer several insights to shed light on the effects of diversity recruitment strategies. Applicants' intent to pursue employment with an organization may vary greatly depending on their race (Goldberg & Allen, 2008), policies offered by the organization (Casper, Wayne, & Manegold, 2013), past discrimination experiences (Williamson et al., 2008), and the organization's diversity messaging (Avery et al., 2013; Williamson et al., 2008). Research findings suggest that organizations should take care in crafting diversity statements that reflect true value for diversity such that diverse applicants will feel that their identities are recognized by the firm (Avery et al., 2013). Specifically, Avery and colleagues (2013) recommend organizations project a positive image by including information on diversity awards the organization has received on recruitment materials and providing recruitment material in multiple languages for applicants. Researchers also recommend that, in addition to inclusive recruitment materials, organizations should consistently distribute knowledge regarding selection and recruitment, collect data on their recruitment practices, and regularly evaluate their staffing systems (Ryan & Tippins, 2004).

**Diversity training.** Providing diversity training for employees is becoming more widespread, but concerns about its utility and effectiveness remain (Cocchiara, Connerley & Bell, 2010). To address these concerns, three studies in *Human Resource Management* offer approaches to implementing diversity training. First, Chavez and Weisinger (2008) suggest that training must include instruction that emphasizes the transformation of organizational culture and attitudes in order to move towards managing *for* diversity rather than managing diversity. In emphasizing transforming employee attitudes, this study conceptualizes diversity as separation where employees with differing attitudes may better understand one another once shared organizational values are in place. Building upon this, Cocchiara and colleagues (2010) recommend implementing diversity training using an approach and goals focus where executive commitment and mandatory attendance are key elements. Finally, Jones and colleagues (Jones, King, Nelson, Geller, & Bowes-Sperry, 2013) propose that firms should use a multilevel training program focused not only on the bottom line but also on true moral value for diversity. Without focusing on moral imperatives, organizations may encounter trainee backlash that undermines the effectiveness of diversity training (Jones et al., 2013). In summary, these studies emphasize the need for diversity training that utilizes relational approaches where value for diversity is the focus.

**Leadership***.* In order to enact diversity management change in organizations, it is also vital to have leaders who believe in the value of diversity (Bader, Kemper & Froese, 2019; Wong, 2008). High-status leaders that champion diversity and demonstrate inclusiveness have a strong influence on an organization's inclusive climate (Boekhorst, 2015), on organizational performance (Mitchell, Boyle, Parker, Giles, Chiang, & Joyce, 2015), and on other organizations within the same industry (Shi, Pathak, Song, & Hoskisson, 2018), because they serve as an important source of social information (Boekhorst, 2015). Since minority employees often lack role models and informal social networks (Chanland & Murphy, 2018), researchers in *Human Resource Management* recommend that organizations provide development opportunities, implement succession planning programs (Greer & Virick, 2008), and create formal mentoring networks for employees of underrepresented identities in order to help support them in the path toward leadership roles (Murrell et al., 2008). These programs will provide racial minority employees with the psychosocial and career support necessary to move toward more diverse leadership in organizations (Murrell et al., 2008)

**Diversity climate*.*** Part of the reason leaders are influential in the effectiveness of diversity management strategies is due to their contribution to the organization’s diversity climate. In addition to leaders, however, peers (Wagstaff et al., 2015) and employees' direct workgroup (Boehm, Dwertmann, Kunze, Michaelis, Parks, & McDonald, 2014) can also have a significant impact on the perceived diversity climate of an organization because employees may seek social support from peers in response to discrimination (Wagstaff et al., 2015). Strauss and Connerley (2003) examine how social interactions influence attitudes and find that when employees have contact with diverse others, they have more positive diversity orientations. By fostering a positive diversity climate, all employees can benefit (Kaplan, Wiley & Maertz, 2011), and firms will experience lower turnover intentions (Kaplan et al., 2011) as well as positive workgroup performance (Boehm et al., 2014).

**Multilevel implementation*.*** While some studies have shown that diversity management can improve firm-level outcomes such as reducing turnover (Kaplan et al., 2011) and improving organizational performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994), other studies find that the effects of diversity management policies are not necessarily positive or negative (Kochan et al., 2003), and may follow a curvilinear rather than linear upward relationship (Roh & Kim, 2016). Moreover, diversity management practices are likely insufficient on their own (Jayne & Dipboye, 2004). In addition to implementing diversity programs, in order for them to be successful, organizations must also specify clear diversity goals, solicit feedback on the progress toward these goals, and adopt an integration and learning frame when communicating program details to employees. To assess the value of diversity initiatives (Ellis & Sonnenfeld, 1994) and resolve inconsistencies, researchers suggest implementing inclusive practices at multiple levels of the organization since an emphasis on standalone practices may not be enough (Scott, Heathcote & Gruman, 2011) and adopting policies with a true moral value for diversity rather than focusing solely on the bottom line (Jones et al., 2013). In *Human Resource Management's* most-cited diversity article, Kochan and co-authors (2003) conduct a five-year study focused on the effectiveness of diversity practices. They suggest that, due to neither positive nor negative findings, perhaps the discussion on the business case has run its course and researchers ought to pursue a more nuanced view of diversity management.

To ensure that diversity practices are implemented at multiple levels of the organization, diversity management must begin with a direct link to the organization's business strategy (Konrad et al., 2016), followed by inclusive practices that permeate all levels of the organizational hierarchy (Scott et al., 2011) as well as across functions and departments (Jones et al., 2013; Armstrong, Flood, Guthrie, Liu, MacCurtain, & Mkamwa, 2010.) Delegation of diversity management from top executives without active involvement from all levels is ineffective (Childs, 2005) and can even elicit a backlash from employees (Jones et al., 2013). Implementing diversity management practices and emphasizing moral imperatives across leadership, training, recruiting, and development functions (Armstrong et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2013) fosters a shared perception of inclusiveness that is vital to the commitment of diverse employees (Li, Perera, Kulik, & Metz, 2019).

**International contexts*.*** Finally, in line with multilevel models of diversity management, many articles in *Human Resource Management* emphasize the importance of considering international country-level cultural differences when implementing diversity strategies. Although the majority of research published in *Human Resource Management* is conducted in the United States, approximately 1/3 of the studies in *Human Resource Management* report on the experiences of employees in at least one country outside of the United States. Researchers identify cultural differences in gender roles (Cooke & Xiao, 2014; Kaminski & Paiz, 1984), work versus family values (Olson, Huffman, Leiva, & Culbertson, 2013; Cooke & Xiao, 2014), reactions to diverse leaders (Kaminski & Paiz, 1984; Woodhams et al., 2015; Carney & O'Kelly, 1987; Tung, 2008), and perceptions of performance appraisal fairness (Yamazaki & Yoon, 2016). Due to these cultural differences, and the conceptualization of diversity as separation, researchers argue that it is even more important to have leadership teams composed of diverse individuals (Muethel et al., 2012) with international experience (Bano & Nadeem, 2018). It is important to have climates that are inclusive of different languages and backgrounds (Kulkarni & Sommer, 2015) and effective global performance management practices to better retain diverse talent (Festing et al., 2015). Country-level cultural diversity can make managing diversity a uniquely complex (Cooke & Saini, 2010) and challenging process (Donnelly, 2015). Thus, cultural differences should inform organizations' cross-national management strategies (Tung, 1993).

**Discussion**

**Conceptual/Theoretical Synopsis of Findings**

 As we look across the articles included in the review, the most often used theoretical frameworks are social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg & Abrams, 1993; Hogg & Mullin, 1999) and self/social categorization theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Similarity-attraction (Byrne, 1971) and homophily theories (Ibarra, 1992, 1993) have also been used several times, as have tokenism (Kanter, 1977) and attraction-selection-attrition (Schneider, 1987). Institutional theory (Scott, 2000), signaling theory (Spence, 1973), upper echelons theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) and the resource-based view of the firm (Barney, 1991) have also been used mainly (but not exclusively) with organization-level studies. Also, many studies have been framed around various employment laws such as Title VII of the Civil Rights Act and the Americans with Disabilities Act.

These commonly used theories are certainly relevant moving forward, but as more studies on diversity are published, it would be helpful to use more recent theories that focus on the effect of diversity and diversity management practices on employees, teams, and organizations. Harrison and Klein’s (2007) typology of diversity as variety, separation, and disparity may help authors articulate how they conceptualize diversity. Models like the interactional model of cultural diversity (Cox, 1993) and the business case for diversity (Cox & Blake, 1991) may also be helpful to connect employee diversity and organizational diversity management to organizational outcomes. It is also notable that in our review, only five studies were conducted at the group/team level. More research on teams is needed, and theories such as the information/decision-making perspective, which proposes that information sharing is a primary mechanism between team diversity and team performance, could be helpful (Gruenfeld, Mannix, Williams, & Neale, 1996; Jackson, 1992; Mannix, Thompson, & Bazerman, 1989; Thompson, Mannix, & Bazerman, 1988; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). The categorization-elaboration model (Van Knippenberg, De Dreu, & Homan, 2004), which combines the original concepts from social/self-categorization theories with the logic of the information/decision-making perspective may also be helpful to understand team dynamics. The more recent Microdynamics of Diversity and Stereotyping in Teams (MIDST) model also presents a nuanced framework describing how stereotyping can both benefit and harm team functioning (Van Dijk, Van Engen, Meyer, & Loyd, 2017).

In the following discussion, we present practical implications of our findings for human resource managers. We also provide several future research directions for discrimination and diversity research.

**Practical Implications of Findings for Human Resource Managers**

 In an era of Me Too and Black Lives Matter Movements, companies across the globe realize that an important component of the HR system is to provide opportunities for underrepresented groups by eliminating discrimination and promoting fairness while designing practices that do not make majority groups feel threatened. There is an opportunity for academics to examine the diversity practices that practitioners implement for their utility and usefulness so that there is a closer connection between research and practice. When managing demographic diversity and reducing workplace discrimination, all things start with leadership. Leaders that can most successfully manage diversity must be able to handle challenges that are both task-related and person-related (Homan, Gündemir, Buengeler, & van Kleef, 2020) with the ultimate goal of creating a collaborative, inclusive context. Research shows that a leader is the lifeblood of the organizational culture, so their personality and belief system will either foster a collaborative or competitive environment (O’Reilly, Chatman, & Doerr, in press). We suggest that if companies really want to make the workplace more diverse, they should seek out leaders with a collaborative style. Diversity thrives on collaboration rather than competition, so leader personality characteristics that result in a more collaborative cultures should foster a better, more inclusive contextual climate where a diverse workforce is beneficial. These inclusive leaders may be positioned not only in the executive team but also in lower to mid-level management. Moreover, stronger advances in diversity management can be made if we take a multiple constituency approach where we have proactive and inclusive leadership efforts not only within companies but also among government regulators that inform policy at a national level. Previous research has not accounted for the role that leaders external to the organization play in facilitating a national culture of inclusion, which we believe will indirectly impact organizations.

From a human resource practice perspective, general HR training might be necessary but not sufficient to managing a diverse workforce. Companies need to emphasize identity-conscious HR practices (e.g., diversity training), too, because identity blind practices alone (e.g., general training) are not enough when it comes to managing a diverse workforce (Roberson, King, & Hebl, 2020). Diversity training and other diversity practices matter, because it is not just about obtaining demographic representation when it comes to diversity but also about managing diversity through appropriate diversity practices. For example, it is important for diversity training to consider employees’ perspective-taking skills because much of the battle in changing racial attitudes from negative to positive is to foster an environment where employees are open to perspectives from a racially different person’s point of view (Ragins & Ehrhardt, 2020). Companies that are concerned about fostering a climate for inclusion should start by utilizing the staffing and recruiting function to recruit individuals who already possess perspective-taking mindsets or who are at least open to taking diversity training seriously when it focuses on coaching employees to consider different perspectives.

We suggest that a truly holistic diversity management HR system should even go beyond standalone training programs that facilitate diversity perspective-taking. A more effective system would consist of integrated, systematic approaches that consider diversity management within the compensation system and appraisal practices in addition to the training and development practices (Richard, Roh, & Pieper, 2013). Indeed, there is an opportunity to examine the organizational impact of diversity in dyads, teams, and firms while simultaneously considering the diversity and equality management system of HR practices.

Companies also need to pay attention to the demographic background of the person who is charged with bringing about diversity in the workforce. Often times companies pick a minority because of their background in the hopes that they can better implement diversity policy. Scholarly research shows that when a minority is handpicked for such positions, others perceive that minority as self-interested or an advocate for the minority group to which they belong rather than an objective promoter of diversity (Gardner & Ryan, 2020). For example, employees might view a Black recruiter in their company as someone who is primarily trying to recruit Black employees while they would perceive a White recruiter of minorities as an objective, unbiased recruiter.

Companies should consider creating a demographically diverse “managing diversity” department and avoid trying to match a diversity staff member’s demographic background with a potential applicant. In other words, rather than sending an all minority team (e.g., all Blacks) as a signal that the company values diversity, a company could instead send a demographically diverse team of recruiters (e.g., Black, White, Asian, Hispanic, American Indian) to target a diverse set of applicants so that negative self-interest perceptions are less likely to emerge. Such approaches might contribute to a more multicultural perspective that includes all cultural voices which has been shown to improve intergroup relations and support for diversity initiatives (Leslie, Bono, Kim, & Beaver, 2020).

**Future Research Directions for Discrimination Research**

Our review of the discrimination literature in HRM has yielded one certain outcome: there is a great deal more research to be conducted in this area. Research on discrimination has waned with the focus of most recent work being on diversity management and inclusion. As our review illustrates, this is particularly true with respect to race and ethnicity research. Clearly, these domains share common ground and common questions, but often by focusing on inclusion and diversity, we are steered away from considering unjust treatment toward specific groups. Furthermore, many issues examined in the diversity and inclusion literature have little to do with unfair treatment (e.g., Shen, Tang, & D’Netto, 2014), thus indicating that focusing on diversity and inclusion is not a substitute for focusing on employment discrimination. Below are some particular issues which stand out as areas where knowledge is particularly deficient but of utmost importance to providing the field of HR with research-based guidance for discrimination-free workplaces.

 In accordance with other reviews (e.g., Colella et al., 2017), this review demonstrates that most research on employment discrimination has focused on sex/gender discrimination with race and ethnicity coming in a faraway second, and other groups receiving very little attention. A recent meta-analysis (Jones, Sabat, King, Ahmad, McCausland, & Chen, 2017) found that prejudice based on different target characteristics (race, sex, and age) was differentially related to discriminatory behavior, suggesting that discrimination issues vary by group. One cannot merely say that findings that hold true about sex discrimination will replicate when considering race discrimination. In no way do we mean to imply that there should be a moratorium on sex discrimination research; however, the focus of research on other target categories should be expanded. Future lines of research should also focus on the intersectionality of various target identities. As we are writing this paper, the country is in turmoil and protest over racial discrimination in light of the George Floyd and other killings by police and the disparities in effects across racial groups of the Corona Virus (COVID-19). Furthermore, incidences of discrimination against Asian Americans are on the rise (Nakamura, 2020), and the Supreme Court has just ruled that sexual orientation and gender identity are covered under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Corporations and their HR departments are struggling to deal with these issues (Gurchiek, 2020), and our research needs to provide them with guidance.

Related to the above issue regarding expanding research on various target groups is expanding employment discrimination research to include those who fall outside the employee realm as targets of discrimination. Most employment discrimination research focuses on bias against those who are organizational members or employees. There is little research which focuses on organizational employees discriminating against those they interact with outside the organization, such as clients, customers, vendors, or those they are meant to serve. Yet, there is audit research demonstrating that this occurs (e.g., King, Shapiro, Hebl, Singletary, & Turner, 2006). A particularly vivid example is the issue of police discrimination against persons of color.

Another overarching issue that needs to be addressed by future research is the impact that discrimination has on organizational functioning. There is research which examines the impact of discrimination on targets (e.g., Amarnani, et al., 2019; Triana et al., 2017; Wagstaff et al., 2015) and the impact that discrimination charges have on macro-level variables such as market performance (e.g., Hirsh & Cha, 2018). Yet, we know little about how discrimination against certain targets influences team functioning, the performance of on-lookers, and organizational climate perceptions. The diversity and inclusion literature is rich in demonstrating the impact that diversity and inclusion policies, perceptions, and behaviors have on these mid-range phenomena (see Roberson, Ryan, & Ragins, 2017, for a recent review) and perhaps can help guide work on how discrimination can influence these factors.

A fourth research need is to broaden the scope of where, when, and how discrimination takes place in organizations. There has been a plethora of research on discrimination in selection, recruiting, pay, and performance evaluation (see Colella, et al. 2017 for a recent review). There is also a growing literature on subtle forms of discrimination such as micro-aggressions and incivility (usually measured by target perceptions) (Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley., 2013; Jones, Peddie, Gilrane, King, & Gray, 2016; Jones et al., 2017). However, research has shown a variety of other ways in which discrimination shows up in employees’ treatment. For example, King, Botsford, Hebl, Kazama, Dawson, and Perkins (2012) demonstrated benevolent sexism at work when women were assigned less challenging work than men. Another example is the glass cliff phenomenon, whereby women are often promoted into risky leadership positions that have a high likelihood of failure (Cook & Glass, 2014). These findings bring up more questions than they answer. Do other groups suffer similar phenomena? Are there HR policies and procedures which can prevent this type of covert discrimination? Which HR practices are most influenced by implicit bias and display subtle discrimination? What is the cumulative effect of covert bias on workplace functioning, targets, and organizational performance indicators? The time has come to branch out from studying discrimination in those areas which are most easily observed (and regulated) to systematically examine structural discrimination as a function of various HR practices.

Finally, there is a need for evaluation research to examine the efficacy of various HR practices in actually eliminating discrimination. No one would argue that organizational culture plays a role in how much discrimination is experienced and tolerated in the organization, but how do we go about changing that culture? In a recent SHRM article summarizing a diversity/inclusion webinar for HR managers (Gurchiek, 2020), John Page, General Counsel and Chief Diversity Officer at Golden State Foods, stated that organizations must have difficult conversations with their employees and “must start by demonstrating empathy and respect in word and deed.” Is there research to guide managers on how to have difficult conversations about racial and other types of discrimination? What is the most effective way to do this? What are the training implications? We know that some personality types are associated with the propensity to hold prejudicial attitudes and discriminatory behaviors (e.g., Gerber, Huber, Doherty, Dowling, & Ha, 2010; Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth, & Malle, 1994). However, this issue has never been addressed in an HR context (indeed, the issue of who is likely to discriminate has not really been addressed in the HR literature). What are the implications of using these traits in selection to select out those most likely to discriminate against others? How can training be developed to successfully lead to the suppression of discriminatory behavior in those most likely to discriminate? These are just a few of the questions that can be asked when considering what types of HR policies and procedures effectively eliminate discrimination, which go beyond the most commonly studied contexts of selection, recruiting, pay, and performance evaluations.

In summary, there is a vast literature on discrimination across many disciplines. However, much of this literature has not been integrated into the HR literature. By broadening whom we consider as targets of discrimination, the impact of discrimination on organization functioning, the forms that discrimination takes in organizations and their cumulative effects, and what can be done to successfully eliminate discrimination in all its forms, the field of HR scholarship can go a long way into providing guidance to organizations.

**Future Research Directions for Diversity Research**

 We note above that considerable attention has been paid to the diversity as disparity or separation conceptions of diversity (Harrison & Klein, 2007) in the journal. In fact, most of the studies published in *Human Resource Management* on diversity over the past 60 years at the organizational level of analysis have examined the glass ceiling phenomena (e.g., Lavigna, 2002) or emphasized ways to improve the mobility of underrepresented groups through diversity cues (e.g., Scott, Heathcote & Gruman, 2011) rather than focus on the direct performance benefits of having a more demographically diverse workforce. We see a unique opportunity to continue the pursuits of research at the individual level of analysis and to increase the volume of studies at the team and organizational levels of analysis. Specifically, we have observed a minimal number of studies that examine the benefits of having a diverse workforce, especially from diversity as a variety perspective as designated by Harrison and Klein (2007). One potential question that could motivate future research is, “What happens when underrepresented groups become represented in key executive positions such as senior management or the board of directors?” In the diversity literature at large, we see that studying the types of diversity emphasized in our 60-year review has received less attention in the domain of upper echelons research.

Diversity in the upper echelons has implications for the firm’s strategic decision-making and ultimately impacts an array of organizational outcomes of interest to human resource executives and is often studied within the diversity as variety approach, which as noted above, has rarely been employed within the journal. We believe that adopting the diversity as variety approach for studying not only work teams but also the executive ranks serves as a major opportunity for future empirical work to be published in *Human Resource Management* in the years to come (for exception, see Ali, Metz, & Kulik, 2015). Below we will briefly review some recent research that might serve as an impetus for future investigations that integrate research published in the previous 60 years with some new and insightful recent work.

The work by Li et al. (2011) that examined age diversity effects on firm performance is an excellent example of the type of research that could be expanded upon in the journal space. Couched within the diversity as variety approach similar to the Li et al. (2011) and Ali, Metz, & Kulik (2015) manuscripts, recent research by Triana, Richard, and Su (2019) found that gender diversity in senior management has a positive and direct relationship to strategic change and subsequent firm performance. The strategic human resource management approach has called for the human resource domain to become a key player for strategic change within organizations so such exploration would seem appropriate content for the journal. A similar study by Richard, Triana, and Li (2020) emphasizes the importance of having racial diversity in both upper management and lower management for enhanced firm-specific absorptive capabilities and improved firm performance. In sum, both of these studies emphasize the importance of racial and gender diversity in the human capital pool, so they are without doubt within the domain of human resource management. Yet, such research has not been forthcoming to a notable extent in the journal over the previous 60 years.

Recent research by Farh and colleagues (Farh, Oh, Hollenbeck, Yu, Lee, & King, 2020) grounded in tokenism theory unveils conditions in which a token female’s voice enactment helps improve team performance for complex tasks when team leaders have confidence in the female’s competence. The following study has implications for chief human resource officers (CHRO) since women often serve in this role as they often are the only female member of the top management team. An interesting study would be to explore whether a token female in a CHRO type position contributes to the quality of the strategic decisions made (or the frequency of strategic change) when, in fact, the CEO perceives she is a valuable contributor.

There is also an opportunity to examine more dynamics in the board of directors because human resource procedures, such as recruitment and selection, are consistently utilized to attract and retain board members. For example, recent research by [Naumovska](https://journals.aom.org/doi/abs/10.5465/amj.2018.0193), [Wernicke](https://journals.aom.org/doi/abs/10.5465/amj.2018.0193), [and Zajac](https://journals.aom.org/doi/abs/10.5465/amj.2018.0193) (2020) reveals how growing societal pressures to redress the longstanding underrepresentation of women and racial minority board members may lessen the punishment generally inflicted upon them by the industry in the aftermath of business wrongdoing, because it is difficult to find talent from these underrepresented women and racial minority subgroups. While research might show there are a number of obstacles for women and racial minorities to obtain a high-profile board position, it seems that once they get there, they are a hot commodity. Their study is consistent with recent research challenging the assumption that minority status is uniformly disadvantageous in the upper echelons of corporations (Leslie, Manchester, & Dahm, 2017). One wonders under what conditions would qualified women and racial minority top management team executives be kept on after corporate wrongdoing grounded in unethical behavior. Given the assumption that women, in particular, are the ones who behave more ethically, it could be that less ethical behavior makes their actions more consistent with those of men and thus affords them the opportunity, to some extent, to become a part of the boys’ club.

Also missing from the demographic diversity story is the role of diversity climate (Boehm et al., 2014). For example, Holmes, Jiang, Avery, McKay, Oh and Tillmamn (2020) conducted a meta-analysis on diversity climate effects and found an interaction between demographic racial and gender diversity and diversity climate (especially an inclusive climate) on firm outcomes. This supports the notion that a comprehensive model studying diversity within teams should account for various boundary conditions such as the human resource management system, and the diversity climate. One such article published in *Human Resource Management* moves the conversation to the future direction we propose as it boldly uses an integrative approach that considers diversity cues and demographic compositions simultaneously (Mitchell et al., 2015).

Another suggestion for future research on diversity is to use new/less common theoretical foci to frame future studies. In an excellent review of the diversity and inclusion literature, Roberson (2019) offers several specific areas in which future diversity and inclusion research should move. Of particular relevance to the field of human resources, is the idea of going beyond the business case justification for diversity — a viewpoint which guides much of the HR literature, and to focus on other justifications, such as social justice and corporate responsibility. In doing so, the interests of other stakeholders will be considered, and the types of evaluation metrics will be broadened from those related to organizational performance to those which address other justifications.

Examining the impact of diversity and inclusion initiatives from a strategic perspective to uncover those aspects of these programs which are most related to success on a variety of outcomes is warranted. Most research, as noted above, looks at specific initiatives in isolation. Borrowing the methodology from the High Performance Work Systems literature (Becker, Huselid, 1998; Shin & Konard, 2017) can offer a productive avenue for future research efforts. The goal of this line of literature was to initially uncover bundles of general HR practices which were universally related to firm performance. Later, this literature has considered other important outcomes at different levels of analysis (e.g., employee well-being; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016). One can imagine conducting research in this manner to determine what aspects or bundles of diversity and inclusion programs universally relate to a variety of outcomes such as minority retention rates or diversity climate perceptions.

Finally, recent events have indicated that diversity and inclusion efforts can lead to a backlash among dominant group members (Brannon et al., 2018). For example, in a well-publicized case at Google, James Damore distributed an infamous memo entitled “"Google's Ideological Echo Chamber". The memo was a treatise against Google’s diversity and inclusion policies and an attempt to argue that gender differences in employment conditions were, in part, based on biology. Damore was consequently fired from Google and he sued for unlawful termination. The case was recently dropped by Damore (Brown, 2020), however, not before it had received wide spread media attention and created a great deal of controversy. Indeed, other fields such as education (e.g., Brannon et al., 2019; Wiggins- Romesburg & Githens, 2018) have addressed this issue. Yet, this issue has received virtually no attention in the *Human Resource Management* literature. Backlash against inclusion programs is as severe a problem in the workplace as it is in educational institutions. Addressing inclusion backlash from an educational viewpoint, Brannon et al. (2018) rely on the negotiation literature to present a framework where inclusion practices move from being viewed as a zero-sum game to one where both the interests of marginalized groups and those of the dominant groups are considered to result in a win-win situation. Such a framework would be useful to consider in a workplace context.

For a comprehensive list of future research ideas suggested in the last 20 years of research papers included in this review, see Table 2.

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Insert Table 2 about here

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**Conclusion**

Over the last 60 years, research published in *Human Resource Management* has made a considerable contribution to the discrimination and diversity literature. Spurred by historical legislative events, early research examined changing labor-management relations and actionable guidelines for reducing employment barriers for women and minority group members. Over time, research evolved to focus primarily on the outcomes associated with different approaches toward diversity management. While, to date, researchers have examined many aspects of both discrimination and diversity, current events (e.g., worldwide protests for racial justice in response to police brutality and disparities across racial groups in Corona Virus health outcomes) and recent legislative changes (i.e., the Supreme Court ruling to include sexual orientation and gender identity under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964) suggest that there is still much that remains to be explored. Thus, we expect future research to continue examining the nuances of discrimination and diversity in the workplace while also expanding beyond traditionally studied contexts and conceptualizations to include more subtle forms of discrimination, different targets of discrimination, and different organizational outcomes outside of the business case for diversity. We look forward to the next 60 years of discrimination and diversity research where we hope researchers will embrace new theoretical framings and provide practical guidelines for human resource managers that will build towards the collective goal of a discrimination-free workplace.

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| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Adler, Brody & Osland | 2000 | 55 | Various (25 countries) | Gender |  | Conceptual | Individual | Both genders agree on three strategies for female career success in Bestfoods leadership positions |
| 2 | Adler | 1987 | 52 | Pacific Rim | Gender |  | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Females from Canada and the US had successful experiences as managers in Asia |
| 3 | Adler & Jelinek | 1986 |  | US | Ethnicity, ethnocentrism | American cultural perspectives (assumptions of dominance, control) are discussed, Determinism, Free-will | Conceptual | Organization | Draws upon cultural roots of 'organization culture' in the US and its application in multinational management. By paying attention to societal culture, managers can craft an effective organizational culture. |
| 4 | Adya | 2008 | 30 | US | Gender/National origin | Neoclassical/Labor/Feminist | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Americans experience more stereotyping and discrimination than Asians |
| 5 | Albrecht | 1978 | 160 | US | Gender |  | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Females appear unprepared for the work-family demands |
| 6 | Ali, Metz, & Kulik | 2015 | 198 | Australia | Gender | Organizational Contingency Theory; Self-categorization; Social Identity Theory | Empirical | Organization | Non-management/management gender diversity with many/few WF programs leads to higher productivity/lower productivity |
| 7 | Altman & Shortland | 2008 | 46 |  | Gender | Feminist Theory (Showalter, 1999) | Empirical | Academic Articles | Emerging themes from the literature show that females adapt better in cross-cultural business situations; recommendations for more female inclusiveness are provided |

Table 1

*Articles Included in the Review of Discrimination and Diversity in HRM*

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 8 | Amarnani et al. | 2019 | 221 sample 1, 293 sample 2 | Philippines | Age | Strength and Vulnerability Integration Theory (Charles, 2010); Self-Esteem Threat (Tesser, 2000) | Empirical | Individual | Age both strengthens or weakens indirect effects of mistreatment on performance, dependent on the stages of the process. Across both studies, customer mistreatment leads to more self-esteem threat for older employees; however, self-esteem threat leads to larger performance decreases among younger employees. |
| 9 | Armstrong et al. | 2010 | 132 | Ireland | Diversity Cues | High-performance Work Systems (HPWS) | Empirical | Organization | Orgs using DEMS show higher productivity/innovation and lower turnover |
| 10 | Athanasopoulou et al. | 2018 | 151 | Various | Gender | Theoretical Memoranda (Martin & Turner, 1986) | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Sixteen suggestions embedded in five categories. |
| 11 | Avery et al. | 2013 | 194 | US | Diversity Cues | Attraction-Selection-Attrition framework (Schneider, 1987) | Empirical | Individual | Individuals high in OGO are more likely to seek employment with organizations that value diversity  |
| 12 | Avery et al. Second Study | 2013 | 263 | US | Diversity Cues | Attraction-Selection-Attrition framework (Schneider, 1987) | Empirical | Individual |  |
| 13 | Bader, Kemper & Froese | 2019 | 50 | Germany | Gender/Age /Ethnicity | Diversity Perspectives (Thomas & Ely, 1996); Upper Echelons Theory (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996)  | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Certain types of executives are likely to utilize a value in diversity perspective and work in environments that support a diversity-related endeavors. Older women and younger men who are highly educated and have backgrounds in socially oriented subjects are the most likely to take a value-in-diversity perspective |
| 14 | Bailyn | 1992 |  | US, Britain, Sweden | Gender |  | Case Studies | Individual | Efforts for female to meet work demands is evident in Britain and US; attempt to equalize gender roles is evident in Sweden only |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 15 | Baldridge & Swift | 2016 | 242 | US | Age/Disability (hearing impaired) | Social Identity Theory, Group Perspective/Theory (Hogg & Mullin, 1999); Theory of planned behavior (Ajzen's, 1991)Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) of 1967 | Empirical | Individual | Requester age was negatively associated with normative appropriateness assessment favorability. This negative influence was stronger in for profit organizational contexts and in workgroup contexts in which the requester lacked a coworker with a disability. |
| 16 | Bano & Nadeem  | 2018 | 51 | Pakistan | International Experience | Internalized Colonialism (David & Okazzaki, 2006); Signaling Theory, (Arrow, 1973) | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Hiring at the entry-level shows discrimination based on international experience; senior level individuals with international experience report better hiring possibility, compensation and promotion |
| 17 | Bass & Avolio | 1994 | 801 subordina-tes rating 229 managers |  | Gender | Transformational Leadership (Bass, 1985) | Empirical | Individual | Female managers are higher in all transformational items leadership and Males in management-by-exception |
| 18 | Beatty et al. | 2019 | 88 |  | Disability | Model of Factors affecting Treatment of Disabled Employees (Stone & Colella, 1996) | Review | Articles | Systematic Review 1996-2016: 20 years of disabilities in organizations studies from management, rehab, sociology, and psychology |
| 19 | Bedeian & Armenakis | 1975 | 58 | US | Gender |  | Empirical | Individual | Provide gender differences in agreement/disagreement of 55 behavior/attitudes |
| 20 | Bell et al.  | 2011 |  |  | Sexual Orientation | Voice/Silence mechanisms for GLBT (gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender) | Conceptual | Individual | The Don't ask/Don't tell policy of the US military is used as a lens through which to analyze voice, silence, and GLBT employees in other organizations |
| 21 | Bendick et al.  | 1991 | 282 | US | Discrimination/Ethnicity |  | Empirical | Individual | Anglos versus Latinos advancing to 2nd stage of interview gap of 16.3%; overall better treatment of non-Latinos |

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| 22 | Bernardin et al. | 2012 | 428 | US | Gender/Ethnicity |  | Empirical | Individual | Assessment Centers more likely to meet diversity goals overall. However, adverse impact was found under the four-fifths rule for Latinos in assessment centers.  |
| 23 | Bilimoria, Joy & Liang | 2008 | 19 | US | Gender |  | Conceptual | Organization | A Model of Organizational Transformation for Enhanced Representation and Inclusion of Women and Minority Groups is produced |
| 24 | Blum & Schmidt | 1966 |  | US | Race |  | Conceptual |  | Organizations, unions, and community organizations need to unite and provide job training to Negros to avoid "explosive racial disturbances" |
| 25 | Boehm et al.  | 2014 | 211 work groups (7689 individuals) |  | Diversity Cues | Organizational Climate (Reichers & Schneider, 1990); Climate Model of Productivity (Kopelman et al., 1990) | Empirical | Work Group | Work group diversity climate increases workgroup performance through a reduction in workgroup discrimination. Discrimination and group size play a role in the relationship between diversity climate and group performance |
| 26 | Boekhorst | 2015 |  |  | Diversity Cues | Social Information Processing Theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978); Discrimination-and-Fairness Paradigm; access-and-legitimacy paradigm, integration-and-learning paradigm (Ely & Thomas, 2001); Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) | Conceptual | Individual | Conceptual model explains why authentic leaders are a primary source of social information that significantly influence the formation of an inclusive climate  |
| 27 | Burack & Pati | 1974 | 10 | US | Race, gender |  | Conceptual | Organizational | Authors found good will on the part of management to correct employment disparity. They also identified areas of need. For example, a store owner in a White neighborhood fired 3 Black employees in a mostly White store due to fear of customer boycott.  |

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| 28 | Carney & O'Kelly | 1987 | 116 | Japan | Gender |  | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | A study after Equal Opportunity Employment Law regarding females in the workforce. Interviews describe Japanese culture and the normative roles and expectations of women at home and work. |
| 29 | Casper et al. | 2013 | 300 | US | Diversity Cues |  | Empirical | Individual | HR policy used in advertisements influenced job-pursuit intentions; more interest in Work-family policy and employee development than general diversity policy. Deep-level differences (employee attitudes and values) consistently predicted job pursuit intentions for all three HR policies more so than surface-level differences (sex, race) |
| 30 | Chang, Chin & Ye | 2014 | 1308 working mothers and 288 peers | South Korea | Working mothers | life course perspective, work-family culture, the conflict approach, social exchange theory | Empirical | Individual | Affective commitment of working mothers was no less than that of their peers and was even higher at the clerk level; (2) working mothers had lower career expectations than their peers at all levels, especially clerk and associate manager levels; and (3) working mothers showed a higher level of work-family conflict than their peers only at the associate manager level  |
| 31 | Chanland & Murphy | 2018 |  |  | Gender/Minorities | Women's leadership, mentoring, diversity (Catalyst, 2007) | Conceptual | Individual | A model was developed to support developmental network structures to foster diverse leaders |
| 32 | Chavez & Weisinger | 2008 |  |  | Diversity Cues | Managing for diversity rather than a managing diversity approach, relational approach | Conceptual-qualitative  | Organization | Success in creating a relational culture of integration |

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| 33 | Childs | 2005 |  |  | Diversity Cues |  | Conceptual | Organization | Discusses successful diversity management examples of 2 companies |
| 34 | Cocchiara, Connerley & Bell | 2010 |  |  | Diversity Cues | Paradigm for managing diversity (Thomas & Ely, 1996) | Conceptual | Organization | Suggest key practices for effective diversity training: Goals, Executive commitment, Mandatory attendance, and Approach |
| 35 | Cohen | 1974 |  | US | Diversity Cues | Title VII of the Civil Rights Act/Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (1966) Guidelines on Employment Testing Procedures | Conceptual | Individual | A discussion of the arguments for/against employee testing of minorities |
| 36 | Cohen | 1976 | 150 | US | Gender | Sex-role congruence | Empirical | Individual | Females were selected for more female-oriented jobs, not male-oriented jobs; however, sex-role incongruent jobs/more qualified in task-oriented skills were acceptable |
| 37 | Cooke & Saini | 2010 | 212 | India | Diversity Cues |  | Empirical-Case Study | Organization | Identify various factors influences how organizations adopted DM approach and Initiatives |
| 38 | Cooke & Xiao | 2014 | 69 | China | Gender | Institutional Theory, Culturalist Perspective (Schein, 1984), Gendered Organizational Theory (Acker, 2006) | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Women auditors’ careers appear limited by gender norms and organizational factors. Persistent gender stereotypes shape their professional role in the organization. Chinese women are less likely to perceive gender discrimination than Western women, or at least not object to it as much. |
| 39 | Davidson & Cooper | 1987 | 3650 | UK | Gender |  | Empirical | Individual | From the data, similarities and differences between the genders in management types, demographics, employment and career development, stress and overall attitudes toward female managers |
| 40 | Day & Greene | 2008 | 1007 | US | Sexual Orientation |  | Empirical-Qualitative | Organization | Small employers less likely to have HR policies, but when they did, the policies were friendlier to gay and lesbian employees |

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| 41 | Dominguez | 1992 |  | US | Gender, Ethnicity, Race | Dept. of Labor Glass Ceiling Initiative; Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP) | Conceptual | Organization | The article is a report regarding women and minorities. Nine pilot glass ceiling reviews conducted across the country revealed a glass ceiling at a level lower than expected, minorities plateau at levels lower than women. |
| 42 | Donnelly | 2015 | 15 | India | Age/Gender/Inter & Intra Diversity |  | Empirical-Qualitative | Organization | D&I management were part of HR strategies; policy examples are included; focus was on age, gender, Intra & International diversity |
| 43 | Drazin & Auster | 1987 | 2631 | US | Gender | "Ghettos" careers (Kanter, 1977); Evaluation Bias (Nieva & Gutek, 1980), promotion and career ladder | Empirical | Individual | Pay gaps between the genders ($990.00); no bias in performance ratings but yes at the levels suggesting tasks segregation  |
| 44 | Ellis & Sonnenfeld | 1994 | 922 | US | Diversity Cues |  | Empirical | Organization | Those who were familiar with topic believe their supervisors/managers value cultural diversity; overall, there is a need to ascertain value of the diversity initiatives as they may also be counterproductive |
| 45 | Everly & Schwarz | 2015 |  | US | Sexual Orientation | Coercive and mimetic isomorphism | Empirical | Organization | Outside political environment, other firms within industry practices and female representation on BoD are associated with high CEI scores (firms)  |
| 46 | Festing, Knappert & Kornau | 2015 | 241 | China, France, Germany, South Africa, US | Gender | Global Performance Management | Empirical | Individual | GPM gender-specific preferences exist, are global, not country/culture specific |
| 47 | Fox & Renas | 1977 |  | US | Gender |  | Empirical | n/a | Men's roles predominantly professional and blue collar; women's roles non-professional white collar. Men had many more on-camera and off-camera roles than women. |

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| 48 | Glass & Cook | 2018 | 469 | US | Gender | Gender Difference Perspective (Eagly et al., 2003); Gender Socialization Theory (Bem, 1981); Theory of Homophily (Byrne, 1971); Theory of Tokenism (Kanber, 1977); Diversity Theory (van Knippenberg et al., 2004) | Empirical | Organizational | Gender diversity is associated with business/equity practices; Female CEOS more likely to champion diversity policies; Female interlinks are good; overall positive support for diversity on leadership teams |
| 49 | Goldberg & Allen | 2008 | 806 | US | Race | Signaling Theory (Highhouse et al., 1999) | Empirical | Individual | Proposed theoretical model of recruitment web sites and intentions to pursue employment shows: Parasocial interaction influences attitude and intentions; Parasocial interaction, ease of use and usefulness/indirect effects through engagement; race moderates several relationships; diversity statement /little effect on outcomes |
| 50 | Gould, Kulik & Sardeshmukh | 2018 | 1387 | Australia | Gender | Similarity-Attraction Paradigm (Byrne, 1961); Homophily Theory (Ibarra, 1993); Value threat (Duguid, 2011) | Empirical | Organization | There is a trickle-down effect between board and executive levels in Australian Securities Exchange-listed organizations |
| 51 | Greer & Virick | 2008 | 25 | US & Canada | Gender/Race |  | Empirical-Qualitative | Organization | Suggestions based on literature and interviews offered to improve the numbers of females/minorities in succession planning |

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| 52 | Guillén & Kunze | 2019 | 305 | Southern Europe | Age | Innovative Behavior (Powellet al., 1996); Social Cognition (Fiske et al., 2007); Fluid (Gf) and crystallized (Gc) forms of intelligence (Cattell's (1943, 1987); Age stereotypes and discrimination (Ng & Feldman, 2012; Posthuma & Campion, 2009) | Empirical | Individual | Older employees with low interdepartmental collaboration are less innovative and receive worse performance and promotability appraisals than younger employees, but the “age handicap” vanishes when older employees collaborate with members of other departments. |
| 53 | Harris | 1975 | 15 | US | Discrimination |  | Case Studies | Individual | 15 arbitration cases over 12-year period as examples of labor arbitration/race discrimination |
| 54 | Héliot et al. | 2019 | 53 |  | Religion | Social Identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979); Self-Categorization (Turner et al, 1987); Social Identity Approach (Haslam, 2004); Occupational Identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) | Review piece | Research publication | Review of literature: positive/negative/neutral impact of religious identity on work decisions/behaviors |
| 55 | Hennessey & Bernardin | 2003 | 69026 | US | Race/Gender/Age | Subjectivity Theory (Kane et al., 1998) | Empirical | Individual |  Adverse impact was found against African-Americans regardless of rating format. No adverse impact was found toward women or older people. |
| 56 | Herbert & Yost | 1978 | N/A | US | Gender | Legislative: 1963 Equal Pay Act; Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938; Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 | Conceptual | Individual/Organizational | Authors develop a model: Developing Women into Effective Managers |
| 57 | Higgins | 1977 | 10 | US | Race and sex discrimination | EEOC and OFCC Regulations | Empirical | Organization | Inventory model social audit and scores appear to be methodologically effective in measuring organizational social performance |

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| 58 | Huffman et al. | 2008 | 99 | US | Sexual Orientation | Minority Stress (Meyer, 1995); Social Support (Schneider, 1987) | Empirical | Individual | Organizational linked support for LGB employees is positively related to work and life outcomes |
| 59 | Hussein | 1981 | 29 | US | Culture, ethnicity | Culture (Triandis, 1972); Common Culture (Useem et al, 1963); Third Culture (Thiagarajan, 1968); Cultunit (Naroll, 1968) | Empirical | Individual | Findings showed no significant differences between American and foreign student's perceptions; support for the notion that a 3rd culture can exist in settings where people from different societies engage in common enterprises |
| 60 | Jackson et al. | 1992 | 2 | US | Diversity Cues | Bailey Jackson's basic principles of a multi-cultural organization | Case Studies | Organization | Several brief sections about the management of diversity. |
| 61 | Jayne & Dipboye | 2004 | N/A | US | Diversity Cues | Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1996); In/Out Group Perspective (Ashforth & Mael, 1989); surface/deep level diversity (Harrison et al., 1998) | Conceptual | Organization | Summarize the gaps between diversity rhetoric and research findings |
| 62 | Jiraporn, Potosky & Lee | 2019 | 1594 | US | Sexual Orientation | Corporate Social Responsibility (Bowen, 1953); Agency Theory (Eisenhardt, 1989), Resource-Based View (Barney, 1991)  | Empirical | Organization | LGBT-supportive policies provide a significant and positive effect on firm performance beyond other CSR measures |
| 63 | Jones et al. | 2013 |  |  | Diversity Cues |  | Conceptual | Organization | Offer a perspective on framing diversity training from an ethical perspective using various techniques (i.e. role playing) in additional to lecture/discussion trainings |
| 64 | Kakabadse et al | 2015 | 30 | UK, US, Ghana | Gender | Resource-based theory/Behavioral theory/corporate governance (Cyert & March, 1963); Social representational Theory (Phillips, 1998) | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | The presence of minority women on boards has an insignificant effect on board performance |

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| 65 | Kaminski & Paiz | 1984 | 40 interviews, 26 completed surveys | Japan | Gender |  | Conceptual | Individual | Authors assessed the influence of Japanese women in the workforce and in management. They "grouped the costs and benefits into fourmajor areas: costs and benefits to society, in the workplace, in the home,and to women themselves" for both countries. |
| 66 | Kanter | 1986 |  | US | Race and Gender |  | Conceptual | Organizational | Three major strains are identified. First is the shift from status to contribution as a basis for pay. Second, entrepreneurial employee initiatives are incompatible with traditional organizational hierarchy. Third, the thrust of the new workplace is on greater employee participation, making earnings dependent on initiative than can disadvantage women that shoulder the burden of out-of-work responsibilities.  |
| 67 | Kaplan, Berkley & Fisher | 2016 | 299 | US | Gender | Scenario based | Empirical | Individual | Male candidates were preferred; implicit bias is avoided when reference checked; reference checks should play a stronger role in selection |
| 68 | Kaplan, Wiley & Maertz | 2011 | 4184 | US | Diversity Cues | Signaling Theory (Spence, 1973) | Empirical | Individual | Major finding: all employees benefit from a perceived positive diversity climate; success of diversity initiatives depends on various elements; calculative attachment mediates relationship between climate and turnover intention |

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| 69 | Kim, Longacre & Werner | 2017 | 397 | South Korea | Gender | Signaling Theory (Spence, 1973); Social Cognition (Kanter, 1977) | Conceptual | Individual/Organizational | Development activities participation reduces sex discrimination experience; organizations with more family-friendly policies and female employees is associated with less sexual discrimination |
| 70 | Kochan et al. | 2003 | 4 | US | Diversity Cues | The effects of diversity on group processes and outcomes | Case Studies | Organization | 5-year research focus on diversity practices effects on firm performance (Diversity Research Network); four case study showed few positive/negative diversity effects on performance |
| 71 | Konrad, Yang, & Maurer | 2016 | 155 | Canada | Diversity Cues | Institutional Theory/Perspective (Scott, 2000); Firm Agency (Oliver, 1991) | Empirical | Organization | Firms with the most DEM practices in place (configurational) are similar to firms with the fewest DEM practices (classical disparity), While firms with a moderate amount of DEM practices (institutional) show the poorest outcomes |
| 72 | Koprowshi | 1969 |  | US | Age |  |  | Organization | Author describes the generation gap and why it exists. Author proposes 3 strategies for individuals in position of power to bridge the gap or ameliorate the differences between the Depression Generation and the Electric Generation. |
| 73 | Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall | 2011 | 31 | India | Disabilities | Socialization (Morrison, 1993) | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Coworkers are seen as most influential (socialization) and key toward integration; affective reactions/attraction toward group membership is most important |
| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
| 74 | Kulkarni & Sommer | 2015 |  |  | Diversity Cues | Interactional Justice (Bies & Moag, 1986); Procedural Justice (Tyler & Blader, 2003); Social Identity (Hogg, 2001); Mood (George & Brief, 1992); Group longevity (Pelled, 1996); Diversity Climate (Mor Barack et al., 1998); Social exclusion (Thau, Aquino,& Poortvliet, 2007) | Conceptual | Organization | A model linking language-based exclusion to reductions in prosocial behaviors in organizations |
| 75 | Ladge, Humberd & Eddleston | 2018 | 40 for qualitative study and 802 for quantitative study | US | Gender | Cross-domain Effects (Ladge et al., 2012); Social Support (Thoits, 1986); Work-family conflict | Empirical-Qualitative & quantitative | Individual | Managerial support/full time status play a role in WFC |
| 76 | Laurent | 1986 |  | Various |  |  | Conceptual | Organization | Deep-seated managerial assumptions are strongly shaped by national cultures. While the global nature of the business may call for increased consistency, the variety of cultural environments may be calling for differentiation. |
| 77 | Lavigna | 2002 |  | US | Race/Gender | Affirmative Action: Achieving & Maintaining Diversity-one section | Conceptual | Organization | Improved recruitment/retention of minorities and underrepresented groups; this resulted in state government diversification of civil service workforce |
| 78 | Lee | 2001 | 267 | US | Disabilities | The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) | Empirical | Individual | Most cases are unsuccessful because courts are interpreting the ADA very narrowly |

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| 79 | Lengnick-Hall, Gaunt & Kulkarni | 2008 | 38 | US | Disabilities | Attitudes toward people with disabilities | Empirical-Qualitative | Organizational | Employers are not proactive due to concerns about job qualifications/performance, costs associated with hiring people with disabilities, and reactions/responses of others (coworkers, customers). Most accommodations are minor, but many employers are not aware of this.  |
| 80 | Li et al.  | 2011 | 68 insurance firms and 338 firm years | China | Age | Resource-based view (Barney, 1986) | Empirical | Organization | This study finds a significant and positive effect of age diversity and a significant interactive effect between age diversity and firm strategy on profitability. |
| 81 | Li et al.  | 2019 | 3229 individuals in 100 orgs. | Australia | Diversity Cues, gender, age, racioethnicity | Signaling Theory (Spence, 1973); Sensemaking (Weick et al., 1999); Identity-blind/conscious (Thomas & Ely, 1996) | Empirical | Individual/Organization | Identity-conscious programs generated an inclusion climate; firms with a stronger inclusion climate are perceived to fulfill diversity obligations and employees have higher levels of affective commitment |
| 82 | Lim, Trau & Foo | 2018 | 113 | Singapore | Sexual Orientation | Contact Hypothesis (Allport, 1954); Stigma Theory (Goffman, 1963) | Empirical-Qualitative | Organization | Gay men and lesbians are discriminated against for task-interdependent occupations by hiring personnel but are more likely to be invited to socialize outside of work by coworkers in task-interdependent jobs. |
| 83 | Loveman & Gabarro | 1991 | 21 | US | Diversity Cues | Scoping for future (1961-1988 data used for 2000 projections of labor shortages) | Empirical-Qualitative | Organization | Most firms reported managerial challenges from increased diversity. None characterized it as a serious business problem. Lack of skilled workers for complex jobs was seen as an ongoing problem. |

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| 84 | Marlow & Rowland | 1989 |  | US | Gender/Minorities | Historical equal opportunity background (1878-1989); Focus on women and minorities throughout; Proactive responses (AT&T, Aetna, Gannett, US West, and Xerox); Emancipation Proclamation of 1863 | Conceptual review | National | An exploration of the historical background of affirmative action in the US since the Civil War. There is a focus on significant Supreme Court decisions regarding affirmative action. The authors consider that the U.S. government had active involvement (1863-1877, 1964-1979), marginal involvement (1878-1900, 1980-), no direct involvement (1940-1963) |
| 85 | Menon & Kotze | 2007 | 2232 | South Africa | Race/Gender | Case study: Post apartheid era-South African National Defense Force  | Empirical & Qualitative | Individual | Mixed findings, significant differences in empowerment by race/gender with least favorable among female and Black African personnel |
| 86 | Metz & Kulik | 2008 |  | Australia | Race, gender, sexual orientation, nationality |  | Case Study | Organization | Having explicit values and behaviors, and a leader who modeled those values, resulted in a more inclusive culture at the Victoria Police Force |
| 87 | Missirian | 1978 | 21 | US | Gender | Civil Rights Act of 1964 | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Interviews with female managers from leading corporations in Boston between 1963 and 1973 suggest that there have not been substantial changes in the social conditions affecting women. |
| 88 | Mitchell et al.  | 2015 | 346 people, 75 teams | Australia | Diversity Cues | Information/decision-making perspective (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; DeDreu & West, 2001), social identification and categorization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1986) | Empirical | Team | Team identity and perceived status differences mediate the relationship between leader inclusiveness and team performance. In addition, professional diversity moderates the relationship between perceived status difference and team performance. |
| 89 | Mölders et al. | 2018 | 761 | Germany | Gender | Role Congruity Theory, Gender Stereotypes (Eagly & Karau, 2002); Sense Making Perspective (Weick et al., 2005) | Empirical | Individual | The extent to which women are generally seen as assertive, active, and strong, were positively related to participants' support for quotas for women in leadership in male-gendered industries |

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| 90 | Muethel, Gehrlein & Hoegl | 2012 | 96 | US | Age/Gender/Nationality | Shared leadership theory (Pearce & Conger, 2003); Social Categorization Theory (Turner, 1987) | Empirical | Team | Shared leadership is crucial for team performance; High female to male ratios and national diversity are drivers of shared leadership in virtual teams |
| 91 | Muller & Rowell | 1997 | 12 | Mexico | Gender | Machismo Ideology (Selby et al., 1990), Mexican gender relations and managerial ideology, Gendered social contexts (Segura, 1992; Sheppard, 1992), Gender-organization-systems approach (Fagenson, 1993) | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Mexican women managers showed alternative and nontraditional management styles and successfully managed work-family interface; women still encounter obstacles to advancement |
| 92 | Mullins & Holmes | 2018 | 373 | US | Gender | Work-family benefits, corporate governance, and stakeholder orientation | Empirical | Organization | Director independence factors and capital attributes are associated with firm offering Work-family benefits. Having women and outside directors on board increases the likelihood of Work-family benefits |
| 93 | Murrell et al. | 2008 | 30 | US | Race | Interorganizational Formal Mentoring (IOFM) Interviews of focus groups | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Mentee experiences were positive, mentees appreciated career and psychosocial support from senior African-American executives. |
| 94 | Northrup | 1964 |  | US | Race, sex, age | Details beginning in 1958 (lack of need for unskilled workers), industry migration away from Black concentration areas, protests (1960s), Equal Opportunity Laws (1964) | Conceptual | N/A | Analysis of equal opportunity laws. Evaluates problems of minorities and laws designed for their protection. A final section of the article discusses sex and age discrimination. |

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| 95 | Olson et al. | 2013 | 309 | US | Ethnicity | Social Identity Theory (Burke & Stets, 2009); Self-Categorization Theory (Turner, 1985); Racioethnicity (Cox, 1993); Role Theory (Kahn et al., 1964); Acculturation Theory (Marín et al., 1987) | Empirical | Individual | Work-Family Cultural Values Model with Hispanic/Caucasian participants showed individualism is related to strain-based Work Interfering with Family and mediates relationship between acculturation and work/family conflict |
| 96 | Pati & Reilly | 1977 |  | US | Discrimination | Title VII of the Civil Rights Act | Conceptual |  | Article about negative views of affirmative action/EEO programs; misunderstanding of the purpose of Title VII Civil Rights Act |
| 97 | Pichler et al. | 2018 | 29886 | US | Sexual Orientation | Corporate Social Responsibility (Bowen, 1953) | Empirical | Individual | Increase from 4.26%-20.58% (1996-2009) of firms with LGBT Supportive Corporate Policies and increased firm value, factor/employee productivity and profitability |
| 98 | Pichler, Simpson & Stroh | 2008 | 155 | US | Gender | Stereotyping (Perdue et al., 1990); Lack of fit (Heilman, 1983) | Empirical | Individual | Women in Human resources (HR) are more likely to be concentrated in lower-level management positions. Women are more likely to be in top HR management when their organization is regulated by outside agency or government. |
| 99 | Purcell | 1962 |  | US | Race/Gender | Fair Employment Practice Laws  | Conceptual | N/A | Article is about the vast underpayment and underemployment of "Negro" workers. Example: Black college graduates earned less in 1949 than White high school dropouts. |

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| 100 | Raynolds | 1987 |  | US | Gender |  | Conceptual |  | A projection of females in the workforce for year 2000 (published in 1987). Females will seek jobs that allow expression of their professional potential; women wanting it all will be asking too much of themselves; WF balance for middle-class females; personal reward women who are mothers too; females sitting on boards will increase but not by dramatically; salaries will only amount to 80% of men's salaries and other projections |
| 101 | Richard, Roh & Pieper | 2013 | 137 | US | Race | Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) Theory (Delery & Doty, 1996); Resource Based View (Barney, 1991); High Performance Work Practices (HPWP) (Combs et al., 2006) | Empirical | Organization | Firms with minority opportunity-based and manager accountability Diversity and Equality Management (DEM) practices showed higher levels of diversity in their managerial ranks; DEM practices are more positively associated with racial diversity in management in smaller firms compared to larger firms. |
| 102 | Roh & Kim | 2016 | 454 | South Korea | Gender | Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) | Empirical | Organization | Higher levels of HRM investments and organizational identification are associated with negative consequences of diversity, becoming positive after gender diversity reached a threshold level  |
| 103 | Rosen, Miguel & Peirce | 1989 | 245 | US | Gender |  | Empirical | Organization | Half of the organizations report issues w/attracting/retaining female managers/professionals; problems faced by females and suggestions are included |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
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| 104 | Russo, Miraglia & Borgogni | 2017 | 688 | Italy | Age | Transformational Leadership (Burns, 1978); Organizational Politics (Ferris et al., 1996); Manager as a Coach Concept (Ellinger et al., 2011); Social cognition (Fiske & Taylor, 1991) | Empirical | Individual/leader | Coaching leaders are perceived as less manipulative in their performance ratings, especially by older employees. While coaching leadership style was essentially insignificant for younger employees, it made a striking difference in older employees’ perceptions of Organizational Politics in Performance Appraisal |
| 105 | Ryan & Tippins | 2004 |  |  | Diversity Cues |  | Conceptual | Organization | Use selection tools with high validity that do not evoke negative reactions from applicants. Includes a section of practices to reduce adverse impact of a selection system. |
| 106 | Scott, Heathcote & Gruman | 2011 |  |  | Diversity Cues | Organizational Culture (Dennison, 1990; Schein, 2004); Signaling Theory (Highhouse et al., 1999); Business Case for Diversity (Cox & Blake, 1991) | Conceptual | Organization | A conceptual model based on Cox & Blake (1991) suggesting an inclusive culture may lead to benefits; four propositions are included |
| 107 | Shang, O'Driscoll & Roche | 2018 | 264 | New Zealand | Nationality/country of origin | Acculturation (Berry, 2002), role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964) and conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2011) | Empirical | Individual | In a sample of Chinese immigrants to New Zealand, subjective well-being mediates the relationship between acculturation and work family conflict |
| 108 | Shellenbarger | 1992 |  |  | Gender |  | Conceptual | Individual | Author describes WFC for females in organizations |
| 109 | Shi et al.  | 2018 | 910 firms with 190 Chief Diversity Officers adoption events | US |  | Institutional Theory (Meyer & Rowan, 1977); Resource Dependence Theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978); Coercive Pressures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983); Upper Echelons Theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) | Empirical | Organization | Adoption of DO positions (S&P Fortune 500) is subject to institutional, resource dependence and upper echelons factors |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 110 | Shortland | 2016 | 71 survey responses, 40 in-depth interviews | UK | Gender | Women's Kaleidoscope Careers (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; 2006) | Case Studies, Empirical/Qualitative | Individual | Career contributions, personal development, host location and size, marriage, and children influence female expatriate assignment behaviors |
| 111 | Singh et al. | 2018 | 245 | US | Gender | Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002); Gender Stereotypes (Steele, 1997); Conservation of Resources (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989); Turnover Theory (Mobley et al., 1979); Model of Voluntary Career Change (Rhodes & Doering, 1983); Work-family conflict | Empirical | Individual | Family Interference with Work was positively related to occupational turnover intentions; occupational commitments is positively related to Perceptions of Organizational Support/ negatively related to occupational turnover intentions  |
| 112 | Slevin | 1973 |  | US | Discrimination | Equal Pay Act (1963); Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act; Executive Order 11246; Equal Rights Amendment (not full states ratified at publication) | Conceptual | Organization | Authors offer an Action Checklist to avoid discrimination. Action plan to recruit, place, appraise, train, and promote women to management.  |
| 113 | Strauss & Connerley | 2003 | 252 | US | Diversity Cues | Universal Diverse Orientation (UDO) (Miville et al., 1999); Contact theory; Identity orientation | Empirical | Individual | Non-whites and women have higher UDO. Agreeableness, openness, realistic appreciation, comfort with difference, diversity contact, all positively related to UDO |
| 114 | Stavrou & Ierodiakonou | 2018 |  |  | Sexual Orientation, gender identity | Institutional Theory (Oliver, 1991); Resource-Based View (Barney, 1991); Stakeholder Orientation (Jones, 1999);  | Conceptual | Individual | Authors propose LGBT treated as stakeholders within context of WLB (work-life balance). Put forth typology of organizational responses and outcomes given their reaction to institutional pressure and attitude toward LGBT employees |
| 115 | Stroh & Brett | 1996 | 348 | US | Gender/Marital Status | Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1964), Theory of Conformance to Social Norms (Kanter, 1977); Need Based Theory; Distributive Justice | Empirical | Individual | Salaries of the dual-earner male managers increased an average of 59% over five years, while the salaries of traditional managers increased by 70%. |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 116 | Tatli, Ozturk & Woo | 2017 | 30 | China | Gender | Women in Management (Kanter, 1977); Inequality Regimes (Acker, 2006) | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Culture and tradition provide the context in which gender inequalities for Chinese women managers become invisible, are legitimized, and internalized. |
| 117 | Taylor & Napier | 2001 | 25 | Turkey | Gender | Model to predict success of women global assignees (Caligiuri et al., 1999) | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | The attitudes of host country nationals affect women expatriates' adjustment process. Host country level of economic development may affect host nationals' attitudes towards women expatriates. Being single is more difficult; safe environments for family were important in unstable governments; cross-cultural training is important, but overall successful global appointments.  |
| 118 | Thomas | 1969 |  | US | Race |  | Conceptual | Organization | Human relations training programs designed to help supervisors understand minority feelings and attitudes must have Black speakers who can relate first-hand how it feels to be Black and can present a positive image of Black people. |
| 119 | Thomas | 1989 |  |  | Race |  | Empirical-Qualitative |  | Cross-sex and cross-race mentoring relationships between individuals in organizations and the taboos they evoke |
| 120 | Trau | 2015 | 706 | 35 countries | Sexual Orientation | Psychological Climate Perspective (McKay et al., 2007); Social Stigma (Crocker et al. 1998); developmental networks  | Empirical | Individual | Gay/Lesbian employee perception of nondiscriminatory climates is positively related to similar developmental networks (psychological safe/similarity to others); more likely to disclose their identity and received more support from those who are dissimilar than them and experience higher job /career satisfaction |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 121 | Triana, Trzebiatowski & Byun | 2017 | 235 pairs | US | Age | Discrimination (Allport, 1954); Age Discrimination (Duncan & Loretto, 2004); Perceived Overqualification (Khan & Morrow, 1991); Relative Deprivation Theory (Crosby, 1976, 1984) | Empirical | Individual | Perceived overqualification moderates the relationship between perceived age discrimination and withdrawal behaviors and somatic symptoms  |
| 122 | Tung | 1993 |  |  | Diversity Cues | Acculturation Process (Berry, 1980, Rieger & Wong-Rieger, 1991); Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act | Conceptual | Organization | Author points out similarities/dissimilarities in dynamics/process of cross-national/intranational diversity management; offers a model for developing competency |
| 123 | Tung | 2008 | 457 | China/South Korea | Gender/Race | Sex Stereotyping-"Ghettoization of female labor" (Lopez-Claros & Zahidi, 2005); Middleman minority (Lie, 2004) | Empirical | Individual | In the Chinese sample, the most qualified candidate (African American woman) was selected. In the Korean sample, a Korean male with only a fair command of English, was chosen over the more qualified Caucasian woman. Race appeared more salient than gender in the Korean sample. Despite being more qualified, the African-American woman was considered the least suitable candidate.  |
| 124 | Van Esch et al. | 2018 | 253 | US | Gender and qualifications | Goldberg Experimental Paradigm (Goldberg, 1968); Perceived Riskiness; Theory of selection risk in employment decisions, Lack of fit model, Role congruity theory, Shifting standards model | Empirical | Individual | Candidates for senior level positions who are perceived as risky will be less often selected and receive less salary than candidates seen as less risky. Moderately qualified women perceived as riskier than moderately qualified men for senior leadership. Highly qualified women perceived as less risky than highly qualified men. |
| 125 | Veiga | 1976 |  |  |  |  | Conceptual | Individual | Author offers career advice to females |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 126 | Virick & Greer | 2012 | 228 | US | Gender | Diversity Climate (Kossek & Zonia, 1993); Similarity Attraction Theory (Byrne, 1971); Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1982); Queen Bee Syndrome (Staines et al., 1973); Social categorization (Tajfel, 1982) | Empirical | Individual | Females more likely to be successors if incumbent managers perceive a positive diversity climate; support for the Queen Bee syndrome; likelihood of female successor is higher if a high performing manager nominates them for succession |
| 127 | Wagstaff et al. | 2015 | 231 | US | Discrimination | Conservation of Resources (Hobfoll, 1989) | Empirical | Individual | In response to perceived discrimination from supervisors, social support seeking is positively related to employee withdrawal behaviors; core self-evaluations is negatively related to withdrawal behaviors; core self-evaluations moderate social support seeking and withdrawal behavior such that people with high core self-evaluations seek less social support  |
| 128 | Wang & Schwarz | 2013 | 258 | US | Sexual Orientation, gender identity | Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964); Attraction-Selection-Attrition Theory (Schneider, 1987); Tokenism | Empirical | Organization | Changes in firms’ standardized Corporate Equality Index scores are positively associated with changes in firms’ standardized stock price trend during the following year. |
| 129 | Webster et al. | 2018 | 27 | US | Sexual Orientation, gender identity | Stigma Theory (Goffman, 1963) | Empirical | studies | Supportive workplace relationships were more strongly related to work attitudes and strain, whereas LGBT supportive climate was more strongly related to disclosure and perceived discrimination. |
| 130 | Williamson et al | 2008 | 463 | US | Diversity Cues | Business case for diversity (Cox & Blake, 1991); Identity-conscious diversity practices (Falbe &Yukl, 1992); Meaning-based Model of Advertisement (Mick & Buhl, 1992) | Empirical & Qualitative | Individual | Diversity related recruitment materials influence attractiveness of the firm |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 131 | Wong | 2008 |  | US | Diversity Cues |  | Case Study: Diversity Dialogue Project |  | NASA/Goddard's progress in becoming an attractive workplace regardless of race, culture, gender, disabilities, age, sexual orientation, experiences, backgrounds, or talents. |
| 132 | Woodhams et al | 2015 | 393,710 obs. (one company, longitudinal study) | UK | Gender, ethnicity, disabilities | contemporary reward managementtheory and practice |  | Individual | Male, white and nondisabled paid best; pay progression among disadvantaged identity groups, slow paced; largest gaps among disabled |
| 133 | Woodhams et al. | 2015 | 20 | China | Gender | Kaleidoscope career model (KCM) Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005) | Empirical-Qualitative | Individual | Traditional gendered and collectivist values still hold a strong grip on attitudes to women’s careers, not least among women themselves. Western career theories are not up to par with the collectivist Chinese females' experiences; a fourfold taxonomy was developed: conformist, revolutionary, soloist, and dissident orientations. |
| 134 | Work | 1980 | 464 | US | Race |  | Empirical | Individual | Findings show that Blacks were limited in opportunities; mostly staff-type positions; limited or non- existent financial affairs roles, and all perceived discriminatory behavior. Black employees excluded from activities central to control, influence, and change-agentry. |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **N** | **Country** | **Dimensions** | **Theoretical Framework/Perspective** | **Type of Study** | **Unit of Analysis** | **Findings** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 135 | Yamazaki & Yoon | 2016 | 903 | Japan, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Thailand, and China | Evaluation perceptions | Group Value Model, Self-Interest Model (Lind & Tyler, 1988); Distributive justice (Jawahar, 2007); Procedural justice (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Greenberg, 1986; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975); Interactional justice (Bies et al 1986); Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978, 1981) | Empirical | Individual | Fairness perceptions were significantly related to job satisfaction among Asian managers overall, as well as in each of the five geographical subgroups with the exception of Hong Kong, where the perception of a lack-of-group bias was only marginally related to job satisfaction. |
| 136 | Zhu et al. | 2019 | 485 employees in 114 teams | China | Disabilities | Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977); social deviance and social oppression (Thomas, 2007) | Empirical | Individual/team | Job self-efficacy is a key mechanism lining disability to thriving at work; inclusion can buffer negative disability effects at the individual level |

Table 2

*Future Research Directions from Human Resource Management Articles Included in the Review of Discrimination and Diversity*

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **Future Research Directions Suggested by the Authors of the Article**  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Lee | 2001 | Increase in field studies/cases; more judicial interpretation of Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) laws; litigation recommendations: does the law influence behavior, how can parties increase their success rates, are there some categories of physical/psychiatric limitations intractable to the point where litigation may be futile and are judges more sympathetic under certain circumstances? |
| 2 | Strauss & Connerley | 2003 | Larger and more diverse sampling (age, work experience, education); comparison of universal-diverse orientation (UDO) attitudes between races; longitudinal studies supporting present findings including personality and attitudes; examine if the interaction between different ethnic groups is minimal earlier in life and attitude is not affected |
| 3 | Adya | 2008 | Research on explicit cross-culture comparisons in information technology (IT) beyond gender studies |
| 4 | Altman & Shortland | 2008 | Investigate individual gender differences; generational differences; organizational staffing; dual careers; environmental geographies, and experiences of non-Western females in international assignments |
| 5 | Bilimoria, Joy & Liang | 2008 | Examine specific contingencies for transformational initiatives to be successful; identify circumstances/structures needed for gender equality solutions to be effective; address the role of external facilitating factors in nonacademic organizations; study the implications of sustainable transformation within context of gender representation/inclusion; examine non-science and engineering contexts; does acquiring equity gender representation energize the organization at all? |
| 6 | Day & Greene | 2008 | A broader approach (beyond the study of gays/lesbians) in sexual identity and diversity management studies |
| 7 | Goldberg & Allen | 2008 | Investigate the role of ease of media use, media usefulness, and parasocial interaction on recruitment media effectiveness; examine web-based attraction and race |
| 8 | Huffman et al. | 2008 | Empirically test the framework of different types of support; investigate other minority groups (gender, race) for the impact of support type on experience/personal outcome; empirically test efficacy of suggested strategies for LGB organizational support |
| 9 | Murrell et al. | 2008 | What types of social networks are most productive for people of color as a function of diversity dynamics within the context of relying on social capital benefits? |
| 10 | Pichler, Simpson & Stroh | 2008 | Investigate why females in management are preferred among lower-level management in HR; why females would not be able to shatter the glass ceiling in spite of employee involvement; why females are proportionately in technical HR positions; how regulation is related to females' ability to be in senior-level HR management positions |
| 11 | Williamson et al | 2008 | Consider how racial identity or other group orientation may influence prospective job applicants' reactions to recruitment ads; examine the use of explanations for diversity practices on current employees' retention; examine whether organizations' recruitment brochures are influences by broader issues such as diversity reputations or diversity-based lawsuits |
| 12 | Armstrong et al. | 2010 | Investigate how high performance work systems (HPWS) could include measures of the extent to which organizations practice diversity management such as legal compliance, monitoring recruitment and promotion fairness; trace the effect of diversity management on employee level outcomes; include cultural aspects measuring the organizations' diversity culture; longitudinal research design on diversity management impact; investigate individual outcomes such as stress, wellbeing, and satisfaction; explore corporate social responsibility and firm performance while considering social/ethical effects on staff and the community |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **Future Research Directions Suggested by the Authors of the Article**  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 13 | Cooke & Saini | 2010 | Investigate the effects of multinational companies' (MNC) country-of-origin on efforts to adopt strategic Human Resource Management (HRM)/Diversity Management (DM) initiatives and the extent to which it is recognized as an important aspect of people management in less developed countries; consider the key factors influencing MNCs adoption of DM programs; examine benefits of investing in DM initiates; investigate DM and employee groups' interests; investigate DM and its association with leadership development programs; compare/contrast the societal context to DM in cross-country studies |
| 14 | Wang & Schwarz | 2010 | Investigate relationships between corporate equality index scores, individual outcomes and firm performance; investigate moderators such as economic factors and organizational context; investigate how boundary conditions influence gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender (GLBT) policies and individual/organizational level outcomes |
| 15 | Kaplan, Wiley & Maertz | 2011 | Focus on calculated tangible benefits for developing a positive diversity climate; relationship between career development interventions (mentor/diversity climate) and calculative attachment; do assessments of diversity climate have a stronger impact when people are rewarded through merit raises based on achieving diversity related goals or skill based approach? What is the relationship between benefits and perceptions of diversity climate when the benefits offered are not valued? |
| 16 | Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall | 2011 | Are findings generalizable to higher-end jobs and to what extent are findings of experiences attributable to all people with disabilities (PWD) and to those with similar demographics? Compare people with/without disabilities to focus on similarities and differences in socialization; examine workplace practices for PWD across cultures; explore macro-contextual factors, such as national culture, and their effects on organizational socialization; identify policies and practices that may facilitate organizational socialization of PWD; combine employee perceptions with that of supervisors/coworkers; conduct a longitudinal study is recommended with a progress over time of respondents influenced by socialization processes |
| 17 | Li et al. | 2011 | Same study using cross-national empirical data as this study was limited to China; investigate demographic diversity and effects on performance, specifically, the commitment to manage demographic diversity/awareness; examine factors outside of demographic diversity and avoid attributing firm performance only to demographic dimensions |
| 18 | Scott, Heathcote & Gruman | 2011 | Focus on various inclusion communication modalities and a better understanding of organizational recruitment efforts for diverse employees; examine specific components of new employee socialization; consider training and development program content; add fit/flexibility factors, such as the interplay between intrapersonal diversity top management teams, as additional factors; examine international populations |
| 19 | Bernardin et al. | 2012 | Investigate the relative validities of three assessment methods at some level of adverse impact and the costs of using each method; compare methods of data collection for actual decision making instead of the non-administrative nature of data collection used in the published study |
| 20 | Muethel, Gehrlein & Hoegl | 2012 | How do dispersed collaboration characteristics (i.e., tech use) affect the relationship between team composition and shared leadership? Examine transferability of findings in industries other than software development; conduct a longitudinal study on how the variables/relationships in this study develop over time; include cultural diversity measures which also capture other effects (i.e., individualism/power distance); include factors other than social demographic issues (i.e., trust) |
| 21 | Virick & Greer | 2012 | Study high-performance incumbents that recognize and develop superior/diverse talent regardless of organizational support; delve deeper in differences of higher/lower performing managers within contexts of females and succession as well as differing diversity climate perceptions; examine dimensions of incumbent performances (i.e. role) and performance ratings; conduct a more intense study of possible differences in objectivity when describing successor strengths/developmental needs |
| 22 | Avery et al. | 2013 | Examine actual job acceptance behaviors within/between the applicants applying; conduct a longitudinal between-subject research study on the impact diversity expectations have on those entering the job market; investigate attitudes/behaviors associated with diversity recruitment efforts |
| 23 | Casper et al. | 2013 | Measure self-interest inferred mechanisms and value congruence in examining why surface/deep level differences matter in job pursuit intentions; further examine individual difference factors (i.e., learning goal orientation) and their importance in HR policies; how do HR polices influence attraction to other factors such as pay level |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **Future Research Directions Suggested by the Authors of the Article**  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 24 | Olson et al. | 2013 | Conduct longitudinal studies focused on the fluid processes of acculturation/adaptation of cultural values over time; include income as a key variable of study; model behavior-based conflict effects by developing/testing nested models and including more variables at individual/occupational levels; test models with ethnically diverse groups from collective /masculinity focuses; examine varying aspects of acculturation and attainment of cultural values' effect on work-family conflict; study different facets of individualism and its relation to strain based work and family conflict, add social identity factors to the study in a longitudinal research design; study how the minority employee values affect work-family facilitation via social support |
| 25 | Richard, Roh & Pieper | 2013 | Examine other diversity practices beyond diversity and equality management (DEM)/accountability practices; create more advanced measures for DEM such as including intensity, frequency and formulation, whether they target Native American populations; use a qualitative research design to investigate how DEM practices will influence diversity factors such as religion, gender, age and national culture; examine managerial ranks and their racial diversity; investigate causality between diversity practices and outcomes, investigate adoption/effectiveness of various diversity practices and the intervening role of top management team members |
| 26 | Boehm et al. | 2014 | Recommend longitudinal methods and quasi-experimental research; replicate findings using different cultural groups, preferably Europe and Asia; replicate findings using civilian samples; use civilian versus military participants; use other performance ratings sources; use multilevel models; include group diversity climate as a moderator and integrate individual outcomes in examining how group diversity climate and discrimination influences factors such as turnover intentions; examine other boundary conditions which may prevent discrimination such as transformational leadership climate, leader-member-exchange relationships and group identification |
| 27 | Cooke & Xiao | 2014 | In depth action research/observation is required on female auditors to make sense of their occupational identity; investigate male and female career aspirations in different stages of working life and firms of various ownership forms in female-dominated professions; what is the extent to which aspirations are facilitated by institutional, organizational and individual factors? Map patters of inequality/segregation in accounting organizations in China |
| 28 | Ali, Metz, & Kulik | 2015 | Continue studies of the interactive effects of gender diversity and work-family (WF) programs within the context of performance levels such as top-management teams; examine a more comprehensive set of factors in WF programs, such as adoption time; examine WF conflict and facilitation as mediating factors in individual and organization-level outcomes; attempt to generalize to other national contexts |
| 29 | Boekhorst | 2015 | Focus on what makes some unit leaders create an inclusive climate; examine key determinants/outcomes for an inclusive climate, such as antecedent-based questions; develop an instrument to measure inclusive behavior better; further explore star employees’ roles in the creation of inclusive climates |
| 30 | Donnelly | 2015 | Conduct further research on female views of diversity and inclusion (D&I) to examine the degree of discrimination/segmentation in India more thoroughly |
| 31 | Everly & Schwarz | 2015 | Collect data on HR executives and analyze where they exert influence on the adoption of LGBT HR policies; examine the role of consumers in firms' adoption of HR policies; would coercive pressures (i.e. from state) be related to a firm's decision of adopting LGBT friendly HR polices? |
| 32 | Festing, Knappert & Kornau | 2015 | Examine the extent to which HRM practices tend to reflect male preferences; collect data that may support gender-related preferences of HRM practices which hinder females’ advancement to top management positions; investigate HRM practices with a broader approach beyond individual HR practices such as promotion decisions and compensation or career paths; examine practices in other firms and national contexts |
| 33 | Kakabadse et al | 2015 | There is a need for qualitative and quantitative research on board diversity; examine real benefits of firm diversity (beyond financial); include investors and other stakeholders |
| 34 | Kulkarni & Sommer | 2015 | What conditions could alter relations between language-based exclusions/prosocial responding? Examine non-specified targets and the extent/duration of the exclusion; examine stereotype threats, social self-efficacy, trait self-esteem, trait affect, and equity sensitivity |
| 35 | Mitchell et al. | 2015 | Use independent team assessments in the future to avoid social desirability issues; Examine to what extent the findings are generalizable to non-healthcare participants and biodemographic/job related diversity; examine what contextual variables influence the effectiveness of inclusive leaders; examine the moderating effects of task type on leader impact and other contextual issues such as team climate |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **Future Research Directions Suggested by the Authors of the Article**  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 36 | Trau | 2015 | Develop a multisource approach and collect more data from network members; compare developmental networks among groups that are stigmatized; include a large sample of stigmatized groups and explore the direct influence of macro factors, such as organizational diversity climate, on social and work-related outcomes for people with invisible stigma |
| 37 | Wagstaff et al. | 2015 | Sample employees who have experienced discrimination; examine withdrawal behavior differences within the context of various social support sources; examine withdrawal behaviors at two points in time within the context of social support and withdrawal behaviors; validate study’s results with unmeasured variables that may influence behavior withdrawals |
| 38 | Woodhams et al. | 2015 | Revisit impact of merit-based pay in other organizations/contexts; investigate narrowing of pay gaps through empirical investigations of relations between pay and multiple disadvantaged identities with the capacity to disaggregate factors including the salaries/promotions of new appointees |
| 39 | Woodhams et al. | 2015 | More China-specific studies of Chinese females' careers and inclusion |
| 40 | Baldridge & Swift | 2016 | Investigate the impact of age on normative expectations and/or other differences influencing social identity/categorization (i.e., race, gender, education) and parse out those effects; examine any identities triggered by others in individuals with disabilities under different contexts |
| 41 | Kaplan, Berkley & Fisher | 2016 | Investigate the ethical/efficacy of tactics (to overcome biases); investigate applicant incentives to project a particular identity in order to be selected |
| 42 | King et al. | 2016 | Collect larger samples of ethnic groups; examine rater characteristics within the context of minority/non-minority groups |
| 43 | Konrad, Yang, & Maurer | 2016 | Examine the links between diversity and equality management (DEMS) and high performance work systems (HPWS); examine the extent to which HPWS and DEMS coexist and their relation to performance; examine additional performance measures; examine how DEMS develop/change over time; examine the process by which managers tailor DEMS to their specific situations |
| 44 | Roh & Kim | 2016 | Measure intervening processes (i.e., information/conflict) among diverse employees; examine work climates specifically created through HRM investments and psychological factors (i.e., fairness perception); collect data about climates through HRM investments (benefits, training, pay, employee communication) but consider workforce characteristics such as age and education; focus on settings outside of male-dominated workplaces in Korea |
| 45 | Shortland | 2016 | Investigate larger oil and gas organizations and other industries; collect a larger female sample; conduct longitudinal studies on the changing nature of assignments; investigate females’ perspectives on work assignments and outcomes within the context of employee performance; study assignment type within the context of females willingness to become expats |
| 46 | Yamazaki & Yoon | 2016 | Use more rigorous items to capture transparency; apply cultural dimensions in relation to fairness perceptions; explore justice perceptions of managers when they are raters (similarities/differences) |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **Future Research Directions Suggested by the Authors of the Article** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 47 | Kim, Longacre & Werner | 2017 | Examine the importance of family-friendly policies and gender composition in relation to sex discrimination and organizational climate; examine different industries to ascertain whether they play a role (industry effects) in signaling effectiveness regarding sex discrimination |
| 48 | Mullins & Holmes | 2017 | Consider other more refined measures of work-family benefits (WFB); study organizations outside of the S&P 500; consider implications due to having different types of financial experts (not only CFOs) on the board within the context of WFBs; do corporate boards struggle with WFBs affordability and what effects does this have on WFBs (i.e., child care)? |
| 49 | Russo, Miraglia & Borgogni | 2017 | Collect additional information from supervisors and aggregate data of their behaviors; extend to employee performance evaluations and the leader-member exchange differentiation; investigate the mechanisms that affect whether leaders have lower perceptions of organizational politics in performance appraisal (OPPA); examine predictors (i.e. ethical culture) of OPPA |
| 50 | Triana, Trzebiatowski & Byun | 2017 | Examine blue collar and less educated samples; separate overqualification and objective overqualification as two constructs; examine perceived overqualification more deeply in relation to person-job misfit; focus on discrimination from other sources not only supervisors; clarify fine grain levels of perceived overqualification - how would they relate to person-job misfit within the context of withdrawal behavior/somatic symptoms and do objective/ subjective over qualification have the same effect on employee outcome? |
| 51 | Athanasopoulou et al. | 2018 | Conduct longitudinal qualitative designs investigating successes/failures for female career trajectories and conduct comparative studies investigating organization/industry/cultural difference; action research in the area of identifying best practices to recruit females in smaller organizations and different types/sizes of organizations is needed; investigate national culture and socioeconomic effects; further develop the three self-themes (self-development/management/acceptance); help others understand how empowerment translates to HRM practices |
| 52 | Bano & Nadeem | 2018 | Focus on larger organizations and industries, additional contexts, and forms of international exposure bias; investigate countries that are non-colonizers; examine line-managers and investigate whether they are prone to a colonial mindset more than HR managers who may fear discrimination issues; analyze the role of international experience and whether it influences how an organization places value on an employee's experience |
| 53 | Chanland & Murphy | 2018 | Conduct longitudinal research to examine diverse leaders' networks as they advance; refine metrics and create measures assessing person-network fit and learning cycles |
| 54 | Glass & Cook | 2018 | Collect quantative and qualitative data (do not use secondary data) of board members and CEOs; replicate study in noncorporate contexts; focus on other variables (i.e., age) |
| 55 | Gould, Kulik & Sardeshmukh | 2018 | Investigate the Australian Security Exchange (ASX) as a decelerator of female board representation; further investigate organization size as a moderator, compare appointees within the context of with/without external interventions and investigate if there are strategies organizations may employ to strengthen a trickle down effect of external interventions; differentiate appointment processes used by board members/senior management |
| 56 | Ladge, Humberd & Eddleston | 2018 | Investigate if maternal confidence will operate similarly/differently for nonprofessional working mother at reentry point; extend the study to more racially and culturally diverse samples and new fathers; study differences among females working a specific number of hours versus full/part time; focus on other countries outside of the U.S. |
| 57 | Lim, Trau & Foo | 2018 | Investigate other minority groups to explore occupational segregation patterns; investigate types of interactions (i.e., social gatherings) with gay/lesbian coworkers during/after work hours; investigate the extent to which gay/lesbian employees may experience exclusion/socialization behaviors |

| **Article** | **Author** | **Year** | **Future Research Directions Suggested by the Authors of the Article** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 58 | Mölders et al. | 2018 | Extend findings to examine perspectives of how males/females self-evaluate agency/community and influence relationships between gender stereotypes and quotas for females in leadership positions; consider using other gender scales (i.e., Bem, 1974) in future studies to measure gender stereotypes; focus on further differentiating dimensions of stereotypes and analyze relations of individual-level characteristics and quota support; include measures of social desirability; investigate experience with quotas and their relation to gender-stereotypic ascriptions |
| 59 | Shi et al. | 2018 | Investigate chief diversity officers' (CDO) adoption consequences; use a matched sampling approach to compare organizations with/without CDOs; investigate how CDOs can balance/leverage their existence with diverse groups |
| 60 | Singh | 2018 | Assess mediators (commitment) before turnover intention in time lapse studies; parse out work-family interface, threat of stereotype and occupational change decisions/different organizational supportive practices/programs; delve into organizational/occupational withdrawals; conduct more refined analysis of nonwork factors’ role in occupational withdrawal decisions; focus on occupational mobility/attrition needs for female engineers and focus on drivers of criterion space decisions including males in the sample |
| 61 | van Esch et al. | 2018 | More focused studies “unpacking” the perceived riskiness construct: specific elements, antecedents, consequences, and outcomes; study antecedents such as experience and gender and what combination of these factors lead to risk perception; investigate perceived riskiness’ role on other selection process stages; extend this study and focus on females seeking senior level positions |
| 62 | Webster et al. | 2018 | Establish the causality of formal policy adoptions for LGBT employees in longitudinal studies; capture a broader range of sampling for the LGBT population in future studies, especially females; investigate types of social support and differences in those networks by expanding to ally literature and how they help the LGBT employees; examine links between micro/macro perspectives, individual/aggregated variables and firm/industry level; investigate mechanisms linking formal polices to firm performance and empirically test findings regarding LGBT supportive polices/practices |
| 63 | Amarnani et al. | 2019 | Replicate study of age biases and supervisors’ rating of innovative behavior in other industries, cultural contexts and equal gender samples; investigate consequences of age at different stages of idea/creation; consider other strategies that may account for age effects on different stages; examine whether other moderators, not interdepartmental collaboration, in more comprehensive models account for age consequences; consider additional diversity-related personal/group characteristics (i.e., personality, goal orientation, teammates’ age) as possible moderators; conduct longitudinal studies testing dynamic relationships among age, interdepartmental collaboration and innovation over time |
| 64 | Guillén & Kunze | 2019 | Conduct future research to generalize findings and replicate findings with other cultural groups and equal gender sampling; examine what the mediating mechanisms are in explaining the effects of age on innovation components; consider personal characteristics such as personality, as moderators |
| 65 | Li et al. | 2019 | Examine all the five levels (principles, policies programs, practices, climate) of the HR system and sample informants at each level; investigate how line managers implement firm diversity programs; collect data from more senior managers in a replication study; compare/contrast between various diversity management programs such as identity-blind/identity-consciousness and examine the underlying mechanisms |
| 66 | Zhu et al. | 2019 | Study disabled employees’ perspectives of people with disabilities (PWD) directly, examine different effects of disability types/attributes |
| 67 | Present Study: Triana et al. | 2021 | **Discrimination:** expand the focus of discrimination research to other target categories (i.e., outside of sex and race) that have received comparably less attention; consider expanding to focus on bias against those who interact with but are outside of the organization such as clients, customers, or vendors; broaden the scope of discrimination research beyond commonly studied contexts (e.g., recruiting, selection, and pay) to examine where, when, and how discrimination occurs in more covert ways;**Diversity:** move beyond conceptualizations of diversity as separation and disparity to pursue research on diversity as variety as designated by Harrison and Klein (2007); examine the roles of diverse leadership and board of directors on firm outcomes; build more comprehensive models of diversity by accounting for boundary conditions such as diversity climate and HRM systems; expand beyond the business case for diversity to focus on evaluation metrics such as social justice and corporate responsibility; examine bundles of diversity and inclusion initiatives and how they relate to outcomes such as retention and diversity climate perceptions; investigate backlash among dominant groups against inclusion programs in workplaces settings |

1. search terms: divers\* div\* discrim\* gend\* sex\* fem\* bias\* women stereo\* rac\* minor\* inclus\* equal\* demog\* ethnic\* age\* disabilit\* lgbt glbt queer\* [↑](#footnote-ref-1)