Introduction: equality and diversity in 14 countries – analysis and summary

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The first edition of the *International Handbook on Diversity Management at Work* (Klarsfeld, 2010a) considered the practice of diversity management within the national contexts of 16 countries – Austria, Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, India, Italy, the Netherlands, Pakistan, Singapore, South Africa, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the UK and the USA. This second edition provides updates on some of the original country selections and supplements these with a further series of country-specific overviews. New to this edition are Australia, Finland, Japan, New Zealand, Nigeria and Russia. Countries that have been updated and expanded are Austria, Canada, France, India, Italy, the Netherlands, South Africa and the UK.

Historically, human resource management, when dealing with issues of equality and diversity, was concerned with the disparate activities of dealing with equity issues in pay systems, statutory employment regulation in relation to discrimination and of managing cross-cultural diversity when expatriate managers were sent to work overseas. One of the most significant effects of globalization has been a shift in the scope of diversity management into a much more interdependent and wide-ranging concept. The dynamics of labour markets around the world have led to far greater diversity of workforces and have therefore expanded the challenges to human resource managers in dealing with the consequences of these changes (Verma and He, 2010). As the demographic profile of workers becomes more diverse in terms of age, gender, race and ethnicity, nationality, disability and other dimensions of diversity, human resource scholars and practitioners must now contend with managing intra-national diversity within the workforce. Owing to these conditions of super-diversity (Vertovec, 2007) long-standing modes of national diversity are subjected to new and varied migration flows and increasing complex social formations marked by the dynamic interplay of different variables. The above shifts have also elevated the significance of diversity management in some countries discussed in this edition, such as Canada, South Africa and the UK, from a functional to a strategic level on corporate and government agendas.

It is important to study issues of diversity from a national perspective for several reasons. Anti-discrimination legislation which regulates the treatment of disadvantaged groups differs from country to country and the dynamics of equality and diversity vary according to national historical circumstances (for instance, the nature and extent of post-colonial legacy). For example, employers in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa and the UK are required to collect data and monitor the progress of racial minority employees in the workforce in order to enhance equality, but the practice of collecting ‘ethnic’ data by employers is explicitly forbidden in France and many European Union (EU) countries – also in the name of equality – making it difficult to track the progress

of ethnic minorities. The degree and types of legislation that are put in place also differ depending on the country and the influence of societal fault-lines. Some countries are focused on anti-discrimination, that is, making sure everyone is treated equally, while others are focused on positive action, that is, affirmative action for designated groups such as ethnic minorities. In general, with the exception of Australia, countries that have mandatory reporting are more likely to focus on positive or affirmative action than on anti-discrimination.

Klarsfeld (2010b), drawing on a comparison of 16 countries, posits that rather than a binary opposition, there is a continuum of legislations (see Table I.1) between strict equality of treatment (an 'equality of rights' approach) and policies granting systematic preferential treatment to designated groups under the form of set quotas (a 'constrained outcome' approach).

Table I.1 A typology of positive action legislations

Degree of constraint of positive action legislation	Definition	Examples of criteria/country
Equality of rights. No reporting allowed	It is forbidden for employers to directly collect data and report figures on the criterion; action plans cannot target these criteria directly. Employers cannot discriminate on this criterion, but cannot not monitor where they stand unless a court investigates a discrimination claim	Race and ethnic origin/France
Equality of rights. Allowed reporting	Collecting data and reporting on the criterion is possible. This remains at the discretion of employers, and possibly highly controversial	National origin and place of residence/France
Positive action encouraged	Collecting data and reporting on the criterion is compulsory, but not the setting of outcome targets, which remain at the discretion of employers. Employers have a broad duty to act and monitor, such as to engage in collective bargaining	Race and origin/UK (public authorities); gender/France (until 2006)
Positive action compulsory – constrained process	Collecting data, setting targets, acting and reporting progress on the criterion is compulsory. Covered employers must demonstrate good faith action and progress systematically. The target is remote and not binding on the short term. Sanction may apply if there is a lack of 'good faith' and progress	Race and origin/Canada, South Africa, Australia; young and ageing workers/France; gender/France (since 2006)
Positive action compulsory – constrained outcome	Strict targets (quotas) have to be met for the criterion. Sanction is imposed systematically when targets are not met	Caste and tribe/India

Source: Based on Klarsfeld (2010b).

Every country in this volume has some form of legislation on gender discrimination, but anti-discrimination protection for other minority groups varies. Therefore, it should not come as a surprise that women made the most gains in terms of statutory protection against direct discrimination in employment practices (for example, pay equity) even if there remain large differences in more indirect forms of discrimination and, therefore, in outcomes (for example, maternity and parental rights). Indeed, in all countries in this book, gender is explicitly mentioned in at least 'equality of rights' legislation and in most countries there is generally some positive action regulation, more so than four years ago, with the gradual diffusion of set quotas for women on boards, executive committees or in government, either on a constrained or an encouraged format. Not only are gender provisions reinforced where they already existed, but they tend to receive some attention in countries where previously they had received little attention, as illustrated by India. This should not overshadow the case of Russia where the rights of women have been challenged during the transition period occurring since 1989. However, formally at least, these rights, which include a generous maternity and parental leave entitlement, are still in place.

Australia, Canada and New Zealand, which have a small population and a history of mass immigration, have measures in place for the protection of their Aboriginal or indigenous population, a concept which owes its meaning to the fact that the vast majority of the population of these countries stems from the mass migration of European and, more recently, Asian workers. 'Indigenous' in this context, refers to the ethnic groups present prior to the arrival of these migrants. Indigenous populations have suffered from strong negative discrimination in these countries throughout the nineteenth century and first half of the twentieth century. A body of constrained process and/or constrained outcome legislation has been put in place in the second half of the twentieth century in order to protect the rights of the indigenous populations.

In the European countries dealt with in this book (which happen to be EU countries apart from Russia), the groups in a minority and who endured discrimination were not the 'indigenous' population (a term actually not used to refer to the 'early' inhabitants of European countries) but the migrants who have, in more or less recent waves, arrived in these countries and form a collection of minorities. Disadvantaged groups in Austria, Finland, France, Italy and the Netherlands have been covered by positive action laws which have given priority to women, the disabled and, more recently, the young and the ageing, over ethnic minorities stemming from migration. In all these countries, the idea that ethnic discrimination against migrants exists and should be remedied by positive action is in its infancy, and so is the notion of diversity that came with it. 'Diversity' in these EU countries, beyond being a managerial import from the USA, somehow signals the emergence of a debate over the extension of positive action rights to migrants, beyond women and the disabled and other already covered categories. As far as migrants are concerned, the preferred approach in the EU countries (with the exception of the UK) is that of a strict equality of rights, which is sometimes criticized for silencing, and even legitimizing, exclusion and systemic discrimination of major (mainly non-European) migrant ethnic groups.

However, not all 'ethnic minorities' stem from recent migration in Europe: in Austria, Finland and Russia, the concept of 'protected' or 'recognized' minority encompasses 'internal' ethnic minorities (that is, ethnic groups whose presence is often as ancient in the country as that of the majority group) who benefit from a special protection under the

laws of these countries: Finns, Sami, Roma, Jews and Tatars in Finland; and Slovenes, Croats, Hungarians, Czechs, Slovaks and Roma in Austria. In these countries, there is therefore a body of positive action laws, but not in private sector employment. It is mainly education, linguistic rights and local government that come under the umbrella of such legislation. To some extent, a similar form of recognition exists in various formats in the UK with regard to Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. By contrast, the other European countries represented in this book (France, Germany, Italy and the Netherlands) have not developed a similar body of legislation for their own 'internal minorities'. France is emblematic of such a difficulty to acknowledge its internal ethnic diversity.

Finally, one country challenges the distinction between 'internal' minorities and 'migrant' minorities: that of Russia, after transitioning from USSR. Before the dissolution of USSR in 1991, the concept of 'minority' essentially operated within the borders of this country which stood in economic, physical and ideological separation from much of the rest of the world. Ethnic minorities were recognized and their rights were protected. After 1991 and the creation of Russia and the Community of Independent States (CIS), many 'minority' USSR citizens became 'migrants' citizens of a CIS state, hence foreign to Russia. Nowadays, Russia finds itself with its own 'internal' 160 minorities (such as Ukrainians, Armenians, Tatars, Bashkirs, Chuvashs and Chechens) still citizens of the Russian Federation, and whose rights continue to be protected by law, mainly in terms of the preservation of their language and culture, and migrant workers from the CIS seeking better employment conditions than in their country of origin. Among them, ethnic Russians are given preference over non-Russians for jobs as well as citizenship.

Further still, the unique historical and cultural context necessitates that each country develop and enact legislation to protect their most vulnerable groups. India has its own form of constrained outcome legislation: 'reservations' consisting in quotas for scheduled castes and tribes for government jobs and education that are such a strong component of its legislative framework that they are written into its Constitution. South Africa, which enacted its constitution in 1996, has put in place a constrained process and outcome-based legislation, not for a minority, but for a majority of its population: that of the Black and Coloured populations. Beyond race, South Africa has a broad coverage including protection on the basis of sexual orientation, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion and culture. South Africa stands out as a country where the rights of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer (LGBTQ) people have received the highest legal attention right from the birth of its modern institutions: sexual orientation is one of the criteria listed in its Constitution alongside race, gender, ethnic origin and colour.

Much as Russia challenges the borderline between 'internal' and 'external' ethnicities, Nigeria challenges that of the traditional binary opposition between 'majority' and 'minority'. Nigeria is a conglomeration of three ethnic groups living in different states that form the Nigerian Federation: the Hausa-Fulani ethnic group in the northern regions (29 per cent of the country's population), the Igbo in the south-east (18 per cent), the Yoruba in the south-west (21 per cent), and hundreds of smaller 'ethnic minorities' making up the remaining one-third of the country, such that there is no 'majority'. In Nigeria, constrained outcome laws provide ethnic quotas for the distribution of jobs in the federal public service and security agencies. The aim is to ensure that the indigenes of

each of the 36 states constitute a minimum of 2.5 per cent and a maximum of 3 per cent of the total positions available.

Additionally, various institutional pressures also shape employer practices leading to some convergence in diversity management practices such as pulls toward standardizing human resource management (HRM) in large multinational companies (MNCs). For example, Japan and Italy which are relatively homogenous in terms of race and ethnicity, have inclusive practices gaining attention as a result of multinational activities and the influx of foreign workers. This is also evident in emerging economies such as Nigeria and Russia. Trade and labour unions in Australia, New Zealand and the EU nations also played an influential role in the promotion of minority worker rights. Political forces may also reverse the momentum in anti-discrimination efforts in the case of the Netherlands and the UK. Suffice to say, the social regulation of diversity management also leads employers to manage diversity. However, actual practices vary because they exercise discretion on whether and how to manage diversity.

In the chapters that follow, contributors draw from past research, national statistics, and other secondary sources of empirical evidence to present a picture of the current state of diversity policies and practices in 14 countries. Specifically, contributors were asked to address:

1. The aim, scope and coverage of anti-discrimination legislation, including reporting requirements, positive or affirmative action objectives, quotas, and any other legislative requirements;
2. The social actors in anti-discrimination efforts, including political establishments, trade and labour unions, multinationals and their influence on diversity policies and practices;
3. The current state of discourse on diversity management, when anti-discrimination and diversity management first diffuse in management literature; and
4. The role of professional associations, including academics, in promulgating anti-discrimination and diversity management efforts.

The country cases included here demonstrate the three key characteristics of diversity management at work: contextuality, relationality and dynamism. First, diversity management is always firmly embedded in a specific organizational, sectoral, national, regional and international context. The chapters in this book particularly highlight the role of national, regional and international context in shaping diversity policies, practices and discourses. The meaning of diversity and the categories of difference that are included in managing diversity frameworks are informed by country-specific historical legacies, labour market conditions and regulatory environments (Klarsfeld et al., 2012). Furthermore, regional supranational bodies, such as the EU, as well as standards, regulations and guidelines introduced by international agencies, such as the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the United Nations (UN), exert influence on the national context of diversity management at work. Second, diversity management as a discourse and practice is generated and enacted in a relational context. In each country, there are competing views on the most effective ways of managing diversity, tackling discrimination and promoting inclusion and fairness at work. Traditional industrial relations actors, that is, state, employers and trade unions, as well as the new actors

including non-governmental organizations (NGO)s, professional bodies and learned organizations, community groups and diversity consultancies, present varied and often competing approaches on the management of diversity at work (Özbilgin and Tatli, 2011). Thus, diversity management is a relational and negotiated process that involves multiple actors, interests and viewpoints. Finally, diversity management is not static but dynamic, changing in line with the political and economic pressures nationally and internationally. The change in the diversity field can be small and evolutionary or large and transformational. The change in diversity management is often positive, indicating a progress towards greater equality, but it can also be negative by stalling the progress or leading to deterioration of rights. The chapters in this book highlight the dynamism of diversity management in different country contexts, offering examples of both negative and positive change.

In the next section a brief summary is given of the most salient aspects in each country chapter. Chapters are discussed in alphabetical order.

AUSTRALIA

Like many other countries, Australia has a legacy of discrimination and inequality in employment. Propelled by racist ideologies and the male breadwinner ideology, indigenous Australians, and non-European immigrants, and women were barred from certain jobs and paid less for their work than any white male counterpart until the 1960s. These conditions were legally sanctioned through the industrial relations system and other laws in the nineteenth and first half of the twentieth centuries. Since then a dramatic change has occurred in social policy and national legislation and Australia today has an extensive array of laws which forbid employment discrimination on race, ethnicity, gender and many other characteristics. Australia also uses other approaches which promote proactive organizational plans and actions with goals and timetables to achieve equity in employment, mainly concerning women (in all sectors) and aboriginal people (in the public sector). Australia's multicultural society can, to some extent, be likened to that of Canada, which also combines an array of non-discrimination laws and positive action provisions for similarly defined targeted groups.

AUSTRIA

In Austria, practices and laws concerning equal treatment have made remarkable progress over the past four decades. However, there are still considerable shortcomings when compared with other European countries (for example, Sweden, Finland and Denmark). For example, in 2011, women working full-time earned 19 per cent less than men. The hourly gender wage gap was 24 per cent, such that Austria has the highest gender pay gap in the EU. Women hold only about 20 per cent of the top management positions and only 10 per cent of university professorships. Austria also recognizes historic minorities such as the Magyars, the Czechs and the Slovaks. The objective of this chapter is to provide a picture of equal treatment in contemporary Austria. The authors begin with a brief outline of historical developments that have shaped the political debates and laws on

equal treatment during recent decades. Next, they present an overview of current issues and developments of equal treatment regarding men and women, migrants and ethnicities, lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) persons, age and persons with disabilities. They conclude their contribution with an outlook on the challenges the country faces in order to make progress in the area described in this text.

CANADA

The purpose of this chapter is to review the progress of employment equity in Canada since it officially came into effect in 1986. This review involves examining annual reports filed by employers from 1987 to 2009 who are covered under the federal employment equity programme in Canada. Specifically four designated groups are examined – aboriginal peoples, persons with disabilities, visible minorities and women – for their representation in the labour force relative to their availability in the labour market. Employment equity appears to be most effective for the representation of visible minorities and women in the labour force; however, glass ceilings and occupation ghettoization exist for them. Aboriginal peoples and persons with disabilities remain severely underrepresented in the labour force. This chapter builds upon the overview of employment equity and workplace diversity in Canada in the previous edition of the *International Handbook on Diversity Management at Work*. The present review now extends to a discussion of provincial, territorial and municipal/local government legislation, including progressive Quebec's family-friendly policies. A discussion on whether additional segments of the population should be included for coverage and the future of employment equity is also provided. The evidence presented can inform policy-makers on how to improve the programme.

FINLAND

In Finland, equality between people has been a central constitutional value since independence, and Finland is in many regards an equal society. For gender equality as measured in terms of economic, educational, political and health-based criteria, Finland ranked as the third most equal country. The income disparity between Finnish residents has also been moderate for a long time. In 2005, Finland had the fourth lowest income disparity out of 27 European countries. Finland also has several recognized national minorities (Finns, Sami, Roma, Jews and Tatars) that are taken into consideration in legislation and that are provided with group-specific services. Yet, the construction of Finland as a homogeneous entity has implicitly presented multiculturalism as a new phenomenon, a non-Finnish feature. Despite its own national historic ethnic minorities, Finland has been portrayed as a country which does not have experience of coexistence between different ethnic minorities. The common way of presenting matters is to say that multiculturalism arrived with the increased immigration of the 1990s. The approach regarding questions related to multiculturalism has long been very hesitant and passive – even mere discussion and reflection over multiculturalism in general has been perceived as difficult.

FRANCE

This chapter follows up on a first contribution on the genesis of equality and diversity in France in the previous *International Handbook on Diversity Management at Work*. It is an update both on the legal framework, and on voluntary initiatives that have occurred since 2009, the year when the initial chapter was completed. After a brief historical reminder, the authors present public policies in specific areas: gender, disability, age, sexual orientation and religion. Gender was the first area dealt with in French law, and in recent years there has been a stepping up of process-based, but also outcome-based, positive action which saw the introduction of gender quotas in boards and the top managerial positions in the civil service. A softer quota system is also in place for disabled workers, who should amount to at least 6 per cent of the total workforce at the plant level. France also recently introduced constrained process-based positive action in the area of age, in order to encourage the hiring of young people and the retention of ageing workers. Yet France meets difficulties in acknowledging its own ethnic diversity, be it internal or of migrant origin. The authors describe the advent of diversity management as a managerial response to the shortcomings of social policies and the integration of immigrants and their descendants.

INDIA

The public sector in India has had a constitutionally mandated reservation policy since 1950, for affirmative action protecting the three designated groups, Scheduled Castes (SC) also known as *Dalits*, Scheduled Tribes (ST) and Other Backward Classes (OBC). In fact, public sector ‘reservation’ for these groups was put in place by the British government in India even before independence. Long after these, a 33 per cent reservation for women in federal and state assemblies was introduced by law in 2010. The private sector in India, however, has historically claimed to be ‘caste blind’ and ‘merit based’ in its HRM processes, denying the need to track caste information on its employees and to implement any voluntary affirmative action reservation policies for these groups. But increased lobbying efforts and governmental pressures have led to some awareness-building and voluntary action in the private sector in efforts to thwart the threat of the legislated imposition of reservation quotas. Contrary to political representation bodies however, MNCs in India have had equal employment opportunity policies in place on voluntary basis, primarily for women.

ITALY

In Italy, it is mainly in the past decade that the concept of diversity management has spread beyond a narrow circle of experts. The main factors behind the diffusion of this approach have been: the growing presence of the multinationals and the spread of international cooperation agreements that imply intercultural management; the progressive feminization of the labour market and the growing female presence in traditionally masculine sectors; the demands made by individuals of organizations regarding self-

realization and a better balance between work and private life; and the recommendations and financial support of the EU. After an update on the changes in the labour market caused by the recent economic crisis and a brief summary of anti-discrimination legislation – the authors conduct a reasoned analysis of diversity management in Italy by considering the persisting discrepancy in Italian firms between the regulatory level and everyday organizational practices. Moreover, in the last section, they offer suggestions useful for the introduction of a HR management able to go beyond mere labelling or rhetoric and address the challenges raised by diversity and rapid social change for Italian organizations today.

JAPAN

The embracement of the term of ‘diversity management’ is fairly recent as large companies in Japan started to establish ‘diversity development offices’ and ‘diversity manager’ positions in the mid-2000s. Although the logic of the term ‘diversity’ is that it focuses on multiple dimensions of difference, in practice the term in Japan still tends to focus on gender. In Japan, the most extensive work has been done in the area of gender policy, with the creation of the Office for Gender Equality in the Cabinet Office. The Japanese government has tended to treat each diversity strand with specific targeted legislation and policies. There has also, until recently, been a tendency to deal with issues concerning groups which had suffered discrimination as welfare issues rather than issues of human rights, equal opportunity and freedom from discrimination. Disability, however, has shifted from a welfare issue to an equal opportunity issue in preparation for ratification of the UN Convention. The ageing of society has also created new issues with regard to welfare, employment and the labour market. Although ethnic and cultural minority groups such as the Buraku and Ainu people have until recently tended to occupy the peripheral employment market, they have not featured as much as gender in discussion of diversity management and equal opportunities in the Japanese workplace.

THE NETHERLANDS

In the previous issue of the *International Handbook on Diversity Management at Work*, the Netherlands chapter highlighted the possible reversal of diversity-friendly policies, something that was not apparent in the other country chapters at the time (2010). The authors provide an update as recent years have proved as contrasting as the previous decade as regards support for diversity policies in their country. The Netherlands recently went through turbulent political times where after a decade of increasing inward-looking, anti-immigrant, ethnocentric sentiments peaking around the elections in 2010, there has been a sudden drop in these sentiments in the 2012 elections. While the centre right Cabinet Rutte I (2010–12) moved policies towards a less Eurocentric and more ethnocentric approach, the left right Cabinet Rutte II, installed in 2012, is slightly more Eurocentric again. Nevertheless, the attention for diversity, completely abolished under Rutte I, is not restored to its full strength as was the case in the 1990s and early 2000s.

NEW ZEALAND

Aotearoa New Zealand brings a unique richness to research on diversity management at work. This chapter shows how the historical and socio-political context of New Zealand has embedded a peculiar local flavour. New Zealand's geographic isolation in the face of globalization, commitment to biculturalism and demographic shift to a multi-ethnic society, are key contextual elements to this contentious diversity discourse. Issues of equality and diversity are framed by the ideal of partnership between indigenous Maori and Pakeha (white New Zealanders) based upon the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840. In 1893 New Zealand was the first nation state to grant women the right to vote, and this, alongside other 'firsts' in labour and social legislation, has led to an internalized notion of egalitarianism. From 1984 onwards, New Zealand experienced substantial shifts with minimal government involvement in the economy and deregulation. The shift from 'soft socialism' and collective responsibility to liberalism has shaped policy-level debates on how 'fairness' and 'equity' in employment outcomes can be achieved. Thus, the tenets of 'individual choice' and 'individual responsibility' severely challenge the collectivism implied in the egalitarianism ideal, the bicultural partnership and multi-ethnic relations.

NIGERIA

With a population of 162.4 million, Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa. Nigeria provides an interesting context to explore the concepts of equality and workplace diversity, with its unusually high levels of diversity across ethnic/cultural, racial, religious, linguistic, age and socio-economic dimensions. Her peoples belong to 250–400 different ethno-linguistic groups, with three major ethnic groups. Nigerians belong to several different religions as well, with Islam and Christianity respectively accounting for approximately 50 and 40 per cent of the population. Indigenous African religions are also commonly practised around the country. This chapter is organized into four sections. In the first section, the authors provide a brief historical overview of the country, shedding light on the context in which equality and diversity arose. This is followed by an extensive discussion of six key dimensions of equality and diversity in Nigeria: ethnicity/religion, gender, disability, HIV/AIDS, sexual orientation and age. The authors describe emerging trends and challenges, as well as legislative and other important developments in each of these areas. In the third section, the authors examine the commitment of various stakeholders – the general public, corporations and HR professionals – to managing diversity. The chapter ends with a brief summary and conclusion section that provides an outlook on the future of diversity management in Nigeria.

RUSSIA

Russia's size, unique history, diverse population, fast growing economy and increasing penetration by MNCs over the past two decades make it a fascinating example of a transitional economy. An original feature of this chapter is that it is the product of a collaborative effort between two Russian authors living in Russia, one Russian author living

in the UK and two Irish authors living in the UK, where other chapters in this handbook are written by more homogenous teams of authors in terms of nationality/country of residence. This collaboration has allowed the authors to explore their common and differing perspectives on equality and diversity. The chapter first provides a brief background to Russia then moves on to consider employment equality legislation, part of which is a legacy of the Communist past, and recent diversity issues and initiatives. The final section introduces findings from a study of HRM managers working in large indigenous Russian companies and foreign MNCs. It explores their perceptions of the legislative context and the diffusion and application of diversity management in Russian organizations. The authors underscore that a substantial gap exists between a host of generous formal rules (as compared with other countries), for instance as regards maternity leave, and their implementation, as both employers and employees tend to put in place informal arrangements that reduce their exposure to these rules.

SOUTH AFRICA

Shifts in the landscape of diversity (or lack thereof) and subtle differences in workplace diversity and in the focus of diversity work and legislation in South Africa are discussed in this update chapter. First, inequality between Blacks and Whites remains high, and White males still make up the majority (or close to it) of top and senior managers, with their share slowly eroding over the last five-year period. Africans, Indians and Coloureds of both genders continue to lag far behind white males, with a slow progression for most categories however. Change has been somehow more dramatic for women. There has been a significant increase in African females in skilled positions. In government, South African black women are particularly well represented. South Africa is also faring better than the USA (and Australia, Canada, New Zealand and UK) in terms of women directors and executive managers. However, a high level of crime, unemployment, high diffusion of the AIDS virus, growing economic inequality and tensions between national and immigrant black Africans have added to the legacy of apartheid which was based on race and skin colour, and pose a threat for the unity and stability of South Africa. Regarding LGBTQ rights, despite South Africa's progressive Constitution and subsequent anti-discrimination legislation and provisions, there is cause for grave concern, since this progressive stance has come under attack lately.

THE UK

This chapter, as an update to the previous edition of this book, outlines the recent developments in equality and diversity at work in the UK. It begins with a brief summary of some key demographics and equality-related statistics. It then summarizes the key points made in the 2010 chapter. The chapter then moves on to identify the key changes in relation to the above-mentioned responses to the global financial crisis. The equilibrium that UK equality and diversity at work appeared to have settled at, has been disrupted as a consequence of the global financial crisis after 2008 and the subsequent election of a coalition government whose policy agenda is 'tackling the deficit'. The key

shift in the equality and diversity landscape in the UK has been one of *ideological* and *political* rather than demographic, cultural or related to any notable shift in the dominant managerial discourse on the issue. As a result, equality and diversity has been radically reframed and resourced around the claims to an approach that pursues government austerity, but combined with a renewed focus on fairness, sometimes referred to in terms of a ‘big society’ agenda. This ideological shift – and its overspill into the framework of statutory rights on the issue – marks a significant change in UK approach to equality and diversity and, therefore, constitutes a key focus in this update chapter.

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