

# CURRENT THEMES IN IMER RESEARCH

NUMBER 6

Quantitative Indicators of Diversity: Content or Packaging?  
Kvantitativa mångfaldsindikatorer: Innehållsförteckning  
eller paketering?

**Per Broomé**  
**Inge Dahlstedt**  
**Tobias Schölin**



EUROPEISKA UNIONEN  
Europeiska socialfonden



**MALMÖ UNIVERSITY**



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# QUANTITATIVE INDICATORS OF DIVERSITY: CONTENT OR PACKAGING?

Per Broomé, Inge Dahlstedt, Tobias Schölin

This study explores the possibilities of measuring diversity in organisations. In the first section of the study we develop three quantitative dimensions of diversity: the Total Dimension that measures horizontal and vertical representations, the Role-model Dimension that measures representation at the top level of the organisation, and the Services Dimension that measures the organisation's 'diversity sensitivity'. These three dimensions or measures were developed and critically discussed before being tested on Malmö city's administration, i.e. the central office and the health and social service supply.

KEYWORDS: diversity, organisation, indicators, representation, Malmö

## Introduction

### *Diversity and Organisational Tools*

According to the dominant literature on organisational diversity, a number of steps have to be taken in order to “do” or organise diversity. These steps include measuring the number of “differences” in the organisation, leading diversity, educating with regard to diversity issues and creating and setting good examples. Organisational change toward the so-called multicultural organisation is crucial to diversity work (Cox 1993, cf. Mlekov & Widell 2003). According to one model organisational change should be as follows: 1) leadership, 2) research and measuring, 3) education, 4) reviewing the organisational culture, 5) follow-up and 6) evaluation of the change.

It is important to have specific tools when organising diversity, however, and these can be of various kinds, such as educational tools, evaluation tools, tools for follow-up, as well as indicators used to measure diversity in different ways. Measuring tools are important for several reasons, although it can be difficult to decide which measures are necessary in the organisation unless one comprehends how differentiated the organisation is. It is also of importance to know whether the leadership is functional. The question is, however, how these measures are to be conducted, what tools should be used and, perhaps more importantly, what exactly is being measured?

This short introduction brings us to the aim of this article, which is *to develop and problematise quantitative measurements of diversity, and to reflect on the substance of these measurements.*

### *Theoretical Starting Points*

Diversity can be discussed from a quantitative as well as a qualitative perspective. Both these perspectives can arguably be connected with the concepts of structure and process in an organisational context. Westin (2001) argues that the concept of diversity per se can be seen as both a means and as an end. In applying the first the concept includes being a means to counter-act segregation. The latter, diversity as an end, entails that the concept is seen as something good in itself, a state of value in its own right. This is found in, for example, the fundamental ideas of some liberal philosophers (cf. Roth 1996).

Westin (2001) discusses the concept of diversity and its quantitative and qualitative meanings. Quantitative diversity (the main focus of this article) deals with the proportions in relation to each other, such as the number of people of foreign descent in relation to those of Swedish descent. Quantitative diversity can also be understood in structural terms (cf. Omanovic 2003). This structural understanding of diversity arguably has an economic (historical) basis. It concerns the search for economic (and other soft-economic factors such as level of education and demography etc) explanations for, e.g. labour market segregation (Omanovic 2003, cf. Bevelander et al. 1997). The quantitative structural view of diversity is, fundamentally, a type of head count, where explanations are sought for quantitative differences in, for example, employment between different groups. If the quantitative dimension can be seen as head counting, then the qualitative dimension may be seen as seeking an understanding beyond counting. Thus, in the qualitative dimension, other factors are the main focus. Examples of these can be relationships, constructions or criticisms. The common denominator here is process, as opposed to structures (cf. Omanovic 2003, Alvesson & Billing 1999 and 2000, Westin 2001). Let us therefore examine the three different examples of processes.

Firstly, when it comes to relationships an understanding of the roles that, for example, gender or ethnicity play in organisational relational processes of differentiation, is fundamental. Secondly, when focusing on constructions, one must strive to comprehend how differences are constructed and what meaning is assigned to these constructions (cf. Alvesson & Billing 1999 and 2000, Omanovic 2003). Lastly, the critical example is often based on a post-structural critique. It is concerned with placing our own time in a historical context and seeing historical structures in the light of current situations (Omanovic

2003). A good example of the critical school is the post-colonial critique which, somewhat simplified, is concerned with how former geo-political boundaries are applied to a current situation to create an understanding of processes of differentiation between groups and individuals.

This somewhat short, theoretical briefing aims to create an understanding of the quantitative as well as the qualitative dimensions of the concept of diversity. The purpose of the above section is also to illustrate that in this article we will be mainly concerned with the intersection between quantity and quality, or if you so wish, between structure and process.

### *Measuring Possibilities*

Many of the empirical indicators can be used relatively easily by many organisations, such as many of the public organisations discussed here. Small and medium sized companies, on the other hand, may need to limit the indicators in different ways.

Most of the indicators can be given a quantitative form by the use of statistics, polls and survey data. It is necessary that the instruments are general and comparable if they are to facilitate comparisons over time, between different sections of an organisation or between organisations. In this article we will deal exclusively with quantitative indicators in the sense that individuals form the basis of the measurements (we are, in other words, counting heads). While attitudes and activities are also quantifiable, they fall outside the scope of this article.

Quantitative analyses of the type undertaken in this article are generally results' analyses, that is to say, they are to be related to the aims of diversity as set out in the organisation's policy or plan. Malmö City administration's "Plan for Diversity" (Plan of Measures to Promote Integration in the City Administration of Malmö) was unanimously accepted by the City Council on the 16<sup>th</sup> December 1999. A number of goals were set out in the Plan for Diversity, which the City administration is obliged to work towards. The goals that are relevant here are described in current research on diversity (see Broomé 2004, Kalonaityte 2004, Rönnqvist 2004, Schölin 2004). The first goal of interest here is that the City administration, both as a whole and in its functional parts, should reflect the population of the city. Secondly, the organisation should set an example and act as a role model concerning work on diversity. Finally, the services of the city should be changed as the population of the city changes, so as to guarantee good services to the population. In dealing with this, we chose to study the central office and the health and social service production.

There are two possible ways of studying the implementation of a policy. One is to study the results over a period of time, that is to say, before and after the measures spelled out in the policy are implemented, in order to see whether they lead in the direction of goal fulfilment. The other is either to compare the organisation with a similar organisation or with a part of the same organisation where measures have not been taken, for example, a different City administration where no comparative work on diversity has been undertaken. Neither “before and after” studies nor comparative analyses fall exactly within the scope of this article, even though it will be possible to use the indicators constructed and tested on the City administration for these purposes. Instead we are interested in what the common goals, such as “reflecting the population” and “set an example” really mean when translated into quantitative indicators in an actual case. How can such an aim be specifically stated?

### *Creating Three Quantitative Dimensions<sup>1</sup>*

The aforementioned goals for diversity can be interpreted/measured in at least three quantitative dimensions. Firstly, the goals can be seen from the perspective of the *total dimension*. The total dimension measures both the horizontal and vertical representation in the organisation. It contains measures of differences in the distribution of income between various groups and differences between various groups in connection to the work place in terms of different contracts of employment. This dimension answers the questions: How well is group X represented in different income groups? What does the connection to the work place look like for group X? Our analysis will consider inequalities of income distribution between different groups as well as how large a percentage of the various groups are undertaking temporary work, or temping, for an hourly fixed rate. Secondly, we look at what the goals can be understood as meaning, and to what extent the different groups are represented at the organisation’s top levels, the *role model dimension*. The role model dimension can be understood as calculating the probabilities of individuals of different ethnic groups of the population of Malmö:

- 1) holding specific positions and
- 2) attaining certain professional levels in the City’s administration.

The role model dimension is illustrated by calculations of the income elite in the organisation of the City administration of Malmö. The probability or ‘chances’ that an individual from a specific ethnic group will be part of the income elite, taking into account factors such as

age, gender and level of education, will be calculated. By ‘income elite’ we mean those 1,200 people in the organisation that are receiving the highest salaries.

Thirdly, the goals can mean the representation of different groups in the City administration – both the organisation as a whole and its different sections – in relation to the population of the city, what we refer to as the *Services dimension*. The dimension measures what one might refer to as “diversity sensitivity” in the resource allocation of different groups. It can be measured by computing the relation between the ethnic representation of various service providers and the composition of the population. Thus, it can be estimated how well the staff reflects the population in the fields of, for example, healthcare, education and care. Further motivation for the services dimension is found in the City administration’s aim to reflect the city’s population as described in the Plan for Diversity (Broomé 2004, Kalonaityte 2004, Rönnqvist 2004, Schölin 2004, Broomé et al. 2004).

## **Method and Material**

### *Methods*

As a rule, diversity plans or policies include criteria for the evaluation of diversity with regard to three separate aspects. These aspects are *representation*, i.e. the reflection of the immigrated part of the population; the *spread* in the organisation with reference to positions, salaries etc; and the *categorisation* of immigrants so that backgrounds are broken down into regional groups (for instance Non-Europeans). In the assessment and review of the plan for diversity other components may also be included: measuring attitudes concerning diversity and indicators of activities such as seminars, discussions and education that aim to implement the policy. Indicators of management, involvement, role modelling, ideas on development, selection processes and indicators of union participation might also be included.

In the following analysis, the workforce of Malmö as it is represented among the employees of the City administration will be studied. The population and the employees will be divided into categories according to, for example, country of birth, gender or income. The method employed in the analysis of the aforementioned three dimensions entails calculating the different categories’ distribution in the organisation as well as their probability of achieving, for example, a certain salary. Distribution relates to percentage amounts, while probability relates to the chance of an individual with a specific set of characteristics, for example, reaching a certain salary, also measured in percentages.

### *The Total Dimension*

The Total Dimension is calculated in three different stages. Firstly, we calculate the median and maximum income for the various groups of employees. Secondly, we divide the employees into three income groups: the 20 percent of the employees with the lowest wages, the 20 percent that earn the highest wages and the 60 percent in between. If there are no differences in the income distribution between the groups, each separate group will have the allocation 20, 20 and 60 percent. Finally, by means of a logistic regression model we calculate the probability of a number of constructed 'standard persons' being part of the highest income group. In the logistic regression model we are given a value (a log odds, see the Appendix) for each individual variable's effect on the probability of belonging to the highest income group. Using these values it is possible to calculate the probability for, for example, a 51 year old Swedish woman with a university degree to belong to the highest income group. Where a logistic regression has been done, regions rather than nations have been considered in order to attain significant results. The log odds and the significant values are presented in their entirety in the Appendix.

The Total Dimension deals with the representation of different groups in the organisation. For this reason it is important to discuss the concept of representation, particularly as this concept is ambiguous and different interpretations yield different results.

While the concept of representation is first and foremost associated to political life it also has other meanings in the sense that a text can be a representation. In his definition of the concept, Stuart Hall (1997) points out that representation is about the connecting of meaning and language to culture:

Representation means using language to say something meaningful, or to represent, the world meaningfully, to other people. [...] Representation is an essential part of the process by which meaning is produced and exchanged between members of a culture. It does involve the use of language, of signs and images which stands for or represents things (Hall 1997:15).

According to this interpretation, representation involves the concept of creating images in its widest sense. The problems of representation become very clear when an organisation uses the idea of reflecting the composition of the population in the composition of its staff as a driving force for ethnic diversity. One simply wants the organisation to stand for something else. This is also the meaning of the concept of representation as found in *The Swedish National Encyclopaedia* (<http://www.ne.se/>): "something that means something else".

Representation, as was pointed out above, is mainly a political democratic idea with a long tradition and usage in Sweden. Representation has, for example, recently been discussed in connection with recruitment to colleges and universities. In this context representation refers to those recruited to colleges and universities having different social backgrounds in order to guarantee that personal experiences differ from those of ‘normal’ people’s experiences. And, of course, that people with different backgrounds have equal rights and equal access to colleges and universities.

### *The Role-model Dimension*

The Role-model Dimension is measured by categorising the 1,200 people receiving the highest salaries in the City administration into a group referred to as the “income elite”. We chose the number of 1,200 people because there are approximately 1,000 managers in the administration of the local government of Malmö. It is a therefore way of accounting for these 1,000 managers, particularly as we have no specific information regarding position within the organisation. Firstly, we will establish the number of individuals from each group included in the income elite and thereafter calculate the probability that a number of ‘types’ will be part of this group.

The Role-model Dimension is constructed assuming that it is important that there are people from every group in the top layer of the organisation and that these individuals function as role-models for other members of the group. The assumption is that these people lead the way for others in that specific group in that they see that it is possible to reach a high position.

Another way of interpreting the Role-model Dimension is to regard the organisation as a whole as a role-model which can guide other organisations. That is to say, the organisation has a high number of employees born in various countries and these people also hold leading positions within the organisation.

Thus, it is possible to interpret the Role-model Dimension in different ways. In our work we have used the first presented interpretation. However, it is important to show how the measurement is interpreted when utilising this indicator.

### *The Services Dimension*

The Services Dimension measures how well the staff composition of the City administration reflects the composition of the population and the particular needs of different groups. The measures are calculated in the following manner. Firstly, the relative size of each group is computed, for example, 71.1 percent of Malmö’s work force was born

in Sweden. Secondly, the same calculations are made for employees of the City administration of which 82.6 percent were born in Sweden. Thirdly, we divide the number of employees born in Sweden with the population born in Sweden minus one,  $(82.6/71.1) - 1 = 0.16$ . As a result we get a number that is between  $-1$  and upwards, where  $0$  means that the number of employees with Swedish background perfectly reflects the population. A negative number means an under-representation of this group in the organisation, and a positive number means an over-representation.

This indicator dimension builds on an assumption that the best service is created and provided within the same ethnic group. This assumption is worth contemplating as it is somewhat problematic. The problem concerns how service and ethnicity may be understood.

*The National Encyclopaedia of Sweden* defines the concept of service as “[...] part measure or activity conducted in the purpose of serving customers, part control and maintenance of, for example, machinery”. What then characterises service in the sense of serving clients? In brief, services are non-material products that cannot be sold to any one else, nor can they be demonstrated as they do not usually exist prior to the purchase. Furthermore, services cannot be stored; production and consumption take place simultaneously in both time and space. More importantly, the client directly participates in the production and direct contact is often necessary (see Table 1).

*Table 1: Typical differences between the production industry and service suppliers.*

Production	Service
The product is generally a material thing	Services are non-material
Ownership is passed on when purchased	Generally, ownership is not passed on
Can be sold to someone else	Cannot be sold to someone else
Can be demonstrated prior to purchase	Can generally not be demonstrated prior to purchase (as prior to purchase it does not exist)
Can be stored by seller and buyer	Cannot be stored
Consumption is preceded by production	Availability and consumption are generally simultaneous
Production, sale and consumption occur at different locations	Availability, consumption and often sales occur at the same location
Can be transported	Cannot be transported (the “producer” may often be transported)
The seller produces	The buyer/customer directly participates in the service
Indirect contact between company and customer is possible	Direct contact is often necessary
Can be exported	Cannot normally be exported even though the service system may be exported

Source: Table 1.2 in Normann 1997:31 (authors’ translation)

Services presume some form of social interaction; if there is no provider and no recipient there are no services. Grönroos (1996) argues:

Due to the characteristics of the service – abstraction, activity and common production and consumption – the clients' experience of quality largely arises during the common consumption and production in immediate contact with the production resources inclusive of the co-consumers (Grönroos 1996:31).

This means that in order to understand the concept of services in practice we must also understand the social interaction that arises between provider and recipient.

### *Representation and Different Types of Services*

Here representation denotes the horizontal allocation of ethnic resources in the staff (rather than any hierarchical representation) that is analysed in the role model dimension. One can articulate this as competence. The representation of minorities is seen as the competence to provide services. Representation is predicted to provide possibilities of good social interaction and thereby better, or at least adequate, services to people of different ethnic backgrounds.

The largest groups of the population of Malmö are those born in Sweden, which accounts for 71 percent, and those born in the former Yugoslavia, which account for about four percent (Table 2). What is not shown in Table 2 is that the 50 smallest groups<sup>2</sup> together make up 0.1 percent of the city's population. This naturally raises the following questions: Is it relevant to speak in terms of services with regard to all groups of the population, or merely the largest? Is it possible to measure the service capacity/representation for the smallest groups of the population? Is it possible for an organisation such as the City administration to create representation and thereby services for all groups of the population?

Measuring the representation of larger groups of the population, such as the Swedish, Yugoslavian and Polish groups, is relatively simple since they consist of a larger number of individuals in both the population and the organisation. The problems arise when we measure the representation of smaller groups of the population or the groups of 'others', such as 'the other Nordic countries', referred to in Table 2. The category thus created becomes highly problematic; due to a forced merging of backgrounds the category becomes meaningless. We can speak of a categorical arbitrariness where the will to measure is far greater than the possibility to create meaningful categories.

There are a number of different ethnic groups in the former Yugoslavia that, we can assume, do not regard themselves as Yugoslavs

but, for example, Kosovo-Albanians, which actualises another problem of representation. Is it the country of birth or the subjectively experienced dimension - the ethnicity - that is relevant?

Will Kymlicka (1995) in his book on multicultural citizenship points to the fact that there are about 184 countries on planet Earth, while there are some 5,000 ethnic groups distributed over these 184 countries. Kymlicka attempts to get to the heart of the problem. *What is it we speak of when we mention ethnic diversity? What is it we really measure when we attempt to measure representation and link this with services?* One important dimension of the discussion about representation is what kind of services the population need and which services are offered by the City administration. A good many deal of the services offered by a City administration involve the exercise of authority, such as issuing permits for construction projects, rather than providing pure services in the form of care for the elderly. In many cases the line between exercising authority and supplying services is rather vague. This distinction is important from a representational perspective, however. A fundamental assumption in the exercise of authority is that it is based on equal treatment, the rule of law and the integrity of the civil servant in relation to group-specific interests, for example, in the form of ethnic or other representations in the population. A relevant question to ask regarding government services is: If everyone is to be treated equally, is it at all interesting or even relevant to discuss the matter in terms of ethnicity or any other representation?

The question of representation can seem more relevant when it comes to the question of service supply and availability. Competence in exercising authority is based on knowledge of different laws and rules, which are to be applied in the individual case. Competence in services supply also involves other components, not just knowledge that has to do with the contents of the services but also other knowledge and skills relating to social interaction, such as language skills and cultural competence. Even though a representational strategy may seem desirable, difficulties remain in matching a diverse population with a diverse staff. For example, how is a representative match to be made between pupils and teachers in a class of students from 20 different countries? Reaching a representative point of view would seem to be almost impossible for the organisation to manage and carry through.

### *Ethnicity in Brief*

In some ways the concept of ethnicity concerns the classification of people (Eriksen 1993:12, Barth 1981:200 in O'Dell 2002). The word ethnicity stems from the Greek word *ethnos*, and springs from the concept of *ethnikos* that originally meant heathen (Eriksen 1993:12).

During Antiquity the point of ethnicity was that only “the others” could have an ethnicity. Ethnicity was, so to speak, a principle of exclusion. The concept retained this meaning up to the mid-1800s, when the term then started to move towards the concept of race. The current meaning of ethnicity stems from the mid-1960s. The term ethnicity then took on a new meaning: “the positive feelings of belonging to a cultural group” (Spoonley 1993 in Guibernau & Rex 1997, Eriksen 1993:12). Today the concept has the meaning of belonging, identity, a common culture, history and common traditions. Ethnologist Tom O’Dell (2002) argues that there are pros as well as cons to using the concept of ethnicity in this fashion. The advantages he points to are based in the constructionist meaning of the concept. From this perspective the term is connected with the construction of identity. Ethnicity from this perspective becomes something that we constantly construct and reconstruct through lived experience. However, this positive feeling of belonging is often perceived as both static and unchangeable through, for example, stereotyping and essentialising, which according to O’Dell is one of the drawbacks of the ethnicity concept.

Do, then, the tables in the next section list identities? The spontaneous answer would be no. With the statistical data available today, and that we use here, it is only possible to identify countries of birth, not ethnicity. Consequently, the foundation that these measures of diversity are based on can be criticised. Rather than speaking of diversity in the sense of ethnicity, we speak of diversity in the sense of country of birth. This is not necessarily negative, but it is an important point to make. It could be claimed that the quantifiable data is almost of an anecdotal character. This means that although it may be important for individuals to be able to relate to their place of birth, the country of origin is not of conclusive importance for ethnicity. Moreover, country of birth should not be conclusive for a person’s identity, if identity is a construction that is constructed and reconstructed during a person’s life span.

Certain other problems arise, as we have mentioned earlier, when we measure the representation of small groups in an organisation such as the City administration. The statistician is forced to add the groups together, sometimes to the extent that the categories created are anything but representative. This is the case with our category “the 50 smallest population groups” made up of countries of birth from all continents. Such categorisation neither reflects a personal construction of identity nor the existence of clear and separate ethnicities in terms of belonging. It is easier to associate to older concepts of ethnicity, such as “heathens” or “the others”, or possibly to some other meaningless categorisation.

Discussing concepts of ethnicity and culture involves a number of different risks. This does not only concern simple categorisations. Fundamentally, it is identities, or rather constructions of identity, that are discussed in these concepts. A hands-on categorisation of identities can lead to a static view of these identities. The danger of this is that identities are presented as non-changeable and essential, which cannot be empirically shown. On the contrary, it is our opinion that identities change continually and by processes (cf. Ehn & Löfgren 2001, Roth 1996). In the section below we want to connect the above discussion around services, representation and ethnicity with an organisational praxis in order to show the real problems of 'head counts'.

When we speak of ethnic diversity in terms of services it can be interesting to look at one of the more 'service burdened' activities of the administration. In these activities the discourse on services becomes extra clear and relevant. One example of this is the 'Council for Diversity in Professional Life' which writes that "the schools, health care and public services of the future must be able to answer to the needs of a society with a diversity of people from different countries and cultures" (Rådet för mångfald i arbetslivet, 2002).

In the next section we will show that there are differences in the ethnic representation of the educational and care sectors in different boroughs of Malmö (see Table 13). As long as we restrict our discussion to the largest groups there are few (methodological) problems; counting heads and representation are relatively easy to measure and discuss. However, the problems accumulate when analysing the smaller groups, such as the 50 smallest groups which together amount to 185 people. These are in turn represented by four employees. According to the services discourse these four people are expected to improve the services for 185 people, which can only be recognised as highly problematical. The question that must be posed is how to interpret this. Is it even a relevant interpretation? According to the services discourse it is indeed, but as a practical problem it must be regarded as a highly dubious interpretation.

A number of interesting and relevant questions can be posed. Does an increased representation of people of foreign origin lead to better services? Does the quality of relations increase due to the improved representation of groups of foreign origin?

Social interaction is an important part of all personal services – including care. This was also concluded by the White Paper on Treatment in the Care Sector.<sup>3</sup> In this investigation considerable shortcomings in the treatment of handicapped people were acknowledged. Many felt humiliated, controlled and questioned, especially in their contacts with different authorities. The White Paper argues that these

deficiencies are partly due to a gap between expectations and reality, but that these deficiencies also have political causes. Regardless of the causes of these deficiencies we can, with the aid of the investigation in the White Paper, conclude that personal treatment is an important factor in the care of both elderly people and people with some kind of handicap. This treatment can also be linked with ethnic diversity. An increased diversity in the care organisations might lead to a better treatment of individuals of different ethnic background. *But*, and this is an important but, can this be shown or proven statistically? In the statistics that we have used the answer is “no”. We can illustrate the under-representation of a number of different population groups in the City administration’s care organisations, but cannot claim or assume that this has consequences for the care of the elderly. Is it possible to draw any conclusions about good or otherwise treatment from statistics and quantitative measures? At best the answer to that can only be extremely hesitant. ‘Counting heads’ says very little or even nothing about how differences are constructed (for a discussion on gender and organisation from a constructivist perspective, see Alvesson and Billing 1999).

There are real problems of matching in, for example, the case of the four employees in the organisation that represents the 50 smallest population groups. The question is partly whether the match is necessary for good organisational services capability, and partly what such a match might lead to? The first part of the question hints that good treatment (read good services) is only possible if there is a successful ethnic representation. But what is there to say that good services cannot be provided over or between ethnic groups? A good guess is that good services or treatment between different ethnic groups is relatively quickly identified or communicated. Ethnic and cultural differences are a question of ethnic and cultural identities. An exaggerated ethnic match can lead to an essentialist view of ethnicity where ethnicity is seen as non-changeable, or as ‘ethnification’.

There are also problems of integrity in care, and these can be summed up in the concept of anonymity. According to the law on healthcare (Hälso- och sjukvårdslagen 1982:763) clients should be guaranteed anonymity and thus be treated with confidentiality. We can only speculate on what might occur if employees of different ethnicities were given increased scope to manoeuvre in handling clients of the same ethnicity. If we look at the five or ten largest groups in the city and at the administration the problems are small, but if we look at the 50 smallest groups or even the 100 smallest groups of the population we can discern greater complications. What happens if a

person is cared for by a person from the same ethnic group? These groups are not particularly large in Malmö and we can therefore assume that strong bonds and knowledge of each other exist in these groups. In cases like this could the organisation guarantee the maintenance of personal confidentiality?

### *Material*

The material used in this study is data on Malmö's population between the ages of 20 and 64, i.e. the city's workforce, taken from Statistics Sweden's LOUISE database, as well as the council's data on employees of the local government of Malmö collected during the autumn of 2001. SCB has connected the anonymous personal information from the City administration of Malmö to a selection of data in the LOUISE database (see *Bakgrundsfakta till Arbetsmarknads- och Utbildningsstatistiken LOUISE*, 2002).

The variables from LOUISE used here are age, gender, education, country of birth, year of immigration, employment and largest source of income. The variable age is taken as being the age on 31<sup>st</sup> of December each year, in our case, the 31<sup>st</sup> of December 2001. Education is measured by means of SUN, Swedish Educational Nomenclature, which supplies information about the duration and orientation of the education. This article will only consider the duration of the education.

Country of birth is registered according to the principle that a person's country of birth is documented with the name of the country/state at the time of the person's birth, even if this name is later changed or the state ceases to exist. This becomes relevant in cases such as former Yugoslavia, i.e. all those born prior to the division of Yugoslavia belong to former Yugoslavia. Those born after the country's division belong to either of the new state of Bosnia-Herzegovina.

We have selected 14 countries that we analyze further; all other countries are categorized into regions like "Other Africa". These regions are created in accordance to SCB's categorization of regions. One of the regional categorizations are "Other EU", here we use the definition EU15. For a complete table of the countries and categorizations see table A1 in Appendix.

The most recent year of immigration counts as the year of immigration. The employment variable builds on data collected during the month of November. In order to count as gainfully employed a person must have performed paid work of at least one hour per week during November. Income is taken as the largest source of income as registered in the employment register.

As always there are shortcomings in the statistics, one example being the employment variable which is based on a one month survey. This *may* mean that the material includes people who are registered as not gainfully employed but still work within the City administration of Malmö.

*The City of Malmö and the City Administration – numbers in short*

In 2001, the population of Malmö, Sweden's third largest city, was 259,597. The age composition of the population forms an age pyramid with the top made up of a smaller number of elderly people and a base of a larger number of youths. During the same year, 64 percent of the population, or 157,873 citizens, were part of the labour force; that is to say between 20 and 64 years of age.

The largest employer in Malmö is the City administration, and during the year in question the organisation had 21,947 employees distributed over 23,747 positions (circa 2,000 people thus held more than one position in the organisation). During the same year, the city as a whole had 134,000 positions.

Table 2 gives an overview of Malmö's workforce in 2001. The largest countries, plus Germany and Somalia, are accounted for separately, while the others are accounted for regionally. Close to 30 percent of the working population in Malmö were of foreign origin, from 161 different countries. The largest groups of people of foreign origin were from Former Yugoslavia (see above the discussion concerning the statistical problems of categorisation with reference to country of birth), Poland, Bosnia-Herzegovina and Iraq. The large number of people of foreign origin in Malmö both makes and has made the city an interesting object of study (cf. Bevelander et al. 1997, 2002a and 2002b, Broomé 2004, Kalonaityte 2004, Ristilammi 1994 and 2003, Andersson et al. 2004, Rönnqvist 2004, Stigendal 1999, Schölin 2004).

It is clear that Malmö is a segregated city (Stigendal 1999), not only in terms of housing, but also in terms of the labour market; of having or not having a job. Table 3 shows that 65 percent of men and 63 percent of women in the workforce are gainfully employed. People born in Sweden have the highest employment frequency with 74 percent and 73 percent respectively. People of Iraqi origin have the lowest employment frequency with 21.5 percent and 10.8 percent respectively, and Somali origin people represent 22.2 percent and 21.2 percent respectively. The highest percentage of employment among immigrated groups is seen among the people of Finnish, German origin and Latin American origin.

*Table 2: Population 20-64 year (the work force) in Malmö. Country of birth and Gender.*

Country of birth	Men		Women		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	55,971	70.9	56,235	71.2	112,206	71.1
Former Yugoslavia	3,408	4.3	3,335	4.2	6,743	4.3
Poland	1,528	1.9	2,679	3.4	4,207	2.7
Bosnia-Herzegovina	1,795	2.3	1,897	2.4	3,692	2.3
Iraq	2,072	2.6	1,448	1.8	3,520	2.2
Denmark	1,531	1.9	1,101	1.4	2,632	1.7
Iran	1,235	1.6	969	1.2	2,204	1.4
Lebanon	1,171	1.5	1,031	1.3	2,202	1.4
Hungary	692	0.9	720	0.9	1,412	0.9
Finland	548	0.7	732	0.9	1,280	0.8
Rumania	509	0.6	598	0.8	1,107	0.7
Chile	540	0.7	545	0.7	1,085	0.7
Germany*	476	0.6	418	0.5	894	0.6
Somalia*	284	0.4	269	0.3	553	0.4
Other Nordic countries	304	0.4	358	0.5	662	0.4
Other EU except Nordic countries	1,380	1.7	845	1.1	2,225	1.4
Other Europe	1,294	1.6	1,516	1.9	2,810	1.8
North America	251	0.3	157	0.2	408	0.3
Other Latin America	617	0.8	695	0.9	1,312	0.8
Other Middle East	893	1.1	758	1.0	1,651	1.0
Other Asia	1,442	1.8	1,966	2.5	3,408	2.2
Australien & Oceanien	80	0.1	53	0.1	133	0.1
Other Africa	894	1.1	624	0.8	1,518	1.0
Unknown	3	0.0	6	0.0	9	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>78,918</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>78,955</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>157,873</b>	<b>100</b>

\* Germany represents an old immigrant group in Sweden. This group also has a relatively stable position in the Swedish labour market. Somalia represents a new immigrant group in Sweden with a weak position in the labour market.

Malmö's largest employer is the City administration; in 2001 the organisation had 21,947 employees. Despite the fact that the City administration has been the object of considerable academic attention, the organisation as a whole is not well studied, although some evaluations and studies of specific parts have been conducted (cf. Broomé 2004, Kalonaityte 2004, Rönnqvist 2004, Schölin 2004).

*Table 3: Percentage of employed in the work force in Malmö. Country of birth and Gender.*

	<b>Men</b>	<b>Women</b>
<b>Country of birth</b>	Percent	Percent
Sweden	74.1	73.0
Former Yugoslavia	45.1	40.1
Poland	52.4	51.9
Bosnia-Herzegovina	47.0	40.2
Iraq	21.5	10.8
Denmark	33.4	42.1
Iran	44.8	38.1
Lebanon	31.0	11.8
Hungary	46.0	45.8
Finland	54.0	63.3
Rumania	52.3	50.3
Chile	55.0	49.5
Germany	60.3	52.2
Somalia	22.5	21.2
Other Nordic Countries	58.6	55.9
Other EU except Nordic countries	49.6	45.9
Other Europe	49.8	43.4
North America	45.8	38.9
Other Latin America	53.3	50.8
Other Middle East	33.8	19.0
Other Asia	43.4	39.5
Australia & Oceania	41.3	37.7
Other Africa	39.9	34.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>65.0</b>	<b>63.5</b>

It can be seen from Table 4 that of all the employees in the City administration in 2001, approximately 76 percent were women. Thus, the City administration is an organisation strongly dominated by women. Employees of Swedish origin also emphatically dominate the organisation, with 82.5 percent of the employees being of Swedish origin. As in the population of Malmö, the two largest groups are of Yugoslavian and Polish origin. The fact that more women than men are employed in the organisation holds for all groups, except those of Australian origin.

*Table 4: Employed in the City administration of Malmö.  
Country of birth and Gender.*

Country of birth	Men		Women		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	4,302	82.1	13,805	82.6	18,107	82.5
Former Yugoslavia	133	2.5	385	2.3	518	2.4
Poland	46	0.9	445	2.7	491	2.2
Bosnia-Herzegovina	58	1.1	226	1.4	284	1.3
Iraq	45	0.9	65	0.4	110	0.5
Denmark	37	0.7	161	1.0	198	0.9
Iran	70	1.3	153	0.9	223	1.0
Lebanon	15	0.3	39	0.2	54	0.2
Hungary	24	0.5	88	0.5	112	0.5
Finland	22	0.4	155	0.9	177	0.8
Rumania	27	0.5	85	0.5	112	0.5
Chile	53	1.0	113	0.7	166	0.8
Germany	39	0.7	71	0.4	110	0.5
Somalia	20	0.4	35	0.2	55	0.3
Other Nordic Countries	21	0.4	66	0.4	87	0.4
Other EU Except Nordic Countries	65	1.2	126	0.8	191	0.9
Other Europe	50	1.0	188	1.1	238	1.1
North America	11	0.2	13	0.1	24	0.1
Other Latin America	56	1.1	165	1.0	221	1.0
Other Middle East	30	0.6	47	0.3	77	0.4
Other Asia	58	1.1	181	1.1	239	1.1
Australia & Oceania	3	0.1	1	0.0	4	0.0
Other Africa	58	1.1	90	0.5	148	0.7
Unknown	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>5,243</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>16,704</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>21,947</b>	<b>100</b>

In Table 5 we can see the representation of different groups in the organisation as a whole. The measurements in the table are constructed in such a way that a positive number symbolises that a group is over-represented and conversely, that a negative number indicates that a group is under-represented. Zero means that the relative size of the group is the same in the organisation and the city. The table shows that both men and women born in Sweden are over-represented in the organisation. Other over-represented groups are men born in Chile,

*Table 5: Representation for the City administration as a whole (Percentage of employees divided by percentage of population minus one). Country of birth and Gender.\**

Country of birth	Men	Women	Total
Sweden	0.2	0.2	0.2
Former Yugoslavia	-0.4	-0.5	-0.4
Poland	-0.5	-0.2	-0.2
Bosnia-Herzegovina	-0.5	-0.4	-0.4
Iraq	-0.7	-0.8	-0.8
Denmark	-0.6	-0.3	-0.5
Iran	-0.2	-0.3	-0.3
Lebanon	-0.8	-0.8	-0.9
Hungary	-0.4	-0.4	-0.4
Finland	-0.4	0.0	0.0
Rumania	-0.2	-0.4	-0.3
Chile	0.4	0.0	0.1
Germany	0.2	-0.2	-0.2
Somalia	0.0	-0.3	-0.3
Other Nordic countries	0.0	-0.2	0.0
Other EU except Nordic countries	-0.3	-0.3	-0.4
Other Europe	-0.4	-0.4	-0.4
North America	-0.3	-0.5	-0.7
Other Latin America	0.4	0.1	0.3
Other Middle East	-0.5	-0.7	-0.6
Other Asia	-0.4	-0.6	-0.5
Australia & Oceania	0.0	-1.0	-1.0
Other Africa	0.0	-0.4	-0.3

\*Men and women are compared separately, which in some cases leads to significant differences between their respective representational measurement and the total measurement for the group, see for example Chile and Finland.

Germany and Other Latin America. When it comes to women, only those born in Sweden are over-represented, while all other groups are under-represented, except women born in Chile and Finland where we see a perfect match. Finally, we can see that men born in Somalia, Other Nordic countries, Australia & Oceania as well as Other Africa have also achieved the perfect match. The groups showing the most severe under-representation are men and women born in Iraq, Lebanon, Other Middle East and women from Australia.

## Diversity in the City Administration of Malmö

### *The Total Dimension*

As mentioned above, the total dimension is made up of two parts, income and connection to the work place. Table 6 presents the median and maximum income for different groups and is divided according to gender.

*Table 6: Median and Maximum income in the City administration of Malmö. Country of birth, Gender and Largest Groups. In SEK.*

Country of birth	Median			Maximum	
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Sweden	215,800	171,400	182,100	639,600	880,700
Former Yugoslavia	143,300	135,100	136,650	346,200	343,400
Poland	174,800	159,500	159,700	317,600	387,600
Bosnia-Herzegovina	143,300	135,850	136,650	281,100	310,400
Iraq	158,600	113,700	121,550	299,100	298,800
Denmark	202,800	174,500	177,400	308,700	408,400
Iran	147,250	136,100	137,700	307,400	320,200
Lebanon	159,600	74,700	98,000	408,200	221,400
Hungary	202,150	169,350	179,450	277,800	401,700
Finland	193,550	190,200	190,200	310,100	357,800
Rumania	175,000	159,600	162,250	276,200	325,700
Chile	161,200	150,900	152,450	275,300	279,500
Germany	231,700	145,400	175,350	562,700	333,500
Somalia	150,350	99,400	122,200	246,200	261,600
Other Nordic Countries	193,000	187,400	187,800	346,600	454,400
Other EU except Nordic countries	194,000	165,350	177,500	586,200	378,700
<b>Total</b>	<b>207,600</b>	<b>167,050</b>	<b>177,100</b>	<b>639,600</b>	<b>880,700</b>

The median income for all employees is SEK 177,100. The groups whose median income exceeds this are Sweden, Denmark, Hungary, Finland, Other Nordic Countries and Other EU countries. Employees born in Finland and other Nordic countries have a higher median income than those born in Sweden. The groups with the lowest median income are those born in the Lebanon and Somalia. It is worth noting that it is mainly Lebanese and Somali women that have a low median income.

A recurring pattern is that men have a higher median income than women in their respective groups. Despite this, out of ten of the groups studied the highest wage-earner is a woman. In Table 6 we can see that it is mainly women from the Nordic countries that have the

highest median incomes, together with those from Hungary and the EU countries; a picture that almost completely reproduces itself when we look at maximum income. In the interpretation of this table it is important to note that we do not take any other variables, such as different age distribution within the groups, the year of employment, level of education and year of immigration, into consideration. Whether a person is employed full-time or part-time is not taken into account. This means that the median for women *may* be underestimated due to the tendency of women to work part-time to a greater extent. *This means although they provide a good first view, the median and maximum measures are rather crude tools that would best be complemented by other tools or measures that take other variables into consideration. In other words the median and maximum income can't stand alone.* The same problem will be discussed later on when the connection to the workplace is analysed for people born abroad. It will be shown that, to a larger extent than native Swedes, this category has a fixed hourly pay.

In Table 7, all employees have been divided into three different income groups that are made up of the top 20, middle 60 and bottom 20 percent. If there is no difference in the income distribution between the groups then each group should have an allocation of 20, 60 and 20 percent of income. When it comes to gender, Table 7 shows that the uneven distribution of income also holds here. The allocation for men is 14, 51.6 and 34.4 percent respectively, while the distribution for women is 21.9, 62.6 and 15.5 percent respectively.

Looking at the gender distribution within each group, we can see that it is only the employees born in Poland and Other Nordic Countries that has a higher percentage of men than women in the lowest income group. The opposite is seen in the highest income group, where only employees born in Bosnia-Herzegovina have a higher percentage of women than men, albeit with a difference of only 0.1 percent. In the middle income group, there are eight groups where women dominate and eight groups where men dominate. It must be added that one of the reasons for the high percentages in the lowest 20 percent may be due to problems of data. In short, this means that people with fixed, hourly rates of pay *may* also draw a salary from another employer. It is possible that this is the reason why the upper limit for the 20 percent who earn the least is as low as 84,500 SEK.

Furthermore, it is interesting to note that employees born in Denmark, Finland, Germany and Other Nordic Countries all have a lower percentage in the lowest income group than employees born in Sweden, and that Hungary has an equal percentage to Sweden. In

addition, employees born in the EU, with the exception of the Nordic countries and Germany, have a higher percentage in the highest income group than employees born in Sweden. In the middle income group, nine groups have a higher figure than employees born in Sweden, and these are employees born in Poland, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Iraq, Denmark, Hungary, Finland, Rumania, Chile and the other Nordic countries.

*Table 7: Employed in the City administration divided in three groups of income. Country of birth and Gender in percent.*

Country of birth	Lowest 20 % From 0 - 84,500 SEK			Medium 60 % From 84,600 - 237,000 SEK			Highest 20 % From 237,000 SEK & upwards		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Sweden	12.5	20.8	18.8	49.1	62.4	59.3	38.4	16.8	21.9
Yugoslavia	27.1	34.8	32.8	63.2	56.6	58.3	9.8	8.6	8.9
Poland	26.1	23.6	23.8	54.3	66.5	65.4	19.6	9.9	10.8
Bosnia- Herzegovina	15.5	28.8	26.1	82.8	69.5	72.2	1.7	1.8	1.8
Iraq	24.4	38.5	32.7	66.7	60.0	62.7	8.9	1.5	4.5
Denmark	10.8	16.1	15.2	54.1	70.2	67.2	35.1	13.7	17.7
Iran	24.3	30.7	28.7	57.1	59.5	58.7	18.6	9.8	12.6
Lebanon	20.0	53.8	44.4	66.7	46.2	51.9	13.3	0.0	3.7
Hungary	4.2	22.7	18.8	70.8	64.8	66.1	25.0	12.5	15.2
Finland	0.0	11.6	10.2	77.3	70.3	71.2	22.7	18.1	18.6
Rumania	18.5	25.9	24.1	66.7	64.7	65.2	14.8	9.4	10.7
Chile	26.4	28.3	27.7	64.2	67.3	66.3	9.4	4.4	6.0
Germany	2.6	22.5	15.5	51.3	63.4	59.1	46.2	14.1	25.5
Somalia	30.0	48.6	41.8	65.0	48.6	54.5	5.0	2.9	3.6
Other Nordic Countries	28.6	9.1	13.8	47.6	72.7	66.7	23.8	18.2	19.5
Other EU except Nordic Countries	16.9	21.4	19.9	49.2	54.0	52.4	33.8	24.6	27.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>14.0</b>	<b>21.9</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>51,6</b>	<b>62.6</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>34.4</b>	<b>15.5</b>	<b>20</b>

The disadvantage of the type of analysis made in Tables 6 and 7 is that we are not controlling any other variable, such as age, time spent in Sweden, level of education and years of employment in the organisation. We therefore have created a logistic regression model measuring the probability of different groups being in the highest income group. In the logistic regression we use the variables gender, age, level of education and number of years in Sweden. Unfortunately, data concerning length of employment in the organisation is lacking.

The results of the logistic regression are presented in full in Table A2 in the Appendix, where the log odds as well as the significance appear. The log odds are used to calculate the probability of different ‘standard people’ being part of the top income group.

*Table 8: Probability of belonging to the best paid 20 percent of the employees in the City administration, in percentages.*

<b>Women</b>	<b>30 year</b>	<b>50 year</b>	<b>difference</b>
University degree, born in Sweden.	9.6	67.1	57.6
University degree, born in the Nordic Countries, year of immigration 1980-1989	6.2	56	49.8
University degree, born in EU, year of immigration 1980-1989	8.5	64.2	55.7
University degree, born in Europe, year of immigration 1980-1989	4	44.4	40.5
University degree, born in North America, year of immigration 1980-1989	5.4	52.4	47
University degree, born in Latin America, year of immigration 1980-1989	2.5	33	30.5
University degree, born in Middle East, year of immigration 1980-1989	5.4	52.2	46.8
University degree, born in Asia, year of immigration 1980-1989	2.6	34	31.4
University degree, born in Africa, year of immigration 1980-1989	3.6	41.8	38.2
<b>Men</b>			
University degree, born in Sweden	13.9	51.5	37.6
University degree, born in the Nordic Countries, year of immigration 1980-1989	6.5	31.3	24.8
University degree, born in EU, year of immigration 1980-1989.	7.2	33.7	26.5
University degree, born in Europe, year of immigration 1980-1989.	2.6	14.8	12.2
University degree, born in North America, year of immigration 1980-1989.	2.4	14.9	12.5
University degree, born in Latin America, year of immigration 1980-1989.	1.9	11.1	9.3
University degree, born in Middle East, year of immigration 1980-1989.	3	16.7	13.7
University degree, born in Asia, year of immigration 1980-1989.	2.1	12.5	10.4
University degree, born in Africa, year of immigration 1980-1989.	1.8	10.8	9

In facilitating a logistic regression analysis we have been forced to add together country of birth into regions in order to reach significant results. An analysis that focuses on the separate country of birth is not possible due to the small number of employees born in each country. Furthermore, two separate regression models have been developed, for women and men respectively, because women and men are often employed in different sectors of the organisation. The logistic regression takes a number of variables into account that we could not account for in the measurements presented in Tables 6 and 7. The drawback of the logistic regression is precisely that we cannot be more specific than region of birth. Therefore, it can be said that logistic regression is better suited to large organisations, as smaller organisations will encounter greater difficulties in terms of significance.

Before presenting the different ‘types’ of people, we would like to briefly comment on the significance of the results. Significant results have been attained for age, level of education, born in Europe outside of the EU, born in Latin America, born in Asia, and the year of immigration for both women and men. In addition, the results are significant for men from the Middle East and Africa. The results for the other variables are not significant and should therefore be interpreted with caution. In the following presentation of the ‘types’ probabilities are indicated even though some of the results are not significant.

In Table 8, the probability of being in the top 20 percent with regard to income is shown by means of creating four ‘typical’ people from each region of origin, all with the same level of education but of different genders and ages. The last column of the table shows the difference in the probability of being part of the top 20 percent, depending on whether the person is thirty or fifty years of age.

Evidently, the probability of belonging to the 20 percent of employees that earn the most in the organisation is greater for fifty year old women than for men of the same age. It is also apparent that of people born in Sweden, both women and men have a vastly superior chance of being in the top income group – and this holds for both 30 year olds and 50 year olds. Besides individuals born in Sweden, the three groups with the highest probability are those born in the other Nordic countries and the EU – which this holds for both men and women. The groups with the lowest probability are those born in Latin America and Asia, and this also holds for both men and women.

The probability of being included in the top income group increases significantly with age. The difference for women born in Sweden is 57.6 percent, and the group closest to this is women born in EU

countries. This difference can be interpreted as an indicator of how income develops according to age, or, in other words, the higher the positive difference, the better the income development. The lowest differences, and therefore the worst income development, are for women born in Latin America and Asia, as well as men born in Latin America and Africa.

An important concluding comment is that the probability of people of foreign origin occupying the higher income groups would seem to be overrated. This is due to the fact that we have used Swedish education as a base for the logistic regression. Thus, our measurements in fact measure the effect of Swedish education on the probability of being included in the best paid 20 percent. In this regard the effect of Swedish education can be assumed to be greater than the effect of foreign education, therefore the probability of people of foreign origin occupying this group would seem to have been overestimated, as most people belonging to this group have a foreign education. (For a discussion on the value of Swedish and foreign education see Berggren & Omarsson, 2001).

#### *Connection to the Workplace*

The second part of the total dimension is the connection to the workplace. It is possible to divide the staff into two separate groups according to terms of contract, where people on fixed hourly rates make up the first group, and employees with other terms of contract make up the second group.

The first step of the analysis is to investigate the relative distribution in the respective groups with reference to gender and country of origin. The second step is to estimate the probabilities of being employed on a fixed hourly rate using a logistic regression model. In the analysis it is assumed that fixed hourly rate is a form of employment with the weakest connection to the organisation. However, the analysis does not show whether the individual is on an hourly rate by choice or necessity.

*Table 9: Weakest position at the work place. Country of birth and Gender (percent).*

Country of birth	Men	Women	Total
Sweden	9.9	10.2	10.1
Former Yugoslavia	21.1	23.3	22.7
Poland	15.6	14.2	14.3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	13.8	27.9	25.0
Iraq	11.1	17.7	15.0
Denmark	10.8	8.7	9.1
Iran	28.6	31.1	30.3
Lebanon	13.3	28.6	24.0
Hungary	4.2	12.6	10.8
Finland	4.5	7.2	6.9
Rumania	22.2	17.9	18.9
Chile	25.0	20.4	21.8
Germany	7.7	10.0	9.2
Somalia	20.0	54.8	41.2
Other Nordic Countries	19.0	10.8	12.8
Other EU except Nordic Countries	6.3	11.2	9.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>11.2</b>	<b>11.8</b>	<b>11.6</b>

Table 9 shows that 11.6 percent of the employees of the City administration are employed as temporary staff with a fixed hourly rate. The number is slightly higher for women than men. Looking at the gender distribution within each group, in five groups a greater number of men are employed as temporary staff on a fixed hourly rate as compared to women.

The number of Swedish born people on temporary contracts is only 10.1 percent, and only three groups have a lower number; these being people born in Denmark, Finland and the other EU countries. The groups with the highest number of temporary contracts with fixed hourly rates are those born in Somalia, Iran and Bosnia-Herzegovina. It is also worth noting that more than half of the women born in Somalia and employed by the City administration are on temporary contracts. Among the men, those born in Chile and Iran have the highest percentages.

It is interesting to note that data concerning connection to the workplace is scarce in the Swedish context. However, developments during the 1990s point to a change in the organisation of work in Sweden. Stretching things somewhat, the development points to work increasingly being organised according to the principle of a smaller core of permanently employed staff and a large number of people who

either work as volunteers or are forced into forms of employment that are more insecure than the classic permanent contract.

The factors that most often affect the probability of being on a temporary contract is age – the younger the person the higher the probability – as well as time spent in Sweden – the shorter the period the higher the probability (see Table A3 in the Appendix). ‘Types’ will be not examined here as they complicate the results insofar as it is possible that there is a certain degree of free choice, i.e. some individuals may choose to be on a temporary contract in order to complete their education or because they receive additional income from some other form of employment.

*The Role-Model Dimension*

The role-model dimension is one that shows whether the organisation includes role models for different groups. For example, it would be of interest to know how many superior positions in the City administration are occupied by people of Iraqi origin. Unfortunately, we are not in possession of such detailed information. Instead we have created a category that we refer to as the ‘income elite’, which consists of the 1,200 individuals in the organisation receiving the highest wages in the City administration organisation. The income elite can be assumed to include higher managerial positions, and also well-paid specialists and loyal long-term employees.

*Table 10: The income elite in comparison with the organisation as a whole. Gender. Number and Percent.*

Gender	The income elite		The organisation as a whole	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Men	609	50.7	5,243	23.9
Women	591	49.3	16,704	76.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,200</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>21,947</b>	<b>100</b>

In Table 10 it is seen that this group displays an even gender distribution, in spite of approximately three-quarters of the employees being women. For the men this means that around every tenth man is among the 1,200 highest earners - who earn between SEK 305,400 and SEK 880,700 per annum. Furthermore, it means that men are more likely to belong to the income elite than women.

*Table 11: The income elite in comparison with the organisation as a whole. Country of birth. Number and Percent.*

Country of birth	The income elite		The organisation as a whole	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Sweden	1,121	93.4	18,107	82.5
Former Yugoslavia	5	0.4	518	2.4
Poland	8	0.7	491	1.3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	1	0.1	284	1.3
Iraq	0	0.0	110	0.5
Denmark	7	0.6	198	0.9
Iran	6	0.5	223	1.0
Lebanon	1	0.1	54	0.2
Hungary	2	0.2	112	0.5
Finland	8	0.7	177	0.8
Rumania	4	0.3	112	0.5
Chile	0	0.0	166	0.8
Germany	10	0.8	110	0.5
Somalia	0	0.0	55	0.3
Other Nordic Countries	6	0.5	87	0.4
Other EU except Nordic Countries	9	0.8	191	0.9
Other	12	1.0	952	4.3
<i>Total Foreign born</i>	<i>79</i>	<i>6.6</i>	<i>3,840</i>	<i>17.5</i>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,200</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>21,947</b>	<b>100</b>

As we can see from Table 11, there is a disproportionate amount of people of Swedish origin in the income elite; only 6.6 percent are born in a country other than Sweden despite the fact that 17.5 percent of employees in the organisation as a whole are foreign born. The groups of people born in Iraq, Chile and Somalia do not have any representatives at all in this group.

In the regression model shown in Table 12 we take region of origin, age, gender, level of education and year of immigration into account.<sup>4</sup> In the regression analysis, one model has been created for women and one model for men. Those regions that are not represented among the managerial staff are excluded, that is Asia, Australia and Africa for women, and North America, Asia, Australia and Africa for men.

*Table 12: Probability of being in the income elite in the City administration, in percentages.*

Probability	Women	Men
University degree, 30 years, born in Sweden.	0.29	1.92
University degree, 50 years, born in Sweden.	8.14	46.16
University degree, 30 years, born in Nordic Countries, year of immigration 1980-1989	0.26	0.30
University degree, 50 years, born in Nordic Countries, year of immigration 1980-1989	7.15	11.59
University degree, 30 years, born in EU, year of immigration 1980-1989.	0.16	0.68
University degree, 50 years, born in EU, year of immigration 1980-1989	4.51	23.13
University degree, 30 years, born in Europe, year of immigration 1980-1989.	0.09	0.25
University degree, 50 years, born in Europe, year of immigration 1980-1989.	2.60	9.74
University degree, 30 years, born in North America, year of immigration 1980-1989.	0.23	-
University degree, 50 years, born in North America, year of immigration 1980-1989.	6.34	-
University degree, 30 years, born in Latin America, year of immigration 1980-1989.	0.09	0.09
University degree, 50 years, born in Latin America, year of immigration 1980-1989.	2.51	3.92
University degree, 30 years, born in Middle East, year of immigration 1980-1989.	0.12	0.25
University degree, 50 years, born in Middle East, year of immigration 1980-1989.	3.58	9.77

The regression yields interesting results. Despite the fact that the City administration is an organisation dominated by women, which implies that women ought to have a higher probability of belonging to the income elite, it is shown that women have a much lower probability of being part of the income elite compared to their male counterparts. The difference between men born in Sweden and women born in Sweden is almost 40 percent. Gender and age are the variables that affect this probability the most (see the Appendix, Table A4). As is shown in Table 12, a person aged 30 has a very low probability of being part of the organisation's income elite, while people aged 50 have a much higher probability. With the exception of men born in Sweden, the groups of 50 year olds with the highest probability are men born in the other Nordic countries and the EU countries. The other groups reach only a few percent. As already mentioned in the discussion about the best and worst paid, the education effect in the regression model would seem to be overrated for those born abroad.

### *The Services Dimension*

The Services Dimension concerns the organisation's (ethnic) adjustment to the population that the City administration provides with services, namely, childcare, education and care for the elderly. The purpose of calculating and discussing this dimension lies in the desire of both private and public organisations to have their staff structure reflect and match the structure of the population. The basis for this is the organisations' aim to make various economic and service based gains. In the databases that we have access to there is one weakness; we only have access to data relating to the workforce in the City and not the whole population, which means that there is a risk of bias in the measures - although we cannot determine in which direction.

*Table 13: Measure of service in childcare and kindergarten in five boroughs. Employed in the borough compared with the workforce in Malmö, 20 – 64 years.*

	Borough of Fosie	Borough of Rosengård	Borough of Södra Innerstaden	Borough of Västra Innerstaden	Borough of Limhamn-Bunkeflo
Sweden	0.2	-0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3
Former Yugoslavia	-0.5	0.7	-0.6	-0.7	-0.8
Poland	-0.1	0.6	0.0	-0.8	-0.4
Bosnia-Herzegovina	-0.6	0.2	-0.4	-1.0	-0.8
Iraq	-0.7	0.2	-0.6	-1.0	-1.0
Denmark	-0.7	-0.3	-0.6	-0.5	-0.4
Iran	-0.8	0.5	-0.2	-1.0	-0.3
Lebanon	-1.0	-0.1	-0.6	-0.6	-1.0
Hungary	0.0	-0.6	0.2	-1.0	-0.8
Finland	-0.4	-0.3	-0.3	-1.0	-0.8
Rumania	0.0	0.1	-0.1	-1.0	-1.0
Chile	0.3	0.4	1.0	-1.0	-0.7
Germany	-0.2	-1.0	-0.5	-1.0	-1.0
Somalia	-1.0	1.5	-1.0	-1.0	-1.0
Other Nordic Countries	-0.3	-1.0	-0.3	0.3	0.3
Other EU except Nordic Countries	-0.3	0.1	-0.6	-0.6	-1.0
<b>Total of foreign born</b>	<b>-0.5</b>	<b>0.3</b>	<b>-0.4</b>	<b>-0.8</b>	<b>-0.7</b>

The analysis will be executed on the level of city boroughs<sup>5</sup> in five selected boroughs, where each borough has its own particular characteristics, for example regarding the ethnic composition of the population. The boroughs of Fosie, Rosengård, Södra Innerstaden, Västra Innerstaden as well as Limhamn-Bunkeflo have been chosen. These boroughs constitute an east-west axis of the city, with Fosie and Rosengård as the eastern pole and Limhamn-Bunkeflo as the most westerly pole. Fosie and Rosengård are also two boroughs with a high proportion of people of foreign origin. Västra Innerstaden and Limhamn-Bunkeflo are the opposite, with a low percentage of people born abroad (for a more in-depth description of these boroughs, see Andersson et al. 2004 and Stigendal 1999).

Table 13 shows how well the employees in child- and kindergarten care reflect the representation of different groups in the population of the entire city. A negative number signifies an under-representation. A positive value means the opposite, and a zero result represents a perfect balance between employees and citizens in the city.

Child care and kindergarten in the borough of Fosie have an over-representation of employees born in Sweden and Chile. Employees born in Hungary and Rumania perfectly reflect the population. In total, Fosie has an under-representation of employees of foreign origin of  $-0.5$ . In Rosengård the numbers look slightly different, where employees born in Sweden are under-represented and nine groups are over-represented. In total, Rosengård has an over-representation of employees born abroad of  $0.3$ . In Södra Innerstaden we again see that employees born in Sweden are over-represented ( $0.2$ ). The groups of employees born in Hungary and Chile are also over-represented here, and in the case of Chile the over-representation is rather remarkable. Employees born in Poland perfectly match the group's number in the population. On the whole, Södra Innerstaden has an under-representation of staff born abroad of  $-0.4$ , with twelve groups being under-represented. Västra Innerstaden together with Limhamn-Bunkeflo have the strongest over-representation of people of Swedish origin in the organisation ( $0.3$ ). All other groups, except for people born in the other Nordic countries, are under-represented which gives a total under-representation in the organisation of people born abroad of  $-0.8$ , which are the worst figures in the childcare section. Limhamn-Bunkeflo shows the same pattern, with the exception that the total representation of people born abroad is lower in Limhamn-Bunkeflo than in Västra Innerstaden, at  $-0.7$ .

All in all, it can be concluded that there is an under-representation of people born abroad in all the boroughs with the exception of Rosengård. It is also noticeable that there is an almost complete lack of representation of people born abroad in Västra Innerstaden and Limhamn-Bunkeflo.

*Table 14: Measure of service in elementary school in five boroughs – Employed in the borough compared with the workforce in Malmö, 20 – 64 years.*

	Borough of Fosie	Borough of Rosengård	Borough of Södra Innerstaden	Borough of Västra Innerstaden	Borough of Limhamn-Bunkeflo
Sweden	0.2	-0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4
Former Yugoslavia	-0.7	0.4	-0.6	-0.9	-0.9
Poland	-0.4	0.2	-0.4	-0.9	-0.7
Bosnia-Herzegovina	-0.4	0.5	-1.0	-0.9	-1.0
Iraq	-0.9	0.6	-1.0	-1.0	-0.8
Denmark	-0.4	-0.6	-0.5	-0.6	-1.0
Iran	-0.6	0.1	-0.7	-0.8	-1.0
Lebanon	-0.8	0.1	-0.7	-1.0	-1.0
Hungary	-0.1	-0.4	-0.1	-0.2	-1.0
Finland	-0.1	0.3	0.5	-0.1	-1.0
Rumania	-0.3	-0.1	-0.4	-0.6	-1.0
Chile	-0.7	-0.1	1.9	-1.0	-1.0
Germany	-0.2	0.3	-0.3	-1.0	-0.3
Somalia	-0.5	2.3	-1.0	-1.0	-1.0
Other Nordic Countries	-0.3	0.5	0.0	-0.3	-1.0
Other EU except Nordic Countries	1.0	0.6	-0.4	-0.3	-0.5
<b>Total of foreign born</b>	<b>-0.4</b>	<b>0.4</b>	<b>-0.5</b>	<b>-0.8</b>	<b>-0.9</b>

The pattern shown in the childcare section largely repeats itself in the primary and secondary school (Table 14). Rosengård is the only borough that shows an over-representation of employees born abroad. In the other boroughs all the groups of foreign origin are under-represented, except for those born in the EU countries in Fosie and the other Nordic countries, Chile and Finland in Södra Innerstaden. Again, Västra Innerstaden and Limhamn-Bunkeflo indicate a pattern where people born abroad are hardly represented and many groups are not represented at all. Interestingly, the group of employees born in Somalia is highly over-represented in Rosengård.<sup>6</sup>

*Table 15: Measure of service in health- and elderly care in five boroughs – Employed in the borough compared with the workforce in Malmö, 20 – 64 years.*

	Borough of Fosie	Borough of Rosengård	Borough of Södra Innerstaden	Borough of Västra Innerstaden	Borough of Limhamn-Bunkeflo
Sweden	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Former Yugoslavia	-0.3	-0.4	-0.6	-0.6	-0.6
Poland	0.2	1.1	-0.1	0.4	0.3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	-0.1	-0.3	-0.1	-0.3	-0.9
Iraq	-1.0	-0.8	-0.9	-1.0	-0.9
Denmark	-0.4	-0.3	0.1	-0.2	0.0
Iran	-0.2	-0.7	0.3	-0.2	-0.6
Lebanon	-0.7	-1.0	-1.0	-1.0	-1.0
Hungary	-0.3	-1.0	-0.3	-0.1	-0.4
Finland	1.1	0.5	0.6	1.0	0.5
Rumania	-0.7	0.7	-0.1	-0.6	-0.3
Chile	0.6	1.3	0.9	0.6	0.7
Germany	-0.7	-0.3	-0.2	0.3	-0.7
Somalia	-0.5	-1.0	-1.0	-0.8	-1.0
Other Nordic Countries	-0.5	1.0	-0.5	-0.3	0.3
Other EU except Nordic Countries	-0.7	-0.4	-0.2	-0.3	-0.6
<b>Total of foreign born</b>	<b>-0.3</b>	<b>-0.2</b>	<b>-0.3</b>	<b>-0.3</b>	<b>-0.8</b>

Looking at healthcare and nursing, the pattern observed in Table 15 is a little different. Here all boroughs have an under-representation of employees born abroad. To some extent the earlier pattern repeats itself insofar as that the under-representation of employees born abroad is most pronounced in Limhamn-Bunkeflo and the least in Rosengård. Västra Innerstaden shows better figures than for both childcare and the primary and secondary school. Employees born in Sweden are over-represented in all boroughs, but to a lesser extent than in childcare and the primary and secondary school. Interestingly, employees born in Chile and Finland are over-represented in all boroughs, as are employees born in Poland in all boroughs except for Södra Innerstaden. Moreover, people from Bosnia-Herzegovina, Lebanon, Hungary, Somalia and other EU countries are under-represented in all boroughs.

## **Concluding Discussion**

In the introduction to this article we described the importance of developing (quantitative) organisational tools for measuring diversity, and we have tried to illustrate that in the article. This concluding section discusses the indicators themselves, as well as the result of the measurements.

The Total Dimension is the first indicator to be developed and discussed. This dimension can be said to measure both the horizontal and vertical representation of different groups in the organisation. In this article we have focused on the vertical aspect when measuring the representation of different groups with regard to income. The first two measurements, which are presented in Tables 6 and 7, deal with the median and maximum income for different groups, as well as the distribution within the groups regarding high, mid and low incomes. These measurements give a quick and comprehensive picture of the organisation's situation at that particular time. Unfortunately they do not account for variables such as education, year of immigration or age, and therefore can hardly be said to be self-sufficient. For this reason we have gone further and developed yet another measurement, namely, the probability of being in the best paid 20 percent of the organisation.

The probability has been computed by means of a logistic regression model. In order to obtain significant results from the model we were forced to abandon the national level and instead focus on a regional level. By using a regression model we may have lost the richness of detail, but have gained in our control of many variables. While each individual income measurement may be flawed, together they form an adequate tool with which to form an idea of the organisation's vertical representation.

The second part of the Total Dimension consists of a connection to the workplace. Here our material has forced us to separate employment based on a fixed hourly rate from other forms of employment. This indicator works best if the division of forms of employment can separate more than these two categories, for example, project, substitute and other employment forms. If this had been possible we would have achieved a more detailed idea of the connection of different groups to the workplace. However, there are some interpretational problems with this indicator, as we do not possess information regarding the reasons for working on an hourly rate.

For the Total Dimension, both ethnicity and gender play a role in the level of income and the connection to the workplace. Those born abroad, and also women, have a lesser degree of representation at

the highest income levels. Conversely, those born in Sweden, and also men, are better represented at the highest income levels. However, it is shown that the probability of being among the best paid 20 percent is greater for women than for men of the same age. Moreover, it is apparent that this probability is higher for people born in Sweden, the Nordic countries and the EU countries in comparison to other countries of origin. In looking at the connection to the workplace, women have less of a connection to the workplace when compared to men in most of the groups, inasmuch as women are employed on a temporary basis to a much higher degree than men. In addition, people born in Sweden, the Nordic countries and the EU countries have a much stronger connection to the work place in comparison to other countries. Somalia is the group that stands out, as almost half of all Somali employees are hired on a temporary basis; a number that far exceeds that of any other group.

The Role-model Dimension measures whether different groups can find representatives in the top layer of the organisation. In this article we have created a group consisting of the 1,200 people who earn the most in the organisation i.e. the income elite. It is assumed that people from different groups who are part of the income elite can function as role-models and thus empower other people from the same group by showing them that a career in the organisation is possible. There are two problems with this dimension, one being technical, and the other interpretational.

The technical problem is the same as that discussed in connection with the logistic regression i.e. in order to get significant results we must abandon the national level for the regional, and by doing so lose much of the detail of the indicator. The interpretational problem concerns how to interpret role-models, or decide who is whose role-model. In this article we have chosen to interpret role-model as something that exists in every group. However, role-modelling can also be interpreted as the organisation being a role-model for other organisations. It is thus important to contemplate how to interpret the concept of role-model when using the role-model indicator.

The results of the analysis of the Role-model Dimension can be summed up as three conclusions. Firstly, the distribution of gender in the income elite is relatively even in terms of numbers. Secondly, the probability of a man reaching the income elite category is four times as high as for a woman. Finally, the organisation is mainly dominated by women. This naturally raises some questions concerning the meaning of the equality concept. In spite of almost three-quarters of the employees of the organisation being women, only half of those we

refer to as the income elite are female. Furthermore, the income elite is also a group largely dominated by people born in Sweden; only 79 out of 1,200 were of foreign origin. The conclusion drawn from this is that the City administration not an 'equal' organisation, but has a definite ceiling, which, even though this is high, prevents women from attaining the higher salaries. This ceiling also affects those born abroad. From the analysis of the Role Model Dimension, and pushed to its logical conclusion, can it be concluded that the two most important 'competencies' rewarded in the City administration's organisation are 'maleness' and 'Swedishness'?

The third and last indicator both constructed and discussed in this article is the Services Dimension. This dimension measures the "diversity sensitivity" applied in the distribution of resources between different groups in the organisation. The dimension measures the relationship between employees of the City of Malmö and the population. In effect, the dimension consists of a measurement that can yield positive or negative values for each group. A negative value shows that there are "too few" employees from that group in relation to how many people live in the city. A positive value corresponds to there being "too many" employed in relation to the number of people from that specific group who reside in Malmö. Zero means that the number of employees from a group "perfectly" matches the number of people from that group who live in the city.

As pointed out in the above discussion there are problems linked to this dimension. These problems exist at a theoretical as well as a practical level. That is not to say that it is necessarily wrong to use such a tool, however, but rather that from a quantitative perspective it may lead to practical difficulties. The first issue with such an approach can be said to concern the categorisation one is forced to make in the Services Dimension. The statistics are not based on ethnicity but country of birth, and thus we encounter the problem of defining "ethnicity". Is it something one has, is or does? Is one born with ethnicity? Does one earn ethnicity throughout life or do people create ethnicity in their interactions with each other? In addition to such quandaries other problems are also created when the instrument is used carelessly. Such problems relate to anonymity and the stigmatisation and ethnification of individuals and groups.

However, in spite of the problems inherent in the Services Dimension we can point to several interesting results. Three out of five of the boroughs studied stand out from the others: Rosengård, Västra Innerstaden and Limhamn-Bunkeflo; Rosengård on account of having more employees of foreign origin than average, and Västra

Innerstaden and Limhamn-Bunkeflo on account of having little or no staff of foreign origin.

In this way the boroughs reflect the eastern-western segregation of the city's population. However, neither the eastern nor western poles succeed in reflecting the city's aim to reflect the population as stated in the City administration's Plan for Diversity. It must be pointed out that the low number of staff born abroad in Limhamn-Bunkeflo and Västra Innerstaden is remarkable and must be seen as, to say the least, problematic in relation to the 'Plan for Diversity'.

In conclusion, our analysis shows that most groups of people born abroad, and also women, have a negatively distributed representation as they have both lower income levels and a weaker connection to the workplace. Furthermore, and to a lesser extent than men, women have role models, or, in other words, representatives in the income elite. In our analyses the staff's ethnic (and gender) distribution is rather distorted, which indicates a misdistribution of diversity.

As a last point it is worth noting that when the analysis is conducted on a group some contradictory results may occur. One example is the group born in Somalia, which at an overarching organisational level shows a perfect representation for men and an under-representation for women. At the same time, the Somali group is one of the groups with the highest number of people on a fixed hourly rate, especially Somali women, half of whom are employed in this way. This means that it is possible to receive rather complex and partly contradictory results when using quantitative indicators of diversity.

#### *More Like Packaging – final reflections*

As has been illustrated, one can question a concept of services that builds on ethnic representation. A possible interpretation of representation is that it means something different; that this representation has another purpose. Another possible interpretation is that it is merely a fad; a fashionable usage of the concept of diversity that suits a globalised age and is an adjustment to increased migration and a business-like (ab)use of additional groups of people as market possibilities. A third interpretation starts from the metaphor of packaging. The purpose of packaging is to facilitate the handling and distribution of a product or goods. Furthermore, the purpose is to give information and create an identity for these goods, as well as guaranteeing the goods' original qualities. This can be applied to the above services discourse. When seen as packaging, a clear purpose emerges with the connection of diversity – services – ethnic representation as a way of informing the surrounding society that the organisation is the 'good organisation'.

The organisation takes responsibility for all its employees, and the old majority group can rely on the fact that services are retained at the same time as new minorities are allowed to confirm a new identity of diversity for the organisation.

The packaging concept correlates well with the aim of the organisation: that staff should reflect the population and set a good example to society concerning diversity. The quantitative presentation of different representative dimensions of diversity constitutes a kind of package, without showing more closely what quality the organisation achieves in its services for different citizens, or for that matter, how much space the organisation provides for cultural diversity. The misdistribution of diversity of the organisation, as the quantitative analysis above has shown, can be taken as a token that it is making an effort, but has not reached the final destination – at least not yet.

Is it then at all fruitful to speak of diversity in terms of organisational representation and services, in other words of quantitative diversity (or ‘head counts’)? There is no simple answer to this. Rather than providing answers, the aim of this quantitative and critical discussion of organisational goals and measurements is to partly show the function of ‘head counts’, and partly to illustrate the complex discourse on services. We would like to point out that in research as well as in policy setting it is important to go beyond the ‘head count discourse’ and emphasise the importance of acquiring a deeper understanding of the processes of differentiation in organisations.

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## NOTES

- <sup>1</sup> These three dimensions are developed from ideas presented in an earlier version of the article “Quantitative Statistical and Dynamic Indicators of Diversity” (Broomé et al. 2003).
- <sup>2</sup> This group includes people born in Bermuda, Botswana, Burkina Faso, the Dominican Republic, Grenada, Myanmar, North Korea, Oman, Papua New Guinea, the Seychelles, Surinam, Tadjikistan, West-Sahara, the Cape Verde, Mali, Moldavia, Qatar, Djibouti, Dominica, Georgia, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Honduras, Malta, Mauritania, Mozambique, Nepal, South Yemen, Turkmenistan, Barbados, Fiji, Kirgizstan, Congo, Luxembourg, Namibia, Kazakhstan, Malawi, Madagascar, Angola, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Costa Rica, Mauritius, Haiti, Nicaragua, Uzbekistan, Yemen, Zimbabwe, Bahrain and Jamaica.
- <sup>3</sup> In this paper, (SOU 1999:21) the focus was on people with a handicap, although we argue that the conclusions are relevant for our presentation of services, diversity and representation.
- <sup>4</sup> The log odds and significance values are found in Table A3 in the Appendix.
- <sup>5</sup> The analysis may, of course, also be made on the organisation as a whole, as in an earlier article (see Broomé et al. 2003).
- <sup>6</sup> One reason for the numbers given for Rosengård is that there are about 180 city-wide positions within primary and secondary schools, and to some extent, within day-care and kindergartens. People of foreign origin hold all these positions. We have chosen to not take this into consideration, as they were in fact employed by the Borough Council of Rosengård. The reason for this is unknown to us, but one reason may be that the borough had the required personnel.

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## APPENDIX

*Table A1: Population in Malmö and Employed in the City administration by country of birth. (Empty cells indicate that nobody is included in this category, while cells marked with - indicate that less than 10 people are included in this category.)*

	Population in Malmö	Employed in the City administration
<b>Selected Countries</b>		
Sweden	112 206	18 107
Former Yugoslavia	6 743	518
Poland	4 207	491
Bosnia-Hercegovina	3 692	284
Iraq	3 520	110
Denmark	2 632	198
Iran	2 204	223
Lebanon	2 202	54
Hungary	1 412	112
Finland	1 280	177
Rumania	1 107	112
Chile	1 085	166
Germany	894	110
Somalia	553	55
<b>Other Nordic Countries</b>		
Iceland	218	33
Norway	444	54
<i>Total</i>	662	87
<b>Other EU Except Nordic countries</b>		
France	203	11
Greece	452	30
Ireland	47	-
Italy	299	20
Luxemburg	-	-
Netherlands	108	12
Portugal	273	17
Spain	158	22
Great Britain	513	53
Austria	168	19
<i>Total</i>	2 225	191

<b>Other Europe</b>		
Albania	42	-
Belgium	24	-
Bulgaria	345	33
Cyprus	40	-
Estonia	52	-
Croatia	522	50
Latvia	36	-
Lithuania	23	-
Macedonia	544	44
Malta	-	-
Moldavia	-	-
Russia	144	16
Schwizerland	56	-
Slovakia	33	-
Slovenia	51	-
Soviet Union	270	25
Czech Republic	25	-
Czechoslovakia	530	38
Ukraine	50	-
Belarus	18	-
<i>Total</i>	<i>2 810</i>	<i>238</i>
<b>North America</b>		
Canada	61	-
USA	347	21
<i>Total</i>	<i>408</i>	<i>24</i>
<b>Other Latin America</b>		
Argentina	140	14
Barbados	-	-
Bermuda	-	-
Bolivia	239	70
Brazil	119	10
Colombia	155	24
Costa Rica	-	-
Dominica	-	-
Dominican Republic	-	-
Ecuador	32	-
El Salvador	42	-
Grenada	-	-
Guatemala	18	-

Guyana	-	
Haiti	-	-
Honduras	-	
Jamica	-	
Cuba	32	-
Mexico	27	-
Nicaragua	-	-
Panama	13	-
Peru	144	19
Surinam	-	
Trinidad	11	-
Uruguay	267	46
Venezuela	26	
<i>Total</i>	<i>1 312</i>	<i>221</i>
<b>Other Middle East</b>		
The United Arab Emirates	34	-
Bahrain	-	
Gazaq	-	
Israel	105	10
Jordania	118	10
Kuwait	127	-
Oman	-	
Palestine	134	-
Qatar	-	
Saudi Arabia	95	
South Yemen	-	
Syria	252	-
Turkey	762	43
West Bank	-	
Yemen	-	
<i>Total</i>	<i>1 651</i>	<i>77</i>
<b>Other Asia</b>		
Afghanistan	610	55
Armenia	-	
Azerbaijan	-	
Bangladesh	75	-
Philippines	229	31
Georgia	-	
Hong Kong	18	-
India	275	40

Indonesia	51	-
Japan	77	-
Cambodia	65	
Kazakhstan	-	
China	253	
Kyrgyzstan	-	
North Korea	-	
South Korea	165	16
Laos	19	-
Malaysia	32	-
Nepal	-	-
Pakistan	184	14
Singapore	28	-
Sri Lanka	87	-
Tajikistan	-	
Taiwan	34	-
Thailand	293	13
Turkmenistan	-	
Uzbekistan	-	
Vietnam	506	12
The Republic of Vietnam	366	17
<i>Total</i>	3 408	233
<b>Australia &amp; Oceania</b>		
Australia	96	-
Fiji	-	
Myanmar	-	
New Zealand	31	-
Papua new Guinea	-	
<i>Total</i>	133	4
<b>Other Africa</b>		
Algeria	124	16
Angola	-	-
The Arab Republic of Egypt	44	-
Botswana	-	
Burkina Faso	-	
Djibouti	-	
Egypt	78	-
Ivory Coast	36	-
Eritrea	43	-
Ethiopia	257	32

Gambia	116	18
Ghana	148	-
Guinea-Bissau	-	
Guinea	15	-
Cameroon	10	-
Cap Verde	-	
Kenya	32	-
Congo	-	
the Democratic republic of Congo	20	-
Liberia	25	-
Libya	27	-
Madagascar	-	-
Malawi	-	
Mali	-	
Morocco	142	14
Mauritania	-	
Mauritius	-	
Mozambique	-	
Namibia	-	
Nigeria	45	-
Senegal	13	-
Seychelles	-	-
Sierra Leone	12	
Sudan	34	-
South Africa	40	-
Tanzania	22	-
Togo	14	-
Tunisia	99	-
Uganda	51	-
Western Sahara	-	-
Zambia	11	
Zimbabwe	-	
<i>Total</i>	<i>1 518</i>	<i>148</i>
<b>Unknown</b>		
Unknown	-	
Stateless	-	-
<i>Total</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>1</i>

*Table A2: Result from logistic regression. Income, Highest 20%.*

Variables	Men		Women	
	Log odds	Significance	Log odds	Significance
Age	0.414	0	0.388	0
Age <sup>2</sup>	-0.004	0	-0.003	0
Primary education	-0.736	0	-0.953	0
University education	1.179	0	2.651	0
Nordic countries	-0.472	0.105	-0.306	0.075
EU except Nordic countries	-0.365	0.148	0.038	0.861
Europe except EU	-1.44	0	-0.771	0
North America	-1.507	0.075	-0.453	0.531
Latin America	-1.764	0	-1.254	0
Middle east	-1.293	0	-0.46	0.105
Asia	-1.633	0.004	-1.21	0.004
Africa	-1.794	0	-0.88	0.121
Year of immigration 1990-2001	-0.794	0.001	-0.674	0
Year of immigration 1980-1989	-0.374	0.12	-0.169	0.289
Year of immigration 1970-1979	-0.092	0.698	0.123	0.386
Constant	-11.819	0	-13.835	0
N	5,240		16,702	

Reference categories are secondary education, Born in Sweden and Year of immigration 1969 or earlier.

*Table A3: Result logistic regression weakest position at the work place with temporary posts.*

Variables	Men		Women	
	Log odds	Significance	Variables	Log odds
Age	-0.422	0	-0.427	0
Age <sup>2</sup>	0.004	0	0.004	0
Primary education	0.156	0.352	0.533	0
University education	-0.254	0.014	-0.096	0.094
Nordic countries	-0.172	0.702	0.243	0.257
EU except Nordic countries	-0.567	0.214	0.225	0.403
Europe except EU	-0.59	0.045	0.396	0.009
North America	-0.565	0.618	-18.445	0.999
Latin America	0.091	0.804	0.463	0.037
Middle east	0.29	0.376	0.777	0
Asia	-0.499	0.273	0.593	0.012
Australia and Oceania	0.897	0.489	-20.146	1
Africa	0.037	0.924	0.866	0.001
Year of immigration 1990-2001	1.282	0	0.982	0
Year of immigration 1980-1989	1.057	0	0.46	0.004
Year of immigration 1970-1979	0.67	0.05	0.105	0.568
Constant	7.28	0	7.183	0
<b>N</b>	<b>5,243</b>		<b>16,704</b>	

Reference categories are secondary education, Born in Sweden and Year of immigration 1969 or earlier.

*Table A4: Result from Logistic regression, The income elite.*

Variables	Women		Men	
	Log odds	Significance	Variables	Log odds
Age	0.65	0	0.589	0
Age <sup>2</sup>	-0.006	0	-0.005	0
Primary education	-1.903	0.063	-1.341	0
University education	3.222	0	1.527	0
Nordic countries	0.076	0.78	-1.232	0.053
EU except Nordic countries	-0.413	0.346	-0.401	0.261
Europe except EU	-0.984	0.001	-1.427	0
North America	-0.052	0.961	-	-
Latin America	-1.018	0.1	-2.4	0.024
Middle east	-0.654	0.306	-1.423	0.018
Year of immigration 1990-2001	-0.075	0.82	-1.099	0.019
Year of immigration 1980-1989	-0.217	0.492	-0.646	0.144
Year of immigration 1970-1979	-0.374	0.175	-0.266	0.531
Constant	-23.145	0	-18.631	0
N	16,396		5,093	

Reference categories are secondary education, Born in Sweden and Year of immigration 1969 or earlier.

# KVANTITATIVA MÅNGFALDSINDIKATORER: INNEHÅLLSFÖRTECKNING ELLER PAKETERING?

## Sammanfattning

Syftet med denna studie är att utveckla och problematisera kvantitativa mått på mångfald samt att kritiskt reflektera över sådana måtts betydelse.

Mångfald kan ha både kvalitativa och kvantitativa betydelser, här är det den kvantitativa aspekten - antal personer med utländsk bakgrund i förhållande till de med svensk bakgrund - som står i fokus. Den kvantitativa betydelsen av mångfald kan förstås i strukturella termer i form av ekonomiska förklaringsmodeller för t ex segregation på arbetsmarknaden. Denna strukturella förståelse innebär att vi räknar personer som vi kategoriserar på olika sätt. Om den kvantitativa förståelsen fokuserar på struktur kan den kvalitativa sägas fokusera på process. Struktur är alltså utgångspunkten för studien vars syfte är att utveckla och problematisera kvantitativa mått på mångfald i organisationer samt att reflektera över betydelsen av dessa mått, vilket görs genom att vi testar olika mångfalddimensioner på Malmö stads administrativa organisation.

Kvantitativa mått är oftast resultatanalyser och de är relaterade till mångfalldsmål i organisationer. Malmö stad har tre relevanta mångfalldsmål som är av analytiskt intresse för oss. För det första ska Malmö stads organisation som helhet avspegla stadens befolkning, för det andra ska organisationen vara en förebild inom mångfalldsarbete och för det tredje ska Malmö stads service ändras så att den passar befolkningen i staden. Ändras befolkningens sammansättning och servicebehov så ska organisationen ändras därefter. Utifrån dessa tre mångfalldsmål utvecklar vi i studien tre kvantitativa dimensioner eller mått på mångfald – *totaldimensionen*, *förebildsdimensionen* och *servicedimensionen*.

För att kunna testa dessa mått på Malmö stads organisation använder vi oss av data över Malmö stads befolkning i åldern mellan 20 och 64 år som vi hämtat från SCB:s databas LOUISE gällande för 2001. Dessa har sedan samkörts med data över anställda i Malmö stads organisation. På detta sätt har vi fått en för syftet användbar databas. De metoder vi använder i studien är förutom enkla korstabuleringar också logistiska regressionsmodeller.

*Totaldimensionen* mäter horisontell och vertikal representation i organisationen. Dimensionen innehåller mått på inkomstskillnader mellan olika grupper såväl som skillnader i anknytning till arbetsplatsen, d v s andelar med fast anställning, timvikarier o s v. När det gäller *totaldimensionen* så spelar både etnicitet och kön en viktig roll för både inkomstnivån och kopplingen till arbetsplatsen. Utrikes födda är i mindre utsträckning representerade i de högre inkomstskikten samtidigt som inrikes födda är överrepresenterade i de övre inkomstskikten. Det är också så att sannolikheten för kvinnor att ingå bland de bäst betalda 20 procenten är högre jämfört med män i samma ålder, något som också gäller för inrikes födda, personer födda i de nordiska länderna samt i EU jämfört med andra länder. När det gäller kopplingen till arbetsplatsen så har kvinnor en lösare koppling till arbetsplatsen, de arbetar som timanställda oftare än män. Vi kan också se att inrikes födda, personer födda i de nordiska länderna samt i EU har en bättre koppling jämfört med andra länder.

*Förebildsdimensionen* mäter i vilken utsträckning som olika grupper kan finna förebilder i organisationen. Detta mäts genom att räkna ut sannolikheter för personer ur olika grupper att inneha specifika positioner samt att uppnå en viss professionell nivå i organisationen. I denna studie mäter vi sannolikheten för personer ur olika grupper att ingå i inkomsteliten, d v s det högst betalda skiktet i organisationen.

Av analysen av *förebildsdimensionen* kan vi dra två slutsatser. Först och främst är organisationen som helhet dominerad av kvinnor; två tredjedelar av alla anställda är kvinnor men bara hälften i inkomsteliten är kvinnor. För det andra är inkomsteliten i mycket hög grad dominerad av inrikes födda, endast 6 procent är utrikes födda. Slutsatsen som dras i studien är att två "kompetenser" som premieras av organisationen är "manligt kön" och "svenskhet".

*Servicedimensionen* mäter hur väl organisationen – både delar av organisationen (t ex olika stadsdelar) och som helhet – avspeglar eller representerar stadens befolkning. Detta mäts genom att antalet personer ur en viss grupp i organisationen relateras till antalet personer i gruppen i stadens befolkning. *Servicedimensionen* kan sägas mäta någon form av "mångfaldskänslighet" i organisationen.

De slutsatser som vi drar i analysen av *servicedimensionen* är för det första att tre av de fem studerade stadsdelarna sticker ut från de andra: Rosengård, Västra Innerstaden samt Limhamn – Bunkeflo. Rosengård har en mycket högre andel utrikes födda anställda än de övriga, medan i Västra Innerstaden och Limhamn – Bunkeflo arbetar bara få eller ingen utrikes född personal. På detta sätt kan man säga att stadsdelarnas organisation visar på samma öst-västliga segre-

gation som finns i staden i övrigt. I Limhamn – Bunkeflo och Västra Innerstaden är andelen anställda som är födda utomlands så låg att det måste ses som problematiskt, inte minst i förhållande till Malmö stads mångfaldsplan.



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