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Contours of Workplace Antisemitism: Initial Thoughts and a Research Agenda

In the context of the rising tide of antisemitism worldwide, we wish to draw the contours of workplace organizational antisemitism, a hitherto ignored topic in contemporary scholarship, by presenting a framework for its study. In particular, we propose an interdisciplinary understanding of antisemitism in the workplace, drawing on theories and evidence from economics, management, and business. To contextually embed our propositions, we focus our discussion on two countries: Germany and Austria. We argue that given the deep-rooted, widespread antisemitic attitudes prevalent in both countries—in spite of their miniscule Jewish populations—it would be prudent for organizations and the people who work in them to be aware of and concerned with antisemitism. We offer two theoretical lenses explicating the underlying motivation for antisemitic conduct—primed goal pursuits (Goal Setting Theory) and mortality salience instigation and/or perceived violation of key worldview precepts (Terror Management Theory). These theories provide the dynamic element for our model on its four currents: Jewish “presence” (real and imaginary), implicit discrimination, Jewish identity, and grassroots cultural antisemitism. Highlighting selective issues of relevance to organizations and management, we end with suggestions for a research agenda.

Introduction

Jew-hatred and anti-Jewish sentiment in Europe, the USA, and numerous other geographies over the past two decades, suggest the existence of a global trend of antisemitism.¹ Barely two generations after the Shoah, at a time when the last Holocaust victims and their perpetrators can still bear personal witness, antisemitism is widespread and not diminishing. This situation confronts us with “[t]he riddle of antisemitism—its longevity and virulence, its seemingly endless

Note: We would like to thank Dr. Richie Zweigenhaft and Dr. Guy Itzchakov for their helpful comments on this manuscript.

1 Cf. I. Cotler, *Global Antisemitism: Assault on Human Rights* (Yale: Yale University Press, 2009), and L. Rensmann, “The Contemporary Globalization of Political Antisemitism: Three Political Spaces and the Global Mainstreaming of the ‘Jewish Question’ in the Twenty-First Century,” *Journal of Contemporary Antisemitism* 3, no. 1 (2020): 83–108.

capacity for renewal and reinvention.”² It also draws our attention to a knowledge deficit in contemporary academia.

Business and management studies, which became major academic disciplines in the second half of the twentieth century and continue to grow in importance and influence in the twenty-first century, are, with very few exceptions, conspicuous in their absence from the academic discourse on contemporary antisemitism. The same is true of the discipline of economics. Given the “popularity” of antisemitism and the ongoing debate about jobs for natives as against non-natives,³ this ignorance is perplexing. Thus we know next to nothing about antisemitism in contemporary work organizations. A critical reflection on the reasons for this gap may be long overdue, but it is beyond the scope of the present contribution. Here we wish instead to draw the main contours for an understanding and study of present-day antisemitism in the workplace.

Whilst antisemitism throughout history has been present in all corners of the globe and continues to be so in a globalised world,⁴ the risk of overgeneralization of a complex, deep-rooted, and widespread phenomenon is a trap of which to beware.⁵ We therefore follow good practice in our respective disciplines,⁶ drawing on contemporary research in these fields to develop an understanding relevant to antisemitism at work. We situate our discourse within two geographies that have been historically among the main drivers of antisemitism as societal and cultural phenomena—as well as core players in the Shoah and its aftermath—Germany and Austria.

2 M. Baumgarten, P. Kenez, and B. A. Thompson, eds., *Varieties of Antisemitism: History, Ideology, Discourse* (Newark: University of Delaware Press, 2009), 15.

3 This debate has held centre stage in the far-right rhetoric post World War II in, among others, Germany and Austria, with slogans such as “Deutschland zuerst, Österreich zuerst” (respectively: “Germany first, Austria first,” cf. J. E. Richardson and R. Wodak, “Recontextualising Fascist Ideologies of the Past: Right-wing Discourses on Employment and Nativism in Austria and the United Kingdom,” *Critical Discourse Studies* 6, no. 4 [2009]: 251–67) with reference to the DVU and AfD in Germany and the FPÖ in Austria—political movements with a virulent anti-Jewish history.

4 Cf. G. Rickman, *Hating the Jews: The Rise of Antisemitism in the 21st Century* (Brighton: Academic Studies Press, 2012).

5 Cf. H. Beyer, “The Globalization of Resentment: Antisemitism in an Inter- and Transnational Context,” *Social Science Quarterly* 100, no. 5 (2019): 1503–22.

6 Cf. G. Johns, “The Essential Impact of Context on Organizational Behavior,” *Academy of Management Review* 31, no. 2 (2006): 386–408; and W. Mayrhofer et al., “Context and HRM: Theory, Evidence, and Proposals,” *International Studies of Management & Organization* 49, no. 4 (2019): 355–71, and idem, “Laying the Foundations of International Careers Research,” *Human Resource Management Journal* 30, no. 3 (2020): 327–42.

Antisemitic Currents Pertinent to the Workplace and Organizations

We identify four currents in our conceptual model of workplace antisemitism. These are:

- “Antisemitism without Jews” in contemporary Germany and Austria
- Implicit and explicit anti-Jewish discrimination in the workplace
- The existential ontology of being a Jew in a post-Holocaust gentile world
- Antisemitism as a widespread grassroots cultural phenomenon

Jews in Germany and Austria

Formerly at the mainstream as well as avant-garde of its civic institutions and national culture, German and Austrian Jewry today are but a pale shadow of their formidable past, notably in the capital metropolises of Berlin and Vienna. Despite counting a minuscule 0.14 % of the population in Germany⁷ and 0.1 % in Austria,⁸ at least 2,275 antisemitic hate crimes were registered in 2020 in Germany, 55 of which were classified as violent—a 60 % increase from the previous year.⁹ Similarly, incidents in Austria in 2020 “rose to the highest level since the Jewish community’s official records began 19 years ago,” recording 585 incidents.¹⁰

Antisemitism as a generalised anti-Jewish attitude (whether against Jews as individuals, Jews as a collective, or “Jews” as an abstract concept) has been and continues to be widespread. In the early 1980s, Marin and Bunzl estimated that 75 % of Austrians “express at least some antisemitic attitudes,”¹¹ with the rest holding strong or very strong anti-Jewish views. The latest study, based on a representative sample of the adult population in Austria, puts 31 % of Austrians agreeing with the statement that “most Jews are exceptionally intelligent and

7 Cf. S. DellaPergola, “World Jewish Population 2018,” in *American Jewish Year Book* 118, ed. A. B. Dashefsky and I. M. Sheskin (Dordrecht: Springer, 2018), 361–449.

8 Cf. L. D. Staetsky and S. DellaPergola, *Jews in Austria: A Demographic and Social Portrait* (London: Institute of Jewish Policy Research, 2020).

9 Cf. “Germany Sees Spike in anti-Semitic Crimes,” *Deutsche Welle*, February 11, 2021, <https://www.dw.com/en/germany-sees-spike-in-anti-semitic-crimes-reports/a-56537178>.

10 Cf. “Austrian anti-Semitism Incidents Hit Record in 2020,” *Reuters*, April 26, 2021, <https://www.reuters.com/world/europe/austrian-anti-semitism-incidents-hit-record-2020-report-says-2021-04-26/>.

11 B. Marin and J. Bunzl, *Antisemitismus in Österreich: Sozialhistorische und soziologische Studien* (Innsbruck: Inn-Verlag, 1983), 178.

wealthy” and that they “dominate the international business world” (26%).¹² Both statements are of relevance to the world of work. Of significance too are the large numbers of respondents who do not offer an opinion—35% on the first statement and 24% on the second, which may indicate reluctance to voice an antisemitic view (see Research Agenda below). A 2019 survey in Germany reports similar results.¹³ Both countries have active right-wing parties, with proto-fascist ideologies. The AfD in Germany and the FPÖ in Austria attract a significant following, their messages heavily impregnated with antisemitic tropes and innuendo.¹⁴

Given their insignificant demographic presence, and with the exception of the Haredi community (who are highly visible in their traditional attire¹⁵), Jews are practically indistinguishable from the general population; hence the persistence of active antisemitism manifested in anti-Jewish incidents and passive antisemitism reflected in opinion surveys, is puzzling. Of note here is the persistent belief in one’s ability to supposedly recognize someone as Jewish—a recurrent antisemitic trope. In the latest Austrian public opinion poll, 9% of respondents were confident that “when I meet someone, I know within a matter of minutes whether that person is a Jew,” whereas 11% failed to voice an opinion on the statement.¹⁶ The probability that the average Austrian in the provinces can identify someone as Jewish is extremely low, since 86% of the country’s Jewish population resides in Vienna.¹⁷ The vast majority of Austrians—and that is true for Germany too—are not aware of having ever met a (real) Jew in their life.¹⁸ Known as “Antisemitism without Jews,”¹⁹ this state of affairs may engen-

¹² Cf. Austrian Parliament, *Antisemitism in Austria 2020* (Vienna: Austrian Parliament, 2021).

¹³ Cf. “A Quarter of Germans Have Antisemitic Thoughts, New Survey Finds,” *The Local*, October 24, 2019, <https://www.thelocal.de/20191024/every-fourth-german-has-anti-semitic-thoughts-says-new-study/>.

¹⁴ For the AfD see e.g. M. Hübscher, “Likes for Antisemitism: The Alternative für Deutschland and Its Posts on Facebook,” *Journal of Contemporary Antisemitism* 3, no. 1 (2020): 11–34. For the FPÖ see e.g. M. Reiter, “Antisemitismus in der FPÖ und im ‘Ehemaligen’-Milieu nach 1945,” *Jahrbuch für Antisemitismusforschung* 27 (2018): 117–49.

¹⁵ Haredi (orthodox) Jews make up a tiny proportion of the miniscule Jewish population in both Germany and Austria. In Austria they comprise 7% of the Jewish community (cf. Staetsky and DellaPregola, *Jews in Austria*) and in Germany the percentage is even lower (personal communication with Daniel Staetsky, May 2021).

¹⁶ Cf. Austrian Parliament, *Antisemitism in Austria 2020*.

¹⁷ Cf. Staetsky and DellaPregola, *Jews in Austria*.

¹⁸ Cf. J. Masters and A. Mortensen, “A Shadow over Europe: Anti-Semitism in 2018,” CNN, November 2018, accessed May 23, 2021, <https://edition.cnn.com/specials/europe/anti-semitism-europe>.

der a two-pronged dynamic: Whilst sharpening the issue of identity for Jews (should they, consciously or unconsciously, conceal or emphasize their Jewish identity), the gregarious antisemite may happily identify someone as Jewish who is not, and for whom potentially undesirable consequences may ensue. As we shall see, these may have ramifications for the workplace.

Workplace Discrimination

Due to its scarcity, the academic research effort on antisemitism pertaining to the workplace is rather easy to summarize; its researchers can be counted on the fingers of one hand and are confined to a single geography (the USA and Canada). From the mid-1960s to the late 1980s, the few relevant publications (none of the articles were published in business and management journals) concentrated on the issue of discrimination by North American big business (predominately in the USA).²⁰ The evidence showed that Jews faced barriers of entry, starting at college recruitment²¹ and continuing in promotion to the top corporate echelons.²² Slavin concluded in a sombre tone: “it seems the present system of corporate recruitment effectively excludes Jews from most sectors of the American economy.”²³ Jews also had to face overt and explicit generalized anti-Jewish prejudice,²⁴ which saw them side-lined into support functions in organizations and the professions: roles and occupations that required technical skills and intellec-

19 Cf. B. Marin, “A Post-Holocaust ‘Anti-Semitism without Anti-Semites’? Austria as a Case in Point,” *Political Psychology* 2, no. 2 (1980): 57–74; Marin and Bunzl, *Antisemitismus in Österreich*; T. Seidenschnur, *Antisemitismus im Kontext. Erkundungen in ethnisch-heterogenen Milieu von Heranwachsenden* (Transcript: Bielefeld, 2013).

20 The implementation of Title VII from the Civil Rights Act of 1964 may play a role here: its interpretation (or lack thereof) may have inadvertently encouraged the harbouring of antisemitic expressions in the workplace as courts were reluctant to rule on what constitutes a “religion,” thereby providing a blanket protection to anything that could be labelled “beliefs.” Cf. B. D. Arem, “Never Again in the Workplace: Title VII’s Shield of Intolerance,” *Journal for the Study of Antisemitism* 4, no. 1 (2012): 73–87.

21 Cf. A. K. Korman, “Anti-Semitism in Organizations and the Behavioral Sciences: Towards a Theory of Discrimination in Work Settings,” *Contemporary Jewry* 9, no. 2 (1988): 63–85; and S. L. Slavin, “Bias in US Big Business Recruitment,” *Patterns of Prejudice* 10, no. 5 (1976): 22–25.

22 Cf. S. L. Slavin and M. A. Pradt, *The Einstein Syndrome: Corporate Anti-Semitism in America Today* (Lanham: University Press of America, 1982); and Korman, “Anti-Semitism in Organizations.”

23 Slavin, “Bias in US Big Business Recruitment,” 24.

24 Cf. R. P. Quinn et al., *The Chosen Few: A Study of Discrimination in Executive Selection* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Institute for Social Research, 1968).

tual capabilities but were less dependent on social acceptability.²⁵ Powell compares the level of hindrance to an executive career based on religion, reporting that Jews were nine times more impacted than the second most impacted denomination, Roman Catholics.²⁶ Moreover, Zweigenhaft demonstrates that Jews were barred from elite social clubs, a key entry route into the executive suite.²⁷ Commercial banks in particular were singled out as discriminating against Jews.²⁸

As Korman's book title *The Outsiders: Jews and Corporate America* reveals, Jews were looked upon as outsiders at a time when being an outsider could be held against you. That was decades before diversity management became *de rigueur*. In today's world of work, being a mere outsider is, on the face of it, no longer a barrier; however the implicit bias inherent in one's construal as *outsider* still holds forth, though it is much more nuanced than outright discrimination.²⁹

Whilst at the macro level, the occupational profile of Jews has attracted the attention of economists,³⁰ the literature on antisemitism from the perspective of labour economics is singularly sparse. Mocan and Raschke reveal that in Germany

xenophobic, anti-Semitic and racist feelings are tempered when people believe that their own economic situation is in good shape, and these feelings are magnified when people think that their personal economic situation is bad. The same relationship exists for beliefs about national economic conditions.³¹

Economic theory, however, provides us useful insights. For example, *taste-based discrimination* would suggest that if an employer does not like Jews, then, one

²⁵ Cf. A. K. Korman, *The Outsiders: Jews and Corporate America* (Lexington: Lexington Books, 1988).

²⁶ Cf. R. M. Powell, *Race, Religion and the Promotion of the American Executive* (Columbus: Ohio State University Press, 1969).

²⁷ Cf. R. L. Zweigenhaft, *Who Gets to the Top? Executive Suite Discrimination in the Eighties* (New York: Institute of Human Relations, 1984).

²⁸ Cf. R. L. Zweigenhaft and G. W. Domhoff, *Jews in the Protestant Establishment* (New York: Praeger, 1982).

²⁹ Cf. Z. Bauman, *Moderne und Ambivalenz* (Hamburg: Hamburger Edition, 2005); and G. Simmel, "Exkurs über den Fremden," in *Soziologie: Untersuchungen über die Formen der Vergesellschaftung* (Berlin: Duncker & Humblot, 1908), 509–12.

³⁰ For a recent review, see J. Lipkes, "'Capitalism and the Jews': Milton Friedman and His Critics," *History of Political Economy* 51, no. 2 (2019): 193–236.

³¹ N. Mocan and C. Raschke, "Economic Well-being and anti-Semitic, Xenophobic, and Racist Attitudes in Germany," *European Journal of Law and Economics* 41, no. 1 (2016): 6.

would expect that Jews or those believed to be Jews would face a harder time finding and keeping their job. If customers dislike Jews, then a company may have to keep its Jewish employees out of sight.³² This in turn could impair the performance of employees categorized as Jews, which may impede the chances of future hires—so-called *statistical discrimination*.³³

The empirical literature shows that employment discrimination against Jews in the USA has receded fast. By the early 1990s, notes: “[i]n the most visible areas of society antisemitism is simply a non-factor,”³⁴ although the high rate of the self-employed and entrepreneurs among Jews in that period may suggest otherwise.³⁵ By the early 2000s, commercial banks no longer appeared to discriminate against Jews,³⁶ and toward the end of the second decade of the twenty-first century, Dinnerstein states

Jews have become the most successful, admired and respected religious group in America. They have attained a place in society and a level of security and success in the United States that would have been thought unimaginable in the middle of the twentieth century.³⁷

a point reiterated by Zweigenhaft and Domhoff,³⁸ and Chiswick concludes:

Throughout their over 350 year presence in the US, American Jews have demonstrated extraordinary economic achievements.³⁹

This raises an interesting conundrum. If Jews are so successful, why concern oneself with antisemitism (whether it manifests itself or not)? This question brings us to the third current of our conceptual model.

32 As was the case with oil companies in the 1960s and 1970s, cf. Korman, “Anti-Semitism in Organizations”; and Slavin, “Bias in US Big Business Recruitment.”

33 Cf. W. Neilson and S. Ying, “From Taste-Based to Statistical Discrimination,” *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization* 129 (2016): 116–28.

34 L. Dinnerstein, *Antisemitism in America* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1994), 248.

35 Cf. B. R. Chiswick, ed., *Jews at Work: Their Economic Progress in the American Labor Market* (New York: Springer, 2020).

36 Cf. J. D. Gale, “The Effects of Aversive Antisemitism on Selection Decisions regarding Jewish Workers in the United States” (PhD diss., Alliant International University, San Diego, 2004).

37 L. Dinnerstein, “My Assessment of American Antisemitism Today,” in *Antisemitism in North America: New World, Old Hate*, ed. S. K. Baum et al. (Leiden: Brill, 2016), 53.

38 R. L. Zweigenhaft and G. W. Domhoff, *Diversity in the Power Elite: Ironies and Unfulfilled Promises*, 3rd ed. (Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield, 2018).

39 Chiswick, *Jews at Work*, 326.

The Other Side of the Coin: Jews in a post-Holocaust Gentile World

In his review of Korman's book, Schwartz offers the following insight:

To grow up Jewish, at least in my time, was to grow up with the knowledge that one's possibilities were limited. One knew that one could not be a member of certain groups, hold certain occupations, even go to certain schools. [...] Being a corporate executive was never something that I considered as an open possibility. As I grew older I came to realize that the sense of limitation is deeply a part of the Jewish heritage. [...] Later, I came to understand that it was this belief in limitation, the frailty of man, and the tenuousness of life that was in large measure responsible for some people rejecting the Jews. Often the world of these gentiles was a world full of manic optimism, the denial of death [...] No wonder they did not want these Jews around. From their dreams, the Jews keep waking them.⁴⁰

Schwartz directs our attention to the underlying existential tension of a minority group's living experience as being *different*. It is a universal propensity, but for Jews, due to their historical baggage as the canonical outsiders, there are added particularistic undertones, such as being universally disliked because they are unlike, as Baron put it.⁴¹ To complicate matters, Jews are also disliked because they are too un-different⁴² as has been the case in Germany and Austria in the period leading up to the Third Reich and the Shoah, when assimilated Jews, including converts to Christianity were particularly singled out in Nazi ideology precisely because they appeared to be indistinguishable from the general population.

Schwartz also directs our attention to the interaction between a minority's existential state (and state of mind) and its impact on the majority's worldview, *inter alia* defining Terror Management Theory (see following) in all but name.

In the preface to their book, Zweigenhaft and Domhoff refer to a remark from a friend who learned about their project "Is a book about successful Jews ever good for the Jews?" We understand the depth of this concern," the authors note.⁴³ Remarkably, some 40 years later, in a very different epoch for American Jewry, Chiswick notes in the preface to his book:

⁴⁰ H. S. Schwartz, review of *The Outsiders: Jews and Corporate America*, by A. B. Korman, *Academy of Management Review* 14, no. 2 (1989): 304–5.

⁴¹ Cf. S. W. Baron, "Changing Patterns of Antisemitism: A Survey," *Jewish Social Studies* 38, no. 1 (1976): 5–38.

⁴² R. S. Wistrich offered the same hypothesis, cf. *Laboratory for World Destruction: Germans and Jews in Central Europe* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 2007).

⁴³ Zweigenhaft and Domhoff, *Jews in the Protestant Establishment*, v.

I ran into a challenge [...] concern expressed by a few and held more quietly by many others, that research revealing Jewish economic success might generate negative social, cultural and political consequences.⁴⁴

We are into the terrain of what has been dubbed the “Diaspora motive”⁴⁵—the perennial insecurity of migrants; or as Jews would put it, “what will the *goyim*⁴⁶ say?” Of course in the case of Jews that is not merely a matter for recent arrivals but an existential ontology: the possibility and potentiality of forced unrootedness being integral to Jewish identity.

The latest survey of European Jews concerning their perception and experience of antisemitism confirms that.⁴⁷ Seventy-three percent of Austrian respondents agree that antisemitism is a very big or fairly big problem, and 75% agree that it increased in the past five years. In response to the question: “Do you ever avoid wearing, carrying or displaying things that might help people recognize you as a Jew in public?”, 67% of Austrian respondents replied in the affirmative (ranging from “always” to “occasionally”). Significantly, 31% have considered emigrating “because I don’t feel safe living here as a Jew.” The figures for Germany were higher: 85%, 89%, 75%, and 44%, respectively. These figures are staggering. They suggest communities living in a permanent state of fear, feeling exposed to ongoing threat to their safety and well-being, unable to freely exercise their religion and manifest their identity.

Antisemitism as a Cultural Phenomenon

Cotler defines cultural antisemitism as a “mélange of attitudes, sentiments, innuendo and the like in academia, in Parliaments, among the literati, public intellectuals, and the human rights movement—in a word, *la trahison des clercs*,”⁴⁸ in reference to Julien Benda’s seminal study of 1920s Europe, depicting the “betrayal of the elites.” Applebaum brings us up to date as with regards to Poland under Kaczyński and Hungary’s Orbán, for example, where antisemitism is actively en-

⁴⁴ Chiswick, *Jews at Work*, i.

⁴⁵ Cf. R. Brenner and N. M. Kiefer, “The Economics of the Diaspora: Discrimination and Occupational Structure,” *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 29 (1981): 517–34.

⁴⁶ Goyim (Hebrew, Yiddish) = gentiles.

⁴⁷ Cf. European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA), *Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism* (Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 2018).

⁴⁸ Cotler, *Global Antisemitism*, 11.

couraged by the authorities and the intelligentsia.⁴⁹ Justin Welby, Archbishop of Canterbury, put it squarely:

we have to recognize that antisemitism has been the root and origin of most racist behaviour for the past 1,000 years in this country [England]. It goes right back to the early Middle Ages [...] It seems to be something that is latent and under the surface, and it bubbles to the surface very, very easily indeed. I think it is one of those things that, when we see it, tells us that there are strains and stresses in society. It is the canary in the mine.⁵⁰

We concur with Welby. Notwithstanding the critical role elites play in legitimizing and validating antisemitism at a given place in a given time, the potentiality of antisemitism is in itself a given—the so-called *continuity thesis*,⁵¹ which comes under different titles, such as “the eternal hatred,”⁵² “the longest hatred,”⁵³ “permanent neurosis”:⁵⁴ anti-Jewish sentiment has been around at least since the birth of Christianity,⁵⁵ and it may be traced back to pagan times.⁵⁶ Antisemitism is woven into the social-cultural fabric of Western society, notably Europe—a perverse *cultural capital*⁵⁷ of sorts. In stating that, we follow Volkov’s depiction of antisemitism as anchored in cultural codes.⁵⁸ She highlights “the total interconnected ways of thinking, feeling, and acting” subsuming both *Weltanschauung* and ideology, not excluding philosophy, science, and the arts, and “includes tra-

49 Cf. A. Applebaum, *Twilight of Democracy: The Seductive Lure of Authoritarianism* (London: Allen Lane, 2020).

50 Justin Welby, Archbishop of Canterbury, in evidence before the Home Affairs Select Committee at the House of Commons, June 7, 2016.

51 Cf. S. Ettinger, *Modern Antisemitism: Studies and Essays* (Tel Aviv: Moreshet, 1978) [in Hebrew].

52 Cf. D. J. Goldhagen, *Hitler’s Willing Executioners: Ordinary Germans and the Holocaust* (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1996).

53 Cf. R. S. Wistrich, *Antisemitism: The Longest Hatred* (New York: Pantheon Books, 1991).

54 Cf. J. L. Talmon, “Mission and Testimony—the Universal Significance of Modern Antisemitism,” in *The Unique and the Universal: Some Historical Reflections* (London: Secker & Warburg, 1965), 119–64.

55 Cf. U. Eco, *Inventing the Enemy* (London: Vintage Books, 2013).

56 Cf. S. Freud, *Moses and Monotheism* (New York: Random House, 1955).

57 In reference to Bourdieu’s *embodied* cultural capital.

58 Cf. S. Volkov, “Antisemitism as a Cultural Code: Reflections on the History and Historiography of Antisemitism in Imperial Germany,” *Yearbook of the Leo Baeck Institute* 23 (1978): 25–46; idem, “Readjusting Cultural Codes: Reflections on Anti-Semitism and Anti-Zionism,” *Journal of Israeli History* 25, no. 1 (2006): 51–62; and “Antisemitism as Cultural Code,” in *Germans, Jews and Antisemitism: Trials in Emancipation* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006), 67–158.

ditions that consciously and subconsciously affect such a collectivity, habits of mind, a variety of automatic reactions, and a plethora of accepted norms.”⁵⁹

Cultural codes, according to Volkov, signify larger important life positions, which stand out in particular in times of crisis and strife. Whilst a higher level of formal education was found to be associated with weaker antisemitic attitudes,⁶⁰ Schwarz-Friesel and Reinharz in their study of Germany (as well as Austria to a lesser extent) highlight the ubiquity of antisemitism among all social strata.⁶¹

Contributory factors to widespread grassroots antisemitism in Germany and Austria are *secondary antisemitism*⁶² and *victimhood competition*.⁶³ Both concepts refer to national and personal identity construction. The former refers to individuals’ ingrained defensiveness against guilt and addresses those descendants who are aware that members of their families were Nazi supporters (not necessarily as direct perpetrators). The latter refers to the resentment against Jews aroused due to the perception that their own non-Jewish families were also victims of the Nazi period. This sentiment is particularly present in Austria, which held the official position that the country as a whole was “the first victim of Hitler” decades after World War II. Nowadays, one may add *tertiary antisemitism* to the count, as the grandchildren of Nazi perpetrators, supporters, and sympathizers come of age.⁶⁴ Indeed, according to Bodemann the Jewish trope is a central element in German identity.⁶⁵

Antisemitism being part and parcel of the cultural milieu of Germany and Austria, we would expect the day-to-day to be imbued with antisemitic behavioural conduct, though not always in an obvious way, since antisemitism went un-

⁵⁹ Volkov, “Antisemitism as Cultural Code,” 110–11.

⁶⁰ Cf. M. Fertig and C. M. Schmidt, “Attitudes towards Foreigners and Jews in Germany: Identifying the Determinants of Xenophobia in a Large Opinion Survey,” *Review of Economics of the Household* 9, no. 1 (2011): 99–128.

⁶¹ Cf. M. Schwarz-Friesel and J. Reinharz, *Die Sprache der Judenfeindschaft im 21. Jahrhundert* (Berlin: De Gruyter, 2013).

⁶² Cf. P. Schönbach, *Reaktionen auf die antisemitische Welle im Winter 1959/60* (Frankfurt/Main: Europäische Verlagsanstalt, 1961).

⁶³ For a recent article, see G. Antoniou, E. Dinas, and S. M. Kosmidis, “Collective Victimhood and Social Prejudice: A Post-Holocaust Theory of Anti-Semitism,” *Political Psychology* 41, no. 5 (2020): 861–86.

⁶⁴ Cf. A. Hohenlohe-Bartenstein, “In the Presence of the Past: ‘Third Generation’ Germans and the Cultural Memory of National Socialism and the Holocaust” (PhD thesis, University of London, London, 2011), accessed May 23, 2021, <http://eprints.gold.ac.uk/6601/>.

⁶⁵ Cf. Y. M. Bodemann, *In den Wogen der Erinnerung: Jüdische Existenz in Deutschland* (München: dtv, 2002).

derground in the aftermath of the Holocaust.⁶⁶ Thus, “Jews” is used as a dirty word,⁶⁷ and that habitual expression is not confined to the older generation. “Du Jude!” is a derogatory expression common among youth,⁶⁸ and typically directed against non-Jews.⁶⁹ Jokes about Jews feature regularly in popular culture, establishing a norm of verbal antisemitism,⁷⁰ though malice may not always be intended.⁷¹ Yet, the distance between words and action could be rather short, as the history of Germany and Austria taught us.

Toward a Model of Workplace Antisemitism

Whilst overt antisemitic incidents (e.g., physical attacks, damage to property, and verbal abuse) are evidently on the rise, they pale in significance, at least in terms of number of occurrences, compared to implicit antisemitic manifestations. In modern Germany and Austria, expressing antisemitic views is no longer *salonfähig* (socially acceptable) and in both countries’ constitutions and legal systems, expressing such views may land one in jail. Hence, without underestimating the gravity of these overt incidents, an emphasis in understanding day-to-day antisemitism and its prevalence in the workplace should be on its indirect presentation and coded nuance. Importantly, antisemitism as a widespread grassroots ingrained cultural phenomenon necessarily points us toward protagonists’ subconscious, if not of entire communities’ collective unconscious.

Having outlined the currents relevant to workplace antisemitism, we next introduce our model’s conceptual building blocks. While the four currents may be

⁶⁶ Cf. L. Silverman, “Absent Jews and Invisible Antisemitism in Postwar Vienna: Der Prozeß (1948) and The Third Man (1949),” *Journal of Contemporary History* 52, no. 2 (2017): 211–28.

⁶⁷ Cf. Seidenschnur, *Antisemitismus im Kontext*.

⁶⁸ Cf. A. Scherr and B. Schäuble, “*Ich habe nichts gegen Juden, aber...*”: *Ausgangsbedingungen und Perspektiven gesellschaftspolitischer Bildungsarbeit gegen Antisemitismus* (Berlin: Amadeu Antonio Stiftung + Freudenberg Stiftung, 2007).

⁶⁹ Cf. J. Bernstein, *Antisemitismus an Schulen in Deutschland: Befunde—Analysen—Handlungsoptionen* (Weinheim: Beltz Juventa, 2020); and G. Jikeli, “Anti-Semitism in Youth Language: The Pejorative Use of the Terms for ‘Jew’ in German and French Today,” *Conflict & Communication Online* 9, no. 1 (2010): 1–13.

⁷⁰ Cf. T. Seidenschnur, “Kontextueller Antisemitismus in einem Alltag ohne Antisemiten,” in *Kleine Geheimnisse: Alltagssoziologische Einsichten*, ed. H. Bude, M. Dellwing, and S. Grills (Berlin: Springer, 2015), 159–83.

⁷¹ Cf. S. P. Scheichl, “The Contexts and Nuances of anti-Jewish Language: Were All the ‘Antisemitismes’ Antisemitismes?” in *Jews, Antisemitism and Culture in Vienna*, ed. I. Oxaal, M. Pollak, and G. Botz (London: Routledge, 1987), 89–110.

construed as “constant” elements, the periodic rise and fall in the intensity of antisemitic manifestations (expressions, incidents, attitudes, beliefs) are a variable of the *zeitgeist*.⁷²

Conceptual Building Blocks

We identify two theories that could be instrumental in understanding the alternating peaks and troughs of anti-Jewish sentiment and may provide promising avenues for research into workplace antisemitism: Terror Management Theory and Goal Setting Theory.

Terror Management Theory (TMT) postulates the role of death salience in human behaviour.⁷³ Central to the theory is the need for defence of one’s *cultural worldview* and *self-esteem* in buffering humans against the universal threat of mortality.⁷⁴

Terror management theory may be particularly useful for understanding antisemitism because outbreaks have often occurred following major social disruptions—military defeats, epidemic lethal disease, and massive economic deterioration. Either death, or some threat to people’s most cherished beliefs, or both have become salient. Terror management theory suggests that, under such circumstances, many people will attempt to protect themselves by affirming their core values. Jews’ survival, their financial success and their unique religious beliefs threaten the worldview of others. This threat can be parried by denigrating Jews.⁷⁵

72 Cf. S. O. Becker and L. Pascali, “Religion, Division of Labor, and Conflict: Anti-semitism in Germany over 600 Years,” *American Economic Review* 109, no. 5 (2019): 1764–804.

73 Cf. B. L. Burke, A. Martens, and E. H. Faucher, “Two Decades of Terror Management Theory: A Meta-analysis of Mortality Salience Research,” *Personality and Social Psychology Review* 14, no. 2 (2010): 155–95.

74 Cf. B. J. Schmeichl and A. Martens, “Self-Affirmation and Mortality Salience: Affirming Values Reduces Worldview Defense and Death-Thought Accessibility,” *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 31, no. 5 (2005): 658–67; and B. J. Schmeichl et al., “Terror Management Theory and Self-esteem Revisited: The Roles of Implicit and Explicit Self-esteem in Mortality Salience Effects,” *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 96, no. 5 (2009): 1077–87.

75 F. Cohen-Abady et al., “The Modern Antisemitism-Israel Model (MASIM): Empirical Studies of North American Antisemitism,” in *Antisemitism in North America: New World, Old Hate*, ed. S. K. Baum et al. (Leiden: Brill, 2016), 107.

Hence,

when focused on their own mortality and in need of the protections that their worldviews provide, non-Jews may become more hostile towards Jews; this is because Jews represent a challenge to their worldviews by being outgroup members.⁷⁶

Thus, in periods characterized by strife, threat (to life, livelihood), crises (political, economic, environmental, civil unrest) that produce enhanced death awareness and/or challenge to one's central beliefs, antisemitism, manifesting non-tolerant, aggressive responses, would be expected to rise. Indeed, in one of their earlier studies, Greenberg et al. demonstrated that evoking mortality salience drives Christians to rate more positively fellow Christians and more negatively Jews.⁷⁷ Schimmel et al. demonstrated a preference for stereotyping and stereotypic thinking in such circumstances.⁷⁸

TMT, a psychoanalytically informed theory, underscores the possibility of activating mortality salience or perceived damage to one's central beliefs, subconsciously⁷⁹ as well as consciously.

Goal Setting Theory (GST) is an organizational behaviour theory that deals with the relationship between learning, feedback, and work performance.⁸⁰ GST has built on Bargh's automaticity model⁸¹ "that a goal is a mental representation stored in memory, and that it can be activated by a situational cue in the absence of conscious awareness (i.e., a priming effect)"⁸² developing an integrat-

⁷⁶ Ibid., 108.

⁷⁷ Cf. J. Greenberg et al., "Evidence for Terror Management Theory II: The Effects of Mortality Salience on Reactions to Those Who Threaten or Bolster the Cultural Worldview," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 58, no. 2 (1990): 308–18.

⁷⁸ Cf. J. Schimmel et al., "Stereotypes and Terror Management: Evidence That Mortality Salience Enhances Stereotypic Thinking and Preferences," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 77 (1999): 905–26.

⁷⁹ We use here interchangeably subconscious, subliminal, unconscious, non-conscious, in line with the terms employed by the different sources we cite. We are aware of, but do not attempt to fine-tune, the differences among these terms.

⁸⁰ Cf. E. A. Locke and G. P. Latham, *A Theory of Goal Setting and Task Performance* (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1990); and idem, "The Development of Goal Setting Theory: A Half Century Retrospective," *Motivation Science* 5 (2019): 93–105.

⁸¹ Cf. J. A. Bargh, "Auto-motives: Preconscious Determinants of Social Interaction," in *Handbook of Motivation and Cognition 2*, ed. E. T. Higgins and R. M. Sorrentino (New York: Guilford Press, 1990), 93–130.

⁸² X. Chen et al., "An Enumerative Review and a Meta-Analysis of Primed Goal Effects on Organizational Behavior," *Applied Psychology* 70, no. 1 (2021): 216–17.

ed model.⁸³ The theory shows that subliminal priming is often achieved by manipulating visual clues (like photos) but also verbally. Priming to behave cooperatively has been shown to enhance performance, while negative feedback⁸⁴ is detrimental to one's performance. Chen et al. conclude: "primed goal effects on organizational behavior exist, and these effects are not restricted to the laboratory."⁸⁵

Importantly, subconsciously primed goals, enacted without one's intention or awareness, do not show a differential effect than when they are consciously activated; and any aspect of it, feedback included, could be non-conscious⁸⁶ and plays a similar role to the primed goal-performance linkage.⁸⁷ Furthermore, habits—automatically repeated in-context behaviours or associations in memory between a context and a response—when activated, may be stronger than (changed) attitudes.⁸⁸ Chen et al. comment on organizations more generally: "Over time a [organizational] climate can become second nature, and as result can influence an employee's behavior unconsciously."⁸⁹

The emphasis in GST is on the subtlety of desired outcomes, mediating processes and achievable conduct in a work environment, represented in memory, sometimes symbolically and subliminally primed.⁹⁰ An environment (not necessarily work environment) that sends out antisemitic cues may activate antisem-

83 Cf. E. A. Locke and G. P. Latham, "New Directions in Goal-Setting Theory," *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 15, no. 5 (2006): 265–68; A. D. Stajkovic, E. A. Locke, and E. S. Blair, "A First Examination of the Relationships between Primed Subconscious Goals, Assigned Conscious Goals, and Task Performance," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 91, no. 5 (2006): 1172–80; and G. P. Latham, J. Brcic, and A. Steinhauer, "Toward an Integration of Goal Setting Theory and the Automaticity Model," *Applied Psychology* 66, no. 1 (2017): 25–48.

84 On communicating low achievement against self-set goals cf. Bipp and Kleingeld, reported in Chen et al., "An Enumerative Review."

85 Chen et al., "An Enumerative Review," 227.

86 Cf. M. Frese, "Primed Goals and Primed Actions: A Commentary from an Action Theory Point of View," *Applied Psychology* 70, no. 1 (2021): 262–67.

87 Cf. G. Itzhakov and G. P. Latham, "The Moderating Effect of Performance Feedback and the Mediating Effect of Self-set Goals on the Primed Goal-performance Relationship," *Applied Psychology* 69, no. 2 (2020): 379–414.

88 Cf. G. Itzhakov, L. Uziel, and W. Wood, "When Attitudes and Habits Don't Correspond: Self-Control Depletion Increases Persuasion but not Behavior," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 75 (2018): 1–10.

89 X. Chen et al., "Advancing Primed Goal Research in Organizational Behavior," *Applied Psychology* 70, no. 1 (2021): 277.

90 Cf. e.g. G. P. Latham and R. F. Piccolo, "The Effect of Context-specific versus Nonspecific Subconscious Goals on Employee Performance," *Human Resource Management* 51, no. 4 (2012): 511–23.

itic conduct, with a correspondence between the level of environmental cues and expressed (antisemitic) behaviour, the workplace included. Hence, in times of increased antisemitic expressions (in the media, online messages, incidents), we would anticipate correspondent expressions also in the workplace: social priming and goal priming are actually the same.⁹¹ Significantly, the target population of antisemitism—Jews—may be more inclined to construe events as antisemitic (i.e., they are more sensitive to interpret cues this way) than non-Jews do: Are they “primed” to detect antisemitic behaviour (that may be unintended as such) more easily, or does their sensitivity “prime” an erroneous judgment?⁹²

The *Jewish Question* and the Workplace

[N]otions of Jews as malign financial and criminal geniuses [...] remained a mainstay of antisemitic discourse.⁹³

The world is crawling with anti-semites. A Jew always has to be on guard against deadly enemies.⁹⁴

Since the late eighteenth, early nineteenth century when Jews started to gain emancipation and, in tandem antisemitism as a modern ideology emerged, the issue of how to resolve the “Jewish question” in Europe figured prominently on the continent’s civic and political agenda; and since at least Karl Marx’s *Zur Judenfrage* (1844) also in the discourse of the social sciences. Jews’ civic/political responses: agnosticism and/or assimilationism (suppressing or abandoning one’s Jewish identity), Zionism (opting for self-determination and statehood), and cosmopolitanism (a search for universal identity) may have, we suggest, their equivalent in the world of work.

Thus, distancing and detracting from one’s Jewish identity would mark assimilationism, whether by change of name, or by prominently celebrating non-Jewish festivals, for example. Entrepreneurship may be construed as a (positive) attempt at self-determination in response to a negative work experience or per-

91 Cf. J. A. Bargh, “All Aboard! ‘Social’ and Nonsocial Priming are the Same Thing,” *Psychological Inquiry* 32, no. 1 (2021): 29–34.

92 Cf. S. DellaPergola, “Jewish Perceptions of Antisemitism in the European Union, 2018: A New Structural Look,” *Analysis of Current Trends in Antisemitism* 40, no. 2 (2019): 1–86.

93 D. Vyleta, *Crime, Jews and News: Vienna, 1895–1914* (Oxford: Berghahn, 2007), 225.

94 E. Canetti, *Auto-Da-Fé*, trans. C. V. Wedgwood (New York: Continuum, 1981), 180.

ceived lack of opportunities.⁹⁵ Could cosmopolitanism possibly be traced to exemplary organisational citizenship behaviour, championing corporate social responsibility or rigorous trade union activity? We will not be surprised to learn if the antisemitic representations to these civic/political responses, respectively: the “parvenu Jew,” the “pariah Jew,” and the “rootless cosmopolitan Jew”⁹⁶ have their workplace equivalents too.

Consider the following non-hypothetical scenario.

At a time of a global viral pandemic that found the world community unprepared, resulting in millions losing their lives and livelihoods—a major upheaval that engulfed all continents: a worldwide rise in antisemitism (incidents, behaviours, beliefs, attitudes) occurs, including a conspiracy theory that blames Jews, for: a) creating and spreading the disease; and b) benefiting from it financially.

During the pandemic, the tensions between Israel and Hamas, the Palestinian faction that controls the Gaza strip, flare up to a seasonal war, with civilian casualties and damage to personal effects and community infrastructure inflicted by both sides. The Austrian government hoisted the Israeli flag on the roof of its Chancellery in Vienna as a sign of solidarity. In Germany, in an act of solidarity, pro-Palestinian and anti-Israeli demonstrations took place in Berlin, Frankfurt, Leipzig and several other cities.

How does a workplace respond? TMT would predict enhanced hostility toward out-group persons, Jews in this instance. Would that hostility manifest in any tangible (and measurable) way?

In an environment saturated with anti-Jewish images (from the TV, social media, and the press) and an organizational culture conducive to anti-Jewish sentiment, a generalized negative feedback loop may be directed against Jewish members of the organization and those believed to be Jewish, GST would predict. Would they feel it? Would non-Jews get what is happening? The former may have a (subconscious) invested interest to see no evil, or on the contrary, may be oversensitive; the latter may not recognize the issue at hand—unaware of their own prejudices “since one simply invents who and what is to be stigmatized as ‘Jew’ or ‘Jewish’.”⁹⁷

⁹⁵ Cf. L.-P. Dana, “The Origins of Self-Employment in Ethno-cultural Communities: Distinguishing between Orthodox Entrepreneurship and Reactionary Enterprise,” *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences* 14, no. 1 (1997): 52–68.

⁹⁶ Cf. R. Fine, “On the Contemporary Relevance of Arendt’s ‘Jewish Writings’,” in *Unity and Diversity in Contemporary Antisemitism*, ed. J. G. Campbell and L. D. Klaff (Boston: Academic Studies Press, 2019), 219–34.

⁹⁷ Marin and Bunzl, *Antisemitismus in Österreich*, 187.

Selected Issues and Associated Questions

Negative Symbiosis

In a letter to Karl Jaspers in 1946, on the occasion of the Nuremberg Trials, Hannah Arendt addressed the basic idea of a “negative symbiosis” of Germans and Jews after Auschwitz [...]. One can do nothing either personally or politically about a guilt that lies beyond crime and an innocence that lies beyond good or virtue [...] For the Germans are burdened with thousands, or ten thousands or hundreds of thousands who can no longer be properly punished within a system of laws; and we Jews are burdened with millions of innocents, because of whom each Jew today looks like innocence personified.⁹⁸

Consider the following imaginary tale.

Joseph K., a rather ordinary bank clerk in a commercial bank in Munich, Germany, feels unease. He can't quite put his finger on it, but in his quotidian dealings with customers and peers he senses a tension that he did not notice before. Is he imaging things? As it happens, Joseph K. is a Jew, and whilst not wearing his Jewish identity on his sleeve, so to speak, he never made a secret of it either.

Over dinner at home (the pandemic has greatly diminished their social life) the subject of the war in Israel comes up as his wife has relatives there. Joseph K. tries to distract his mind, but the feeling of unease doesn't go away. He spends the night sleepless. The following morning, a colleague at the bank asks him if all is well. He too noticed that Joseph K. isn't his usual self.

Negative symbiosis—that is, a closed feedback loop involving Jews and non-Jews, whereby both sides, for different reasons, share the same source of discomfort, feeding on each other's misery. Jewish apprehension engages non-Jewish resentment, leading both sides to become trapped in habitual (past) perceptions and behaviour—*Huis Clos* indeed. Is there a concrete organizational form to this abstract conceptualization? If so, how can it be de-coupled?

⁹⁸ D. Diner, “Negative Symbiosis: Germans and Jews after Auschwitz,” in *The Holocaust: Theoretical Readings*, ed. N. Levi and M. Rothberg (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2003), 425.

False Positives

The Jew is one whom non-Jews consider as Jewish: it is the gaze of others that makes the Jew, a Jew.⁹⁹

Consider the following imaginative vignette.

Gregor S. is a travelling salesman in Vorarlberg, Austria.

Gregor S. isn't Jewish, but since his school days, when he acquired the nickname "Jew," he got used to being mistaken, from time to time, as one.

Gregor S. is not sure why, since he never met a Jew in his life, so he can't tell whether there is any resemblance.

Last week one of his customers asked him, with a wry smile on his face, "Do you think it's kosher what Israel is doing to Palestine?" Gregor S. shrugged his shoulders and didn't reply. "It's just one of those things" his friend comforted him, when Gregor S. told him about that exchange.

In the 1960s USA, Quinn et al. report that nearly half of those executives who were inclined to discriminate against Jews agreed with the statement "most of the time you can tell a person is Jewish by his physical appearance."¹⁰⁰ What are the implications for someone in an organization believed to be Jewish when they are not? According to a 2018 CNN poll, two thirds of Germans and Austrians were not aware of ever having met a Jewish person.¹⁰¹

Pygmalion Effect

You [a Jew] had the choice of being counted as insensitive, shy and suffering from feelings of persecution. And even if you managed somehow to conduct yourself so that nothing showed, it was impossible to remain completely untouched.¹⁰²

Consider the following factual case.

⁹⁹ According to J.-P. Sartre, who wrote: "The Jew is one whom other men consider a Jew: that is the simple truth from which we must start. In this sense the democrat is right as against the anti-Semite, for it is the anti-Semite who makes the Jew." *Anti-Semite and Jew* (New York: Schocken Books, 1948), 69.

¹⁰⁰ Cf. Quinn et al., *The Chosen Few*.

¹⁰¹ Cf. Masters and Mortensen, "A Shadow over Europe."

¹⁰² Arthur Schnitzler, *My Youth in Vienna*, quoted by F. Raphael in the Introduction to *Dream Story*, trans. J. M. Q. Davies (London: Penguin Books, 1999), ix.

Seen by the Christian [midshipmen]¹⁰³ as a fringe religious group, Jewish midshipmen received multiple comments from the Christian respondents pertaining to acts of intolerance [...] it is interesting that the Christians note the intolerance towards Jews [...] more often than the [Jewish] respondents.¹⁰⁴

To comprehend the impact a negative or poor self-image may have on a person's view of themselves and on their occupational aspirations, the way it blinds them from facing a (painful) reality, we may need to go back over half a century and consider the status of women in the world of work then. Bem and Bem tell us in a (hyper-realist) *Case Study of a Nonconscious Ideology: Training the Woman to know her Place* what it looks like and feels like at a time of an overwhelming consensus about the place of women in society (homemaker) and at work (minimal engagement, marginal roles):

The consequence is a non-conscious ideology, a set of beliefs and attitudes which [one] accepts implicitly [...] A society's ability to inculcate this kind of ideology into its citizens is the most subtle and most profound form of social influence. It is also the most difficult kind of social influence to challenge because it remains invisible.¹⁰⁵

Looking back and realising the long way we have come in Western developed economies as regards a society's view on the place and role of women, may direct us toward possibilities in dealing with other embedded negative beliefs on minority groups, including the most protracted one: Jews.

Research Agenda

We know a fair amount about antisemitism in the public arena; we know less about the theory of antisemitism;¹⁰⁶ we know little about contemporary targets of antisemitism;¹⁰⁷ we know next to nothing about antisemitism in the workplace

103 Midshipman—officer of the lowest rank in the US Navy.

104 M. B. Krauz, "The Impact of Religiosity on Midshipman Adjustment and Feelings of Acceptance" (master's thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, 2006), 46.

105 Cf. S. L. Bem and D. J. Bem, "Case Study of a Nonconscious Ideology: Training the Woman to Know Her Place," in *Beliefs, Attitudes, and Human Affairs*, ed. D. J. Bem (Belmont: Brooks/Cole, 1970), 89.

106 Cf. J. Judaken, "AHR Roundtable Rethinking Anti-Semitism: Introduction," *American Historical Review* 123, no. 4 (2018): 1122–38.

107 Cf. DellaPergola, "Jewish Perceptions."

and in organizations. Therefore, a number of issues rank high on an emerging research agenda to fill this knowledge gap and support action.

Reliable Data

Establishing the extent and depth of antisemitic conduct and its relevance to work and organizations is no simple task. To start with, we don't have reliable information on its prevalence in the general population. Relying on public opinion surveys on such a sensitive topic is problematic, and in the case of Germany and Austria highly questionable, since expressing antisemitic views may not be compatible with formal and informal norms and could be risky.¹⁰⁸ As pointed out by Kovács, in both countries there is a strong incentive not to reveal one's true positions as regards Jews¹⁰⁹—a so-called *communicative latency*.¹¹⁰ Hence, in addition to those who express an antisemitic sentiment, at the very least the “no opinion” figures should be viewed with scepticism.¹¹¹ It is possible to improve on the standard public opinion survey, to a degree, but it comes at a cost,¹¹² and alas, there are no shortcuts.

Data on workplace antisemitic issues is glaring in its absence. It is conceivable that the lack of data indicates a non-issue, that is, there is no antisemitism in the workplace worthy of mention. On the other hand, it may be the case that the lack of data is simply the result of not asking the correct questions or in a correct manner; and, we would add, not listening attentively to what is not being said. Both in-depth qualitative enquiries and field experiments are called for.

108 Cf. H. Beyer and I. Krumpal, “‘Aber es gibt keine Antisemiten mehr’: Eine experimentelle Studie zur Kommunikationslatenz antisemitischer Einstellungen,” *Kölner Zeitschrift für Soziologie und Sozial Psychologie* 62 (2010): 681–705.

109 Cf. A. Kovács, “Public Identity in Defining the Boundaries of Public and Private: The Example of Latent Anti-Semitism,” *Social Research* 69 (2002): 179–94.

110 Cf. N. Luhmann, *Soziale Systeme: Grundriss einer allgemeinen Theorie* (Frankfurt/Main: Suhrkamp, 1984).

111 Kovács refers to a 1989 opinion survey in Germany and a 1991 survey in Austria, referencing respectively W. Bergman and R. A. Erb, *Antisemitismus in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland Ergebnisse der empirischen Forschung von 1946–1989* (Opladen: Leske und Budrich, 1991); and F. A. Karmasin, *Austrian Attitudes towards Jews, Israel and the Holocaust* (New York: American Jewish Committee, 1992).

112 For a fine example, see I. Krzemiński, “Polish National anti-Semitism,” *Polin* 31 (2019): 512–42.

Mapping Organizational Antisemitism

We have a well-developed set of theories and concepts to map organizational structures, norms and values, and culture.¹¹³ With a specific focus on the issue at hand, one can use them as a starting point and ask questions such as: What does an antisemitic organization look like? Feel like? How shall we categorize an organization's culture as antisemitic? What are the key parameters and how to diagnose them? What is the role of management; or vice versa, how does a non-antisemitic organization that is immune against antisemitism look like and feel like?

On the first set of questions we have the recent case of the British Labour party, which was found to have been antisemitic under the leadership of Jeremy Corbyn (2015–2019) in an official enquiry and may serve as an example.¹¹⁴ There are already a good number of academic and other publications on this case. On the latter, the literature on the healthy workplace, which has had a comeback in recent years, may prove helpful, as well as attempts by various bodies to combat widespread campus antisemitism that may serve as blueprints for other institutions.¹¹⁵

Is Antisemitism a Special Case?

How antisemitism compares to Islamophobia, anti-Black racism, and other current anti-minority trends remains unclear, notes Judaken.¹¹⁶ In organizational contexts, the relative success of Jews, of which we have evidence for the USA and Canada, raises a further interesting question, since discrimination in the workplace on the grounds of religion or race has typically been formulated in terms of denial or restriction of opportunities.¹¹⁷ Our analysis points toward

113 Cf. e.g. K. S. Cameron and R. E. Quinn, *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework* (San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons, 2011).

114 Cf. "Investigation into Antisemitism in the Labour Party," Equality and Human Rights Commission, issued October 29, 2020, accessed May 23, 2021, <https://www.equalityhumanrights.com/en/publication-download/investigation-antisemitism-labour-party>.

115 Cf. L. D. Klaff, "Antisemitism on Campus: A New Look at Legal Interventions," *Journal for the Study of Antisemitism* 2, no. 2 (2010): 303–21; and E. G. Pollack, *Antisemitism on the Campus: Past and Present* (Brighton: Academic Studies Press, 2010).

116 Cf. Judaken, "AHR Roundtable."

117 Cf. e.g. K. A. Phipps, "The Limitations of Accommodation: The Changing Legal Context of Religion at Work in the United States," *Journal of Management, Spirituality & Religion* 16, no. 4 (2019): 339–47.

more subtle forms of discrimination, the implications and consequences of which are yet to be established; thus calling for an examination of the workplace in the widest terms.¹¹⁸

Final Note

The launching pad for this discourse has been the rising tide of antisemitism in our day and age. Our aim is to bring to the foreground its possible configurations in organizational life. Given the paucity of empirical data, the absence of theoretical frames and lack of know-how on grounded responses, we are necessarily at the very beginning of a scholarly voyage. Still, the journey has started.

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¹¹⁸ Cf. C. Mainemelis and Y. Altman, "Work and Play: New Twists on an Old Relationship," *Journal of Organizational Change Management* 23 (2010): 4–9.

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