Diversity and Public Administration

Theory, Issues, and Perspectives

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Increased Diversity of the Workforce

Opportunities for Research in Public and Nonprofit Organizations

Blue Wooldridge, Jacqueline Smith-Mason, and Barbara C. Maddox

Changing demographics provide an important opportunity for research in public administration to advance management theory and be helpful to practitioners. Jermien and O'Mara, writing in Managing Workforce 2000 (1991), suggest that diversity is creating unparalleled workplace challenges. That research that empirically identifies and explores needs is needed to help public practitioners anticipate, understand, and appropriately address the numerous challenges of managing a diverse workforce (Lewis 1993). Yes, in a recent Public Administration Review article, Wise and Tschirhart (2006, 394) lamented, "Public management journals have made virtually no contribution to this body of research." They call for greater contributions from public administration scholars. This chapter answers this call by identifying key components of workforce diversity (called "identity groups") and providing current data on their magnitude; briefly reviewing some organizational research that suggests significant differences between these groups as the subjects of traditional organizational research; and complementing the call for more research to provide practical information for public and non-profit managers. Finally, the chapter suggests areas of future research.

It is conventional wisdom that all individuals are different. However, life attitudes are not randomly distributed through the population. Members of the same "identity group," say those having the same age, gender, race, and such, have and overlapping life experi-
ences that may, in turn, predispose them toward more or less favor-
able attitudes about particular company practices and cultures (Marvis and Kantor 1991).

As one writer on leadership has suggested, understanding the dif-
ferences in coworkers assists in developing effective work teams.
Now, but assuredly more so in the future (Fairholme 1994). Besides
facilitating team relationships, leaders who effectively and appro-
priately consider the diverse needs and capacities of their people
can expect improvement in the overall quality of life on the job
(Fairholme 1994). Such understanding is vital in light of the impor-
tant attributes of high-performing organizations (HPOs), which must
manage by data (Deming 1986; Cornesky, McCool, Byrnes, and
Weber 1991); empower employees (Popovich 1998; Crosby 1979;
Deming 1986; Juranz and Gryna 1988); work through teams (Crosby,
1979; Juranz and Gryna 1988; Hunt 1992); provide recognition and
rewards desired by employees (Lawler 2000; Vroom 1964); depend on
shared values, commitment and participation (Popovich 1998;
Deming 1986; Crosby 1979); and use technology appropriately
(Popovich 1998; Wooldridge 1994a; Goddard 1989). As managers
take these attributes into consideration, the implications of workforce
demographics must be considered for a balanced approach to achiev-
ing HPOs.

**Changing Diversity of the U.S. Workforce**

The U.S. workforce is rapidly changing, and the Bureau of Labor
Statistics, the Hudson Institute's *Workforce 2000* report, and other
reports have identified several demographic changes in the U.S.
workforce (Fullerton 1991; Fullerton and Loessi 2001). These
changes are discussed below.

**Gender Diversity**

Much of the increase and diversity of the workforce can be attrib-
uted to women. For instance, current workforce participation rates
of women are very different from the 1950s. "The labor-force par-
ticipation of women stood at 34 percent in 1950 and increased to 60
percent by 2000. The number of women in the labor force rose from
18 million in 1950 to 66 million in 2000" (Loessi 2002, 1).
Dually-Income Couples

Research shows that more than three out of four married employees have spouses or partners who are also employed, an increase from 66 to 75 percent over the past twenty years (Families and Work Institute 1997). Other findings of the institute include: 46 percent of the workforce are parents of children under the age of eighteen, and 70 percent are single parents, and 20 percent of all parents also have responsibilities for raising children and caring for elderly relatives. This is often referred to as the sandwich generation.

Older Workers

The U.S. population is growing older because of increased life expectancy and lower birth rates than in past decades. The graying of America is increasingly visible in the workforce. Women are a large proportion of the older working population. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, women represented 35 percent of all older workers in 1975 (age sixty-five and older). In comparison, women accounted for 43 percent of all older workers in 1990. Furthermore, retirement does not mean that men and women completely leave the world of work. Many may reenter and work part-time or fulfill temporary work assignments (Haladyna 1998).

Generational Differences

Yet, the diversity categories discussed above are not the only diversity issues that will be faced by public administrators. Generational differences are emerging in the workforce. Every seven seconds in America, someone turns fifty years old. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 22 percent of the workforce was over fifty in 1998, but this will grow to almost 27 percent by 2008 (Quaddum 2001). There are four generations currently in the workforce—Matures are about 5 percent of the workforce, Baby Boomers are about 45 percent, Generation Xers are about 40 percent, and the Millennial Generation about 10 percent (Work & Family Newsbrief 2002).

As noted earlier, some groups of individuals, because of overlapping life experiences, will react similarly to organizations' policies and procedures. When these "overlapping" life experiences are a
result of the timing of their births, this phenomenon is referred to as
peer personality, a set of collective behavioral traits and attitudes
that later expresses itself through a generation's life-cycle trajectory
(Stauss and Howe 1991, 32). Others refer to these similarities as
age cohorts—a group of people who share given historical or so-
cially structured life experiences, the effects of which are relatively
stable over the course of their lives and serve to distinguish one
generation from another (Rosow 1978, as cited in Jankiewicz and
Brown 1998). As Halachmi (1998) points out, every age group pres-
ents managers with "age-related" problems. Zemke, Rainet, and
Filipczak (1999) highlight the generational composition of the
workforce in their book entitled Generations at Work: Managing
the Clash of Veterans, Boomers, Xers and Nexters in Your Work-
place. The authors point out that separation by age group and func-
tion is fading away. Positions once staffed by older employees are
being occupied by younger workers and vice versa. Consequently,
each generation brings a different perspective to the workplace and
requires human resource management practices congruent with their
generational perspectives (Claudron 1997; Corley 1999; Dunn-Caine,
Gonales, and Stewart 1999; Howes 1997; Jennings 2000; Jankie-
wicz and Brown 1998).

Racial and Ethnic Minorities

Immigration and hierarchies indicate that by the year 2010 about 38
percent of people under the age of eighteen in the United States will
be African-American, Asian, or Hispanic-American. The 2000 cen-
sus found that the Hispanic population more than doubled during
the 1990s and Hispanics have passed African-Americans as the
country's largest minority group. Hispanics make up about 13 per-
cent, African-Americans about 12.7 percent, and Asians about 4
percent of the U.S. population. The Bureau of Labor Statistics data
for 1999 indicates that white males will account for only 31.6 per-
cent of new entrants in the workforce during the twenty-first century.

Gay and Lesbian Employees

Sexual orientation has become a mainstream diversity topic for many
organizations (HR Focus 2002; Lewis 1995). Alfred Kinsey's clas-
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Conclusion

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A is referred to as \( 94 \) studies found that about 10 percent of American adults are homosexuals (cited in Kahn and Malyan 1995). However, more recent research indicates that the gay and lesbian population estimate is between 4 and 7 percent (Kahn and Malyan, 1995, and Zill and Robinson 1995).

**Disabled Workers**

Approximately 54 million noninstitutionalized Americans have physical, intellectual, or psychiatric disabilities (the term, intellectual disability is used instead of cognitive disability and mental retardation, and the term psychiatric disability is used in place of emotional disability). Of these cases, 26 million are classified as having a severe disability. Severe disabilities include Alzheimer's disease, autism, mental retardation, and long-term use of a cane, crutches, walker, or wheelchair. Historically, individuals with disabilities have not fared well in the U.S. labor force (Levitas and Zeggars 1977). Census figures indicate that of the 15.6 million working-age adults, (ages 16-64) with disabilities, only 34.6 percent were employed in contrast with 79.8 percent of those without disabilities. A preferential hierarchy based on disability type persists, whereby workers with physical disabilities continue to be viewed more positively than workers who have intellectual or psychiatric disabilities (see Hernandez, Keys, and Balkazar 2000).

**Contingent Workers and Alternative Work Arrangements**

As a result of changing demographics, nontraditional work arrangements are increasing. A survey of CEOs in Fortune 500 companies shows that 44 percent rely more on temporary, part-time, leased, and contract workers than they did five years ago, and 44 percent expect to rely more on external workers in the next five years than they do now (Ferram 1994). These workers are referred to as contingent workers. Based on the Bureau of Labor Statistics' definition, contingent workers are those persons who expect their jobs to end in a year or less or report their jobs as temporary. There are an estimated 5.4 million contingent workers in the United States (Monthly Labor Review 2005). In addition to contingent workers, the Bureau refers to independent contractors, temporary workers, on-call work-
ers, day laborers, and those employed by contract firms as workers 
employed in alternative work arrangements. The bureau in 2001 
reported 8.6 million independent contractors (8.4 percent of total 
employment), 2.1 million on-call workers (1.6 percent of total em-
ployment), 1.2 million temporary help agency workers (0.9 percent 
of the employed), and 533,000 contract company workers (0.5 per-
cent of total employment).

Workplace illiteracy

At a time when international competition is increasing and technol-
ogy quickly changes, workplace illiteracy is a growing problem. 
Although reports often differ on the extent of illiteracy because of 
difficulty in measuring, there is agreement that illiteracy is high, 
particularly among immigrants and racial and ethnic minority groups. 
A 1992 survey by the U.S. Department of Education’s National Center 
for Education Statistics estimates that about 21 percent of the adult 
population—more than 40 million Americans over the age of six-
teen—had only rudimentary reading and writing skills. In 1982 the 
English Language Proficiency Survey (ELPS) placed the nonliterate 
U.S. adult population at between 17 and 21 million; 7 million of that 
group was from a home where a language other than English was 
spoken (U.S. Department of Education 1986; National Clearinghouse 
on Literacy Education 1991). Other research indicates that half of 
the adult workforce does not read, write, or compute well enough to 
perform their work satisfactorily (Ford 1992). The U.S. Department 
of Education estimates that the functionally illiterate now account 
for 30 percent of the unskilled, 29 percent of the semiskilled, and 11 
percent of the managerial, professional, and technical workforce. It 
is estimated that more than half of the 26 million new jobs that will 
be added to the economy during the early years of the new milen-
nium will require some postsecondary training, and about one-third 
will demand a college degree (Bernardon 1989).

Current Organizational Workforce Diversity 
Research Findings

As long ago as 1976, Dunnett pointed out a major gap in the field 
of organizational psychology: the absence of coverage given to
groups such as women, minorities, and the disadvantaged. In spite of recognition of the growing diversity of the workforce, this gap still exists. For example, in the matter of racial diversity, Cox and Nkomo (1990) surveyed twenty major management journals that published organization behavior research between 1964 and 1989 and found that the amount of total published research is small relative to the importance of the topic. They also found that the topics covered are not representative of the domain of organizational behavior. Amazingly, they concluded that the trend is for less rather than more research on these topics. Freidger (1992) agrees and argues that, with a very few exceptions, research in organizational behavior has generally disregarded the domestic cross-cultural and intercultural implications of its theories (Wise and Tsichriani 2000). Not surprisingly, some demography researchers have emphasized the following: (1) the need for developing an understanding of the effects of racial and gender diversity in organizational content, particularly as this increasing diversity impacts individuals who are members of what have traditionally been the dominant majority group in organizations; and (2) the need for understanding the relationship between demographic attributes and process variables such as communication, conflict, influence, and decision-making (Tsui and Egan 1992).

Cox and Nkomo (1990, 420) conclude, at least in the area of racial diversity, that "In addition to a general lack of researcher attention, the development of research in this area has been hindered by research questions that are too simplistic, by an absence of theories of race effects and by the types of research designs employed." They also observe that less than 35 percent of the 140 empirical studies reviewed addressed racial groups other than African-Americans and whites, and only 33 percent of the 132 organizations studied were public organizations.

While the research is limited, it indicates that there are differences between various identity groups that will impact the workforce. Brenner, Waziri, and Greenhaus (1988), for instance, examine whether the work values of 322 white and African-American managers differed based on race and gender. The managers were asked to indicate the importance of several job characteristics: Factor I—extrinsic respect for others, job security, income, and working conditions; Factor II—managerial activities (opportunity to take risks, work
on important problems, supervise others, and develop personal contacts); Factor II—Independence (working independently and determining one's own work method); and Factor IV—intrinsic (importance of task variety, feelings of accomplishment, and recognition for a job well done). The researchers conclude that both African-American female and male managers place a greater importance on extrinsic work values than do white managers. With regards to managerial activities, there is little difference between the groups. Both African-American females and males place a higher emphasis on the values of working independently than do white managers. Finally, under Factor IV—both the African-American and white females place greater importance on intrinsic work values than do male managers. Thus, these differences could have an influence on how individuals feel about their workplace cultures. Fernandez (1991) notes that over the years he has found that African-American employees are by far the most critical of corporate treatment of minorities. He points out that 87 percent of African-Americans, 77 percent of Asians, 54 percent of Hispanics, 44 percent of Native Americans, and 35 percent of whites believe that minorities have a more difficult time finding a sponsor or mentor than white employees do.

Other studies have explored racial and ethnic diversity in the realm of discrimination and resistance to diversity. A January 1994 cover story in BusinessWeek titled "White, Male & Worried" (Galan and Palmer 1994) describes the reaction of white, nonHispanic males in companies that are aggressively supporting diversity programs. "They're feeling frustrated, resentful, and most of all, afraid. There's a sense that, be it on the job or at home, the rules are changing faster than they can keep up" (Galan and Palmer 1994, 50). "White males are like the firstborn in the family, the ones who have had the best love of both parents and never quite forgave the second child for being born." (Koch, as quoted in Galan and Palmer 1994, 52). This reaction has profound organizational consequences. While some authors suggest that race relations will improve as the representation of racial and ethnic groups increase in the workplace (Blau 1977, Kantor 1977), others argue that discrimination will increase as the proportion of the minority groups increases (Blalock 1957).

Hernandez's (1992) review of the organizational communication literature suggests that homogeneous work groups have a dysfunctional impact on communication, which negatively affects creativity.
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and a lower intent to stay (with the organization). Similarly, for 
whites, increasing difference from others in the work unit is related 
lower attractiveness, while for nonwhites, being different in race has 
no effect on attachment to the organization” (Tsui and Egan 1992, 
569). Furthermore, women were isolated, whereas men appeared to be socially well integrated into the female work group.
“All else being equal, men in balanced settings and in settings con-
taining a small proportion of women are significantly less satisfied 
than women in these settings” (Wharton and Baron 1989). Tsui and
Egan (1992) conclude that "future research should expand its focus from analyzing how women and people of color 'fit' the dominant culture to understanding the adjustment process of the dominant group to the reality of diversity and heterogeneity."

From research on gender differences, Segal (1999) finds that men and women have different management styles. The "operating style model" of men is competitive, while that of female managers is cooperative. The organizational structure for men is vertical and hierarchical, while that of women is horizontal and egalitarian. The basic objective for male managers is winning, while the female managers' basic objective is that of quality output. The problem-solving approach of men is rational and objective and for the female manager intuitive and subjective. It is true that most managers possess a combination of both male and female managerial characteristics. However, in a study that compared perceptions about male and female managers who used either an authoritarian or participative leadership style, managers were viewed more positively when they used a leadership style that was typical of and consistent with their gender (Griffin 1992). The study further indicates that more participants said that they would not like to work for an authoritarian female manager. Women managers, however, have found that using the "command-and-control" style of managing others is not the only way to be effective and successful. They are drawing on the skills and attitudes they have developed from their shared experiences as women, not by adopting the style and habits that men have found successful (Rosener 1990). Other research also indicates that men and women have different learning styles, that need to be taken into consideration when developing job training (Charlin 1999).

As noted elsewhere in this chapter, Hispanics are the fastest-growing ethnic group and have surpassed African-Americans to become the largest ethnic group in the United States. However, very limited research has been conducted to understand the experiences of Hispanics in the workplace (Kouzes, Rosenfeld, and Colbertson 1992). Among the few studies identified in our literature review, Rubaii-Barrett, Beck, and Lillbridge (1991) investigate the differences between Hispanic (predominantly Mexican-American) and Anglo employees of a local government agency in terms of their attitude toward the work environment and job satisfaction. Table 3.1 summarizes their findings.

Further, very little research on Hispanic women who work outside...
increased diversity of the workforce

Table 3.1: Satisfaction with Job Attributes for Hispanics and Anglo Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Attribute</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with personal policies</td>
<td>Hispanics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with supervisor</td>
<td>Hispanics</td>
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<td>Satisfaction with job tasks</td>
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<td>Satisfaction with work rewards</td>
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<td>Satisfaction with coworkers</td>
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<td>Satisfaction with extrinsic motivation, participation management, stress levels, and overall satisfaction with the job</td>
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<td>Satisfaction with personal policies</td>
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<td>Satisfaction with participatory management</td>
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<td>more satisfied</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with supervision, job tasks, work rewards, coworkers, promotion, pay, employee motivation, stress levels, lateral satisfaction with the job</td>
<td>No difference in satisfaction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with personal policies</td>
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The work has been conducted. Previous research focused on their domestic workforce participation. Thus very little is known about Hispanic women in managerial and professional jobs (Sterns, 1993). Due to their positions, these women may serve as community leaders and important role models for young Hispanic women. Because of the visible and demanding nature of their jobs, the challenges they face in majority work settings and their break from traditional female roles, Hispanic women professionals are subjected to multiple sources of stress at home and in the workplace (Amaro, Russe, and Johnson 1987). To complicate matters, research indicates that Hispanics are not a homogeneous group, and there are important differences be-
tween Hispanic subgroups depending upon level of education, socio-economic status, and other factors (Albana 1990).

Although high levels of education and socioeconomic status suggest that Asian-Americans have succeeded in American society, leading them to often be referred to as the model minority, they frequently face a glass ceiling and discrimination (Cheng 1997). In their summary of organization-related research on Asian-Americans, Sue and Wagner (1973) report that, in general, Asian-American males exhibit less need for dominance, aggressiveness, exhibitionism, autonomy, and heterosexuality, whereas Asian-American females are more deferent, nurturing, and achievement-oriented than their white counterparts. Historically, Americans have directed both positive and negative attitudes toward the Asian population.

Other Identity Group Characteristics Requiring Further Research

As the workforce grows more diverse, there is a need to conduct a wider breadth of research beyond class, gender, race, and ethnicity. For instance, Yaker (1988) reports on a study where adults worked at tasks given to them by a research assistant who was either disabled or nondisabled, and either likable or obnoxious. It was expected that people would be more willing to help the disabled research assistant than the nondisabled one when both were likable, but less willing to help the disabled person as compared with the latter when they were equally obnoxious. Contrary to the theoretical expectations, subjects in the positive/pleasant condition were three times as willing to help the nondisabled research assistant as they were to help the disabled research assistant. In the negative/obnoxious condition they were just as strongly biased in the opposite direction—that is, in the direction of giving relatively more help to the research assistant with the disability. Yaker (1988) concludes that nondisabled people tend to (1) insist that the disabled person is suffering, even when there is no evidence of suffering, or (2) devalue the unfortunate person’s behavior because she ought to suffer and does not. The implications of this experiment are that some people become angry and annoyed with the disabled because they violate their beliefs about how people with disabilities are supposed to behave. Furthermore, due to myths about the disabled, many employers are not taking advantage of this increasing talent pool.
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talent pool (HR Focus 2003). Other research that contributes to meet-
ing the challenges of twenty-first century public managers also in-
cludes studies on cognitive style diversity and its effects on 
organizational communication as well as its effects on the ability of 
different people to work together and achieve consensus (Cox and 
Beale 1997). For example, some exciting and interesting recent re-
search shows that matching e-mail correspondents on one important 
cognitive style, called perceptual modality preferences, can increase 
rapport in written electronic mail communication and thus improve 
communication effectiveness (Crook and Booth 1997).

In employment as well as other aspects of life, gay men and lesbi-
ans are in a classic double-bind. It is very stressful and demeaning 
to remain closeted; that is, to hide an essential aspect of one’s iden-
tity. However, it can also be stressful and dangerous to come out of 
the closet, particularly if there are no civil rights protections to em-
ployment on the basis of sexual orientation (Hixson 1992). Levine 
and Leonard (1984) surveyed 203 women to explore in-depth the 
factors affecting employment discrimination against lesbians. To 
shield themselves from possible discrimination, most women in 
the study reported that they stayed closeted; only 23 percent informed 
most or all work associates. Seventy-seven percent were partially or 
totally closeted on the job; 29 percent told some friends, 21 percent 
told only close friends, and 27 percent told no one at all. Such cau-
sion appears justified. In the same article the authors find that “thirty-
one percent of the lesbians surveyed anticipated employment 
discrimination because of sexual orientation, and 13 percent had 
actually experienced it; 8 percent of the women had lost or had 
almost lost their jobs because they were lesbians. The only com-
parable estimates for gay men reveal that 29 percent of all gay male 
workers have had their careers negatively influenced by their sexual 
orientation” (Levine and Leonard 1984). Such anxiety makes gay 
and lesbian employees less productive. Brian McNaught (quoted in 
Stewart 1991) says, “My basic premise is that homophobia takes a 
toll on the ability of 10 percent of the workforce to produce.”

Implications for Future Research

The following implications for public managers are summarized from 
Sawyer (1993). The overwhelming research on sexual orientation
issues in the workplace indicates that the biggest area of concern is discrimination. The manager is responsible for assuring a climate that is accepting of all workers. Research indicates that gay men and lesbians experience higher job satisfaction when they are able to come out of the closet. They are more likely to do this when they do not fear discrimination or negative social consequences. Public managers must be sensitive to diverse lifestyles, to allow friends or partners to replace spouses at business and social functions, and let it be known that jokes and negative remarks about any lifestyle are not acceptable in the workplace. Gay men and lesbian women highly value their careers and management needs to respond by providing opportunities for advancement and career planning. Every effort should be made to break the “glass ceiling” that is experienced by gays and lesbians, as well as other identity groups. Training of all employees on issues of sexual preference must become a major element of all organizational human development efforts. For example, in West Hollywood, California’s new employee orientation classes, nondiscrimination is one of the topics for discussion. Included in these classes is treatment of the subject of sexual orientation (Edgety 1992). Findings from other research suggest that exposure to and interaction with homosexuals results in self-reported reduction in discomfort with homosexuals (Lance 1987).

This type of research on organizational-related attributes of the members of a diverse workforce can be thought of as the first step toward managing and valuing diversity (Thomas 1991). Moreover, not all demographic characteristics are equal. Cummings, Zhou, and Oldham (1993) suggest that those highly visible demographic characteristics such as gender and race produce more negative relationships than those less visible demographics such as job tenure or religion. Research is needed to determine under what organizational and societal situations different demographic characteristics become salient. Research is also needed on how an organization creates a situation where the functional instead of the dysfunctional consequences of workforce diversity are manifested. One suggestion is to look at the organizational culture. Chatman et al. (1993) conclude that in organizations that are characterized by the collective dimension of Hofstede’s Individualistic-Cooperative dimension of culture (Hofstede 1980), heterogeneous work groups performed better in terms of creativity, having beneficial conflict, degree of interaction
and participation, and timeliness of task completion. In individualistic organizations, such groups did not perform as well as homogeneous work groups. Cox, Lobel, and McLeod (1991) examined the differences between minorities and whites in levels of individualism and collectivism and concluded that European cultures tend to be more individualistic, whereas people from Asian, African, and Hispanic cultures tend to be more collective. Research that identifies the characteristics of team assignments leading to the functional rather than the dysfunctional consequences of team diversity is important in contemporary workforces (Watson, Kaman and Michaelson, 1993). Hersen (1992) reports that one characteristic of organizations that maximize the potential of their diverse workforce is the presence of effective “Valuing Diversity” programs. Such programs in the private sector are described in Jackson (1992) and Thomas (1991). An excellent description of a methodology for establishing “Valuing Diversity” efforts can be found in Thomas’s Beyond Race and Gender, a must reading for today’s public managers.

Summary and Conclusion

After reviewing the literature, Wooldridge, Smith-Mason, and Clark Maddox (1993), in their paper entitled “Changing Demographics of the Work Force: Implications for Research in Human Resource Management,” identified at least twenty areas of organization behavior where further research to detect significant identity group differences is required. Some of these areas include:

- Organizational design—do any of the identity groups react significantly different to degrees of centralization/decentralization, specialization, formalization, span of control, organization size, and/or work unit size? (Steers 1978)
- Cognitive styles—implications for organizational communication, training, and development efforts
- Basic Personnel/Human Resource Management (PHRM) functions—these include elements such as effectiveness of recruitment strategies and performance appraisal methods
- Barriers to effective organizational performance, strategies for effective organizational development and growth, determinant of upward mobility, effectiveness of various incentives in moti-
vating desired behavior; training needs and the selection of training strategies; occupational safety and health issues
• Organizational communication
• Causes of organizational conflict and effective conflict resolution strategies
• Magnitude of organizational influence; modes of exerting organizational influence
• Relationship to types of organizational culture
• Types and manifestation of organizational creativity
• Causes of and reaction to organizational stress
• Determinants of job satisfaction and job commitment and the relationship between these organizational elements
• The effects of organizational stress on job satisfaction and job performance
• Work values and attitudes such as involvement, loyalty, intentions to leave, cynicism, and compatibility with technology.

Understanding the challenges and opportunities that diversity brings is critical to twenty-first century public managers. Human resource management practices deemed effective in a homogeneous workforce are showing signs of not being as effective in a highly diverse workforce. Human resource professionals surveyed for the Hudson Institute’s Workforce 2000 report indicate three major concerns about the increasingly diverse workforce: (1) hiring and managing diverse groups, (2) creating family-friendly policies to meet the needs of the increasing number of women in the workforce, and (3) the possibility of labor force shortages. Consequently, there is a need for consistent and ongoing research in organizational behavior. Scholars of public administration must recognize these changes and their implications for public sector management. One size does not “fit all.” As pointed out by Cox and Kimmo (1990), the effect of race on work-related variables has been rare and the research results have often been mixed. Furthermore, Adler (1983) argues that researchers have limited their research efforts to differences between identity groups, but similarities should also be explored. Consequently, we have a unique opportunity to offer insights and perspectives on changing demographics in the public sector and how to effectively administer services to an increasingly diverse population at all levels of government.
References


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