

The *Foundations of Public Administration Series* is a collection of articles written by experts in 20 content areas, providing introductory essays and recommending top articles in those subjects.

### Gender and Diversity in Public Administration

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Gender and diversity are necessary themes in public administration. They remind the field to embrace *otherness* and to comprehend the effect it has on policies, programs, and outcomes. In recent decades attention to the difference that differentness makes has spurred appreciation for divergent perspectives on, and interpretations of, public service. This is imperative if the discipline is to strive for the normative ideal of democratic governance.

Public administration was first established as a matter of technical implementation where the values of efficiency and effectiveness were paramount. This upside down priority meant that the principles of social equity, protection of minority rights, and equal opportunity, took a back seat to administrative “science” (Kelly, 1998). Yet, as asserted by Dwight Waldo and others, public administration must color decisions with values that extend beyond actions, process, and efficiency. These decisions determine the manner in which goods and services are delivered and to whom, a matter of utmost concern for democratic governance. For the *other* – for all those



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who reside outside the traditionally advantaged confines of categories defined by white and male – it is possible that a democratic administration has yet to exist. As such, gender and diversity within public administration are, indeed, necessary themes.

During the formative years of the discipline, textbooks and curricula overlooked minorities and dismissed the contributions that reflected women's experience. The latter 1900s brought heightened sensitivity to these omissions. Shifts in public opinion produced passage of the Civil Rights Acts, equal opportunity initiatives, and job protection laws. The effect of this is that public administration more readily acknowledges voices and views of the *other*. This refers to those who differ from the elite landowners who crafted the U.S. Constitution, and from the men of the early 1900s who are credited with establishing public administration as an academic discipline.

Here we provide a retrospective analysis of the literature on gender and diversity to demonstrate how the focus has evolved with the passage of time. We present topics by theme to demonstrate how the interpretation of diversity has expanded to include multiple points of differentness. Tracing these changes over time reveals how the topic of diversity has progressed from being treated as a challenge to being treated as a benefit in the public workspace<sup>1</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup> We use the term *workspace* to refer to the entirety of public policy and administration, from problem definition to policy development to implementation and maintenance to evaluation and modification.

We begin with the literature on representative bureaucracy, for it is this concept that legitimates diversity as an important consideration in the policy process, administration and delivery of programs, and evaluation of outcomes. After that, we present gender for this is the topic that disadvantages the largest proportion of the population. Discussion then proceeds to topics of race and ethnicity and then to other ways of categorizing otherness, such as age, physical ability, sexuality, and religion.

### ***Representative Bureaucracy***

Public administration is a field that encompasses policy development, program implementation and maintenance, and evaluation and revision. For a policy to be developed, implemented, and maintained, it must be acceptable to the citizens being served. Cultural values and tensions seep into every project, flavoring operations and influencing success or failure. This is why an awareness of gender and diversity issues is essential if a practicing administrator is to be responsive to representativeness.

A rich literature has developed around the theme of representative bureaucracy. This is the normative argument that in a democracy, the delivery of public services should be by those who look like the citizens being served. Just as the electoral process is based on notions of fair representation, the administrative notion is that public services should be delivered by workers who are representative of those being served. This achieves both symbolic and practical ends. When citizens perceive the actions of government to be

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consistent with their values and reflective of their wishes, compliance is more readily forthcoming. This requires that the public workforce be representative of the population so that citizens feel they have a personal stake in processes and outcomes.

The touchstone on representative bureaucracy is J.D. Kingsley's (1944) description of the British civil service. Thirty years after that work appeared, Samuel Krislov (1974) published a book for the American context. As if his work opened the floodgates, this book was followed by a proliferation of articles on the subject (see, for example, Rosenbloom, 1974; Rosenbloom & Kinnard, 1977; Saltzstein, 1979; Smith, 1980; Rehfuss, 1986; Lewis, 1989; Martinez, 1991; Meier, 1993; Thielemann & Stewart, 1996; Riccucci & Sidel, 1997; Naff & Crum, 2000; Sidel & Loscocco, 2005; Goode & Baldwin, 2005; Meier, Pennington, et al., 2005; Meier & Nicholason-Crotty, 2006; Bradbury & Kellough, 2008; and Wilkins & Williams, 2008). There is a continuous stream of scholarship reflecting enduring interest in the subject regardless of the issues and events of the moment.

These works lead to the subject of active versus passive representation and the links between administrative capacity, responsibility, and legitimacy. Active representation is distinguished from passive representation by the power of the officeholder. The latter refers simply to appearance: Are there sufficient workers who have the same demographic characteristics as the citizens being served? Active representation, on the other hand, asks whether the

officeholders actually take actions that are consistent with the values of the demographic constituency being represented. For a bureau's actions to be legitimate, active representation is necessary. Active representation requires the officeholder to possess significant discretion in order to enact policy outcomes that favor minority interests (Sowa & Selden, 2003).

The subject of representative bureaucracy is foundational to all other discussions about the normative reasons for public administration to focus on the difference that differentness makes. Language was included in the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 that made non-discriminatory employment synonymous with the civil service merit system. By doing so, it established as policy that the Federal workforce must reflect the nation's diversity. These changes came as a consequence of intense pressure brought by a broad coalition of civil rights groups.

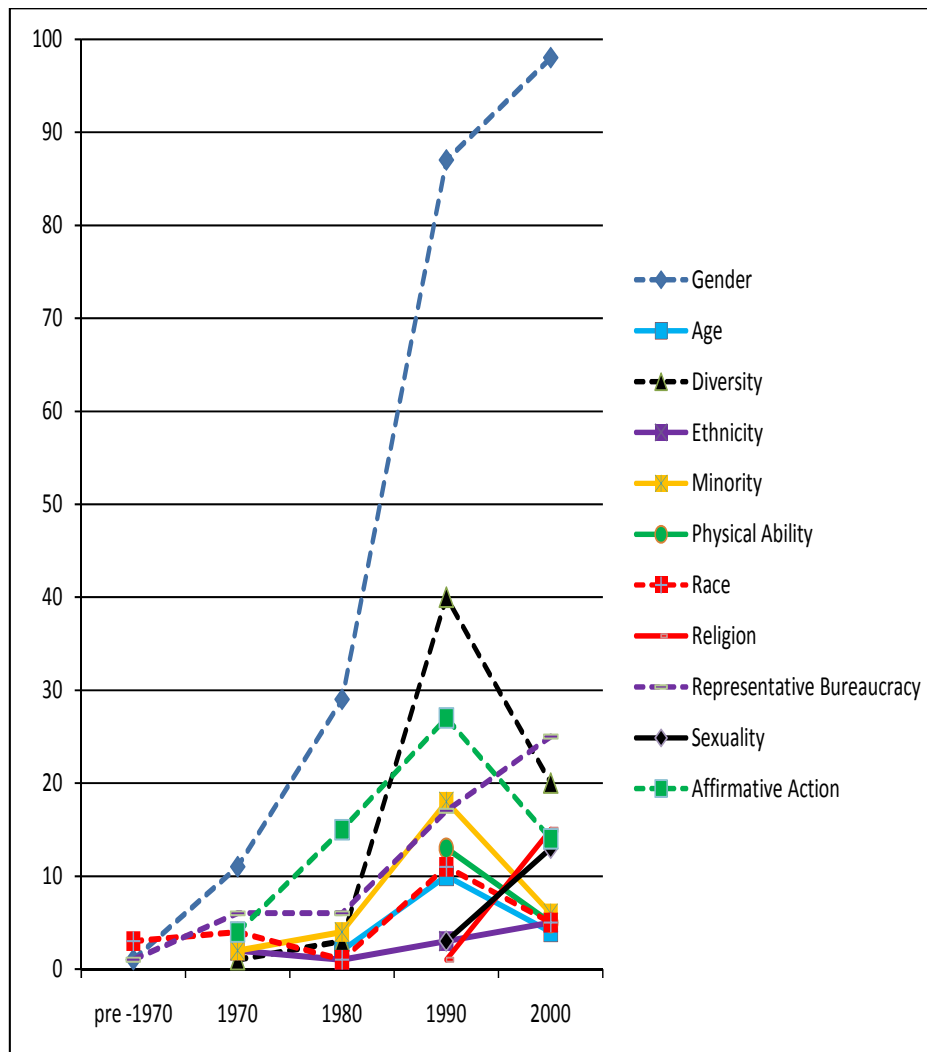
### *Categories of Otherness*

The theory of American democracy is that all citizens have an equal voice in setting policy and all have an equal voice in the governance processes that help communities thrive. When any set of citizens is excluded from these processes then the theory is weakened. Scholars are alert to this reality and many, coincident with the profusion of scholarship on representative bureaucracy, have focused their writings on particular categories of otherness. It is to these categories that we now turn.

Figure 1 shows the number of articles published on the subject of gender and diversity in public administration journals over the past forty years. Data were collected by counting articles published in the following journals: *Public Administration Review*, *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *Public Performance & Management Review*, *Administration & Society*, *American Review of Public Administration*, *Administrative Theory & Praxis*, *Public Integrity*, *Public Budgeting & Finance*, *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, *Governance*, *Public*

*Personnel Management*, *Journal of Public Management & Policy*, *Public Works Management & Review*, *Public Performance and Management Review*, *Journal of Policy Analysis & Management*, *Public Administration Quarterly*, *Public Administration International Quarterly*, *International Journal of Public Administration*, *International Public Management Journal*, and *Public Manager*.

**Papers Published in Public Administration Journals on Gender and Diversity**



In the last forty years, the volume of articles appearing in public administration journals on diversity-related matters has waxed and waned. The graph shows that research on matters related to diversity mushroomed between the 1970s and the 1990s. Prior to 1970 there was a more simplistic approach to the subject: Only papers on gender, race, and representative bureaucracy appeared.

As of the 1970s, additional aspects and facets of diversity drew sufficient interest for articles to be published. Gender continued to skyrocket while representativeness increased only somewhat, giving way to the additional topics that diversity invites: affirmative action, age, ethnicity, minority status, and physical ability. After the high water mark of the 1990s, interest waned for many of these categories. In terms of physical ability, writings are concentrated in the decade since the Americans with Disabilities Act was enacted in 1990 and have since trailed off.

Currently, gender, religion, sexuality, representative bureaucracy, and ethnicity, are on the rise. Writings on sexuality are on the increase as more articles appear on the subject of same sex marriage, workplace benefits, and issues surrounding transgender nondiscrimination policy. This stream is recent with articles showing up only since 1990. Along with sexuality, religion has become more popular in recent years. The separation of church and state is a conundrum complicated by the realities of religious practices and First Amendment rights. Journals are replete with papers on spirituality (Bruce, 2000), explication of the religious undertones of our founding documents (Stillman, 2004), and

questions about the implications. For example, David Houston and his colleagues (2008) report that people in public service occupations generally are more religious and possess less secular attitudes than those in non-public service occupations.

Articles on ethnicity and minority status concentrate on the questions of who benefits and who loses. Scholarship on race asks how racial distinctions result in different types of policies. For example, the state and federal response to New Orleans' flooded levees and the devastation to the Gulf Coast after Hurricane Katrina provides the most recent case in point (Stivers, 2007).

At the same time, questions of representative bureaucracy escalated in the 1980s and continue to flourish. Initially focused on race in the 1960s, the subject broadened to encompass age, religion, affirmative action, gender, sexuality, ethnicity, passive versus active representation, and the role of organizational culture, in affecting the degree to which decision makers actively represent the group(s) of which they are a member (Wilkins & Williams, 2008).

### *Gender*

Of all categories of otherness, gender is the most popular topic. Articles on gender far outnumber articles on any other subject. Most likely this is because gender is its own form of diversity plus it factors into every other type of diversity, affecting – and confounding – its ramifications. See, for example, Domonic Bearfield's (2009) discussion of the intersectionality of gender with

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race. Also, there has been a striking increase in the proportion of MPA students and public administration faculty who are women, perhaps a result of the increase in both supply and demand for gender-related scholarship, or, alternatively, due to the increase in female public administrators. Yet many of the systems that persist in the workplace were built for people who do not get pregnant, who have no need for nursing rooms at the office, no need for maternity leave or early afternoon hours in order to pick children up after school, and have no need for eldercare and childcare responsibilities.

Despite Abigail Adams' plea to her husband "to remember the ladies" (Butterfield & Garrett, 1963, p. 370), the framers of the U.S. Constitution wrote a document for themselves, spelling out men's rights. Women were treated as the property of their husbands and were not allowed to vote. Not until the mid 1800's were they allowed to own real property in their own names if they were married<sup>2</sup> (Chused, 1982; Salmon, 1989). Although they were counted in the census as whole persons, unlike slaves who were counted as 3/5 of a person, it would be over a century before they gained the right to vote, fifty years after the Fifteenth Amendment enfranchised African American men. In 1864 the U.S. government decreed that when women were employed by government, they should be paid one-half the salary that a man would be paid to

perform the same job (van Riper, 1958). It took another hundred years before the Equal Pay Act of 1963 was passed, declaring that when performing the same job, women must be paid the same as men. And it was not until 2009 that the Lillie Ledbetter Act was passed, a bill that provides the legal tools necessary to litigate discriminatory pay. Cultural holdovers from the era when it was legal for women's work to be compensated at lower rates than men's paved the way for the current inequity in pay, such that women currently earn 77.8 cents for every dollar that men earn (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007). Even when women's concentration in lower paying fields is controlled for in the federal civil service, the pay gap, although narrowed, persists (Lewis & Oh, 2009).

To appreciate these facts is to understand why, to this day, gender makes a difference in terms of status, jobs, income, and power. In a nation founded on the premise that white males inherently hold advantage, there is a lag in the passage and enforcement of laws that level the playing field. The social sciences are not immune to this lag, where women academics trail behind their male colleagues in tenured professorships and in honors bestowed. Women are represented less than their numbers would predict in the halls of power. Their income is less than that of men's, and their voices are but whispers in the canon of the field. To a large extent, there are similar dynamics in terms of race, especially for African Americans (Ricucci, 2009).

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<sup>2</sup> The first state to do so was Connecticut in 1809 but the policy leader was New York in 1848 with many states modeling legislation after New York's through 1892. At the federal level, reference to gender vis-à-vis property ownership was first omitted from legislation in the Homestead Act of 1862.

### *Early Influences*

Integration into the economic and cultural mainstream requires decades if not centuries. A backward glance at the early 1900s reveals how the voice of the *other* was silenced during a century when public administration was developing as an academic discipline. The founding narratives for the field have documented the participation of women from settlement houses and the Bureau of Municipal Research. But the contributions of a much larger group, American club women, remains largely unrecognized despite the fact that, as cities grew, they participated greatly in the development of governance structures. Although most of them lacked the professional training of the settlement house workers, club women – in other words, community activists – looked around their neighborhoods, towns, and cities, saw what needed to be done, and helped to create libraries, health clinics, schools, sanitation systems, and roads (Scheer, 2002). Their voices remind us of the inadequacy of private charity, the value of government in social action, and the importance of person-to-person connections between people in government and people in neighborhoods.

For example, in 1908 the Women’s Municipal League of Boston was formed and by 1912 it claimed more than 1,800 members. Its philosophy was that the membership should include women of every race, creed, and occupation, from the poorest, least educated to the wealthiest and best educated. They worked collaboratively with the City to monitor streets, sanitation, housing, and recreation centers. In 1912 Mrs. T.J. Bowlker, the League’s President, wrote an

article for the journal, *American City*. In it she said that women have a special function in developing the welfare of humanity – a function which, in her words, men could not perform. This function consisted of women’s power to make, in any place in which she happened to live, a *home* for all those who came there. She explained that “Women must now learn to make of their cities great community homes for all the people” (1912, p. 863). She closed her description of the League’s work with these words:

*The interests of men are divergent; property interests and the interests of personal success, drive the different classes of men far asunder, but the interests of women are convergent, and bring all classes close together. Modern knowledge teaches that the things for which women care most deeply, the health and the happiness of those they hold dear, are unattainable for any one of us unless they are attained by all. May the women of the country unite to create a true democracy, which shall be, not a mere form of government, but a practical, living force, a vital power, binding us all together. (p. 869)*

Mrs. Bowlker’s work in Boston was simultaneous with Jane Addams’ work in Chicago with the Settlement Houses. A few years later, Mary Parker Follett’s writings on citizenship, and the centrality of the neighborhood and community, was similar to Bowlker’s theme of enhancing the quality of life and of democracy by focusing on the community. Laverne Burchfield, who completed her doctoral work in 1928 and served as the Managing Editor of *Public Administration Review* from 1943 to 1958, wrote on the subject of international law and how it could contribute to world peace. She had come of age in an era where

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women were making their mark by focusing on the importance of life in community, democratic values, and using the instruments of government to promote peaceful existence.

These women's works, though trenchant, were drowned out by Fordism and behaviorism – two dynamics of more interest to men than to women. Their messages were left to lie on library shelves for decades because their rebuke of empiricism and objectification conflicted with the narrowly constructed canon. Diverse perspectives – and diverse ways of knowing – expand the canon, which is what their writings have since done for the field.

### ***Where would public administration be today if women's voices had been heard a century ago?***

The field has functioned much as a bird with a broken wing, with so much promise undelivered because of the paradigmatic blinders that prevented it from focusing on caring and life in community. For example, the work of Mrs. Bowlker, as noted above, demonstrates how women played an important, although unacknowledged, role in the creation of healthy communities early in the 1900s, even though public administration's formal literature remained silent about their work. It focused, instead, on the work that men performed in their offices Monday through Friday.

An intellectual history of the field that ignores the work of women has the effect of severely distorting itself. Such a history overlooks the actions and contributions

of women who departed from the scientific management approach of simply seeking efficient processes. Their search for methods to ameliorate problems that citizens encountered in their communities took them in a different direction. Camilla Stivers (1992, 2000) argues that the administrative state during the early 1900s needs to be understood not only in terms of the efforts of "bureau men" who were interested in making administrative methods more efficient, but also of "settlement women" who sought and won the expansion of governmental responsibility for social ills. By conceptualizing the field as an intellectual enterprise that encompasses both procedural (bureau men) and substantive (settlement women) concerns, an expanded history is revealed that more accurately depicts public-minded initiatives in the early 1900s.

Julia Lathrop, a 20-year resident of Hull House and the first woman to head a federal agency, the U. S. Children's Bureau, consciously linked her own lived experience and those of her neighbors to policy concerns (Stivers, 2002). The work of the settlement houses and club women accentuated the value of government in social action and the importance of person-to-person connections between people in government and people in neighborhoods. As shown from Mrs. Bowlker's quotes, club women actually played a more wide ranging role and touched more lives and communities than the work of settlement women. They were instrumental in founding public services and governance structures for their communities. These activities were the genesis of the path that for decades would be the primary avenue for

women becoming active in the political process and gaining elected office.

### *Theoretical and Practical Perspectives*

Cultural values also stymied the acceptance of women and their perspectives into the public administration canon. For example, by the 1930s, there was still debate about whether married women should be employed in civil service. And there was general consensus that women were not well suited for most high-level, well-paying positions (Rung, 1997). Such debates reflect cultural biases that perpetuate the status quo even to this day. A review of caricatures of Hillary Clinton during her run for the presidency in 2008 reveal discomfort with a powerful woman, regardless of her competence and experience.

Another example of how cultural norms render women's voices silent is the work of Mary Parker Follett. Morton and Lindquist (1997) interpret her work as that of an underappreciated theorist of public administration. They relate her work to contemporary trends in the field and argue that in addition to being a precursor to these trends, Follett's work helps build a coherent theoretical foundation for public administration in general, a foundation that has a strong theoretical link to contemporary feminism.

Marilyn Rubin (1990, 2000) has traced the participation of women in the American Society for Public Administration since its inception in 1939. She found that prior to 1972, women were virtually invisible in the Society's governance and in its efforts to support the

improvement of theory and practice. Since that time, however, women have progressively been elected to leadership roles and their scholarly contributions have increased.

One should not assume that women did not make contributions prior to 1972. In fact they did. But they were kept in subordinate roles working in the background while men held the prestigious titles. For example, while Laverne Burchfield held the title of managing editor of this journal for 15 volumes, from 1943 to 1958, the grey beards of the day held the title of editor-in-chief. One of the Editors-in-Chief with whom she worked, E. Pendleton Herring, said when asked about his work with Dr. Burchfield: "My title of Editor-in-Chief was purely formal. Laverne edited the *Public Administration Review* and did it very well. . . . I felt then and still do that she should have been titled as she truly was the real Editor-in-Chief (Herring, 1999, in Guy, 2000, p. 13).

Herbert Simon recalled that "Laverne was a very competent and energetic editor of the *Review*, at a time when editors did much of the selecting of papers for publication instead of passing that task to referees; hence, although she was labeled "managing editor," she had much to do with setting the tone of the journal ..." He credits her with being "a person of considerable executive talent, and [a person who] was dedicated to the improvement of the public service, and who . . . was especially concerned that [the journal] have real impact on the practice of management" (Simon, 1999, in Guy, 2000, p. 13). Frank Sherwood remembers Burchfield and says that "In the 1950s she really was

*PAR*, regardless of who was listed as the editor. Nothing got into the journal that she had not carefully reviewed and improved" (Sherwood, in Guy, 2000, p.15). Had her work received the credit it was due, she would be widely remembered today as the scholar who developed *PAR* into the journal of record for the field (Guy, 2000; Burnier, 2004).

When Nesta Gallas (1976), the first woman to be elected President of the American Society for Public Administration, published a symposium on women in public administration in *Public Administration Review*, the work marked the beginning of the integration of women into scholarship and leadership in the field. In many ways the literature still lags behind today's needs. For example, Rubin and Bartle (2005) contend that governmental budgeting still dismisses the reality of women's lives. They say that during the past 25 years, the international community has recognized that gender equality is essential for sustainable economic growth and full social development, and has called upon nations to use their budgets to promote gender equitable resource allocation and revenue generation. More than 60 countries have answered this call by implementing gender-responsive budgets at the national and subnational levels. However, gender-responsive budgeting is virtually unheard of among U.S. public finance scholars and practitioners.

Janet Hutchinson (2002) argues that the inequality between women and men that is embedded in social norms and reflected by the public administration paradigm precludes full implementation of participatory democracy. Her argument provides

corroboration to Rubin's observation about the lack of attention to the difference that gender makes in terms of program needs.

In an attempt to bring influential women practitioners and scholars into the canon, Claire Felbinger and Wendy Haynes (2004) collected biographies on a number of influential women in public administration's history. By presenting their stories, the editors demonstrate that women have been actively engaged, although insufficiently acknowledged, in public administration's past.

DeLysa Burnier (2003a, 2003b) considers whether women have a room of their own in the house of American public administration and concludes that a "gender room" has been emerging, but it needs to be furnished with more interpretive gender research, including the voices of a wider range of women administrators and employees. Moreover, the critical tools found in that room must be used in the other rooms of public administration research and writing if the discipline is to be transformed. This other voice of feminism has the potential to create spaces for broader conversations about theory. Had that already been the case, it is likely that a discourse on care, for example, would have developed long ago as a hallmark of good government and meaningful citizenship.

In fact, the settlement women's emphasis on care, connection, and concrete experience informed the national policies, values, and practices of Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal, most notably in the figure of Frances Perkins. But Perkins and other New Deal

women administrators long have been erased from American public administration's history (Burnier, 2008). Their perspective would offer a fresh reading of the 1930s based on the care perspective implicit in the settlement ethos and the community-mindedness of club women. This history would more accurately attribute significant advances of the progressive movement to the work of women. Such a reading would provide a more complex and gender-inclusive view of the period than the familiar textbook narrative with its focus on government growth, executive reorganization, and the principles approach to the mechanics of management.

An additional contribution during this period that reflects the feminine in public administration is the work of Mary Parker Follett in which she anticipated, 75 years ahead of her time, current thought on spirituality at work (Johnson, 2007). Her interest in spirituality was framed as a means to foster individual growth and to build community which, in turn, benefits organizations. This is linked to Follett's concept of integrative experience, where she proposed a conscious process of relating to each other, such that connections would develop between individuals and would also improve the larger community.

In addition to a historical look at women's interest in public administration, there are contemporary targets of attention that include policy interests, management style, access to jobs of influence, and pay disparity. The literature on each of these areas is summarized below.

### ***Policy interests***

Another research stream that illuminates the difference that gender makes is in the area of public policy development, implementation, and outcomes. This work examines how women's policy preferences differ from men's (DeHart-Davis, Marlowe, & Pandey, 2006), how institutions of governance are gendered (Bremer & Howe, 1988; Duerst-Lahti & Kelly, 1995; Guy, 1992b; Newman, 1994; Kerr, Miller, et al., 2002) and how the combination of gendered policy preferences and institutions result in a bureaucracy that varies in the degree to which it is representative (Dolan, 2000, 2002; Kelly, 2001; Mani, 1999, 2001; Sidel & Loscocco, 2005; Saltzstein, 1986; Wilkins, 2007).

### ***Management style***

A third stream pertains to management style. Scholarship in this area ranges from questions about whether women are more ethical than men (White, 1999) to changes that occur in the work environment when more women are present (Rung, 1997b). It also addresses masculine versus feminine management styles (Daley & Naff, 1998; Guy, 1995; Hale, 1999; Meier, Mastracci, et al., 2006; Meier, O'Toole, et al., 2006; Rusaw, 1996). Another dimension tracks the presence of women in positions of influence (Guy, 1992a; Lawn-Day & Ballard, 1996). Applications of feminist theory to management also exist (Ferguson, 1983; Hult, 1995; Hutchinson, 2001; Leuenberger, 2005) as does discussion of job segregation and how it affects public service (Guy & Newman, 2004).

### *Access to jobs of influence*

Women have been disadvantaged in the workplace by dynamics best captured through metaphors of *glass ceilings*, *glass walls*, *sticky floors*, and *trap doors* (Guy, 1994). *Glass ceilings* and *glass walls* refer to job segregation. *Glass ceilings*, meaning invisible, non-tangible (think *cultural*) factors cause women to be disproportionately overlooked when it comes to promotion into powerful decision making posts. *Glass walls* refers to intangible barriers that make it difficult to move into jobs traditionally thought to be men's jobs. Keep in mind that up until 1963, job ads were divided into 'men's jobs' and 'women's jobs'. That was outlawed by the Equal Pay Act, but traditions persist. Moreover, when a woman has excelled at a woman's job, she is thought not to be qualified to move into a man's job. *Sticky floors* refers to factors that make it difficult to move up the career ladder. Women with childcare responsibilities, for example, are often overlooked for promotion. Women who started out in clerical positions and excelled are thought not qualified to be promoted into higher level jobs, even though their male peers who may have started in the mail room may be promoted up the ladder, boasting that he started at the bottom and moved up. *Trap doors* refer to obstacles that cause women to "fall through the floor" in terms of advancement. A discussion of these dynamics follows.

One of the early works on the integration of women into the public service was written by Debra Stewart (1976). Her work drew attention to how few women there were in positions of influence. Scholarship in this

genre gave rise to the moniker *glass ceiling* and a number of subsequent scholars have documented its persistence (Bullard & Wright, 1993; Dolan, 2004; Guy, 1993, 1992; Kelly, Guy, et al., 1991; Lewis, 1988; Riccucci & Saidel, 1997). Women were making inroads into lower level jobs but were systematically overlooked when promotions were made to positions of influence. All of the reasons for why women have been unable to achieve parity have been debunked. Women's performance ratings in the federal civil service are typically higher than men's when compared at the same grades in the same agencies (Lewis, 1997b). Among professional level staff, men's and women's overtime rates are similar (Lewis, 1999). Neither can the disparity be attributed to turnover rates. Lewis and Park (1989) found that when women and men in the same pay grades are compared, their turnover rates are very similar.

*Glass walls* captures the problem of job segregation. The average woman works in an occupation that is 70 percent female whereas the average man's occupation is 75 percent male (Lewis, 1985). Nearly 60 percent of all men would have to change occupations to achieve perfect integration. This phenomenon is responsible for glass walls and these jobs become like *sticky floors*, holding the woman in place. When a woman has held a "woman's" job, she is thought not qualified to move into a management post that oversees both women's and men's jobs (Miller, Kerr, et al., 1999). For example, Thomas and Mohai (2005) report a study of the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Forest Service. Their results show that the number of women in the agency has increased greatly since the 1980s but they made

greater gains in administrative support positions than in jobs that put them in the pipeline for leadership positions. While women's aggregate numbers show greater diversity in the Forest Service workforce, a more careful analysis reveals that the leadership ranks are still the domain of white, male foresters.

Studying the State of Michigan, Sneed (2007) found that although occupational segregation had decreased over the past two decades, gender-based occupational segregation persisted and is linked to departmental function. Departments that deliver highly regulated human services have lower levels of occupational segregation than departments that primarily issue contracts for construction, goods, and services. Salary is also linked to departmental mission, with the latter departments having both the highest mean salary and the highest level of occupational segregation. Many have investigated the reasons for why women have difficulty moving beyond the glass ceilings and walls. The causes are as disparate as lack of mentoring and informal networks, to institutionalized human resource practices that make it difficult to overturn seniority or veterans preference points (Daley, 1996; Fox & Schuhmann, 2001; Kellough, 1990; Vertz, 1985; Naff, 1994; Newman, 1993, Moore, 1992).

*Trap doors* are analogous to what happens to women when they become victims of sexual harassment. If they file a complaint, they immediately become suspect troublemakers. If they allow it to continue, they fall prey to demeaning treatment. Even when they file a complaint and are theoretically protected from retaliation, they often lose status. Several scholars have

investigated the sequelae to what happens to women who are harassed at work (Jackson & Newman, 2004; Reese & Lindenberg, 2005). In fact, Reese & Lindenberg (2005) found that there is an intersection between sexual harassment and age, such that women and men of different ages view it differently. Women also fall through the *trap door* when childcare and eldercare responsibilities pull their time and attention away from the workplace (Ezra & Deckman, 1996). The absence of family-friendly policies in the workplace coupled with societal expectations that such work is "women's work" combine to nudge women off the career ladder. A related issue that makes career mobility difficult is that workers are expected to meet masculine standards at the office while maintaining their feminine role of nurturer at home. This double workload is extreme and explains why working women have an increased incidence of being single or divorced, married working women tend to have more housework responsibilities, and working women have fewer children or are childless (Tower & Alkadry, 2008).

### *Pay inequity*

Although the Equal Pay Act was passed almost fifty years ago, women continue to earn less than men, even when education, experience, and job are controlled. Unexplained differences are statistically significant. The reality of sex discrimination in pay shapes life choices (rather than the reverse). Many scholars have attempted to discover the reason for the disparity, but to little avail (Alkadry & Tower, 2006; Lewis, 1998; Lewis & Oh, 2008; Llorens, Wenger, et al., 2008; Mastracci,

Newman, & Guy, 2006; Meier & Wilkins, 2002; Willoughby, 1991; Zeigler, 2006).

### ***Summary of how gender affects women's status in public administration***

The goal of true integration of women into the workforce is to achieve a "depolarized workplace where the worth of both women and men is appreciated. Without women having to behave like men, their views, perspectives, and skills strengthen the milieu. Just as Mrs. T. J. Bowlker observed so many years ago, gender makes a substantive difference in policy preferences, public initiatives, and stylistic nuances. Women's contributions complement and enrich the canon, which otherwise presents a skewed representation of the field that overlooks the work of over half the population.

The following categories of differentness provide insights into diversity. Each category includes both women and men such that there is an intersection between the coverage on gender from the prior discussion with the coverage of categorical differentness that follows.

### ***Race***

When gender is discussed, conversation typically turns to women as they are more disadvantaged in terms of power and economics than are men. Similarly, when the subject of race is broached, conversation turns to the disadvantaged status of African Americans, although the American population is a mix of many races with Hispanics being the most rapidly growing

contingent. The nation's collective guilt about slavery and decades of de jure segregation, however, draws attention to African Americans first and foremost.

Dominic Bearfield captures the ironic way that contemporary American culture treats Blacks. He characterizes these as two diametrically opposed images: the Magic Negro and the Closed Fist (Bearfield, 2008). The Magic Negro provides moral or spiritual guidance by using folk insight to assist a white character. This is characterized in popular culture with such movies as *Driving Miss Daisy* and *The Secret Life of Bees*. Then think of images from the Black Power movement to capture the separatist meanings of the closed fist. This is to say that how we *think* about the *other* shapes our comfort level and our myths about how we get along.

When the issue of race first appeared in the public administration literature, equity and fairness were the focal point. For example, the civil rights movement in the mid-1900s sought to remove racial designations from applications and forms so that citizens applying for work or services could not be automatically relegated to one category or another. However, Mindlin (1966) argued against this well-intentioned initiative because the absence of an item on race from statistical and administrative forms would frustrate documentation and enforcement of civil rights infractions.

Further writings in the years immediately subsequent to passage of the Civil Rights Act focused on how governmental administrative machinery could

ameliorate discrimination. Chief among these solutions were Human Relations Commissions (Lloyd, 1967). These commissions served as hearing boards that would hear grievances and have the power to redress wrongs. Attention to this matter unfolded as a result of urban race riots.

Attention also focused on the burden borne by black public administrators. As blacks gradually gained positions of influence in government, they found themselves caught between the urgent desire to integrate peaceably into the mainstream while changing the institutions that had promoted discriminatory policies. But as newcomers and minorities in the bureaucracy, black administrators found themselves without a critical mass of support for being change agents (Nelson & Van Home, 1974).

Issues raised by integration occurred throughout the bureaucracy. Just as with the wider American society, the armed forces experienced racial unrest within its ranks. Richard Stillman (1974) described how the Department of Defense coped with the racial tension, in terms of the distribution of non-white service personnel, off-base housing, and the military system of justice. And Rosenbloom and Grabosky (1977) wrote about growing competition among racial and ethnic groups for federal civil service posts. Attention to matters such as these then gave way to research that monitored the advancement of racial groups in the bureaucracy, tracing problems of occupational segregation and depressed wages (Lewis, 1986a, 1997, 1998; Lewis & Nice, 1994) to barriers preventing

promotion to the highest ranks (Kim, 1993; Sisneros, 1992).

The focus on integration into the civil service, job segregation and depressed wages evolved into questions about how public administration as a field thinks about race and administrative responsibility. Jennifer Alexander (1997) posed the question of how administrators might confront a problem they are unable to resolve but are, nonetheless, compelled to address. Other scholars looked backward to understand how historical tradition had brought the problem of race to where it now was (Henderson, 2004; King, 1999).

Attention is now focused on public policy and how it reflects societal images of race. For example, Ward (2002) writes about the practice of racial profiling (Ward, 2002) and how it manifests discriminatory stereotyping. Camilla Stivers (2007b) interprets the governmental response to the flooding of New Orleans after Hurricane Katrina as emblematic of how discriminatory policies and services over decades ensured that African Americans would be disproportionately harmed in such a disaster. She interprets this as masked racism that affects the practice of public administration.

As long as racial categories matter to people, the issue will be on the table. Dividing people into groups pits each category against the other. And the more visible difference there is, the more one group is likely to be advantaged or disadvantaged over the other. This is because traits will be attributed to one versus the other,

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such as intelligence, temperament, and work skills. To ignore categories at this time, however, is to rush headlong into the past, ignoring glaring instances where one race is advantaged over another. Government's role is to be vigilant in its practices to guard against the return of a hegemony that benefits one group while ignoring the disadvantage of another.

### *Ethnicity*

Another perspective on diversity is through the lens of ethnicity. This aspect has received less attention than race but is closely related in terms of diversity concerns and issues. And research on this topic started at about the same time that research on race and gender started. Having said that, the public administration literature is relatively sparse on the subject. Dvora Yanow (1996) argues that ethnic categories are social constructions rather than reflections of the natural world. By way of example, she cites the U.S. Census Bureau's 1990 revision of categories for race and ethnicity, making the point that such arbitrary groupings have implications for the provision of client services and workplace diversity. Where ethnicity does appear in the literature, the importance of cultural, historic, and social traditions is emphasized and ethnicity is used as the independent variable to explain differences (Barger, 1976). These make a difference in how members with different ethnicity view the workplace, and what they expect of coworkers and of themselves. Native Americans have been discussed by Ortiz (2002) and Sigelman & Carter (1976). Asian Americans who are employed by federal agencies have been investigated by Pan Suk Kim (1993).

Other research has framed the issue of ethnicity as similar to that of immigration, where multiple traditions and value sets result in problems with workplace productivity when there is a clash of cultural values (Klein, 1996; Pitts & Jarry, 2007). In sum, a focus on ethnicity represents an awareness that cultural values and traditions make a difference in how one interacts with others, in how policy preferences differ, and in how representativeness is important even when differences are invisible as compared to racial distinctions.

### *Minority*

In 1974 Adam Herbert identified the role demands and dilemmas of minority public administrators. He painted a picture of a minority administrator who is confined to the lower status agencies – those that redistribute wealth according to a strict protocol, rather than those that distribute it with high levels of discretion (Newman, 1994). Are they now legitimate participants in statecraft? Research on the status of minorities shows that progress has been made, tremendous progress in fact, when one considers Barack Obama's election as President, Eric Holder's appointment as U.S. Attorney General, Bobby Jindal's election as Governor of Louisiana, and the number of minority appointments to top level posts.

Research over the past forty years on this topic falls within one of several frames of reference: representative bureaucracy, occupational segregation, monitoring progress, and minority set-asides. In terms of the changing emphasis over time, representative

bureaucracy is a persistent theme over time (Thompson, 1976; Cayer & Sigelman, 1980; Howard, 1986; Charles, 2003; Naff, 2001). Occupational segregation is also an enduring theme, in which studies report the integration of minority workers throughout all occupations and ranks. Testing the Herbert thesis, segregation can still be found but not to the degree as when he first wrote about it in 1974. See, for example, Shaughnessy (1986); Kim and Lewis (1994); Murray and Terry, et al. (1994); Page (1994); Daley (1996); Myers and Chan (1996); Rice and Mongkuo (1998); Selden (1998); and Kim (2006). Additionally, work by Chon-Kyun (2005) monitors the status of Asian Americans in the federal government, finding that they do better than any other racial group in terms of their level of integration across the workforce, with the exception of the Senior Executive Service. There, few minorities of any race have been able to achieve posts.

Minority set-asides were a galvanizing topic for researchers interested in the degree to which a portion of government contracts would be assured to be awarded to minority owned enterprises. Studies by Mitchell Rice (Rice 1991, 1995, 1999; Rice & Mongkuo, 1998), Lenneal Henderson (1995), and Wilbur Rich (1999) among others, have traced this subject. The purpose of minority set-asides was to compensate for prior economic injustice. Myers and Chan (1996) concluded, however, that discriminatory contracting outcomes persisted despite formal set-asides. While a small number of set-asides would be awarded to minorities, all other contracts would be de facto “set aside” for majority-owned businesses.

A few researchers have studied the effect of multiple races, each of which is a minority, to see how whether multiplicity benefits all. For example, Sally Selden (1998) investigated the Farmers Home Administration to learn about the employment patterns of African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and Native Americans. She concluded that the number of any one group and presence of upper-level representation were key factors that contributed to the advancement of minorities across the board.

In summary, framing racial differences in the conglomerate term *minorities* erases attention to differentness. Instead, it focuses attention on the fact that these are non-white and by doing so, draws attention to the fact that they are fewer in number than whites without invoking specific racial or ethnic attributions. In some contexts it is advantageous to use this label even though it diminishes differences that may be important. It also risks overlooking particular categories that would benefit by a more specific appellation. For example, when is a minority not a minority? If a city is populated and governed primarily by African Americans, are they counted as a minority, such that the numerical minority, whites, fail to be represented equitably? In other words, how one frames the issue drives the label one wears.

### ***Affirmative Action***

Affirmative action is a policy designed to override the human proclivity to associate with, hire, and promote those who are alike. The literature on it falls into one of several categories and shows a distinct evolution since

papers first started appearing. In the 1970s and 1980s, writings focused on the need for affirmative action from several vantages: supposed “equal” treatment had resulted in inequitable outcomes (Lewinsohn, 1974; Segers, 1979); perceptions of affirmative action by various groups differed greatly (Davis & West, 1978; Slack, 1988, 1989); and monitoring traced its implementation and outcomes (Ballard & Lawn-Day, 1992; Clynch & Gaudin, 1982; Huckle, 1985; Lewis, 1986a; Lovrich & Steel, 1983; Milward & Swanson, 1979; Nelson & Sigelman, 1984; Schachter, 1987; Warner & Steel, 1989).

In the 1990s, coincident with the backlash against affirmative action, articles proliferated on debates about the utility of affirmative action and on the effect of Supreme Court decisions (Adams, 1997; Crum & Naff, 1997; DuPont-Morales, 1997; Ewoh & Elliott, 1997; Goodman & Tuchfarber, 1995; Guy, 1997; Jeffrey, 1997; Kellough, Selden, et al., 1997; LaNoue & Sullivan, 1995; Nalbandian, 1989; Kellough, 1991; Riccucci, 1997). In the 2000s, articles tend to focus on the changing paradigm that has moved from affirmative action in order to integrate traditionally disadvantaged groups to affirmative action in order to achieve representative bureaucracy (Naylor & Rosenbloom, 2004; Riccucci, 2007; Slack, 1997). This transition in focus shows how scholarship has come to rest on the bedrock of representative bureaucracy with its necessity for having a diverse public workforce. Emblematic of this is the fact that now it is relatively rare to encounter the label ‘affirmative action’ while quite common to encounter the word ‘diversity.’

### *Age*

Age is another form of diversity. Scholars have been researching it since the 1980s, largely as a result of the effect of the baby boom generation. With a huge cohort of workers of one generation, issues of their pending retirement arose, and opportunities for promotion for younger workers also emerged. The bottleneck created by so many officeholders of one generation prevented younger workers from moving up, but from now through the next decade, retirements bring huge challenges as employers race to groom younger workers to fill empty seats.

After two decades of cutbacks in management positions in government, especially at the federal level, there is a vacuum left where reservoirs of organizational memory should be. A second issue is one of generational differences. Although there has been much made of supposed generational differences between GenXers and Boomers, empirical evidence does not support this. In fact, public service workers of both generations have much more in common than not, including work values, agreement on work norms, and expectations about organizational justice (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998; Yang & Guy, 2006). Where differences do arise is in the area of sex roles and issues of personal comportment. There is evidence that generations in the workforce hold differing attitudes about sexual harassment and which behaviors are, and are not, permissible (Reese & Lindenberg, 2005). Differences also arise in preferences for the work environment, in that younger workers prefer to work in

teams while many older workers prefer to work individually.

The Age Discrimination and Employment Act was passed in 1967 and forbade mandatory retirement provisions, which used to be customary for many positions (Pynes, 1995). However, there are several amendments and limitations to the ADEA, which render it ineffectual in some circumstances. For example, state and local governments may set age limits in regard to mandatory retirement for public safety personnel. In addition, specific federal civil service employees such as air traffic controllers, nuclear materials couriers, and customs and border protection are also exceptions to the law. These mandatory requirements still exist despite the fact that physical fitness and mental abilities are stronger predictors of job performance across all age groups, whereas age is found to be a poor predictor. Lastly, ADEA is also limited to businesses that employ 20 or more individuals (Pynes, 1995).

Another research stream is on the topic of productivity issues and the problem of plateaued workers, which means workers who have reached their maximum productivity and have not the motivation to learn new skills, seek promotion, or modify existing skills (Wolf, Neves, et al., 1987; Czaja, 1995; Elliott, 1995; Roberts, 1995). These workers pose challenges for training and development. Traditional civil service systems make it difficult to alter the terms of their employment and this is one reason why civil service reforms have been cropping up across the country.

Another topic that arises is that of succession planning. When promotions are a zero-sum game, as they inevitably are, planning for succession has hefty implications for diversity. If newer entrants, who are more likely to offer diversity, are catapulted into succession planning programs over more senior majority group employees who are likely to be male and white, managers risk conflict and resentment. Yet, to perpetuate the status quo is to lose the opportunity to enhance diversity (Lewis & Ha, 1988; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007). In this way, multigenerational workforces offer opportunity as well as challenge.

Predominantly a workforce issue, generational cohorts bring different issues. The aging boomers have crowded out other generations in the workforce in recent decades. With their current and impending retirements, younger workers are moving into positions of authority, which makes succession planning imperative. The glut of retirements is also an economic issue. With sudden large draws on pension systems during a time when the market is performing poorly, city and state governments are scrambling to ensure that their holdings are sufficient. Generational change also introduces institutional reforms. While traditional civil service systems work well during times of stability, processes that constrain and slow hiring and promotions cause public managers to seek reforms that will allow more discretion and speed. But many reforms that have been tried lately, such as broadbanding, have failed to live up to their promise (Whalen & Guy, 2008). In summary, public administration is a labor intense industry and workforce

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issues such as age have implications beyond the obvious.

### *Physical Ability*

For too long, it was lawful to summarily dismiss handicapped job applicants as being unqualified and to leave persons with disabilities to fend for themselves as they struggled to maneuver up courthouse steps, to cross street curbs, and to access public restroom facilities. The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) was hailed by many as the final frontier of the civil rights movement. As it turns out, religion and sexuality have moved to the forefront of the civil rights movement, and once that interest subsides, there is sure to be another category of “otherness” that will take the stage. Nevertheless, how employers treat those with handicaps is another dimension to diversity.

Research on this topic appeared shortly after passage of the Americans with Disabilities Act, but attention has withered in recent years. The predominant research streams are on career paths of persons with disabilities, employment practices, and managerial concerns (Cozzetto, 1994; Hayes & Citera, 1995; Hollwitz & Goodman, 1995; Lewis & Allee, 1992; Mello, 1995; Slack, 1995).

Much of this literature is written to help employers determine how and when to make reasonable accommodation, rather than about how physical ability affects diversity. Interestingly, Kim (2007) studied the distribution of federal employees with disabilities with regard to occupation, race, gender and department. By

analyzing demographic data on full-time disabled employees in the federal civil service, results showed that the occupational distribution of federal employees with disabilities is not significantly different from that of federal employees without disabilities. In fact, race and gender trump physical ability when it comes to occupational segregation. Like employees without disabilities, disabled employees are linked to racial or gender stereotypical roles and occupations. In other words, regardless of physical ability, racial, ethnic or gender groups continue to be overrepresented or underrepresented in a given occupation.

When Balser (2007) studied the conditions under which employers made accommodation for workers with mobility-related disabilities, findings revealed that it is less the employee’s need than factors pertaining to the employers’ constraints that determine whether accommodation is made. This indicates again that disability status is less potent than race or gender in terms of employment issues and how it affects employer behavior.

### *Religion*

The subject of religion has emerged in public administration scholarship as it has come to the fore in the political sphere. Once a taboo subject, it now animates political campaigns as candidates attempt to reflect popular culture. Because those running for public office often have to pass a litmus test of their religious values, it is no wonder that public administration scholars are also paying attention to it as it affects the rights and obligations of public service

workers. It also factors into contracts let by government agencies to nonprofit human service providers. Accordingly, articles about it have appeared with more frequency in the journals in the past two decades.

Articles are framed in several different ways. One framework positions religious differences as a form of workforce diversity that affects one's personal beliefs, dress and appearance (Ball & Haque, 2003; Schachter, 1993). A related theme asks how managers should accommodate workers' various religious beliefs and practices (Dean & Safranski, 2008). Yet another framework investigates the degree to which public workers identify with particular religions or express their spirituality (Bozeman & Murdock, 2007; Bruce, 2000; Houston & Cartwright, 2007).

Like a windsock, social science research reflects themes that have reached a critical mass of interest. The fact that articles on this subject have steadily increased since 1990 indicates a continued and rising interest in religion and how it affects governance.

### *Sexuality*

Sexuality is another dimension to differentness. While in the past the distinction was simply between heterosexuals and homosexuals, it has broadened to encompass any variant of gender, sex, and sexual preference, including bisexual and transgender issues. This is a recent emergence in public administration scholarship, with articles not appearing in the journals until the 1990s. Within this genre, early writings

focused on employment discrimination against gays and lesbians and the absence of legal protections (Colvin, 2000; Lewis, 1997a; Riccucci & Gossett, 1996). More recent writings have taken issue with particular government policies, such as restrictions on security clearances, the moderation of public attitudes (Lewis, 2001; Lewis & Taylor, 2001), and the need for transgender nondiscrimination policies (Colvin, 2007; Taylor, 2007).

### *Summary*

There are various perspectives one can take on the subject of gender and diversity and how these topics fit into contemporary public administration. One perspective is to sort people into different categories according to how they differ. An opposite strategy is to lump all the categories together, acknowledge that there are significant differences between persons based on a variety of characteristics, and then treat the subject as a whole, under the label "diversity." This summary focuses on the latter.

In very rough terms, our accommodation to diversity has progressed from one analogy to the next, from the Melting Pot to the Salad Bowl to the Quilt. First, the Melting Pot analogy claims that it is okay to be different (Polish, Slavic, Hispanic, African American, female, Catholic, Jew, Muslim) as long as one acts like a white male protestant with Anglo-Saxon roots. From the late 1800s to about the 1960s, the Melting Pot era gave rise to laws that forbade discrimination against someone because of these outward distinctions.

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Then came the Salad Bowl analogy, denoting not just a tolerance for differentness but an appreciation that difference brings with it added perspectives and strengths. This viewpoint drove efforts to improve working relationships and to build systems that capitalize on multiple frames of reference. This era extended from the 1960s to the 1990s. During this time laws like the Equal Pay Act, Pregnancy Discrimination Act, Americans with Disabilities Act, and others were passed to protect those who were 'different'.

Now comes the Quilt, where the focus is on accepting and leveraging differentness while combining the separate pieces into a sustainable fabric. We assume that enhanced performance in our agencies and improved quality of life in our communities will result. Now we puzzle over how to make sense of all these voices. It is an ambiguous time, because the more we accommodate rather than quash diversity, the less formulaic become our relationships (Gilligan, 1982). Nevertheless, there is plenty of evidence that diversity improves the delivery of public services (Guy & Newman, 2004; Johansen, 2007). We know that a 'mixed' workforce produces decisions more representative of the public interest. For example, findings show that the U.S. Forest Service produces better land management decisions when those with program responsibilities represent all the constituents affected rather than only a few (Brown & Harris, 1993).

Embracing diversity is not without its detractors. Implementing mechanisms to ensure inclusion remain controversial. Talking about *in*clusion is within our comfort zone but practicing *ex*clusion remains a habit

(Alexander, 1997; Oldfield, Candler, & Johnson, 2006; Stivers, 2007). When traditionally advantaged groups sense their advantage lessening, backlash occurs. That is what has happened in reaction to the advances that women and minorities have made in the workforce. Purportedly race-neutral policies that remove affirmative action programs actually have the effect of returning advantage to whichever group is in power. To turn a blind eye to the difference that race makes, or gender makes, or ethnicity makes, is to maintain advantage for the dominant group. If the old adage about democracy is true – that democracy is two wolves and a lamb voting on what to eat for dinner -- then it is apparent that there must be checks in place to protect the minority from the majority.

David Pitts (2009) helps us understand diversity's three components: outreach and recruitment to ensure that the workforce is diverse; valuing differences so that performance capitalizes on the diverse strengths of workers; and pragmatic policies and program such as mentoring programs, succession planning, family-friendly programs, and alternative work arrangements, such as team-based units. For example, the recently passed Lillie Ledbetter Act is an example of an accommodation to the difference in how wages are set. Laws that demand reasoned respect for each other help to cement the disparate pieces of the quilt.

The tenor of scholarship on the subject of diversity has changed quite a lot over the past forty years. When writings first appeared, they were couched in terms of the problems that arose when workers who were different from the majority were hired into the

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workplace (Brereton, 1977). For example, employee surveys revealed that diversity caused motivational problems and an erosion of the work ethic (Neuse, 1980; Pomerleau, 1994; Rubaii-Barrett & Beck, 1993). The negative focus gradually gave way to a more positive perspective on how a diverse workforce could improve service delivery outcomes (Brown & Harris, 1993; Dobbs, 1996). This then transitioned to concerns about how agencies could compete for the best, most diverse workforce such that the challenge of diversity is to achieve and retain a diverse workforce (Hamman & Desai, 1993; Jun, 1996; Lipsky, 1994). This gave rise to concerns about structural impediments inherent to traditional civil service systems that make it difficult to recruit and retain a diverse workforce (Golembiewski & Osuna, 1995; Kikoski, 1999; Rangarajan & Black, 2007; Selden & Selden, 2001).

It also progressed to in-depth examination of how diversity affects organizational communication and how communications affect recruitment and promotability (Rich, 1998; Rubaii-Barrett & Wise, 2007). Diversity also grew into a legitimate research stream for its own sake (Naff & Kellough, 2003; Kellough & Naff, 2004; Pitts, 2006; Soni, 2000; Wise & Tschirhart, 2000). The most recent research stream on the subject accepts diversity as a given and no longer frets about how it can be achieved. Instead, research focuses on how managers and workers think about differentness and how their cognitive construct affects performance (Ash, 2008; Foldy, 2004; Levine, 2003).

The transition from exclusion to inclusion for women and minorities has been gradual, depicted less by a

linear relationship and more by the phrase “three steps forward, two steps backward” (Guy, 1993). In terms of race, the *Plessy v. Ferguson* Supreme Court decision, thought at the time to be progressive, implied that African Americans should be treated fairly and this meant that facilities such as schools for them should be equal to what was provided for whites. The decision made clear, however, that facilities need not be shared. This decision paved the way for separate schools and other facilities to be developed, one for whites and one for blacks. It would be decades before this decision would be overturned by *Brown v. Board of Education*, which decreed that separate facilities are, in fact, not equal. This resulted in school integration that tested the mettle of communities whose school systems were segregated either by law in the South or by residence patterns elsewhere.

Fifty years later, schools are segregated not by race but by socioeconomics, with privileged families sending their children to neighborhood schools where parents are college educated. The poorest families live in economically depressed neighborhoods with high levels of unemployment and crime. Their schools reflect this social tumult. In other words, problems of diversity are rarely resolved once and for all. Solutions to one problem merely open the door to other challenges.

### *Conclusion*

In what fashion should we progress from here? As the decades have passed, variations on the theme of diversity have emerged. We now think of differentness in many dimensions beyond gender and race. Included in the mix of ‘*others*’ are those who vary from the norm by age, religion, ethnicity, sexuality, and physical ability, with more categories to emerge over time. As mentioned earlier, Dominic Bearfield (2009) penned a piece discussing the merits of intersectionality within public administration. Established at the crossroads of gender and race theory, intersectional analysis focuses on the multiple dimensions of a social group (Crenshaw, 1994). Intersectional analysis acknowledges that individuals cannot be considered a member of any one social category, but are a product of various shifting societal groups. By recognizing the multiple dimensions of the *other* the field gains a better understanding of diversity at the individual level as well as in the aggregate.

With recognition comes change. Current systems were designed for needs of a time long gone, well oiled for the traditional worker but now squeaky and imposing for newcomers (Guy, 1997). We have modern-day examples of how this affects the *other*, such as government’s shabby response when the New Orleans levees broke after Hurricane Katrina (Stivers, 2007). This time warp calls for structural change in public administration’s priorities.

As detailed in the literature, changes are called for in both theory and practice. This includes attention to

how institutional arrangements and culture impact an individual’s propensity to conform or to function as a representative (Wilkins & Williams, 2008). We should also pay heed to organizational culture’s role in fostering or stymying diversity. This includes greater fostering of inclusivity (Sneed, 2007), the incorporation of social equity as an essential function of public agencies, and installation of appropriate measures to monitor progress (Ricucci, 2009).

At its heart, public administration is about life in community – just as Mary Parker Follett knew, just as Mrs. T.J. Bowlker knew, just as Jane Addams knew. This is the field’s ‘inner woman’, the necessity to care about fellow citizens that has been overshadowed by linear principles and proverbs. One would hope that today’s and tomorrow’s scholars will bring a larger embrace of the totality of public administration, incorporating views from all patches of the quilt.

Like skipping a stone across the water, this review of the literature touched upon research that is emblematic of the field as its embrace of differentness has evolved. One distinct pattern has been clear since the mid-1900’s: to secure as representative a bureaucracy as possible, in the assumption that a government that reflects the constituency being served is ideal. Notions of equity and equal access have also been prevailing norms. While gender and race have been the primary beneficiaries of this concern, other ways of categorizing people arise and are addressed. The topics covered make it obvious that diversity is a journey, not a destination. Just as one group’s issues resolve, another group’s concerns step onto the stage.

## Helpful Books and Articles that Provide Background Understanding of Issues Pertaining to Gender and Diversity

### Books

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