The Journal of Public Affairs Education at Age Ten: History, Content, and Prospects

Symposium: Social Equity in Public Affairs Education

• Filling in the Skeletal Pillar: Addressing Social Equity in Introductory Courses in Public Administration
• Multicultural MPA Curriculum: Are We Preparing Culturally Competent Public Administrators?
• Diversity in Professional Schools: A Case Study of Public Affairs and Law
• Organizational Culture, Social Equity, and Diversity: Teaching Public Administration in the Postmodern Era
• Teaching Social Equity in the MPA: Reflections from the Social Equity Symposium

• What Is to Be Done? Globalization and Social Equity
• A Critical Social Equity Component of Public Affairs Education: The Role of the Civil Rights Movement
• From Social Equity to National Security: Shifting Rationales for Enhanced Diversity
• Preparing MPA Students for the Public Interest Workplace
• Training Students in Racial Analysis Techniques: An Urgent Need
• Recruitment of Advocacy Researchers
• Social Equity and Management: What MPA and MPP Students Need to Know
Journal of Public Affairs Education

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Cover Photo: The rotunda of the Idaho State Capitol in Boise. This grandiose public space, eighty feet square and four stories high, was completed in 1912. Executed in marble, the room contains many murals and pieces of statuary and serves as the symbolic center of Idaho state government. Its architect, John E. Tourtellotte, was a carpenter with a sixth-grade education who had taken a correspondence course in architecture. Photo and caption by Charles T. Goodsell, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.
From the Editor-in-Chief

In this year of celebration and reflection on the Brown v. Board of Education decision and its impact on public policy, politics, and social relations in the United States, it is most appropriate that we should consider the attention that schools of public affairs and administration give to social equity. We do that in this issue. A series of essays examines the extent to which our textbooks and curricula cover social equity, programmatic strategies for building attention to social equity, pedagogical strategies for incorporating social issues and approaches, and employer needs for graduates who can work on social equity problems.

Sam Myers and Susan Gooden, editors of the social equity symposium, point out the difficulty of the challenges in dealing with social equity. They note that social equity may be more difficult to incorporate into the graduate public affairs curriculum than many thought as we initiated the development of this symposium. They charge us to take this as an exciting challenge, one that would build on the optimism, idealism, and commitment of our students. At a minimum, I hope that they are right in their assessment that the articles in this symposium should “provoke widespread discussion, dialogue, and debate.”

We also have a treat from the founding editor of J-PAE, George Frederickson. He chronicles the growth of scholarly attention to public affairs education over time and explains the emergence of J-PAE as a major addition to the professional literature. He also invites us to consider productive pathways for the development of research on the scope and direction of public affairs education, its organization and management, and the creation of successful curricular and pedagogical approaches. Former editor-in-chief James Perry will continue this dialogue in the July issue.

—Edward T. Jennings, Jr.

Editor's Note: In Audrey Jaeger’s article titled The Place for Emotional Growth in Professional Education in J-PAE Issue 10-1, the asterisk after the title of Appendix A (p. 60) did not clearly connect to the intended note. The asterisk referred to a note indicating that “team project activities adapted from Bar-On & Handley (1999),” the citation for which appears in the reference list.
Call for Papers
Symposium on Civic Engagement in Public Affairs Education

Public affairs programs play at least two critical roles in shaping civic engagement in our society. One role involves how we prepare our students to engage citizens. Citizen participation is one of the hallmarks of American democracy. Administrative institutions can be formidable obstacles to citizen engagement and the public officials that populate these institutions may, intentionally or unintentionally, be viewed as anti-democratic. Another role by which our programs shape civic engagement is as teachers of future generations of citizens. Students learn about the civic and moral responsibilities of citizenship in our classrooms, in cocurricular experiences, and in the behaviors we model for them. This symposium is focused broadly around these twin perspectives of civic engagement.

This call for papers invites submissions across a range of subjects. Submissions could include theoretical, empirical, and critical assessments. The following list of topics is illustrative of submissions appropriate for this symposium:

- Explorations of how our curricula and program climate, de facto, shape future public affairs professionals. What signals do our programs send about citizen engagement;
- Empirical studies of alumni civic engagement and how public affairs alumni compare with other cohorts of professional and non-professional alumni;
- Strategies for teaching public affairs students about citizen participation that are effective for shaping future administrative behavior;
- Effective pedagogies for increasing student involvement in politics;
- Administrative strategies for building strong community connections and faculty commitment to civic engagement;
- Comparison of different pedagogies of engagement in terms of civic skill development and overall effectiveness.

Authors who would like feedback about ideas for potential submissions are invited to contact the symposium editor.

Manuscripts should be submitted by September 1, 2004. Indicate in your cover letter that your submission is intended for the Symposium on Civic Engagement in Public Affairs Education. Use the regular guidelines and procedures for submission to J-PAE. The preferred method is to send a copy of the manuscript as an email attachment to JPAE@lsv.uky.edu. Alternatively, send four copies to Edward T. Jennings, Jr., Editor, J-PAE, Martin School of Public Policy and Administration, University of Kentucky, 437 Patterson Tower, Lexington, Kentucky 40506-0027. Send an additional copy to symposium editor Jim Perry (perry@iupui.edu) at the School of Public and Environmental Affairs, Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis, 801 W. Michigan Street, BS 4078, Indianapolis, Indiana 46202.
Information for Contributors

The Journal of Public Affairs Education (J-PAE) is dedicated to advancing teaching and learning in public affairs broadly defined, which includes the fields of policy analysis, public administration, public management, and public policy. J-PAE pursues its mission by publishing high-quality theory, empirical research, and commentary. The core values of J-PAE are rigor, relevance, clarity, accessibility, and methodological diversity.

**Articles:** J-PAE welcomes contributions from all public affairs educators who seek to reflect on their professional practice and to engage J-PAE readers in an exploration of what or how to teach. J-PAE articles are intended to influence experienced educator-specialists but also to be comprehensible and interesting to a broad audience of public affairs teachers. Articles appropriate for publication in J-PAE include comprehensive literature reviews and meta-analyses, carefully constructed position papers, critical assessments of what we teach and how we teach it, thoughtful essays about commonly shared teaching challenges, experimental and quasi-experimental assessments of students’ learning, evaluations of new curricula or curriculum trends, and field studies of particular teaching methods.

In addition to articles, the editors welcome proposals for symposia. Proposals that are accepted will be announced in the journal and will be accompanied by a call for papers. Submissions for symposia will be considered through the normal review process.

Decisions about the publication of all articles are based on the recommendation of members of the editorial board using a blind review process. Substantive content, writing style, and length are all relevant to a decision to publish a manuscript. Depending on the type of manuscript, the review process takes into account the following criteria:

- Research based: adequacy of theoretical grounding; reliability and validity of findings; significance of the topic; significance of the findings.
- Interpretive, reflective, critical, theoretical: significance of the topic; quality of the argument; quality of the supporting evidence.
- Creative Pedagogy: creativity of the approach; soundness of the explanation; evidence of effectiveness; utility for faculty.
- Case Studies: pedagogical value; scope of potential use; clear teaching purposes.
- In all cases, writing quality is an important consideration.

Manuscripts that are obviously inappropriate or insufficiently developed will be returned without formal review. Interested authors can better understand the journal’s audience and its expectations for content, quality, and focus by examining what J-PAE has published in recent years or by contacting members of the editorial board or staff.

Manuscripts submitted should not have been published and should not be under consideration elsewhere. Papers presented at a professional conference qualify for consideration. In fact, the submission of manuscripts that have been thoroughly revised following presentation at a professional meeting is encouraged. In general, authors are strongly encouraged to have their work reviewed and evaluated by colleagues prior to submission for formal review in order to facilitate the editorial process.

Manuscripts should be sent to Edward T. Jennings, Jr., Editor-in-Chief, J-PAE, The Martin School of Public Policy and Administration, 419 Patterson Tower, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY 40506-0027, e-mail: jpae@lsv.uky.edu.

In order for manuscripts to be reviewed as quickly as possible, authors are asked to observe the following requirements:

- It is preferred that authors send their manuscripts to the editor as an attachment via e-mail (send the title page in a separate attachment).
- Alternatively, please send four printed copies or the manuscript. These will not be returned.
- Ensure that the manuscript is anonymous by leaving off your name and putting self-identifying references on a separate sheet.
- Use margins of one and one-half (1-1/2) inches at the left, right, top, and bottom of the page.
- J-PAE uses the in-text parenthetical reference system with all references at the end of the text in alphabetical order. Notes are to be kept to a minimum. See the Chicago Manual of Style for guidance.

It is important that you identify the type of manuscript you are submitting: (1) research based; (2) interpretive, reflective, critical, or theoretical essay or position paper; (3) creative pedagogy; (4) teaching case study.

**Creative Pedagogy:** The purpose of Creative Pedagogy is to feature innovative approaches to teaching specific public affairs subjects or concepts. The goal of this feature is to present experimental exercises, simulations, role plays, or other creative teaching technologies in a format that colleagues can readily use. Submissions are peer reviewed.

Contributions to Creative Pedagogy must include substantive details (e.g., text for the case, role descriptions for a role play exercise) and a narrative discussion about how the pedagogy is used, student response to it, suggestions for instructors who may wish to use it, and results associated with its use. The presentation of the pedagogy should be thorough and lively so that teachers reading the article will be simulated and able to use the information.

Submissions for Creative Pedagogy should be sent to Edward T. Jennings, Jr., Editor-in-Chief.

**Review Essays:** Reviews will commonly use a cluster format in which several books, videos, software programs, cases, CD-ROMs, Internet sites, or other instructional materials will be compared and contrasted in an essay. Review essays should offer a point of view but should seek to treat each item in the cluster fairly. Essays could be structured around a comparison of related resources, resources related to the public affairs education enterprise, or resources that directly or indirectly have something to say about public affairs education. Review essays should strive for clarity, brevity, and timeliness. Inquiries regarding review essays should be sent to Edward T. Jennings, Jr., Editor-in-Chief.

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The Journal of Public Affairs Education at Age Ten: History, Content, and Prospects

H. George Frederickson
University of Kansas

Although we approach the tenth anniversary of the Journal of Public Affairs Education (J-PAE), the journal has a rather longer history and an interesting provenance. To explain the origins and evolution of J-PAE requires a brief description of the several streams and eddies that over time came together to form the journal. That description will bring us to the present and will form the basis of a brief review of journal content and some observations about the opportunities and challenges facing J-PAE.

All fields of applied professional graduate education—law, medicine, engineering, social work, planning, journalism, and education—have long had at least one established and respected scholarly journal having to do with education. Public administration education began with the organization of the first schools and degree programs in the 1920s. Now more than 250 graduate programs exist in the United States alone, approximately 140 of them accredited. Over the years, journals have been established in each of the primary specializations in the field: budgeting, personnel, program evaluation and performance, taxation, federalism, public policy, ethics, and state and local government. Several general field journals are also now well established. How could it be that an academic field as big and well established as public administration took so long to develop a journal specializing in education? This is how it happened.

The Prehistory of the Journal of Public Affairs Education

From the mid-1960s through the mid-1970s, Dwight Waldo, while editor-in-chief of the Public Administration Review (PAR), led several initiatives to make PAR more responsive to the particular interests of practitioners and academics. For practitioners, he commissioned leading public officials to write articles for the “from the professional stream” section of PAR. For academics, he appointed an associate editor for research to move PAR at
least somewhat further in the direction of empirical social science research. In his own work, he developed what he hoped would become the convention of referring to the practice of public administration using lower case and the teaching or study of Public Administration using upper case, but it did not last. During this period, he was approached more than once with suggestions to dedicate more PAR pages to subjects having primarily to do with public administration education, such as series or symposia on case studies, degree accreditation, MPA curricula, pedagogy, and the quality of doctoral dissertations. He rejected them all, using this argument: PAR should be primarily about the practice and study of public administration, not about the study of the study or teaching of public administration. It was clear during Waldo's editorship that PAR was not going to evolve into a journal of public administration education.1

During the tenure of some subsequent PAR editors, however, there was a more welcoming attitude toward manuscripts having to do with educational matters, particularly the comparative quality of degree programs and the quality of doctoral dissertation research. Today, while there is an occasional article having to do with education for public administration in PAR and in the other leading general journals in public administration, Waldo's dictum that our leading journals ought to be about the practice and study of public administration and not about the study of the study or teaching of public administration still holds.

During this same period, important institutional changes were underway at the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA). The National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA)—representing the deans and directors of university public administration programs, their departments and schools being the NASPAA members—had been a constituent section of ASPA, with its accounts being held by ASPA and its director having an office at ASPA headquarters. In 1975, NASPAA decided to sever its formal affiliation with ASPA, in order to become an independent and autonomous academic association. In the early 1980s, NASPAA established the Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation (COPRA) and began to accredit master's degrees in public affairs and administration. In the 1980s, the subject of the possible development of a journal for public administration education was from time to time considered by NASPAA but could never get traction, even though NASPAA was a particularly logical organization for such a journal.

At about the time of NASPAA's separation, ASPA established the Section on Public Administration Education (SPAE), primarily for faculty members and doctoral students. The subject of the development of a possible journal for public administration education was occasionally on the SPAE agenda during the 1980s, but, as was the case with NASPAA, there was little interest.

For many years, the annual Public Administration Education Conference has been sequentially sponsored by university public administration programs and held on campuses. These conferences have resisted the development of a formal continuing organization with officers, dues, and other trappings of an academic association. In the early years, the annual public administration education conference was held in conjunction with the conference of what has become the Public Administration Theory Network (PAT-NET), which in earlier years was proud to describe itself as a non-organization or the un-organization. PAT-NET has since formalized and has, beginning in 1980, published Administrative Theory and Praxis: A Quarterly Journal of Dialogue in Public Administration Theory. So, while PAT-NET has formalized, the Public Administration Education Conference has not. Even though public administration education is the subject of these annual conferences, the lack of a formal organization made it impossible for the conferences to consider developing a journal.

The Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management (APPAM) was established in 1979, and what is now the Journal of Policy Analysis and Management (JPAM) became its official scholarly publication at that time. JPAM has always dealt with education; the Curriculum and Case Notes section of each issue usually includes a brief article or two and descriptions of new case studies.

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So it was that, by the early 1990s, there was no journal specializing in education for public policy and administration. Why? One might point to the fragmentation of the field, reflected by the alphabet soup of ASPA, SPAE, NASPAA, PAT-NET, APPAM, and the annual conferences, to explain the absence of an education journal. One might point to organizational inertia and bureaucratic risk aversion. Or, one might simply point to circumstances.

The Beginnings and Early Years of the Journal of Public Administration Education

Having given up both on SPAE (in ASPA) and on NASPAA as a possible home for a journal of public administration education, in 1993 I developed a business plan for such a journal. The plan envisioned support from universities in terms of cash and in-kind contributions of time and expertise by faculty members serving in editorial roles. Also envisioned in the plan was a gradual five-to-seven year process by which the proposed journal would strive to become self-supporting, primarily based on library and individual subscriptions. It was further assumed that the proposed journal would move gradually from publishing two issues each year to publishing three annually and finally to publishing quarterly.

This business plan was shopped to a limited number of public administration schools and departments to gauge their possible interest. Two universities, Kansas and Akron, were willing to make resources available, and together they agreed to launch the Journal of Public Administration Education. There followed a period of implementation involving the appointment of an editorial staff and a board of editors, design of page and cover formats, preparation of an announcement and advertisements, invitations to scholars to submit manuscripts, and a contract with a printing-publishing company. All that having been completed, the first issue of J-PAE appeared in May 1995, with articles by Guy B. Adams, Leanna L. Holmer, Richard C. Box, Pamela J. Leland, Astrid E. Merget, Ross Clayton, and Jay D. White.

The initial J-PAE editorial staff dealing with journal content was largely based at the University of Akron and included Frank Marini as editor-in-chief, Danny L. Balfour as managing editor, François Doamekpor as book review editor, Sheryl Simrell King as special issues editor, and Amy Shriver as production editor. At the University of Kansas, I managed J-PAE business affairs, including subscription fulfillment, marketing, and contractual relations.

Using a mailing list of academic public administration programs provided by NASPAA, the first issue was distributed widely as a loss leader in the hope of attracting subscriptions, a moderately successful effort. Copies of J-PAE were also displayed prominently at the next annual meetings of both NASPAA and ASPA.

In 1997, Frank Marini retired and I took over as J-PAE's editor-in-chief. In 1997, Danny Balfour left Akron for Grand Valley State University (GVSU), where, with the generous support of GVSU, he continued as managing editor. Because of these moves, the connection between J-PAE and the University of Akron was essentially over by 1998. Nevertheless, the early support of the University of Akron was critically important to the success of J-PAE's first two years.

In late 1996, Michael Brintnall became the new executive director of NASPAA. Shortly after he took office, we began informal discussions regarding the possible NASPAA acquisition of J-PAE. By mid-1997 we had a tentative agreement, subject to the approval of the NASPAA executive council. In the meantime, since I did not wish to be the permanent editor-in-chief, I was in discussions with James Perry of Indiana University regarding the possibility of his becoming editor-in-chief. By the fall of 1997, NASPAA had acquired J-PAE, and James Perry was the new editor-in-chief, with Danny Balfour continuing as managing editor, and Jennifer Ward took over as production editor.

The first issue of J-PAE under Perry's leadership and NASPAA's ownership appeared in January 1998, in a larger size, with a Charles Goodsell photograph on the cover, and a new name: the Journal of Public Affairs Education. Because J-PAE was now an association journal and because NASPAA is comprised of member schools and departments, a certain number of copies of each issue were distributed to every member school or department as a benefit of membership, a practice that still continues.

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James Perry decided to step down from the position of *J-PAE* editor-in-chief in 2001, and NASPAA appointed the following committee to select a new editor: Professors David Rosenbloom, Chair (American University); Jeffrey Chapman (Arizona State University); Mark Kamlet (Carnegie Mellon University); Kevin Kearns (University of Pittsburgh); Curtina Moreland-Young (Jackson State University); Sonia Ospina (New York University); and Carol Weissert (Michigan State University). After an open and public call for proposals and review of credentials, the committee selected Edward T. Jennings, Jr., of the University of Kentucky as the new editor-in-chief. He in turn selected Vera Vogelsang Coombs of Cleveland State University and Linda deLeon of the University of Colorado at Denver as associate editors.

With the coming of Michael Brintnall, it was likely that NASPAA would either establish or acquire an educational journal for the field. For NASPAA, it was fortuitous that *J-PAE* had been established because the initial risks of creating a journal had already been taken, and by then it was a known publication. And it was fortuitous for *J-PAE* because acquisition lent to the journal NASPAA’s favorable reputation as well as its institutional stability. In the pre-NASPAA years of *J-PAE*, the editorship and some of the other key editorial positions changed too often because the journal was not well institutionalized. The process by which NASPAA selected the present editor is a good illustration of the value of institutional stability. The distribution of issues of *J-PAE* as a NASPAA membership benefit has brought the journal to the attention of many more faculty members and students than would otherwise have been the case. Under NASPAA, *J-PAE* continues to have very high production values. Finally, the change of the title to the *Journal of Public Affairs Education* serves to broaden the scope of the journal, signaling to the field the breadth of NASPAA constituencies, while at the same time retaining the continuity of *J-PAE* as the journal’s acronym.

This history and prehistory of *J-PAE*, and the lessons from that history, serve as the backdrop for a consideration of the content of the journal.

The content of the *Journal of Public Affairs Education*

A review of the content of *J-PAE* over the past six years, from the beginning of the publication of four issues each year, yielded interesting results. The review is based on dividing public affairs education into its three primary parts: curriculum content, or what is being taught; pedagogy, or how it is being taught; and educational philosophy. Many *J-PAE* articles have elements of curriculum, pedagogy, and philosophy, so it was necessary to determine what the reviewer believed to be the primary purpose or emphasis of each article, an admittedly subjective process falling rather short of more formal criteria for claims of social science validation. Nevertheless, the results are interesting and suggestive.

Excluding annual presidential addresses, editorial comment, book reviews, and e-reviews (reviews of the content of internet-based materials and information), 125 refereed articles, including articles in symposia, have been published in *J-PAE* in the last six years, averaging about twenty-one each year and about five each issue. Just under half of these articles have deal primarily with curriculum content, mostly content of the master’s degree (public administration, public affairs, urban administration, public management, public policy, public service). In descending order of frequency, the particular subjects of curriculum content were ethics (13); environment (6); comparative administration (6); master’s degree programs (5—3 on core curriculum, 2 on the capstone course); nonprofit administration (4); performance measurement and program evaluation (4); public management and management science (4); undergraduate public administration education (4); doctoral public administration education (4); gender and women (3); research methods (2); budget and finance (2); law (1); and emergency management (1).

Just over 40 percent of *J-PAE* articles in the past six years have dealt primarily with curriculum content. In descending order of frequency, the particular subjects of these articles are the internet and e-teaching (11); distance education (7); cases and narratives (6); learning outcomes (6); experiential and
service learning (5); movies and other media (3); surveys (3); good teaching practices (3); classroom experiments (2); adult learning (2); texts (1); mentoring (1); class research (1); oral history (1); and learning journals (1).

Just over 10 percent of J-PAE articles are general philosophy or have addressed the broader context of public affairs education. Among these articles are treatments of pragmatism, the future of the public service, the ranking of degree programs, Dwight Waldo’s role in education for public administration, and the globalization of public affairs education.

It is not surprising that public administration faculty members writing for J-PAE tend to be somewhat more interested in curriculum content than they are in teaching methods. Faculty members are rarely trained in pedagogy; therefore, the number of articles having to do with teaching is surprisingly good news. The current passion for the internet as a teaching tool is evident, and perhaps over-evident. There is also good evidence of faculty interest in distance education, the use of cases and narratives in teaching, and experiential education and service learning, long thought to be an especially important part of education for public service.

The other obvious theme is the number of articles on learning outcomes (6), good evidence of the salience of learning outcomes requirements in the master’s degree accreditation guidelines of NASPAA’s Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation. If one combines the six pedagogy articles having to do with learning outcomes and the five curriculum articles on the core and capstone requirements for the master’s degree, eleven articles have mostly to do with accreditation. Such a focus on accreditation seems fitting, given its importance to public affairs education. The surprise, for those who lived through the controversies associated with adopting accreditation for master’s degrees, is that accreditation appears to no longer be an issue. If there are voices opposed to accreditation in our field, they are silent, at least in the pages of J-PAE.

Perhaps most disappointing in the array of J-PAE articles that have to do with pedagogy is the near absence of articles on adult learning, particularly given the large number of in-career master’s degree students in the field. There was a time, in the 1970s, when the theories and practices of adult learning were relatively prominent in the pages of PAR and in some public administration textbooks. It may be time to attempt to rekindle an interest in this important subject, possibly with a J-PAE symposium.

Articles on curriculum content in J-PAE reflect the popularity of ethics as an education topic in the field, and the same could be said for comparative administration and environmental policy and administration, perennial faculty favorites. General interest in nonprofit administration and performance measurement and management are in evidence. The frequency of content topics also reflects the diminished importance of organization and management, a subject once at the center of public administration education.

In the past six years there has been only one J-PAE article on public administration faculty. Although the subject of faculty does not seem to logically fit either curriculum content or pedagogy, it is critically important to understanding public affairs education. The field is without serious studies of faculty demographics—age, gender, fields of doctoral study, fields of research and teaching specialization, extent of administrative experience, hiring patterns, promotion and tenure patterns, differences in faculty characteristics by type of program—and J-PAE would be the logical place to publish such studies. With a baseline of faculty demographics, studies could be repeated in subsequent years, thereby showing trends. Master’s degree accreditation self-studies found in the COPRA files might be used as data sources for such studies.

On the basis of simple observation, the emergence of doctoral programs in public administration and public policy, starting in the 1960s, has very likely changed hiring patterns away from persons holding doctoral degrees in political science, economics, and the other social sciences and toward persons holding doctorates in public administration or public policy. If this is the case, are public policy and administration faculties becoming less interdisciplinary, or at least differently interdisciplinary? Simple
observation suggests such a trend and invites serious debate over what ought to be the interdisciplinary characteristics of public policy and administration faculty. In the absence of good faculty demographics, however, there are no data to verify such a trend.

It is evident over the past six years that the scholarly quality of *J-PAE* articles has steadily increased. The breadth of article content probably reflects the primary interests of faculty members in mainstream, traditional public administration programs. Some subjects appear rather too frequently—ethics and the educational use of the internet, for example—and other subjects too seldom—public affairs education in other countries, and public policy education, for example. Editors are to some extent limited by the interests of scholars, or as Dwight Waldo once said about *PAR*, editors can’t publish manuscripts they do not receive.

The content of *J-PAE* over the past six years could be fairly described as solid and increasingly based on good research. But *J-PAE* content would not be described as lively, controversial, or risk-taking. Those who are of the opinion that both the study and teaching of public administration tends to be boring might find their opinion validated in the pages of *J-PAE*. But the same could be said for many publications in public administration and in the applied social or policy sciences.

The Prospects for the *Journal of Public Affairs Education*

As academic journals go, *J-PAE* is very young. In the short space of ten years, *J-PAE* has become the primary scholarly outlet for those who study education for public administration and policy. It is unusual these days to find articles on education in the general public administration journals, good evidence that *J-PAE* has taken its rightful place and that Waldo’s dictum has come to pass. But, as a very young journal, *J-PAE* is far from the ranks of the best journals in the field. What are *J-PAE*’s longer-range prospects? What could *J-PAE* do to be included among the first rank of journals in public administration and policy?

The answer to the first question is positive. *J-PAE*’s long-range prospects are excellent. It has an ideal institutional home, solid financial backing, good editorial leadership, and increasingly high standards. At age ten, all of *J-PAE*’s trajectories are in the right direction. Trajectories are one thing, but the acceleration of those trajectories is another.

The answer to the second question has to do with the acceleration of trajectories and is both complex and debatable.

One good answer is that entering the first rank of journals in public affairs takes time, and it is unwise to attempt to skip important steps in journal maturaton. There is a tried-and-true model for academic journals, which is to say that the role of editorial leadership is to sort through the range of received manuscripts for the best, letting the journal fairly reflect current faculty interests in education for public policy and administration. With a steady eye toward quality, in time a journal will achieve distinction. Besides, a brash and pushy journal may not be welcome in the genteel world of academic status. It is, after all, more than a little presumptuous for editorial leadership to see it as their responsibility to move the subject of public affairs education in one or more particular directions.

A second and equally good answer is the opposite. A journal should have proactive editorial leadership that presumes to gently guide and push scholarly work in directions they believe to be important at present or in the future. With such editorial leadership, a journal will, it is argued, more quickly move into the top rank.

The present editorial leadership of *J-PAE* is a good mix of both answers.

For heuristic purposes, it might be useful to conceptually embrace the second answer and to ask what educational subjects, ideas, customs, and concepts ought to constitute the trajectories of a fully proactive journal. Here is a list of subjects for possible symposia, for invited articles or essays, or for editorial consideration.

First, the field of public affairs education could use a healthy debate over the length of time it takes to complete the master’s degree. The highest-ranked master’s degree in the field, the MPA at the Maxwell School, Syracuse University, is, after all, granted after a successful calendar year of study.
ranked program, the MPA at the University of Kansas, includes a calendar year of on-campus study followed by a paid, second-year internship. Given the present costs of graduate study, is the two-academic-year MPA, even with a summer internship in between, the best and most efficient model for public affairs education?

Second, if modern faculty recruiting is increasingly from schools or departments of public administration or public policy, is the field of public affairs education less interdisciplinary and increasingly insular?

Third, is a two and one-half month internship sandwiched between two academic years of classroom study long enough to really facilitate experiential learning?

Fourth, is it time for a critique of the standards and guidelines for the accreditation of the master’s degree?

Fifth, does a research doctorate really serve the needs and interests of persons seeking doctoral study not for an academic career but for the purposes of enhancing the advanced practice of public administration? Has the professional doctorate in public administration essentially disappeared? Is it wise to try to make a research doctorate, the Ph.D., serve also as a professional doctorate?

Sixth, do master’s degree curricula respond adequately to the increased likelihood that degree recipients will be employed by so-called third parties rather than by government agencies?

Seventh, given the very rapid growth of public affairs education in other countries, what can Americans learn from degree programs abroad?

There are, of course, many more interesting issues and questions in public affairs education. It would probably be a mistake to push J-PAE too far in the direction of being more of a venue for debates over controversial issues and less of a venue for the empirical study of public affairs education. But would a gentle move in that direction make the journal more lively and thereby increase faculty and doctoral student interest in reading and publishing in J-PAE?

Finally, J-PAE’s institutional base in NASPAA places the journal at the center of the two primary emphases in the field—public management and public policy. J-PAE’s origins were based mostly in public management and, therefore, most of the journal’s emphases have had to do with public management. NASPAA’s public policy constituencies might be better served by J-PAE if there were more public policy education content. Public policy implementation is the most logical connecting point between public management and public policy education and might serve as a vehicle for greater coverage of public policy in J-PAE. Greater coverage of public policy education will not happen in the absence of some editorial interventions designed to encourage the submission of public policy education manuscripts.

NOTES
1. There were exceptions, of course, most notably the publication of the Honey Report, a Carnegie Endowment commissioned study of education for public service done by a committee headed by John Honey. Making distinctions between education for public service and education for public administration, they found that the formal study of public administration at American universities was only a narrow and small part of education for public service. They recommended that universities find organizational ways to better integrate university programs in, for example, the public service fields of social work, education administration, planning, and public policy (Honey, 1967). Decades later, Derek Bok, while president of Harvard University, appointed a committee to look at Harvard’s public service education. Finding essentially the same fragmentation the Honey Report found, it recommended various forms of degree program cooperation and integration (Bok, 1982).

REFERENCES

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Public affairs students often begin their professional journeys with extreme optimism and idealism. They speak of a desire to change the world. They speak of their commitment to social change. They speak of their passion for social justice and equity. Or at least that is what students who apply to our programs frequently write in their application packets.

Instinctively, students of public affairs appear to understand the terms equity, fairness, and justice. And they may use these terms interchangeably.

But, then, consider the problem of dividing a pie fairly. One conceptual approach to the fair division of a pie is to assume that equality is an appropriate measure of fairness. Thus, a fair division would be a pie that is divided equally among competing groups.

An alternative conceptual approach is to consider the needs of competing claimants to shares of the pie. The hungriest person (or the most malnourished) might have a greater claim to a given slice than a well-satisfied (or fully nourished) person.

Or students might embrace any one of a dozen other established notions of fairness. Then, when they take our classes, they would be confronted with the challenge that fairness might be one objective in competition with other desirable public policy goals.

Our graduates who pursue careers in the public sector may see their role as guardians of fairness and justice. They may view their jobs in terms of correcting the flaws and imperfections in resource allocation that may arise in private market systems. But what do they know of social equity? What should they know of social equity?

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A classic example of the problem of social equity in allocation of public resources concerns garbage collection. Sylvester Murray presented the illuminating garbage collection example at the 2003 meeting of the Conference of Minority Public Administrators (COMPA). Murray, a professor of urban studies and public administration at Cleveland State University, former city manager of San Diego, Cincinnati, and Ann Arbor, and former president of the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA), uniquely understands this metaphor for the tension between equity and efficiency.

We know that wealthy communities with homes equipped with trash compactors and large, secure receptacles for storing debris can manage with one trash pickup a week. Meanwhile, in some poor communities located in the densely populated urban core, trash accumulates very quickly with dire consequences for the community, if rubbish is only removed once a week.

What, then, is a fair public policy on trash collection? Equal treatment or equal results? Should both communities have the same and equal outcomes—trash collection that results in the same level of cleanliness? Or does social equity dictate equal treatment: trash collection that results in the same number of pickups in each community? Perhaps it is the other way around?

In a broader context, should trash collection policies be used to level the playing field and redress existing society inequalities? Should trash collection be based on a principle wherein each taxpayer receives a marginal benefit equal to the extra disutility incurred? The wealthier consumer, whose disutility from paying a dollar of taxes is lower than that of the poorer consumer, would receive lower marginal trash collection benefits under this rule.

The list of possible problems underlying this scenario is long. It can be an interesting in-class exercise to have students tease out the hidden meanings in this scenario. In our classroom experiences with this classic trash collection dilemma, students have expressed the problem as one of ownership and wealth inequality; reliance on public vs. private means for trash collection; different abilities and skills, which translate into different jobs and incomes, and in turn translate into different locations of homes and neighborhoods; a shortage of public funds (for trash collection and other public initiatives); and the ineffective communication of the rules and regulations, which gives rise to the perception of inequalities and unfairness.

We suspect that even among professional public administrators and managers there would be disputes over the causes and consequences of unequal—or inequitable—trash collection policies. But what is not in dispute among public policy professionals is the central role that social equity should play in public affairs education.

Social equity—or fairness or social justice—is used as a criterion to evaluate and assess public policies and to make recommendations about policy actions. But like all criteria that rank alternatives, such as the criteria of efficiency and political feasibility, we must first define the problem that we are attempting to resolve. Part of the confusion about the nature of social equity—and the related concepts of fairness and social justice—arises from the reality that it is a criterion used to confront contradictory goals. In the instance of trash collection, the conflict arises in a direct confrontation between equity and efficiency criteria. And, in the lives of those responsible for managing large urban trash collection agencies, the criterion of political feasibility could immediately come into conflict with both social equity and efficiency.

It is also important to consider social equity concerns in a larger context. What social equity patterns emerge over time? As we examine various public sector scenarios—garbage collection, local education funding, pothole repairs, library services—do we find social equity trends that disproportionately affect poor communities? African American communities? Latino communities? What if we divide the pie and exclude the cooks during the first pie cutting? Would new concerns be raised? If the same cook exclusion method is used repeatedly, regardless of the pie type or the number of pies distributed, would cumulative social equity effects occur?

Professionals in the field and educators in the classroom need further clarity and more examples that illustrate the tensions between social equity and...
other criteria used to assess public policies. In recent years, some professional groups—such as the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA), the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management (APPAM), and the National Academy of Public Administration (NAPA)—have been more aggressive in tackling this tension between social equity and other criteria for assessing policies. This symposium arises from overlapping efforts among these three public affairs organizations.

Susan Gooden served as the 2000 program chair on race and ethnicity at the APPAM annual research meetings. The papers and panels presented at these meetings provoked a broad discussion among participants about the meaning of social equity and how it might be incorporated into the traditional research of policy analysts. For example, how does one understand why some welfare case workers provide different program information to African American versus majority group recipients? Or how does one interpret the overrepresentation of Latinos among those arrested and incarcerated for drug possession? In his presidential address at the 2001 APPAM annual research conference, Samuel L. Myers, Jr., suggested that part of the problem lies in the paucity of curriculum and training in race and ethnicity analysis at public affairs schools.

To respond to concerns about how to incorporate race and ethnicity analysis into public affairs teaching and practice, Susan Gooden and Samuel L. Myers, Jr., convened a summit of directors of race and ethnicity policy research centers from around the nation. Their meeting was held in conjunction with the 2002 APPAM annual research conference. The discussions at the summit centered on how to increase the quality of research and policy analysis that studies problems of race and ethnicity. Participants included Mitchell Rice, director of Texas A&M’s Center on Race and Ethnicity, Margaret Simms, vice president for research at the Joint Center for Political and Economic Research, and William Spriggs, director of the National Urban League’s Institute for Equality and Opportunity, as well as dozens of others. The 1990s crisis caused by threats to eliminate many APPAM summer programs devoted to preparing students from diverse populations for entry into top public affairs programs motivated much of the discussion. Participants agreed that the top public affairs schools need to offer more courses on race and ethnicity and commit to helping students acquire tools that would help resolve problems of race and ethnicity. In turn, one might see a greater number of highly qualified racial and ethnic minority students enroll in MPA or MPA programs rather than law or business school.

In 2003, NASPAA, the parent organization of this journal, hosted a series of discussions to consider its role in addressing social equity issues. The NASPAA panels offered insights into teaching social equity in public affairs schools and the importance of preparing future public administrators for a more racially and ethnically diverse and rapidly changing world. Papers by James H. Svara and James R. Brunet and by David Pitts and Lois Recascino Wise stimulated uncommon debate and discussion among panelists and audience members. Svara and Brunet’s research into introductory public administration textbooks’ coverage of social equity concepts and tools deserves the broad and widespread attention of those interested in why there is so little social equity instruction in the training of public administrators.

A third and critical component of the professional discussion on social equity in public administration arose from Phil Rutledge’s unparalleled leadership of the National Academy of Public Administration’s (NAPA) Standing Panel on Social Equity and Governance. The NAPA panel, which meets monthly in Washington, D.C., and at annual conferences across the nation, has set forth a strategic plan for broadening the discussion of social equity in public affairs. Phil Rutledge agreed to devote one full day of one 2003 monthly meeting to panels organized by Gooden and Myers. These panels are summarized in this volume. The invited papers included those previously prepared for the APPAM and the NASPAA meetings, and panelists included those invited to Gooden and Myers’ APPAM panels. Additional participants included fellows and associates of NAPA as well as public managers and administrators.

Ed Jennings, the editor of the Journal of Public Affairs Education (J-PAE), fortuitously recognized the confluence of these three partnerships and invit-
ed us to bring the diverse parts of these ongoing conversations together into a single volume of *J-PAE*.

The social equity focus in this symposium includes refereed papers submitted in response to our 2002 call for papers. It also includes short essays based on presentations at our 2003 symposium held in conjunction with NAPA’s Standing Panel on Social Equity and Governance as well as the results of interviews with public administrators invited to the NAPA symposium. We hope readers will find that this volume stimulates insights into and new understandings of the nature of social equity and how it can be infused into public affairs education.

The lead article in this symposium, “Filling the Skeletal Pillar,” addresses what is often termed the third pillar of public administration—social equity. James H. Svara and James R. Brunet note that the first and second pillars of the normative touchstones of public administration are effectiveness and efficiency. The third pillar, social equity, resides in the historical development of the field of public administration, wherein “standards of fairness and due process [emerged as a means for] reducing favoritism and arbitrary treatment of citizens.” While the public administrator’s code of ethics mandates the promotion of equality, fairness, and due process, Svara and Brunet note that the generalized support for social equity has not been fully incorporated into the values or practices of public administration. In their review of public administration textbooks, the authors find that social equity is rarely defined, is infrequently placed in an historical context, and is relegated to the sections of textbooks that deal with human resource management. The authors conclude by arguing for better integration of social equity into course materials on budgeting, policy implementation, performance measurement, and other components of the training of public administrators and managers.

It is common to consider the problem of diversity in examinations of social equity. Susan White calls for multicultural education and a course requirement on diversity in all MPA programs. In “Multicultural MPA Curriculum,” White surveys course content at all of the top twenty schools of public affairs. She conceives of diversity in the broadest context and examines whether courses address disability, sexual orientation, religion, gender, and class, as well as race and ethnicity. White’s analysis shows that few of the top schools address questions of disability, sexual orientation, age, or religion, even though race and ethnicity is widely variable. There is room for disagreement with White’s tabulations of diversity course offerings at the top twenty public affairs schools. One could quibble, for example, over whether no course at any of the top programs covers issues relating to Native Hawaiians or Pacific Islanders, as White contends. One could dispute her finding that only two programs offer courses dealing with American Indians. But, the hoped-for reaction from the big twenty is a corrective response. The premier institutions that offer degrees in public affairs should react by expanding their course offerings and making their existing courses more inclusive. Populations that are heavily represented in public sector service utilization should be included in the curriculum, even if they are invisible in the course content of public affairs programs.

The next article, “Diversity in Professional Schools,” provides a case study of organizational responses to diversity. The authors, David W. Pitts and Lois Recascino Wise, explain that, although the importance of diversity has increased, within organizations it is often met with mixed responses. Pitts and Wise note that, in some instances, organizations respond to calls for diversity by increasing the recruitment of diverse student bodies or the hiring of women and minorities. In other instances, they apparently respond by increasing the content of their course offerings. This distinction between population-representation and curriculum-driven approaches illustrates the difficulty of incorporating social equity training into organizations.

The authors compare a law school and a public affairs school that both have low minority student enrollments and seem to lack minority faculty—perhaps because of supply constraints. The course offerings on diversity at the two schools are sparse, although the authors find more elective courses on diversity in the law school than in the public affairs...
school. The implicit argument is that there is a feedback relationship between the composition of the faculty and the nature of the courses offered. In this view, cultural competency in the core course offerings requires faculty change, and one type of change the authors support is the hiring of more diverse faculty. Pitts and Wise contend that strong strategic planning, including efforts to expand the Ph.D. pipeline, are required to diversify the faculty at either school.

Mitchell Rice makes explicit the relationship between social equity and diversity in his essay, “Organizational Culture, Social Equity, and Diversity.” He asserts that rapid transformations in the demographic contours of the population served by public administrators, managers, and public service delivery personnel dictate that administrators be trained with a greater understanding of diversity. The connection between diversity and social equity is central to Rice’s argument: “If social equity involves fairness and equal treatment in public service delivery and public policy implementation, then a more basic focus in curricula and courses in public administration education has to examine who works in public organizations, how well are they managed, and who receives public services in a multicultural society.”

Rice’s provocative thesis—designed in part to challenge academic colleagues and to engage them in a justly needed debate—is that there is a cultural environment within public organizations that “has not been positively associated with social equity or diversity.” He contends that “[t]raditional public administration has not fully stressed the external responsibility of public organizations in providing services to clients or customers with differing needs.” While asserting that schools seeking NASPAA certification are not required to meet diversity or social equity curriculum standards, Rice concludes that social equity and diversity “seem to be secondary or less important than the common curriculum competency areas” in traditional public administration education. He advocates for a move to a more multicultural education via a “social equity subculture [that] stresses responsibility to clients who need public services more....”

The last piece of this symposium contains six short essays by prominent policy professionals who were panelists at the February 2003 Social Equity Symposium. The symposium was cohosted by Virginia Tech’s Race and Social Policy Center, the University of Minnesota’s Roy Wilkins Center for Human Relations and Social Justice, the Journal of Public Affairs Education, and NAPA’s Standing Panel on Social Equity and Governance. Participants included researchers and practitioners who principally work on social equity issues. They were asked to consider how well entry-level researchers are prepared to conduct social equity research. In identifying areas of insufficient preparation, they were asked to provide the MPA academic community with suggestions on how schools could do a better job of preparing students in this area. We conclude this piece with an essay based on comments from several former and current federal, state, and local public administrators who could not attend the Social Equity Symposium but generously shared their ideas in follow-up interviews.

These six presentations point out two central needs. The first is the need for MPA students to be theoretically equipped to examine social equity challenges. Anna Agathangelou, director and cofounder of the Global Change Institute in Nicoia, Cyprus, writes in her essay, “What Is to be Done: Globalization and Social Equity,” that globalization, the restructuring of the world economy, and its contingent processes and practices affect how we understand the theory, method, and pedagogy of social equity in public affairs curricula. We need to educate our students about the different scholarly perspectives on the implications of global restructuring in various societal contexts.

Lacy Ward, vice president of marketing and communications at Tuskegee University, contends in his essay, “A Critical Social Equity Component of Public Affairs Education: The Role of Civil Rights,” that MPA programs need to educate students on how the Civil Rights Movement serves as an important theoretical underpinning of contemporary social equity research. Ward notes that, as we commemorate the fiftieth anniversary of Brown v. Board of Education,
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which ushered in a new era of social equity policies involving school desegregation, social equity work at the time of Brown was not exclusive to the judiciary. Rather, these policies involved the other two branches of government, the bureaucracy, civic and community organizations, churches, and individuals. Social equity training in public affairs is incomplete if students and faculty do not better understand the important connection between the Civil Rights Movement and the development of the “third pillar” of public administration—social equity.

Ernest Wilson, director of the Center for International Development and Conflict Management at the University of Maryland, reminds us in his essay, “From Social Equity to National Security,” that an important component of successful social equity education is a diverse group of researchers and students. He contends that a diverse research group is not only important in social policy areas, but is also critical to understanding national security and international affairs policy in a post-9/11 context. According to Wilson, an important combination of structural, conjunctural, and ideological shifts are redefining the intersections of race and culture with national security and national interest.

The second central need that the symposium presentations identify is practical. The presenters examined the needs of a group of employers who disproportionately hire individuals interested in social equity concerns—nonprofit advocacy organizations. Jocelyn Frye, director of legal and public policy at the National Partnership of Women and Children, calls upon MPA programs to better prepare students to engage in social equity research. In her essay, “Preparing MPA Students for the Public Interest Workforce,” Frye identifies six key competencies that social equity researchers must have. They need to understand the intersection of social equity factors; be able to balance the theoretical and the practical; demonstrate creativity; understand the public interest organizations they may join; write in a critical and accessible manner; and have a true commitment to the work.

Focusing specifically on the relationship between social equity and race, William Spriggs, executive director of the National Urban League Institute for Opportunity and Equality, calls upon MPA programs to promote racial equity analysis as a valid research focus. He points out in his essay, “Training Students in Racial Analysis Techniques: An Unmet Need,” that public policy researchers cannot dismiss racial equity analysis as second class research. Rather, they need to elevate racial variables beyond their “control” status to a primary, complex area of research. Schools need to formally train students to critically evaluate the racial implications of a wide range of supposedly race-neutral public policies.

Gary Delgado, executive director of the Applied Research Center, emphasizes the important connections between social equity research and advocacy organizations in his essay, “Recruitment of Advocacy Researchers.” Advocacy organizations are a primary employer of researchers with social equity interests, largely because of issues Spriggs identified in the preceding essay. MPA graduates who assume positions in advocacy organizations need to understand the focus of these organizations and the important factors of results, audience, messages, and messengers, presentation, and signs of success.

The final essay returns attention to social equity in public sector organizations. In this essay, we capture the perspectives of four senior-level public administrators who have considerable experience in performing social equity analysis. These administrators offer useful suggestions for how MPA and MPP programs can improve the social equity analysis skills of their students.

Collectively, these six essays focus attention on the responsibility of public affairs schools to prepare students in the area of social equity. They point to a need for public affairs, public policy, and public administration programs to universally improve the preparation of students in this area. Using fresh perspectives and creative insights, these essays offer valuable guidance on how this might be accomplished.

We hope that the critical insights provided in this volume will provoke widespread discussion, dialogue, and debate. We recognize that not everyone will agree with the authors’ assessments. In many respects, the views expressed in this symposium suggest that social equity may be more difficult to incor-
porate into the training of policy professionals than many thought at the outset of this collaboration. The inherent difficulty, however, should be viewed as an exciting challenge. Our students—optimistic, idealistic, and committed—demand and deserve the understanding of social equity that this special edition of the *Journal of Public Affairs Education* seeks to explore.

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Samuel L. Myers, Jr., is Roy Wilkins Professor of Human Relations and Social Justice and directs the Roy Wilkins Center for Human Relations and Social Justice at the Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs at the University of Minnesota. He is past president of the Association of Public Policy Analysis and Management and a fellow of the National Academy of Public Administration. He specializes in the impacts of social policies on the poor.

Susan Gooden is director of the Race and Social Policy Research Center and an associate professor in the Center for Public Administration and Policy at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. Her research focus is welfare reform, with a particular interest in race and welfare, private and non-profit service delivery structures and rural welfare reform policy.
Filling in the Skeletal Pillar: 
Addressing Social Equity in Introductory Courses 
in Public Administration

James H. Svara and James R. Brunet
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ABSTRACT
In this article, the authors investigate the coverage of social equity in introductory public administration textbooks. A framework for understanding and measuring social equity is first presented, followed by a detailed review of textbook content. Finding mixed attention to the issue, an "equity-across-the-survey-course" is suggested. The article concludes with specific recommendations for including social equity as a theme running throughout the course.

In an editorial that provided the basis for this issue of J-PAE, Ed Jennings expressed what is probably a common perception. A great deal of attention is given in public administration to public service values, including efficiency, effectiveness, democracy, responsiveness, and accountability. "Surely," Jennings argued, "in a democratic society, social equity should have the same degree of importance." In response to the charge to examine "how public affairs programs address social equity issues and what they communicate to their students about this central concern," attention should be given to how equity is handled in introductory courses in public administration. We examine this question by assessing the content of textbooks designed for these courses. We have not attempted to find out how instructors actually handle the topic in the classroom, but we provide an assessment of the text materials on which they can draw.

An assessment of textbooks as well as the larger issue of how social equity should be presented runs into an immediate problem. How do we know what we are looking for? One must have a framework for understanding equity before it is possible to determine the extent to which the elements in the framework are being covered. The first step in this paper is to consider how we think about social equity and the extent to which it has been given operational meaning in the field of public administration. Finding a lack of clarity, the second step is to propose a framework drawing on recent national discussions about measuring equity. The third step is to examine the content of major introductory textbooks. In view of the limited material we found in textbooks, our final step is to suggest ways to shore up the coverage of social equity in the public administration survey course.

THE MEANING OF SOCIA EQUITY IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
Social equity’s place in the field of public administration is difficult to pin down. It would seem to be one of our most important normative
touchstones. It has been described as a third pillar of the field, along with efficiency and effectiveness.\(^1\) Still, it is clear that equity is not as well developed as the other two pillars. The shortcomings in specification may arise from the confusion about the meaning of equity, both as a concept and as a value commitment for public administrators. Definitions can range from simple fairness and equal treatment to redistribution and reducing inequalities in society. The various definitions are not a problem per se, but there can be confusion if one administrator feels that the obligation to be equitable is met fully by providing the same garbage pickup schedule to all residents and another views targeted programs to help low-income children as the kind of approach that qualifies as equity. Thus, what actions are appropriate for public administrators to take in their presumed commitment to equity can also vary widely, and certain alternatives can raise the issue of administrator involvement in policy-making. Put together, these observations suggest that equity is a pillar in public administration, but a skeletal one lacking core and cover. Social equity is imposing from a distance, but when you get close to equity it is hollow. There is limited agreement about what equity means or what administrators should do about it except to be for equity in a general way.

The undeveloped condition of equity is further illustrated by the disparity between the measures available for it compared with the other two pillars of the field. Outfitted with scorecards, report cards, benchmarks, and customer satisfaction surveys, the modern administrator is well equipped to measure the efficiency and effectiveness of governmental operations. Politicians and administrators alike celebrate all manners of performance improvement, from declining crime rates to improving water quality. These popular measures, however, have little to say about our progress on issues of social equity. That is, they do not score agencies on their ability to treat all of citizens in a fair manner or to deliver public goods and services equally. Although some communities use measures that cross over into social equity domains—for example, benchmarks that track citizen complaints against police officers (see Ammons, 2001)—comparative weakness in the development of such measures suggests that scholars and practitioners have not made equity central to the way they think about public administration and to how the performance of public agencies is measured.\(^2\)

The scarcity of equity measures does not imply that social equity has been ignored in toto in the public administration literature. Sharp (1990) and Frederickson (1997) provide extended discussions of equity, and much work has been directed at issues of internal equity in governmental organizations—sexual harassment, diversity, and affirmative action (see Broadnax, 2000). Rather, the weak development of such measures suggests that the concept itself is not well understood.

A Framework for Understanding, Measuring, and Acting on Social Equity

It is a common perception that social equity is a relatively recent discovery in public administration, but the heritage of the field is ignored if we accept the view that equity is a post-’60s concern in public administration.\(^3\) Part of establishing a modern, professional, democratic public administration in the United States and other countries has been promoting standards of fairness and due process and reducing favoritism and the arbitrary treatment of citizens. Furthermore, equality has been an ideal in the U.S. from its beginnings, although we have a long history of systemic and specific shortcomings in achieving it.\(^4\) What is relatively recent is the realization that there are basic inequalities in society that will never be corrected by simply treating everyone equally and that existing government programs can perpetuate inequality. During the New Public Administration movement, public administration scholars began to consider the field’s position on the redistribution of resources to reduce inequalities.

A panel of the National Academy of Public Administration (NAPA) has been working to develop standards and measures of equity that can be used to better monitor the performance of government agencies and to guide efforts to elevate the attention to equity. As one of its first products, the panel
developed the following working definition of social equity:

The fair, just and equitable management of all institutions serving the public directly or by contract, and the fair, just and equitable distribution of public services, and implementation of public policy, and the commitment to promote fairness, justice, and equity in the formation of public policy.5

This definition is helpful in defining the nature and scope of social equity concerns. Fairness, justice, and equitable distribution are viewed as normative cornerstones of equity. Important administrative functions and processes, such as policy formation, service delivery, implementation, and management, are also encompassed by the definition. Equity considerations extend to the work done and services delivered on behalf of government through contracts as well as the work of government agencies themselves. This definition clarified what is meant by equity, but the NAPA panel has faced the challenge of specifying more precisely what equity is and how it is possible to systematically examine when and how equity is being achieved. A panel committee has created a preliminary set of criteria that give operational meaning to equity and can be used in a variety of ways to measure equity.6 The criteria are divided into four areas: procedural fairness, access, quality, and outcomes.

Procedural fairness involves the examination of problems or issues in procedural rights (due process), treatment in procedural sense (equal protection), and the application of eligibility criteria (equal rights) for existing policies and programs. This criterion includes an examination of fairness in management practices in areas such as hiring, promotion, and award of contracts. A commitment to procedural fairness is integral to administrative values; public administrators have an ethical and legal obligation to ensure that Constitutional rights are protected. Practices such as a failure to provide due process before relocating a family as part of an urban renewal project, using racial profiling to identify suspects, or unfairly denying benefits to a person who meets eligibility criteria all raise obvious equity issues.

Access—or distributional equity—involves a review of current policies, services, and practices to determine the level of access to services/benefits and an analysis of reasons for unequal access. Several alternative distributional principles may be used to promote equity: simple equality; differentiated equality; targeted intervention; redistribution; and commitment of resources to achieve equal results. Access concerns who receives benefits or services. Equity can be examined empirically—do all persons receive the same service and the same quality service?—as opposed to the procedural question of whether all are treated the same according to distributional standards in an existing program or policy. Or it can be examined normatively—should there be a policy commitment to providing the same level of service to all?

If there are gaps in equality, what approach should be taken, if any, to address inequality? If one does not pursue equal distribution, the other approaches are guided by a Rawlsian principle: unequal treatment should be intended to promote a fairer distribution of resources in society by benefiting those who are disadvantaged. A wide variety of programs offer a form of differentiated equality based on recipients meeting eligibility criteria that direct benefits to low income or minority persons. Targeted intervention is similar, with an emphasis on geographical areas in which low-income persons reside—for example, inner-city health clinics. Finally, certain programs have an explicit commitment to the redistribution of resources as a policy purpose, although it is not necessarily the only purpose. Temporary Assistance to Needy Families is redistributive, with the primary objective of moving the recipients of assistance into regular jobs. Medicaid offsets the disadvantage in access to health care for low-income persons.

Quality—or process equity—involves a review of the level of consistency in the quality of existing services delivered to groups and individuals. Process equity requires consistency in the nature of services
delivered to groups and individuals regardless of the distributional criterion that is used. For example, is garbage pickup the same in quality—the extent of spillage or missed cans—in all neighborhoods? Do children in inner-city schools have teachers with the same qualifications as those in suburban schools? Does healthcare under Medicaid match the prevailing standards of quality? Presumably, a commitment to equity entails a commitment to equal quality.

Outcomes involves an examination of whether policies and programs have the same impact for all groups and individuals served. Regardless of the approach to distribution and the consistency of quality, there is not necessarily a commitment to an equal level of accomplishment or outcomes. This approach represents a shift in focus from procedures and inputs to outputs. The results approach examines social and economic conditions and then asks why different outcomes occur—for example, achievement gaps in schools or differences in life expectancy based on income or race. Equal results equity might conceivably require that resources be allocated until the same results are achieved. This is the most demanding standard of equity and could involve an essentially open-ended commitment of resources. Part of the difficulty in achieving equal results is that government action is not the sole determinant of social outcomes. Social and economic conditions—for example, poverty—that are broader than the policy problem being examined may explain the differences in outcomes in education or health. Furthermore, individual behavior is often a critical element in explaining social outcomes. Still, a critical issue in consideration of equity at this level is how much inequality is acceptable and to what extent government can and should intervene to reduce the inequality in results.

One final aspect of creating a framework for understanding equity is its action implications. Equity cannot be a defining value of the field unless it is tied to a commitment to advance equity. Following from the definition and criteria, one may infer that public administrators have a responsibility to promote fairness, justice, and equitable distribution in policy formulation, implementation, and management and to critically examine the impact of government actions. Defining responsibility in this way assumes that administrators play an active role in policy-making and that their efforts to shape policy should include giving explicit attention to the implications of alternative approaches for equity. Thus, a broad commitment to equity presumes that administrators have a complementary relationship that includes helping to shape policy and preserving an agency’s established policy goals (Svara, 2001; Svara and Brunet, 2003). It is not the expectation that public administrators within an agency will become policy campaigners offering gratuitous advice to elected officials about new programs that they favor to make society more equitable. What administrators should do is analyze unmet needs and recommend ways to improve existing policies and programs and/or create new policies or programs to advance equity. Some of these changes may be accomplished by administrative action alone, particularly by removing procedural barriers to equity and improving access, quality, and outcomes within existing policies. Some will require elected officials to make policy changes. It is important to note how this view of the responsibilities of administrators compares to the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) code of ethics. The code calls for efforts to change policies only if they are “counter-productive or obsolete,” with no mention of changes to promote equity. The code obligates administrators to oppose or eliminate discrimination in Parts I-2 (along with supporting affirmative action) and II-3; to promote fairness in Part I-5; to promote equality, fairness, and due process in protecting citizens’ rights in Part II-7; and to ensure due process for organizational members in IV-4. There is no explicit mention of the equitable distribution of public services. Thus, the expectations for administrator action are somewhat broader than those found in the ASPA code. This difference does not necessarily imply a conflict in value preferences, but it may be another indication that the generalized support for social equity has not been fully incorporated into the values or practices of public administration.
THE SOCIAL EQUITY BLIND SPOT IN INTRODUCTORY TEXTS

In the past, public administration scholars have surveyed the contents of introductory textbooks to ascertain the field’s pedagogical priorities (Waldo, 1955; Stillman, 1991; Cigler, 2000). In similar fashion, a content analysis of current textbooks in public administration was conducted to determine how the issue of social equity is covered. Two criteria were used for selecting textbooks to include in the analysis. First, we sought out textbooks that provided the most current overview of the field. We limited our selections to books published within the last three years, under the assumption that books of a more recent vintage had access to the latest social equity research and are more likely to be available for use in courses. Second, books that have gained a level of acceptance in the field, through publication in multiple editions, were selected over first-edition texts. Through this test, we hoped to get the books that had withstood the test of time and garnered a measure of support from instructors and students alike. In the end, we were left with the seven textbooks that are most often found in public administration classrooms.

Our search methods were both structured and inductive. We analyzed the presence of certain terms and topics—that is, reviewed the content against a predetermined checklist—and made an effort to discern how the issue was presented by the authors in ways that might not have been anticipated. From these two approaches, we identified a set of dimensions to summarize the equity content of the textbooks.

The dimensions parallel the criteria described above from the NAPA panel, with two additional dimensions pertaining to the coverage of changes in the focus on equity in the history of public administration and the discussion of ethical responsibilities pertaining to equity. Those dimensions and specific indicators are the following:

Use and Definition. We began at a macro level of analysis by noting how frequently the term “social equity” is used in the textbooks and how it is defined.

Historical Aspects. We were interested in learning whether the texts incorporated social equity into a general discussion of administrative history. To gauge whether social equity is presented as an important element in the historical development of the field, we looked to see if prominent milestones (equity in the founding of public administration or the Minnowbrook Conference) and movements connected to social equity (New Public Administration) were introduced. Historical presentations of important civil rights laws and judicial determinations are recorded in their specific social equity domains. For example, textbook coverage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 counted toward the discrimination category in the procedural fairness domain.

Procedural Fairness. Procedural Fairness included six areas.

• Due Process. Due process is an important constitutional principle that ensures that agency action is guided (constrained) by the rule of law. It promotes agency fairness in dealings with citizens by requiring certain procedural protections (for example, notice, hearings, appeals of agency decisions).

• Discrimination. Fairness in hiring and career advancement is another key element in social equity. The textbooks were reviewed for their coverage of various forms of discrimination in the workplace, including racial, gender, disability, and pregnancy.

• Sexual Harassment. Sexual harassment is a specific form of workplace discrimination that includes unwelcome sexual advances and conduct that creates a hostile work environment. The content of sexual harassment textbook discussions is explored.

• Equal Employment Opportunity/Affirmative Action. A leading concern in the early social equity movement was the need to open up government employment opportunities to underrepresented groups. We were particularly interested in seeing how the authors addressed this topic.

• Representativeness. An important consideration for social equity proponents is the racial, ethnic, and gender composition of the public workforce. In a sense, it is a check on the effectiveness of affirmative action programs.
Filling in the Skeletal Pillar: Addressing Social Equity in Introductory Courses in Public Administration

The implication here is that a public service that closely matches the sociodemographic characteristics of the general population more accurately reflects the public interest. Textbook presentations comparing the demographic makeup of public servants to the general public and private sector workers are considered.

- **Cultural Competence.** This includes coverage of agency efforts to understand cultural differences in citizens in order to deliver services in a fair and consistent manner. Crosscultural communication is also relevant here.

**Other Equity Measures**

- **Access**—distributional equity. Discussion of criteria for distributing benefits or services, for example, distributive versus redistributive approaches.
- **Quality**—process equity. Performance measures concerning service quality.
- **Outcomes.** With the growing emphasis on accountability and performance in public programs, we searched for examples of social equity measures. We wanted to see if benchmarking presentations incorporated social equity goals alongside other outcome measures.

- **Ethics.** We explore whether social equity is included as a value principle in the discussion of administrative ethics or whether there is discussion of whether administrators have a responsibility to promote social equity.9

Table 1 summarizes the coverage of social equity concepts in introductory textbooks. The table clearly shows that the most attention is given to procedural social equity concerns, including due process, discrimination, and equal employment opportunity. Other aspects of social equity, including references to its historical significance, received less attention in the texts. For the sake of clarity, we removed from the table empty categories that did not record any coverage, including cultural competence, equity measures, and ethics. A more detailed discussion for each social equity domain is provided below.

**Use and Definition**

Students are not likely to find the phrase “social equity” in introductory public administration books. Two exceptions exist, however. Shafritz and Russell dedicate an entire chapter to the subject, and Berkley and Rouse mention social equity when discussing actions taken to diversify federal workplaces.

**Table 1: Social Equity Coverage in Public Administration Textbooks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>History</th>
<th>Due Process</th>
<th>Discrimination</th>
<th>Sexual Harassment</th>
<th>EEO/AA</th>
<th>Representativeness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Berkley/Rouse</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denhardt/Grubbs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milakovich/Gordon</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Henry</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosenbloom/Kravchuk</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shafritz/Russell</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Starling</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td>X</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dimensions/indicators not covered in any texts: procedural fairness/cultural competence, other equity measures, and ethical aspects of equity.

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(148). Other textbook authors prefer to discuss social equity issues such as discrimination, sexual harassment, and representativeness without reference to social equity.10

Several authors do introduce the related concept of “equity” in various contexts. Milakovich and Gordon discuss the Equity Pay Act of 1963, and Rosenbloom and Kravchuk identify equity as an important constitutional value for administrators. Shafritz and Russell provide the only formal definition: “social equity is fairness in the delivery of public services; it is egalitarianism in action—the principle that each citizen, regardless of economic resources or personal traits, deserves and has a right to be given equal treatment by the political system” (395). The first part of the definition hints at the distributional aspects of social equity; the second part leans toward procedural fairness.

Historical Aspects

Social equity is not typically cited in historical accounts of the field. Two exceptions are noteworthy. In his detailed history of public administration, Henry presents New Public Administration as a normative counterpoint to the behavioralist tendencies in political science and the value-neutral management science approach. He concludes that, while the New Public Administration movement “never lived up to its ambitions of revolutionizing the discipline,” it “had a lasting impact on public administration in that [it] nudged public administrationists into reconsidering their traditional intellectual ties with both political science and management, and contemplating the prospects of academic autonomy” (2001, 45). Shafritz and Russell make the strongest connection between the value of social equity and the history of public administration. They trace the roots of social equity from Rousseau’s Social Contract to the Minnowbrook gathering of activist scholars in 1968. For them, the legacy of the social equity movement has been a positive one “in that now the ethical and equitable treatment of citizens by administrators is at the forefront of concerns in public agencies” (397). They conclude with the following charge for administrators: “Social equity today does not have to be so much fought for by young radicals as administered by managers of all ages” (397).

Due Process

A majority of the texts define and discuss the concept of procedural due process. Procedural due process “stands for the value of fundamental fairness...requiring procedures designed to protect individuals from malicious, arbitrary, erroneous, or capricious unconstitutional deprivation of life, liberty, or property at the hand of government” (Rosenbloom and Kravchuk, 2002, 55). This topic is often covered within a larger administrative law discussion about rulemaking and adjudication (Denhardt and Grubbs, 70; Milakovich and Gordon, 462-463; Starling, 147; Rosenbloom and Kravchuk, 537-539). Texts often mention specific procedural safeguards that are available to citizens when dealing with adverse agency actions, including adequate notice, right to representation, hearings, and the opportunity to appeal agency decisions.

Discrimination

The texts provide a basic introduction to discrimination, typically in a chapter on personnel administration. As such, the discrimination discussions are geared to illegal employment practices. Discrimination in its various forms (race, gender, age, pregnancy, disability) receives variable coverage, with the most attention directed at the first two items. Henry offers a unique overview of cultural bias in public employment testing (273). Shafritz and Russell actually begin their presentation by examining the heritage of slavery and racism in the United States. Frequently, reverse discrimination is also introduced.

Sexual Harassment

Six of the seven texts raise the issue of sexual harassment, usually offering a legal definition of sexual harassment and discussing relevant court cases that inform current policies. Denhardt and Grubbs offer practical advice on what agencies can do about sexual harassment (226). Another unique approach is to compare sexual harassment policies in the United States and Sweden (Berkeley and Rouse, 148).
Equal Employment Opportunity/Affirmative Action

The texts provide uniformly solid coverage of the policies enacted to combat discrimination in employment practices. Many pages are given to the history of the Civil Rights Act, the Americans with Disabilities Act, and comparable worth, among other policies. The texts also dedicate space to the emerging backlash against these initiatives (Shafritz and Russell; Henry; and Milakovich and Gordon).

Representativeness

Several authors identify representativeness as an important public sector value (Milakovich and Gordon; Rosenbloom and Kravchuk). Attempts are made to compare the face of public administration to that of the general population. For example, Berkley and Rouse present two tables that track the number of women and minorities in various federal employment grades (139-140). Both tables indicate increasing numbers of women and minorities in higher grade levels since 1986. Henry provides slightly different breakouts for federal and subnational employees and makes several interesting comparisons to private sector employment. He cites studies that show that more women occupy senior management positions in government compared to women who work in Fortune 500 companies (280). While the presentation seems to indicate that the characteristics of public servants adequately reflect the characteristics of the citizenry (Berkley and Rouse and Henry), one book warns that the imperfect match between the socioeconomic characteristics of administrators and citizens may lead administrators to misrepresent the public interest (Rosenbloom and Kravchuk).

Cultural Competency, Equity Measures, and Ethics

There are several gaps in social equity coverage. The need for administrators to understand how different cultures communicate and relate to government officials is noticeably absent in introductory texts. There is no coverage of distribution equity and ways to achieve or measure it. The consideration of the relative merits of equal distribution, some form of differentiated equality, redistribution, or equal results is missing. Finally, the texts do not link discussions of administrative ethics to the equity construct.

How to Present Equity in an Introductory Course

If equity is a major but poorly defined pillar in public administration and if, reflecting the uncertainty in the larger field of public administration, introductory textbooks have typically offered only partial coverage of the topic, how can social equity be introduced to students in survey courses in public administration? Surely the topic is too important to reserve for more advanced courses. In addition, the survey course is likely to be the only opportunity to make many students—most undergraduates or students in other graduate degree programs who take only one course in public administration—aware of social equity. Despite its importance, however, social equity is, as we have seen, a complex and multifaceted topic that may be difficult to cover quickly, and the survey course is already filled with many important topics. Beyond whether and how much coverage, another issue is whether instructors are prepared to cover the topic. Extensive preparation required before instructors of the survey course can adequately address social equity?

In our view, social equity is so important that it should be included in the survey course, and instructors are adequately prepared to cover the topic even with limited backup in most textbooks. Furthermore, there is sufficient time and space in the survey course to effectively introduce the concept. Two teaching strategies are currently used. First, if one were to use a textbook like Shafritz and Russell, the in depth coverage of the topic in a separate chapter would support making this the topic for a week of classes. A second approach taken by most authors is to load largely procedural equity issues into the human resources chapter. Another, possibly preferable, approach may be indicated. The instructor can increase the salience of social equity by including meaningful references to it throughout the course and linking it to the very definition of the field and to the ethical expectations of public administrators. This third approach goes beyond the way in which
most textbooks currently address the topic and represents an “equity-across-the-survey-course” approach.\textsuperscript{12}

Social equity can be given its due without a major reallocation of time. Most instructors are well aware that the survey course is already crowded with basic content; the seven textbooks considered in this investigation average 540 pages. Still, equity can be highlighted in many places. The following are examples of general topics that offer a place to cover particular facets of equity.

**History and development of public administration** offers an opportunity to address the following aspects of social equity:

- Early historical context in the United States: Regime values of liberty, freedom, and equality; and the recognition of systemic sources of inequality in the United States at its founding.
- The emergence of public administration as a practice in the Progressive Era: The promotion of fairness and due process as well as the reduction of particularistic benefits and arbitrary treatment of citizens as an essential part of civil service reform in particular and of the creation of a differentiated professional public administration in general.\textsuperscript{13}
- Expansion of public administration in the New Deal: Public administrators’ involvement in an expanding range of policies and programs that addressed social and economic needs.
- Political and social turmoil of the ‘60s and changes in administrative thought: The civil rights movement’s challenge of public administration to recognize and change practices that perpetuated discrimination; New Public Administration’s role in expanding the thinking about equity to include a redistribution of resources and efforts to increase the participation of disempowered groups, and its role in challenging public administrators to reconsider their responsibilities to elected officials, on the one hand, and citizens, on the other.

**Budgeting and financial management** discussions might include the redistribution of funds, the role of citizens in determining funding priorities, and efforts to distribute funds in an equitable manner.

Rosenbloom and Kravchuk briefly mention equity as an important value in tax policy (288). For example, most observers would find an income tax system that required wealthy people to pay little or no tax to be unfair. The shift from services funded by general revenues to a fee-for-service approach to financing has equity issues.

**Human resource management** discussions could include procedural equity issues and human resources topics, which are well covered in all textbooks, as noted earlier.

**Implementation of public policies** could introduce equity in a discussion of contracting-out governmental activities. Because most texts already discuss privatization of governmental functions, a follow-up discussion could include a comparison of competing public-private value precepts. In the public policy section of the course, instructors may branch into a discussion on how certain public policies seek to overcome disparities. The Balanoff reader (2000) has an article on how the city of Austin is addressing the digital divide.

**Public management** could incorporate social equity measures related to quality of service and the results of government programs into a broader discussion of benchmarking and performance management.

**Communication** offers another opportunity to address social equity. Several textbooks take up the issue of communication (Berkley and Rouse; Starling; Denhardt and Grubbs). The topic, however, is usually directed toward communication within an organization. Instructors could tap into the latest research that examines cultural differences in communication in an effort to better serve an increasingly diverse citizenry (see, e.g., Dulek, Fielden, and Hill, 1991).\textsuperscript{14}

**Ethics,** which is often presented at the end of the course, provides an opportunity to cement the importance of equity by linking it to ethics. Equity could be included in discussions of discretion. One textbook supplement (Watson, 2002) offers an ethics vignette that makes this connection. In the scenario, the student is asked to take on the role of a mayor’s assistant when an allegation of racial profiling is made against the jurisdiction’s police department.
Students can examine the ASPA code to identify provisions that deal with social equity and suggest tenets that might be added.

CONCLUSION

The current stock of introductory textbooks cover social equity in one of two ways—as a stand-alone chapter (Shafritz and Russell) or as a prominent feature in a human resources section (all the other texts). We suggest that instructors adopt a third approach that weaves social equity into the content covered throughout the entire course. This requires instructors to use a bit of creativity, because most introductory textbooks do not provide social equity material across all content areas. Social equity may be incorporated into most topics, including history of the field, budgeting, human resources, policy implementation, performance measurement, communication, and ethics among others. If social equity is going to have substance as the third pillar of public administration, it needs to be given more salience and visibility. Students starting in the introductory course should consider what it means to promote equity and how this value can be linked to action.

ENDNOTES
1. Frederickson (1980) split the first and omitted effectiveness in his formulations of the pillar concept.
2. The performance measurement movement in the public sector has its genesis in the experiences of successful private sector enterprises (Peters and Waterman, 1982). This may have contributed to the social equity blind spot in current public sector measurement initiatives.
3. Elements of equity are evident in the field’s first textbook (White 1926). Administrative activity is guided by a “principle of consistency” that requires the delivery of services without respect to a person’s race, religion, or other circumstances (18-19).
4. Furthermore, there is tension between the ideals of equality and freedom. We have probably done more to advance the latter than the former in the United States, and used the protection of freedom and individual initiative as a reason for not seeking greater equity.
6. More than 150 persons have chosen to be part of the panel.
7. The criteria have not been reviewed or approved by the entire panel as of December 2002. The panel hopes to have a set of criteria to measure the state of equity in major policy areas in the United States. Individual agencies could use the same standards to conduct an equity inventory of their programs, procedures, and performance.
8. Similar observations could be made about the International City/County Management Association (ICMA) statements of values. In the Code of Ethics, Tenet 11 is to “handle all matters of personnel on the basis of merit so that fairness and impartiality govern a member’s decisions...” Statement 6 in the Declaration of Ideals is as follows: “Advocate equitable regulation and service delivery, recognizing that needs and expectations for public services may vary throughout the community.”
9. In addition to the categories discussed, two other topics might be related to equity: citizen participation efforts fostered by administrators to equalize participation and offset socio/economic factors that retard participation; and the impact of contracting out on staff or service recipients. Neither topic is related to equity in the introductory texts.
10. This was not always the case. An earlier edition of one popular text (Gordon, 1986, 51-52) includes a discussion of social equity. By the 1990s, references to social equity were dropped.
11. According to Rosenbloom and Kravchuk, the public service contains more middle-class persons than the general population, and the top ranks of government are filled with a disproportionately high number of whites and males (557).
12. In MPA programs, following the introductory discussion in the survey course, an “equity-across-the-curriculum” approach should be continued.
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13. It will be useful to also avoid the simplistic argument that the founding of public administration in the United States was based on the principle of a dichotomous separation of spheres. The founders in the Progressive Era sought to establish a differentiated public administration but one connected to elected officials and the public, a public administration that would help to shape policies in ways that would promote the public interest, and a public administration that would independently defend laws and values supporting fairness in the face of political pressure. This was not a passive, compliant, value-neutral, and strictly separated public administration. Wilson argued that the law should be administered with enlightenment and equity, and Goodnow was concerned about pursuing truth and maintaining impartiality in public administration (Svara, 1999).

14. For example, persons from high-context cultures (China, Saudi Arabia) rely heavily on nonverbal cues and less on what is actually being said. In low-context cultures (Germany, United States) the spoken word is more important than body language in oral communication. By understanding the differences in communication styles, public administrators would be better prepared to serve all citizens in an equitable manner.

REFERENCES

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James R. Brunet regularly teaches the introduction to public administration course at North Carolina State University. His research interests cover the foundations of public administration and the administration of justice in the United States. His latest work on strategic planning and state courts appears in State and Local Government Review.
The United States is a diverse nation. According to the 2000 U.S. Census, the total U.S. population is more than 281 million, with more than 35.3 million Hispanics or Latinos (any race), 34.6 million African Americans, 10.2 million Asian Americans, and an additional 2.4 million Native Americans (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). Additionally, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2003) reports that, between 2000 and 2010, non-Hispanic whites will compose only 31 percent of newcomers in the workforce (2003). It is expected that “[d]uring this period of time, African Americans, Hispanics, and Asian Americans will represent 16.5 percent, 16.2 percent, and 8.8 percent, respectively, of new entrants” (Selden and Selden, 2001).

Developing an understanding of different worldviews, values, and cultures related to diverse group membership is extremely important to a field, such as public administration, that produces future public servants. Today, America continues to struggle with issues of equality, racial justice, and fairness, while struggling at the same time for equal conditions for all citizens. A brief glance at systems such as education, housing, the labor force, and social safety net programs, such as welfare and health insurance, shows that the struggle for equal conditions is still an uphill battle for public administrators and policy analysts interested in combating these differences for various groups in our society (National Academy of Public Administration, 2000). Addressing issues of social equity would begin by gaining an understanding of diverse groups and exploring how the diversity of our citizenry affects the outcomes of our public services.

The National Academy of Public Administration’s (NAPA) Standing Panel on Social Equity in Governance (2000) states that “the task of public administration is to organize, manage, and lead in such a way as to make the processes and the results of those processes as equitable as possible. Social equity is, then, the balancing of various forms of equality” (2000). Likewise, the members of the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) are committed to promoting “constitutional principles of equality, fairness, representativeness, responsiveness, and due process in protecting citizens’ rights;” in the same spirit of social equity that began with the
Constitution and continues as a guiding principle in government (2002).

Over the years, the language of social equity has changed to include not just race and gender but ethnicity, sexual preference, disability, age, sexual orientation, class, and religion. The concept of diversity now often implies this broader definition of social equity (NAPA, 2000). Achieving social equity through service delivery can depend on the preferences and beliefs of diverse groups. Therefore, diversity is central to the field of public administration (NAPA, 2000). Because promoting, ensuring, and protecting social equity is a central task and duty of public administrators, these goals should be reflected in the curriculum as well. Exposure to diversity courses in the MPA curriculum offers one way to foster cultural competency in our profession.

Multiple definitions of cultural competency have been discussed in the literature. Cox and Beale (1997) define cultural competency as a “process of learning that leads to an ability to effectively respond to the challenges and opportunities posed by the presence of social-cultural diversity in a defined social system.” Castenell and Pinar (1993) state that this type of competence is the ability to communicate in a language and culture outside of one’s own cultural heritage. Cross et al. (1989) define cultural competency as

a set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that come together in a system, agency, or among professionals that enable them to work effectively in cross-cultural situations. It is the acceptance and respect for difference, a continuous self-assessment regarding culture, and attention to the dynamics of difference, the ongoing development of cultural knowledge, and the resources and flexibility within service models to meet the needs of minority populations.

Through the lens of multicultural education, diversity materials can be used specifically to increase the possibility of creating culturally competent students and practitioners.

In this article, I discuss the role of multicultural education, followed by the implications of its inclusion in public administration curricula. Then I examine diversity as it relates to bureaucracy, public administration, and public administration curricula. I argue that exposure to diversity materials through multicultural education is one way in which students may become culturally competent. Following an overview of the research methodology, I discuss the findings from an analysis of course syllabi in the top twenty public affairs programs. I conclude by offering recommendations for the improved incorporation of diversity and cultural competency training into MPA curricula.

A CASE FOR MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

Multicultural education was developed in the United States in the 1960s as a minority response to the failure of compensatory education programs proposed and launched by the Kennedy and Johnson administrations (Castenell and Pinar, 1993). Since that time, the concept in higher education has emerged into two very different diversity concerns. The first is diversity of populations within the “university as social institution,” which was the idea of the 1960s; the second is “diversity in the curricula,” or multiculturalism. This latter concept responds to the fact that the current cultural curriculum consists mainly of the thoughts of white, European males, while the thoughts of the diverse student body are not reflected in the curricula (O’Brien, 1998).

A whitewashing of differences among people of various races and cultures and a failure to recognize or acknowledge their contributions has the effect of silencing their voices. Women and students of color are taught to ascribe to the notion that scholarship produced by white, male authors is the model for their own scholarship. By excluding the scholarship of women and minorities, universities discourage underrepresented groups from participating in academia and entering their own scholarship into the marketplace of ideas. “Other sources of silencing are the choices of readings, course topics, and field experiences that are constructed for future public
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administrators, and which may ignore issues of diversity and equity (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2002). Crossing these boundaries in curricula is essential to improving the overall quality of academic education and producing future academics in the field.

As Powell suggests, "students must develop multicultural literacy and cross-cultural competency if they are to become knowledgeable, reflective, and caring citizens in the 21st century" (2001). These types of knowledge, skills, and attitudes are necessary for democratic participation, and an equitable learning environment is the only place in which they can be nurtured. Educational institutions cultivate competencies in this area through seeking and validating diverse ideas (Powell, 2001).

In the 21st century, the demographics of the United States continue to evolve rapidly, and these changes are reflected in our educational institutions (Castenell and Pinar, 1993). Higher education must not only meet the needs of the diverse student body but must also educate them to participate in a diverse society: “[i]f we see higher education as a place merely to assimilate students into a traditional culture or knowledge base, we may not be adequately preparing them for personal or professional success in a culturally pluralistic society” (Judkins and LaHurd, 1999). It seems logical, then, that the curricula taught and used in institutions of higher education would strive to prepare students for working in and studying in a diverse environment. However, this has not been the case in many fields and disciplines.

The classroom must become a meeting ground of cultures, where the worldviews of students meet those of their teachers and the institutions in which they teach. Teaching is fundamentally a form of cultural exchange, and multicultural education should ensure the inclusion of all cultures. Courses that address areas of diversity through multicultural education can provide a meeting ground in which various viewpoints can be debated, discussed, and better understood.

Teaching from a multicultural curriculum is a laudable goal for two reasons. First, the classroom is a preparation ground for the working world. Having a common ground for working with others who do not share the same experiences or worldviews is essential in our changing society. In the world of work, we do not get to choose our colleagues. Second, acknowledging diversity through a multicultural framework is an act of inclusion (Darling-Hammond et al., 2002). We must teach students to be conscious and aware of diverse cultures, thoughts, and traditions, because the classroom is a mirror of the outside world. Diversity is a catchphrase, a code word that signifies not a single meaning, but a vast ongoing conversation about who we teach, how we teach, and why we teach” (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2002).

Multicultural education is a nonhierarchical approach that respects and celebrates diversity. A multicultural perspective is based on the fact that all humans have contributed to world development and that most achievements are the result of mutual, interactive, and international efforts. A multicultural approach “is thus a fundamental necessity for anyone who wishes to achieve competency in almost any subject” (Van Deburg, 1997).

Multicultural Education and Public Administration

Tribulations associated with race have continued to beset this nation, as they have since its founding. Americans have looked to the political process for gradual progress and remedies for these problems (Hacker, 1997). As public administrators, our duty to the citizens we serve is to become a means for achieving compromise and for struggling for social change. Our process should be to redress injustices, redistribute resources, and improve the atmosphere in which people live and work. Therefore it is imperative that universities expose students to diversity courses within a multicultural approach to education.

Some scholars have argued that a bureaucracy will be more responsive to the public interest, and therefore will effectively serve democratic principles, if government employees are representative of the public that they serve (Kingsley, 1944; Krislov, 1974). The rationale behind representative bureaucracy is that passive representation will lead to active representation—the pursuit of policies reflecting the interests and desires of the people. Research
suggests that values relating to race and ethnicity are important determinants of a person’s policy decisions. By ensuring that a broad range of interests are represented or considered in the implementation and formulation of public policies and programs, representative bureaucracy provides a means of fostering equity in the policy process (Selden and Selden, 2001).

In order for public administrators to uphold their duties to protect multiple interests, there must be grounding in multicultural education that helps one appreciate and understand diversity. This means "moving beyond a commitment to the rationalist perspective of administration and policy and instead understanding and embracing the reality that state agencies have helped shape the old as well as the contemporary racial and cultural order" (Stafford, 1999). Justice, fairness, and equality are central issues in public administration. First, implementation of law is the work of public administrators or the "law in action." Second, the law is rarely so clear and precise that it can uniformly be applied from case to case. Third, if public administration is the law in action, then it inevitably requires interpretation and discretion in its applications (NAPA, 2000). Fourth, our elected leaders struggle with these issues daily within our public institutions (NAPA, 2000). Because of the role that public administrators have in protecting the public interest, students of public administration should be prepared to advocate for diverse populations.

A field of public servants, representing a diverse society, should have at least primary knowledge of diversity issues. These issues fit logically into all major courses in the MPA curriculum, including management, organizational theory, personnel, and ethics, to name a few. Some schools may even wish to offer courses specifically dedicated to issues of diversity to adequately cover this area. Mitchell Rice (2001) states that

Standard 5.5 requires programs seeking accreditation to provide “evidence that specific plans are being implemented to ensure the diversity
of the composition of the faculty with respect to the representation of minorities, women, and handicapped individuals." Standard 6.1 asserts that goals, policy and standards pertaining to student admissions should reflect "specific concern for the representation of minorities, women, and handicapped individuals." In addition to the standards concerning faculty and student diversity, these guidelines also recognize the need for students to develop a capacity to function in organizational settings with diverse work forces, clients and related groups (NASPAA Guidelines, 2003).

NASPAA accreditation guidelines clearly state that schools should be committed to not only increasing the number of minority faculty members and students but also to preparing students to work in a diverse workforce. NASPAA believes that graduates of master’s degree programs in public affairs and administration "are required to function in increasingly diverse and heterogeneous organizational settings" (NASPAA, 2003). As a result, students should have exposure to related issues in their coursework to "develop in them the capacity to work effectively with individuals representing diverse backgrounds" (NASPAA, 2003). In short, our students have a professional need to be culturally competent.

**Methodology**

The operational definitions of diversity and cultural competency are derived from other literature (Judkins and LaHurd, 1999; Hollins, 1996; Rice, 2001; Selden and Selden, 2001). Diversity is defined as race, ethnicity, class, gender, sexual orientation, age, religion, and disability differences among people. Cultural competency is defined as the ability to "effectively respond to the challenges and opportunities posed by the presence of social-cultural diversity in a defined social system" (Cox and Beale, 1997). Courses will be evaluated against this definition of diversity.

This analysis examines diversity in curriculum of the top twenty public administration programs as ranked in the "Best Graduate Schools 2003" edition of *U.S. News and World Report*. This ranking is based on a survey of 259 programs nationwide and includes the degrees of MPA (Master of Public Affairs or Master of Public Administration), MPP (Master of Public Policy), and MPM (Master of Public Management). These schools, listed in Table 1, consistently rank in the top twenty; lower-ranked schools

### Table 1. Top Twenty Masters of Public Affairs Programs as Ranked by *U.S. News and World Report*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank/School</th>
<th>Average Reputation Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Harvard University (MA)</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syracuse University (NY)</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana University – Bloomington</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Princeton University (NJ)</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of California – Berkeley</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Georgia</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carnegie Mellon University (PA)</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Michigan – Ann Arbor</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Southern California</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Texas – Austin</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Wisconsin – Madison</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American University (DC)</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia University (NY)</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUNY – Albany</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Chicago</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Kansas</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Minnesota – Twin Cities</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of North Carolina – Chapel Hill</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duke University (NC)</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Washington University (DC)</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This ranking was computed in January of 2001, based on data from a survey sent out in the fall of the previous year.
Multicultural MPA Curriculum: Are We Preparing Culturally Competent Public Administrators?

typically use them as a benchmark in developing their own programs (Aristigueta and Raffel, 2001; Myers, 2002). Examining the top twenty schools offers useful data on the overall status of the field of public affairs and administration.

Data Collection Techniques

Data for this study were collected from May 2002 through September 2003. Each of the top twenty schools was contacted with a request for all syllabi on diversity-related courses. This included courses that directly focused on diversity, as well as courses that had a related section or that threaded these issues throughout the course. Each of the schools' MPA requirements was reviewed to determine whether the course was required or was an elective. For schools that did not respond, descriptions found online were used to identify courses related to diversity; then professors were contacted by email to request syllabi. If courses relating to diversity could not be identified, a letter was sent to the director of the program via e-mail requesting syllabi of courses that could be used in the study. Once all data were collected, a content analysis was conducted using the following terms: diversity, multiculturalism, social equity, gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, age, disability, class, religion, or any form of these words. I collected syllabi from sixteen of the twenty programs, for a response rate of 80 percent. This included a total of forty-eight syllabi in the analysis.

Limitations of Research Approach

There are several important caveats regarding the data collection strategy. This analysis is best viewed as a snapshot of diversity course offerings. As curriculum changes are made from semester to semester, the number of diversity-related courses could increase or decrease. Second, some courses address race, class, gender, or various elements of diversity within the same course. As a result, some schools may appear to offer more diversity courses than actually are available. For instance, the numbers reported in Tables 2 and 3 are based on the forty-eight courses identified in Table 1. It may appear from viewing Tables 2 and 3 that schools are doing an effective job of discussing the various components of diversity; however, these numbers are still based on the total number of overall courses identified in Table 1. In other words, any mention of a particular diversity component allows that course to count for that component of diversity. For example, School C had three courses in diversity; within these courses, two addressed issues of class and all discussed race. In Table 2, then, school C looks appears to offer five courses covering diversity, when the total number of syllabi that were evaluated and counted was actually three.

Third, this analysis is limited to the top twenty schools. This may or may not be representative of other MPA programs. Fourth, many of the schools had a concentration or courses offered in International Affairs. It is important to note that these courses were not automatically identified as addressing diversity. These courses were only included if the course discussed the cultural or ethnic makeup of other countries. Courses that focused on the economy and political ideologies of different countries did not meet the selection criteria. Fifth, because the first letter to the schools ensured the confidentiality of the materials submitted, the schools' names could not be associated with the results shown in Table 1, 2, and 3.

Last, the methodology used in this study is to some extent limited in what it is able to detect. Without further investigation into each school's MPA program, it is difficult to gain a full picture of each school's diversity initiatives or lack thereof. Future research, through the use of case studies, would need to include interviews with faculty and students in order to reveal the depth of diversity coverage in courses, invited speakers, policies, case studies, the use of adjuncts, and other aspects of the program that might address diversity concerns. The methodology used in this study does not allow the opportunity to determine if programs are indeed participating in the recommendations offered in the concluding pages of this article.

Findings

Of the twenty schools contacted, sixteen responded by sending syllabi or indicating that they did not have any courses covering these topic areas. For
Multicultural MPA Curriculum: Are We Preparing Culturally Competent Public Administrators?

Each school, Table 2 provides degree awarded; number of required core courses for degree completion; number of diversity courses required for MPA degree; number of elective courses required for degree completion; number of elective diversity courses listed as public affairs courses; and area concentration and the title (whether the program offered a specific concentration that focuses on diversity, such as Race and Social Policy, Gender and Public Policy). Table 1 displays the number (Column C) of required diversity courses compared to the total number (Column B) of required courses for completing the degree, not including the number of electives, concentration hours, or thesis hours.

Of the sixteen schools that responded, six schools—which include a total of six courses—had a required core course in diversity, as shown in column C, representing 6.5 percent of all required

Table 2: Summary of Courses Offered

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Degree Awarded</th>
<th>Number of required core courses for degree completion</th>
<th>Number of diversity courses required for MPA degree (N)</th>
<th>Number of elective courses required for degree completion</th>
<th>Number of elective diversity courses listed as PA courses (N)</th>
<th>Diversity area concentration offered?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>MPA</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>MPP</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>None offered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>MPP</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>MPP</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>MPA</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>None offered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>MPM</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Varies based on concentration</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>MPA</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>MPA</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>None offered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>MPA</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>MPA</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Unable to be determined</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</tr>
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<td>MPA</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Women in Pub. Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>MPA</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>122</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes
1. Excludes non-course hours, such as thesis hours, electives, or concentration courses.
2. This includes elective courses offered within the department that relate to diversity or cultural competency.
3. This particular school required students to take 11 electives during their program of study (Column D) and offered fourteen total diversity courses.
4. N/A denotes that a diversity concentration is not offered by the department.
courses offered. Two of the six schools had one-day workshops devoted to diversity within the program or a specific course, one course covered issues of race and diversity in the ethics class, and two schools covered topics such as gender and ethnic diversity within their management course. One school covered “managing diversity” in its organizational analysis class.

Column E displays the number of public affairs electives relating to diversity. Among the sixteen schools, forty-two public affairs elective courses were found to include diversity. One school offered fourteen diversity-related elective courses but did not offer any core classes that covered this area. This particular school required students to take eleven electives during their program of study (Column D) and offered fourteen total diversity elective courses. However, students could never encounter the material covered in the fourteen elective courses if they do not choose to enroll in them. Three of the sixteen schools (18.8 percent) were found to not have any public affairs courses that covered these areas, either as required or elective courses. Column F indicates whether at least one degree concentration relating specifically to diversity was offered. Of the sixteen schools, only one (6.3 percent) school offered a concentration, which was related to gender and public policy.

Depending on the number of courses offered in these areas, we can then speculate on how culturally competent students will be once they graduate. If there is little or no exposure to these areas of diversity, conclusions can be drawn concerning how well MPA programs are preparing students to be culturally competent public servants. Table 2 displays the summary characteristics of the specific diversity

### Table 3: Summary Characteristics of Specific Diversity Components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Disability</th>
<th>Sexual Orientation</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Religion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>G</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>H</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>J</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>K</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The term component is used to explain the breadth of the diversity definition (seven specific areas covered in definition).
components found in the syllabi returned and counted as diversity courses. The seven categories are race/ethnicity; class; gender; disability; sexual orientation; age; and religion.

The forty-two syllabi were reviewed and coded using the terms found in the definition of diversity used in this study (race/ethnicity, gender, class, sexual orientation, and so on). Using this liberal coding structure meant that any mention of the terms in the diversity definition found in the syllabi was counted as one component. For example, one syllabus listed a lecture titled “Rules and Race.” The mention of race in this syllabus would automatically mean that this particular school was counted at least once for having a course covering race/ethnicity. One caveat of the study is that the presence of these terms did not measure the breadth or depth of diversity exposure in each course.

Table 3 shows that there were 101 instances in which cultural competency issues were addressed throughout the courses offered by these twenty schools. Of these 101 cases, 37 percent addressed issues of race and ethnicity, while approximately 21 percent addressed class issues. Sixteen percent covered gender issues, only 6 percent dealt with issues of disability, and as little as 6 percent covered issues relating to sexual orientation. Additionally, only 8 percent addressed issues of age, and 6 percent covered the area of religion.

Matrix 4 examines race by specific racial/ethnic groups. The categories are as follows: white; black or African American; American Indian and Alaska

Table 4: Racial Groups Covered in Diversity Courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>U.S. Race²</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>African American</th>
<th>American Indian &amp; Alaska Natives</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Native Hawaiian &amp; Other Pacific Islander</th>
<th>Hispanic or Latino</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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1. The term component is used to explain the breadth of the diversity definition (seven specific areas covered in definition).
2. These categories further break down the race/ethnicity category in Table 2.
Native; Asian (to include Asian Indian, Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, and other Asians); Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander (to include Native Hawaiian, Guamanian or Chamorro, Samoan, other Pacific Islanders); Hispanic or Latino (of any race, to include Hispanic or Latino, Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and other Hispanic or Latino) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

This matrix divides the race and ethnicity categories listed in column B of Table 2 into the U.S. Census race categories. Of the data analyzed from the sixteen schools, there were fifty-two instances across all diversity courses in which specific racial groups were addressed in the content of a course. Of these fifty-two instances in which race was mentioned, whites were covered in 23 percent, African Americans were covered in 31 percent, and American Indians were discussed in only 6 percent of these cases. Asians and Hispanics or Latinos were covered in 21 percent and 19 percent, respectively.

KEY THEMES

Several key themes can be noted from the analysis of the findings.

Fewer than half of the top ranked MPA programs exposed students to core courses that relate to any aspect of diversity. Only six of the sixteen schools required that students take courses related to diversity. Even though forty-two elective courses were offered among the sixteen schools, the distribution of these courses poses a concern. Of the elective courses offered in this area, several schools offered many courses, while others offered few or no classes. The schools that offered several courses generally increased the numbers shown in Matrix 2 and 3, even though the overall number (48 courses shown in Table 1) was low.

When courses were offered, they tended to be elective, rather than required, courses. Students may choose whether or not to take diversity electives and therefore may never be exposed to any course related to diversity. In effect, students who receive formal cultural competency or diversity training are self-selecting to do so. Therefore, students who are already culturally competent could be more likely to enroll in diversity courses, while students without cultural competency may choose not to enroll, indicating the potential for selection bias in enrollment. Because NASPAA states that students should be exposed to issues of diversity in their coursework, preparing them to work effectively in a diverse society, we can conclude that elective courses do not meet national professional standards for public administration.

The broad range of diversity is largely uncovered. In evaluating Table 2, several categories appear within the definition of diversity but are not present in coursework. Although some schools offer a sufficient number of courses dealing with race and gender, most do not address disability, sexual orientation, age, or religion. In the categories of race, class, and gender, a small number of schools with several course offerings create the phenomenon of regression toward the mean. For example, under the category of race and ethnicity, four of the sixteen schools did not cover this area in any courses evaluated in this study. Similarly, eleven schools, or 69 percent, did not offer any courses dealing with disability issues or religion. Five schools, or 31 percent, did not offer any classes dealing with class or gender. Schools having a unit marked in the matrix as addressing these issues, may only be because the course reported that it covered “diversity” or “managing diversity,” and applying the liberal coding structure resulted in the course being ranked as covering all areas of the diversity.

There is very little coverage of American Indians or Native Americans in all the schools evaluated. Although specific racial groups were rarely covered, this was particularly true for American Indians, who were only covered in 6 percent of the courses. Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islanders were not covered at all. Unfortunately, it seems that the “first Americans” are discussed least in public administration coursework. Given the role of federal, state, and locally recognized tribes, this absence is particularly troubling.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

More and more, educational institutions are developing programs to transform curricula and general education programs to address issues of diversity.
Institutions can take advantage of new scholarship about the diversity of cultural traditions and histories in America and around the world to offer students a deeper and more complete picture of America's culture and history. Most importantly, multicultural education and diversity courses can prepare and are preparing students for an increasingly complex and diverse community and workplace (Association of American Colleges and Universities, Diversity Web, 2002).

Specific steps can be taken to transform public administration curricula to include diversity and to prepare public administrators to meet the challenges of responsible citizenship and public service. These steps will ensure that public administrators understand and are trained effectively for professional roles in a culturally diverse, global community (Association of American Colleges and Universities, Diversity Web, 2002).

The following recommendations are designed to ensure that public administrators are prepared to work and serve in today's society. By implementing the following suggestions, public administration departments can incorporate diversity into their program of study:

- Develop specific course and/or workshops dealing with race/ethnicity, gender, class, sexual orientation, age, disability, and religion.
- Use prominent officials of underrepresented groups as guest speakers in courses, workshops, or special programs.
- Design internship experiences to place students under the supervision of agency mentors that are typically marginalized (women, minorities, homosexuals, etc.).
- Throughout the curriculum, use case studies, simulations, and problem-solving exercises that either feature underrepresented groups in leadership roles or examine issues of particular concern for them.
- Integrate research studies relating to marginalized groups within a wide range of courses (NASPAA, 2005).
- Recruit diverse faculty and students to MPA programs through nontraditional recruitment fields such as ethnic/race studies and women's studies.
- Open major annual conferences to other scholarly fields of study to promote knowledge sharing (Myers, 2002).

Public administration departments should consider how additional required courses could affect their programs. Extending the number of overall courses needed for degree completion is an obvious adjustment and could affect the desirability of the program to potential students. Alternatively, schools and departments could consider a series of weekend workshops that are required for degree completion but that do not extend the number of courses needed to complete the program, therefore causing a student to stay enrolled for another semester. A second alternative is to replace a course with one that focuses on cultural competency. This would require departments to evaluate each required course in the program and decide what is essential to include. Some courses could be combined in order to make room for a course in cultural competency. Departments would need to evaluate whether combining or eliminating courses are possible options.

Another option for individual departments to consider is weaving diversity discussions throughout every core course to ensure that all students are exposed to diversity materials and are receiving cultural competency training. This would require restructuring courses to ensure uniformity and accountability to guarantee that individual professors are adopting the new material in concurrent fashions. In effect, diversity or cultural competency would have to be adopted by the department as a core value to ensure that all faculty members are aware that this is a step that must be made; this will help guarantee that the department's values are permeated throughout the classroom experience.

NASPAA contends that the main purpose of curricula is to prepare students for professional leadership in public service. Therefore, "curriculum components are designed to produce professionals capable of intelligent, creative analysis and communication and action in public service" (NASPAA, 2002). NASPAA defines three areas of common curriculum
components that must be present in accredited schools: management of public service organizations, quantitative and qualitative techniques of analysis and understanding of the public policy, and organizational environment. However, NASPAA states that these area requirements should not define specific courses or imply that equal time should be spent in each area. Most importantly, these requirements should not be interpreted in a manner that would impede the development of special strengths in each program.

Finally, NASPAA states that “the common and additional curriculum components shall develop in students general competencies that are consistent with the program mission” (NASPAA, 2002). NASPAA seems to support the development of specific competencies by individual programs and has developed a clear, well-outlined diversity component in its guidelines. However, the results of this study suggest that, while NASPAA endorses diversity in our curricula, a great deal of implementation work remains. Although the addition of a competency area that addresses diversity and cultural issues would mean a change in the department itself, public administrators must determine whether a move in this direction is important.

These findings, coupled with the NASPAA guidelines, suggests an urgent need for MPA programs to develop at least one course that is solely devoted to cultural competency for public administrators. NASPAA accreditation guidelines recognize “the need for students to develop a capacity to function in organizational settings with diverse workforces, clients and related groups” (2003), yet the evidence suggests that widespread development is not occurring through formal coursework. Making a diversity course a requirement or developing some other required avenue for students to obtain these skills would be the only way to ensure that all students are receiving the same amount of training and developing skills in the area of cultural competency in completing their program. A requirement upon which graduation from the program is contingent would be ideal.

Multicultural education is a progressive approach of transforming education through critiquing and addressing current shortcomings, failings, and discriminatory practices in education and in society. Grounded in the ideals of social justice and equity, multicultural education and public administration complement each other. Multicultural education portrays a “dedication to facilitating educational experiences in which all students reach their full potential as learners and as socially aware and active beings, locally, nationally, and globally” (Gorski, 2000).

Educational institutions are essential to laying the foundation for the transformation of society and the elimination of oppression and injustice through multicultural education. All programs and disciplines can benefit from the addition of diversity and multicultural education; however, public administration programs in particular play an essential role in exposing students to diversity material. Increasing public affairs and administration students’ exposure through the MPA curricula will ensure that we are preparing public administrators who are competent in all three pillars of public administration: efficiency, effectiveness, and equity.

Notes
1. The author would like to thank Susan T. Gooden for her contributions to this document and Samantha Lowell for editing the manuscript, and gives special thanks to the three anonymous reviewers and the editor of J-PAE for their helpful comments on an earlier edition of this manuscript.
2. MPA programs include the MPA (Masters of Public Affairs or Master of Public Administration), MPP (Master of Public Policy), and MPM (Master of Public Management).
3. The use of this term and concept is attributed to Nakeina E. Douglas.
4. Other studies have employed similar approaches of using the top twenty schools for analysis (Aristigüeta and Raffel, 2001; Myers, 2002).
5. The associations provided contacts, typically the program director, dean, or department chair responsible for the program. Two responses were solicited from each program, one from the contact and one from a nominee made by the contact. Respondents were asked to rate the academic quality of programs as distinguished (5 points); strong (4); good (3); adequate (2); or marginal (1), based on their assessment of all factors bearing on excellence, such as curriculum, record of scholarship, and quality of faculty and graduates.
   Individuals who were unfamiliar with programs were instructed to select “don’t know.” Scores for each program were averaged across all respondents who rated the program. The response rate was 46 percent. The surveys were conducted by Market Facts Inc.
6. Categories could not be obtained for all courses because many course descriptions did not include specific racial or ethnic group content.
REFERENCES

Multicultural MPA Curriculum: Are We Preparing Culturally Competent Public Administrators?

Journal of Public Affairs Education  123
Diversity in Professional Schools: A Case Study of Public Affairs and Law

David W. Pitts, University of Georgia
Lois Recascino Wise, Indiana University

ABSTRACT
Although the issue of diversity continues to grow in salience in the field of public affairs education, evidence about the way academic programs respond to diversity is still sparse. Studies of public organizations suggest that, despite support for egalitarian policies, many may fail to make the critical link between diversity and other organizational policies and practices. This article compares organizational responses to diversity in two professional schools: a school of public affairs and a school of law. Using the school of law as a benchmark, we find that neither case can be characterized as exemplary in integrating diversity into organizational policies and practices, but public affairs clearly lags law on many important diversity indicators.

The issue of diversity continues to grow in salience within the public affairs education community. Student body diversity in higher education was at the forefront of contemporary policy debate as the University of Michigan defended a race-based admissions policy before the U.S. Supreme Court. Although some organizations filed briefs arguing that race should not be used as a factor in admissions, other prominent institutions came to the support of the University of Michigan’s policy, arguing that achieving a diverse student body is necessary for academic institutions to produce graduates prepared to function in an increasingly heterogeneous society (Schmidt, 2003).

The greater salience of diversity in public affairs education is reflected in a number of ways. For example, although courses in managing diversity were almost unheard of at the beginning of the 1990s when the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) offered small grants for affiliated institutions to introduce diversity into the curriculum, more recent studies have found that a substantial number of public affairs programs offer courses in diversity-related issues (NASPAA, 2000; White, 2003). Over the last few years, diversity-related panels have consistently been featured in major public affairs conferences, and several journals have featured symposia on diversity issues.

A question for the public affairs community is whether the increased importance and relevance of diversity is reflected in the organizational culture of public affairs programs, or whether academic institutions, like many other organizations, ignore potential consequences related to diversity. This study seeks to provide some empirical evidence about the extent to which one school of public affairs appears to be embracing organizational practices that respond to diversity. We will compare the response of the school of public affairs to diversity with the response of a comparable professional program on the same university campus, a school of law.


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This focus on educational outcomes in the diversity debate is especially compelling for the public affairs community (Dunn, 1994). The majority of public officials at the local and state levels of government rank skill in cultural diversity management as important (Mohapatra, et al., 1993; Golembiewski, 1995). The need for students to experience a diverse classroom and learn to work with others different from themselves is an argument that many professional groups and scholars have used for promoting diversity in public affairs education (Dunn, 1994; Lauth, 2001; NASPAA, 2000; Rice, 2001; Stafford, 1999).

The difference between admissions-based strategies grounded in equal opportunity principles and more recent approaches grounded in management and organizational behavior is sizeable. Admissions-based approaches to diversity do not necessarily require specific responses from the organization itself. An organization may comply with legal or institutional policies while operating under the assumption that diversity has no impact and thus requires no change in practices, programs, or organizational culture. Organizations continue to pursue “business as usual” rather than making appropriate organizational responses to increasing diversity among their employees or client group (Weech-Maldonado, 2002). Riccucci (1997) observes that organizational responses to diversity are often inadequately conceptualized and poorly implemented. Faculty may “whitewash” differences among students (Darling-Hammond et al., 2002) because they are uncomfortable dealing with differences or because they believe that treating everyone the same is the right thing to do.

Several studies of public organizations have demonstrated that the failure to acknowledge differences is common in the public sector (Dobbs, 1998; Laudicina, 1995; Soni, 2000). However, a report produced in 2000 by NASPAA’s Diversity Committee concludes that, to be effective, diversity initiatives must be linked to organizational culture. Similarly, Soni (2000) asserts that diversity issues cannot be separated from existing organizational processes and management practices. Unlike policies focusing on recruitment and admissions, outcome-based approaches assume that diversity affects the organization itself and active efforts are needed to accommodate diverse others. As the NASPAA Diversity Report puts it, responding to diversity means looking at “what we teach and how we teach it.”

Active measures to create an organizational climate that accommodates and welcomes diverse students might also focus on faculty. The NASPAA Diversity Report notes that both faculty composition and faculty awareness of how diversity is related to pedagogy affect how the climate of a particular program or school might be perceived. If faculty fail to acknowledge differences and their pedagogical implications, teaching all students from the perspective of the majority culture and using course materials most appropriate to majority students, they may marginalize the experiences and values of women and minority group members (Darling-Hammond et al., 2002).

In addition, faculty diversity can have an impact on learning in the classroom. From a culturally diverse student’s perspective, diversity among instructors may make the educational experience less biased toward the status quo. A recent survey of business school deans found that the great majority believes that hiring minority faculty increases minority student enrollments (BizEd, 2003). Instructors may favor majority group members or marginalize women and minority group members in their selection of course materials, examples, and activities, or by putting forward perspectives drawn from the experience of one group (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2002; Tschirhart and Wise, 2002). As instructors, mentors, or role models, faculty members may establish unique and sometimes influential relationships with students.

To the extent that faculty research filters into the classroom experience, it can engage or disengage students. Students of diverse backgrounds may react differently to examples drawn from research focusing on elites in society and pink-collar hospital staff, for example, or to cases placed in a military or religious context. The cultural turn in social science research, which prompted greater scholarly interest...
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in the consequences of cultural variation (Stearns, 2003), might also have stimulated more investigations of the relationship between culture and public administration.

A substantial body of empirical research supports the idea that diversity in faculty and student body characteristics can have significant effects on the learning experience (Tschirhart and Wise, 2002). These pertain to the effectiveness of teaching style and communication for different social groups (Aries, 1976; Murray and Peterson, 1993; Schmitt and Hill, 1977; Tompson and Tompson, 1996; Verdi and Wheelen, 1992; Webber, 1974; Witt, 1994); instructors’ expectations of different students’ capacity to learn (Rios, 1996; Loewen, 1998); and objectivity and bias in faculty evaluations of students (ASHA, 1994; Bowles and Gintis, 1973; Cleveland, Festa, and Montgomery, 1988; Etaugh, Houtler, and Ptasnik, 1988; Ghorpade and Lackritz, 1998; Webber, 1974). Students’ evaluations of their instructors, in turn, appear to be affected by interactions between the instructors’ and students’ demographic characteristics (Ghorpade and Lackritz, 1991; Wilson and Doyle, 1976; Kaschak, 1978).

In the next sections, we provide details on the cases chosen for analysis, explain our methods, present our findings, and consider their implications for enhancing responses to diversity in public affairs education.

PROFILE OF CASES

Our study draws on constructs and methods used in the NASPAA Diversity Report (2000). In that report, the public affairs academy was compared to the relevant labor market on key indicators. We choose to compare a NASPAAA-accredited program with another academic unit, a graduate school of law, on the same campus of a large, Ph.D.-granting university. Comparing a school of public affairs with a school of law is compelling for several reasons. First, both are professional schools. The two fields of study are tied to a profession, not simply an academic area of inquiry, and therefore tend to recruit students who look toward career development as a primary goal. Second, both public affairs and law have long been recognized as significant training grounds for public servants (Schott, 1976). Third, because both of these schools are units on the same campus, we are able to control for a number of internal and external variables, including economic resources and budget restraints, local demographic factors and perceived attractiveness/isolation of the location to minority group members, university-wide regulations on courses, academic hiring and retention policies and practices, and to some extent institutional norms and values. Finally, the field of law presents an interesting comparison because it is traditionally a field of study for white men. In 2000, a survey of the nation’s largest law firms revealed that 90 percent of their attorneys were white (Zabcik, 2002), and another recent study showed that men accounted for 76 percent of all attorneys (ABA, 1998).

The law school (Law) examined in this case serves approximately 600 students from all fifty states and fifteen foreign countries. It offers four degrees: Doctor of Jurisprudence (J.D.), Master of Laws (L.L.M.), Master of Common Law (M.C.L.), and Doctor of Juridical Sciences (S.J.D.). The typical student enters with a 3.3 to 3.5 GPA and an LSAT score in the 85th–90th percentile, and the school is typically listed among the top fifty public law schools in the United States in reputational surveys. About 95 percent of its students are employed full time within six months of graduation. Its student body is predominantly male (61 percent), American (96 percent), and white (79 percent), with African-Americans accounting for 7 percent of students, and Asian-Americans and Hispanics 4 percent each.

The public affairs school (PA) included in this study enrolls approximately 300 graduate students from across the United States and several foreign countries. It is typically listed among the top ten public affairs schools in reputational surveys. The typical student enters with a 3.3 to 3.5 GPA and an LSAT score in the 85th–90th percentile. PA offers several degrees, but only the Master of Public Affairs (MPA) program is considered in this study. According to information provided by the school, 99 percent of its students are employed within six months of graduation. Students who were graduated in 2000 are
employed in the federal government (28 percent), state and local governments (24 percent), the private sector (22 percent), nonprofit organizations (13 percent), and international agencies (three percent). The student body is predominately female (58 percent), American (81 percent), and white (81 percent), with African-Americans making up 7 percent of students, Asian-Americans and Hispanics 4 percent each, and Native Americans 1 percent.

The law school has twice as many students as the MPA program. In race and ethnicity, demographics are remarkably similar in both schools. Neither PA nor Law had a strategic plan or formal approach to student diversity in place at the time of our study. The faculties are similar in size: Law consists of thirty-seven tenure-track professors, while PA consists of thirty-five.

Although PA has a stronger national reputation, both schools are very competitive in the students they recruit. Law is a much older program than PA, and some might argue more prestigious. It has a larger endowment. In comparing the budget resources of the two programs, we found that Law receives a slightly larger share of the university budget overall. Although neither program has a unique, active hiring program for minority or female faculty, we note that Law has been more aggressive than PA in taking advantage of special university-level funds for hiring senior women and minorities, with nine hires compared to five in PA for the same time period.

**Approach**

The relevant question for research becomes how to operationalize the concept of diversity in an academic unit. Indeed, there are many different interpretations of the meaning of diversity and the content of diversity policies (Carrell and Mann, 1995). Education is a complex endeavor with a number of actors and processes. Although we cannot presume to know what diverse others want or what their worldview happens to be, we can assume that heterogeneity increases the range of preferences and perspectives within a university. We can also assume that the more homogeneity within a faculty, the less likely it is to provide a variety of perspectives and approaches in teaching, mentoring, and research. An academic program that effectively responded to diversity would consider diversity in the context of many organizational practices and processes. Some aspects of education, however, tend to be student-driven. For example, opportunities in extracurricular involvement

### Table 1: Variables for Analysis

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depend to a large extent on student interest and activism, and less on the institution itself. We build on the approach taken in NASPAA’s Diversity Report and focus on two main categories of variables: curriculum diversity and diversity among faculty. The variables in the analysis are identified in Table 1.

Diversity of Course Topics

In order to analyze the diversity of course topics, we examined each elective course offered by the two schools from 1994 to 2001. Our screening question was whether a course used a diverse perspective in order to explore a traditional topic. For example, a general PA course on management would not qualify as a diversity course, but a course on managing workforce diversity would, because it would examine management through a diverse lens. There is some degree of judgment about what constitutes a diverse lens and, as a result, which courses would be coded as diversity-focused. We limited our focus to five key dimensions of diversity—race, gender, ability, social class, and cultural diversity—although we recognize that other dimensions may be equally appropriate.

NASPAA’s Diversity Report (2000, 28) includes an empirical study indicating that 46 percent of programs had incorporated issues of race and ethnicity into their courses; 44 percent included gender; 36 percent included multiculturalism, 30 percent included sexual orientation; and 33 percent included ability. Diversity issues were more likely to be covered in elective courses than in required courses. Courses in human resource management were the most common vehicle for delivering this material. Management and policy courses were the next most common, and economics courses were the least likely to address issues of diversity (NASPAA, 2000, 30).

White’s (2003) preliminary findings indicate that two-thirds of studied programs offered courses in diversity, most frequently focusing on race and ethnicity and much less commonly considering other dimensions such as gender, sexual orientation, age, and ability.

Racial diversity comprises a category of courses that would consider public affairs or legal issues from the perspective of racial minorities or race generally—for example, a seminar course on the law of affirmative action in the law school, or a course on race and public policy in the school of public affairs. Similarly, gender diversity would be a category that included a law course on feminist jurisprudence, for example, or a public affairs course on women in the public service. Diversity of ability includes issues confronted by people who are differently-abled, including those with HIV and AIDS or other medical or physical situations that would affect their relationship with the law, public policy, or management. Courses in this area might include a course on the Americans with Disabilities Act or a seminar on law and HIV.

We define social class diversity as a dimension that considers law and public affairs from the different perspectives of social class, and courses in this area could explore law or public affairs as they relate to the homeless or impoverished. Finally, cultural diversity refers to cultural differences from religion, language, region of the United States, or country of the world. Examples of courses in this area include a seminar on global public health or a course on comparative approaches to public administration.

For these five dimensions, we examined course descriptions and, where available, syllabi in order to code the courses that fell within the scope of our study. In a few cases, ambiguity in the course description and syllabi required us to contact the professor who taught the course. If a substantial portion of a course looked at some aspect of law or public affairs from one of these points of view, then it was included in our list of courses that contribute to effective diversity management. Interestingly, only a handful of the courses that we examined were difficult to classify, because most seemed to make a clear choice on diversity content. Some courses were included in more than one category. We did not consider courses required for graduation, since both schools must mount a number of basic courses either for accreditation or foundational purposes that do not include diversity as a primary component. We counted the number of courses offered on these topics and the percentage of electives offered on diverse topics.
Ideally, all courses in the curriculum, not just electives, would consider questions pertinent to diverse audiences. As the NASPAA report indicates, treatment of diversity issues varies by course subject area. Economics courses, for example, are less likely than management courses to take up these issues, but even courses in statistics and research methods can incorporate material relating to diversity. We argue, however, that it is similarly important to examine many diversity issues as primary foci of stand-alone courses. For example, the complexity of managing workforce diversity warrants its own, semester-length course, not just one unit in a general course on public management. Similarly, issues of race and the law warrant a single course, not just snippets of inclusion in dozens of other courses, so that students can systematically consider the links between one’s race and different legal doctrines. Mounting courses on diverse topics provides insight into a program’s commitment to responding to the diverse needs of students—the target population.

Diversity of Faculty

The second main component of diversity that we consider is that of faculty. We use three indicators for analysis: the area of a faculty member’s graduate training, his or her demographic characteristics, and research focus. All three are important, though for different reasons. Diversity in graduate training affords students the opportunity to learn from a number of different intellectual traditions. Indeed, occupational diversity is a relevant dimension of heterogeneity, included in the diversity strategies of some organizations and featured in the empirical research on diversity (Wise and Tschirhart, 2000). PA is traditionally an interdisciplinary field with many roots, including public administration, economics, political science, and law. The pattern for law faculty is different, however, as almost all law professors hold the Doctor of Jurisprudence (J.D.) degree, but many law faculty also hold master’s and doctoral degrees in other fields, which may increase the range of perspectives they bring to the classroom. We compare the number of fields in which PA faculty hold their degrees against the number of law faculty who have master’s or doctoral degrees in addition to the J.D. This information was available from public data sources provided through the university.

Demographics—gender and race particularly—are critical in light of the extensive research noted earlier, indicating that the dynamics of the classroom vary according to instructor characteristics. Because students’ learning styles vary, access to both male and female professors as well as to instructors from different ethnic and social class backgrounds affects their learning experience. For example, because law is a field traditionally dominated by men, some female law students may seek the counsel of female professors who can shed light on their experience in the profession. The availability of potential mentors from multiple backgrounds is expected to enrich students’ educational experience. Information on demographics was also available from public data sources provided by the university.

According to the NASPAA study, minority groups and women are typically underrepresented in the faculty composition of public affairs programs in comparison to their numbers in the general population and their presence in the student body (NASPAA, 2000). Based on data from 1992 to 1998, about two-thirds of faculty in NASPAA-affiliated programs held doctoral degrees in political science, public administration, or public policy, while less than ten percent were trained in economics and less than five percent were trained in sociology. The great majority (95.7 percent) hold the Ph.D., and less than two percent held the J.D. The same study found that 80.5 percent of faculty received their doctoral degree before 1990 (NASPAA, 2000). Interestingly, NASPAA reports differences in the distribution of faculty characteristics related to core and non-core course instruction, with no minority group members teaching outside the core.

Finally, we collected information on the type of research that faculty have been publishing. Professors who consider traditional research topics using diverse perspectives may provide students with better opportunities to explore a variety of interests. The benefits may be assumed to extend to students not only through the enrichment of course...
topics but also through collaborative research opportunities and mentoring. Research informs teaching, and professors engaged in diversity-related research will no doubt be more likely to include these topics in the classroom, regardless of the course topic they are assigned to teach. As with our analysis of the elective courses, the question here is what constitutes a diverse approach to research. We use the same five dimensions of diversity that we applied to the curriculum: race, gender, ability, social class, and multicultural diversity.

We limited analysis to articles published in peer-reviewed journals or law reviews, book chapters, and books written from 1990 to 2001. Information on recent faculty research was obtained through a number of search methods, including literature searches on EBSCO Host, LEXIS-NEXIS, Westlaw, Public Affairs Information (PAIS), Social Sciences Citation Index, and International Political Science Abstracts. We also reviewed the university library book search engine, official university and school guidebooks, and individual faculty research homepages. Curricula vitae were examined where available, but they were not publicly available for all faculty through either the law school or the school of public affairs. Thus, our approach may underestimate faculty publications.

RESULTS

The results of our analysis are presented in five tables. Findings pertaining to diversity of course topics are presented in Tables 2 and 3, and faculty diversity findings are presented in Tables 4, 5, and 6.

Diversity of Course Topics

From 1994 to 2001, 2.0 percent of the courses that PA offered and 3.1 percent of the courses that Law offered dealt substantially with issues of race. Law offered four courses a total of twenty-one times, while PA offered five courses a total of fifteen times. This means that, from 1994 to 2001, law students had access to an average of three courses per year on racial issues, while PA students had access to two. In Law, courses coded as race-based included two courses on employment discrimination law, a seminar course on race and the law, and the general course on criminal procedure, which focused on issues of race and criminal justice. For PA, courses on environmental justice and the general course on managing workforce diversity were included. These courses represented 4.2 percent of total elective enrollments in Law and 1.1 percent in PA.9

In the second category—gender diversity—Law offered a total of three courses twenty-one times, while PA offered only one course twice. Courses in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Diversity</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>Public Affairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percent of</td>
<td>Percent of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Electives</td>
<td>Enrollments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racial diversity</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender diversity</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity of ability</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social class diversity</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural diversity</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total N</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>3,580</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Categories do not add up to the total percentage in each column, since some courses are counted in more than one category; the numbers in the total row represent unique courses and enrollments.
Diversity in Professional Schools: A Case Study of Public Affairs and Law

this area made up 3.1 percent of total elective offerings in Law and only 0.7 percent of total elective offerings in PA. Law students had access to an average of three courses per year, while PA students had access to less than one course per year (see Table 3). For Law, the two courses on employment discrimination were included in this category, along with a course in family law (because it considers abortion rights), the historical rights of women in marriage, and the role of gender in divorce and child custody disputes. For PA, the only course included was the general course on managing workforce diversity. Among law enrollments, this category represented 3.4 percent, and for PA, this category included 0.4 percent of total elective enrollments.

A small category of courses in both PA and Law dealt with diversity of ability. In Law, four courses were offered a total of thirteen times, representing 1.9 percent of all electives. In PA, only one course—the general course in managing workforce diversity—was offered twice, representing only 0.7 percent of all electives. This translates to less than one course per year being available to PA students and about two courses per year for law students. In Law, this category included, among others, a seminar course on AIDS and the law and a course on law and medicine that focused significantly on the rights of the terminally ill and people with disabilities. A little more than one percent of law enrollments were in this category of electives, while about 0.4 percent of PA enrollments fell into this category.

In the fourth category of courses, those dealing with social class diversity, Law offered a total of six courses forty-three times, comprising 6.4 percent of total elective offerings. PA offered eight courses twenty-eight times, for 9.3 percent of total electives offered. This resulted in an average of 6.1 courses per year in Law and four courses per year in PA, higher than the averages for both racial and gender diversity (Table 3). The opportunities available in Law included a course in poverty law, a seminar in law and education that focused in large part on the disparities between the wealthy and poor in schools, and a clinic course in which law students served as attorneys for those who could not afford to hire counsel. In PA, the relevant courses included a number of opportunities in urban policy and management, including a course specific to urban poverty. A total of 4.8 percent of law enrollments and 5.4 percent of PA enrollments are in this category.

The last category—multicultural diversity—is the largest of the five for both Law and PA. Law offered sixteen courses a total of sixty-nine times from 1994 to 2001, for an average of about ten per year. PA offered sixteen courses a total of fifty-nine times, for an average of about eight courses per year (Table 3). This represents 10.3 percent of all electives for Law and 19.7 percent of all electives for PA. In Law, examples of courses on multicultural diversity included Native American law, a seminar on religion and the law, and a seminar on the law and society of Japan. In PA, courses included comparative public finance, a class on comparative approaches to public administration, and a section on the newly independent states of the former USSR. These courses accounted for 7.5 percent of law enrollments and 17 percent of PA enrollments.

Taken collectively, these courses represented 21.1 percent of all electives in Law and 28.3 percent of all electives in PA (Table 2).

Table 3: Average Number of Courses Offered Annually, 1994-2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Diversity</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>Public Affairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Racial diversity</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender diversity</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity of ability</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social class diversity</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural diversity</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average diversity courses per year</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Some courses appear in more than one category; total therefore is less than the sum of courses in all five diversity categories.
During the period for which data were collected, law students had access to an average of about twenty courses per year on diversity-related topics, while PA students had access to an average of about twelve (Table 3). These numbers take into account that we included some courses in more than one category—Law offered a total of twenty-seven different courses on diversity, and a total of twenty-three different classes on diversity appeared in PA.

**Faculty Diversity**

Table 4 presents several themes from our review of PA and Law faculty diversity. PA is inherently a multidisciplinary field that draws from scholars in the social sciences and, occasionally, from the humanities and natural sciences. The primary fields of graduate study were political science (19.4 percent), economics (13.9 percent), and law (11.1 percent). In addition to these three major fields were thirteen others, including business, public affairs (public administration, public policy analysis, and public health administration), and several other interdisciplinary areas. This broad array of expertise provides the potential for instruction and mentoring in a number of areas likely of interest to the PA student.

Law, on the other hand, more or less demands a J.D. degree, so the indicator of educational diversity among the faculty becomes whether a professor has pursued graduate training in another area in addition to law. As shown in Table 4, although the majority of law professors had earned only a J.D. (59.4 percent), a significant minority had also earned a specialized, law-related master’s degree (16.2 percent) in areas such as taxation, international law, and environmental law. Another 10.8 percent had earned a non-law master’s degree, while five others (13.5 percent) had obtained a Ph.D. degree (economics, history, and political science) in addition to the law degree. Thus, almost 40 percent of law professors have obtained expertise that encourages a multidisciplinary approach to legal education.¹⁰

From the perspective of training or terminal degrees, the PA faculty appears more diverse than the law faculty. The degree areas of faculty in the PA school in our study also differ markedly from the averages provided in the NASPAA Diversity Report (2000), which found almost twice as many (40 percent) faculty trained in political science and public administration (22 percent), about 5 percent more trained in economics (13.9 percent), and about 8 percent more in law (11.1 percent). In the NASPAA study, two-thirds of all faculty members had degrees in political science, public administration, and public policy, whereas these fields account for about one-third of all faculty in our PA case study.

A second measure of faculty heterogeneity is their research interests (see Table 5). Slightly more PA faculty (8.6 percent) than Law faculty (8.1 percent) conducted research on racial diversity. Examples of research topics in that area included affirmative action and employment discrimination in law and diversity management and racial impl-
A number of faculty also conducted research on gender diversity—21.6 percent of professors in Law and 5.7 percent of faculty in PA. This line of research focused on a number of issues specific to women, such as abortion law and the impact of gender on legal education. For diversity of ability, only 2.7 percent of Law faculty and 5.7 percent of PA faculty had conducted research, and most of this work focused on the Americans with Disabilities Act.

In PA, 14.3 percent of faculty also had interests in issues of social class diversity, compared with 2.7 percent of law professors. These topics in law included poverty law, legal impacts on economic systems, and legal comprehension by the poor, while topics in PA included issues of urban management, economic development, and welfare policy. Finally, we found that 25.7 percent of PA faculty had research interests in multicultural topics, compared with 35.1 percent of law professors. This area received the greatest attention from faculty in both professional schools. Multicultural topics in law included international human rights, international trade, Native American law, and school prayer, while topics in PA included comparative approaches to civil service systems, international environmental policy, and public finance structures in newly independent East European states. In total, 42.9 percent of PA faculty and 54.1 percent of law faculty conducted research on topics that fit within the diversity framework that we formulated.

A third measure of faculty diversity pertains to demographics. We chose to use five demographic characteristics as rough indicators of faculty heterogeneity: gender, race, country of origin, year of undergraduate degree as a proxy for age, and type of undergraduate institution (public or private) as a rough proxy for socioeconomic background. As with the five dimensions of diversity we used for analysis of course opportunities and faculty research, we do not mean to imply that certain variables are the only ones worth exploration. We compare our findings for Law and PA with those compiled for NASPAA-accredited programs for the period from 1992 to 1998 (NASPAA, 2000, 21-24).

The results shown in Table 6 are striking. Some 78 percent of PA faculty and 70 percent of Law faculty are male, and females continue to be underrepresented in recent hires; 38.5 percent of PA faculty and 41.2 percent of Law faculty hired since 1990 have been female. The gender ratio for faculty in NASPAA’s study was somewhat more favorable to women (28.6 percent) than it is in our PA case and similar to that reported for Law, but it exceeded the rate estimated in the labor pool (25.9 percent) according to the NASPAA report.

For race, the results were even more asymmetrical, with 85.7 percent of PA faculty and 94.6 percent of Law faculty categorized as white. The percentage of white faculty in PA in this case, however, is quite similar to the rate reported by NASPAA (2000) and lower than their estimated presence in the labor pool (89.2 percent). PA’s faculty included 5.7 percent African-Americans and 8.6 percent other minorities, while Law’s faculty included 5.4 percent African-American and no other minorities. NASPAA (2000) reported slightly higher proportions (8.3 percent) of African-Americans than either PA or Law, and estimated the proportion of African-Americans in the labor pool at only 4.3 percent. The apparent differences between our cases and the estimated market supply

### Table 5: Percent of Faculty Publishing on Diversity Topics, 1990-2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Diversity</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>PA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Racial diversity</td>
<td>8.1% (N=3)</td>
<td>8.6% (N=3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender diversity</td>
<td>21.6% (N=5)</td>
<td>5.7% (N=2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity of ability</td>
<td>2.7% (N=1)</td>
<td>5.7% (N=2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social class diversity</td>
<td>2.7% (N=1)</td>
<td>14.3% (N=5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural diversity</td>
<td>35.1% (N=13)</td>
<td>25.7% (N=9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54.1% (N=20)</td>
<td>42.9% (N=15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Columns do not all add up to the total percentage because of faculty who publish in more than one of these areas.
might pertain to the fact that our data extend four years beyond the period for which NASPAA reported data (1977 to 1996). At the time of our study, only one woman of color was on the faculty at PA, and only one minority female was on the faculty at Law. For recent hires, 31 percent of those hired by PA during the post-1990 to 2001 period were minorities, a rate exceeding their share of both the labor pool and population. At Law, however, for the post-1990 to 2001 period, only one faculty member hired was a member of a minority group.\footnote{12} From the perspective of country of origin, PA had a relatively diverse faculty, with 17.6 percent international-born professors, while Law employed only one international-born professor (2.7 percent). On this indicator, the PA school in our study had slightly higher foreign-born representation than the rate reported by NASPAA (2000, 21), where about one percent of faculty were classified as having international origins.

Age diversity among the PA and Law faculties, as measured by the year that the faculty member finished his or her undergraduate education, varied widely between both groups. The median graduation year of both faculties was similar—1972 for PA and 1974 for Law—but the range was quite large: from 1960-1991 for PA and from 1959-1990 for Law. These findings are similar to those from the NASPAA report, where the median year for the terminal degree was 1978. About 10 percent of faculty in accredited programs had received their doctoral degrees between 1990 and 1998 (NASPAA, 2000, 23).

The socioeconomic background of both faculties tends to slightly favor the upper classes, insofar as public vs. private schooling can serve as a rough proxy for this variable. Students from low-income families are much less likely than others to attend college (Symonds, 2003). Even if one attends a private institution on scholarship or financial aid, the culture of the private institution remains markedly different from that of the public university, and students are socialized to ways of thinking and worldviews that may resemble those of the privileged or upper classes more than those of the middle or lower classes. During the period when the great majority of faculty in our study were educated, the Ivy League sharply lagged behind other institutions of higher education in hiring and promoting to full professor women and minorities (DePalma, 1993). Among the PA faculty, half (51.5 percent) attended a private institution as an undergraduate, with 15.2 percent earning degrees at Ivy League institutions. Among the Law faculty, however, social class seems to play a larger role: 62.2 percent attended a private college or university, with some 27 percent attending an Ivy League university.

### Table 6: PA and Law Faculty Demographic Characteristics (2001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>PA (N=35)</th>
<th>Law (N=37)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>77.8%</td>
<td>70.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females among post-1990-2001 hires</td>
<td>38.5%</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
<td>94.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other races</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minorities among post-1990-2001 hires</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country of Origin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>82.4%</td>
<td>97.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of Undergraduate Degree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-1970</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td>35.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-1979</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
<td>37.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-1989</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-1989 (19.5)</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>48.5%</td>
<td>37.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
<td>62.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ivy League</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>27.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DISCUSSION

Our comparative study of diversity in two professional schools produced mixed findings. On some points, PA compares well against Law, while in others it clearly lags Law in terms of performance on diversity indicators.

Overall, PA offered more diversity-related electives than Law, and a slightly larger proportion of PA students were exposed to courses addressing diversity issues. Our findings indicate that, for both PA and Law, diversity course offerings tended to favor issues of multicultural diversity. This emphasis may reflect the cultural turn in social science research, or it may stem from increasing global interests on the part of faculty offering these courses, more widespread attraction of students to courses that are multicultural in nature, or an administrative decision to focus on multicultural diversity. About one in five elective PA courses addressed multicultural diversity, while only one in ten Law courses did. Next frequent were courses on social class diversity, but in this case PA was much less likely than Law to offer diversity-related electives.

Course offerings on racial diversity, gender, and ability were much less likely to be offered by either professional school, but again PA lagged Law in overall opportunities to take elective courses addressing these dimensions of diversity. When we looked at course offerings from 1994 to 2001 we found that, overall, Law offered substantially more diversity-related courses than PA per year, and this pattern held for each area of diversity we considered. Where Law offered about twenty courses per year addressing diversity, PA offered twelve. Law also offered a better range of courses on both racial and gender issues than did PA. Overall, a very small share of enrollments is captured by diversity-related elective courses. This figure represents less than one in five enrollments for Law, and for PA it represents about one in five.

In addition, several intuitive course topics did not appear in the curricula of either school. For example, there was no course in Law addressing feminist legal thought, nor did PA offer a course on women in the workforce, women’s issues in public administration, or women and politics. A wealth of policy issues confront women specifically, but PA offered no policy course on a related topic. Similarly, PA offered no course that systematically considered issues of race as they relate to management or substantive policy areas.

Our findings were also mixed when we compared PA and Law on variables related to faculty diversity. On one indicator, PA appeared to show more diversity in educational background among faculty, which offers the potential for more variety in academic perspectives and approaches. On the other hand, when we compared demographic diversity among the two faculty groups, we found substantially stronger gender and multicultural diversity among the Law faculty than we observed for PA, and we noted that the PA case also lags faculty diversity reported by NASPAA for schools of public affairs. PA, however, showed greater social class diversity than Law, where a significant portion of the faculty was trained in private universities and Ivy League institutions. In comparison with Law, PA was more racially integrated and more international.

Although the overall results from our study of diversity in faculty research topics were more promising, our PA case again lagged Law on this indicator. Slightly more than half of the Law faculty, compared to about 43 percent of the PA faculty, had conducted research on topics from one of the five dimensions of diversity in our study. The predominant focus of research on multiculturalism was consistent with the so-called “cultural turn” in contemporary social science research.

Both PA and Law had recruited a faculty with a seemingly reasonable degree of functional diversity. The interdisciplinary nature of PA as a field was apparent in some sixteen graduate fields of study represented, and Law seemed to have made a commitment to hiring faculty with expertise that goes beyond the practice-oriented J.D. degree. These practices may reflect an understanding on the part of administrators that students will come to their programs with different backgrounds and academic goals. For example, Law’s inclusion of a faculty member with a master’s degree in environmental science
makes the school particularly attractive to a law student with an undergraduate background in conservation. In PA, hiring faculty with degrees in public health and health administration allows for some students to focus on public administration skills through a substantive focus on health issues. Faculty with such expertise also open up otherwise unknown or unavailable career options to students who may not wish to enter law or the public service upon graduation. Providing students with options is one way that universities can manage student diversity as it applies to knowledge and skill attainment.

Law and PA did not appear to fare so well in demographic diversity among the faculty for both gender and race, particularly in comparison with rates of employment obtained for NASPAA schools; however, using NASPAA’s estimates of demographic distributions in the labor pool, in both schools the hiring of African-American faculty might exceed expectations. In some respects, this homogeneity reflects a continuing cycle, making programs less attractive to prospective minority faculty, according to the NASPAA Diversity Report (2000, 27). In addition to limited labor supply and racial composition of the faculty, other barriers to recruitment that minority group members identified included geographic location and salary. According to the same study, women reported salary and teaching loads as the main hindrances (NASPAA, 2000, 27). Cole and Barber’s (2003) research indicates that labor supply is a critical factor in bringing minorities into academia, but other factors limit the likelihood that minority students will pursue academic jobs.

A final point of analysis is the degree to which both PA and Law are made up of faculty who attended private institutions as undergraduates. In a field like law, in which the privileged already enjoy advantages, it is telling that almost one out of three law faculty in this analysis attended an Ivy League institution. Given that research has noted the impact of faculty preferences toward middle- and upper-class students, it seems that instructors from such a background might serve only to perpetuate the difficulties of lower-class students in the classroom (Symonds, 2003).

Conclusion

This study sought evidence on whether or not one public affairs program had gone beyond admissions-based efforts in its response to diversity by providing more courses addressing issues related to diversity or by having more diversity among faculty members themselves. Our comparison produced mixed findings, but offered little evidence that the increasing salience of diversity has translated into new organizational responses, despite the often-cited need for future public servants to be able to understand and respond appropriately to diverse others.

We noted that, while both the PA program and the law program we reviewed mounted electives addressing diversity issues, the courses appeared to have an impact on a very small share of the student population. This suggests that delivering an understanding of human diversity through elective courses may not be an effective strategy for reaching a large share of the student population, despite the fact that almost half of NASPAA programs claim to offer elective courses on race and a number offer courses in other diversity areas. Evidence here suggests that many of these courses are not being offered annually. Perhaps a more concerning point is that exposure to issues pertaining to separate dimensions of diversity, such as race, gender, ability and social class, affect four percent or less of enrollments in either of our cases. Enrollments would be affected by the inclusion of diversity-related electives among those that fulfill the requirements of different concentrations, by the extent to which concentration advisors encourage students to take these courses, and by enrollment ceilings in these courses, as well as by scheduling factors.

These findings could also be interpreted as supporting the argument that diversity-related competencies should be included in core MPA classes as well as more specialized electives. This approach requires support from faculty teaching in the core and perhaps incentives from the administration to encourage faculty to find ways to introduce diversity-related issues and competencies into their teaching. If the administration does not acknowledge and encourage these efforts, faculty will be less moti-
vated to make these changes. Incentives for change could run the gamut from small instructional development grants and teaching workshops to recognition in annual reviews or more public recognition such as program newsletters. One recommendation NASPAA suggested for increasing the inclusion of diversity in MPA courses involved formal faculty meetings to actively consider how different diversity dimensions and issues can be introduced into specific courses.

Our findings support the need to make active efforts to develop potential public affairs faculty among women and minority group members. The recommendation of the NASPAA Diversity Report is that an effective way to ameliorate the imbalance in faculty demographics is to focus on the schools producing faculty for NASPAA programs, sending prospective graduate students in their direction, and encouraging these students to study in fields that are conduits for employment in public affairs education. Schools of public affairs might consider the “PhD Project,” a mentorship project that began in 1993 and encourages minority students to earn a doctoral degree in business in order to become a role model for other minority students (Reingold and Enbar, 1999).

The age demographics for our cases also confirm the expectation that, in a relatively short time, natural attrition through retirement will provide significant opportunities for changing the profile of the academic workforce. In concert with the NASPAA report, we also point to a clear need for more research on how diversity is managed in schools of public affairs and administration.

Our case study has certain limitations characteristic of case study research, as well as limitations unique to our selected cases. Our time period is relatively short for faculty demographics. We noted that neither school had a strategic plan for implementing diversity; a case with such a plan might produce different evidence on the integration of diversity. Further research should also focus on how actively schools are responding to diversity; our study does not address passive vs. active responses. Another study might consider a case where a strategic plan is present and for which the leadership has prioritized integrating diversity into the academic program. Scholarship in this area would benefit from studies comparing two or more schools of public affairs and from studies comparing PA with professional programs other than law, such as business or journalism. These comparative case studies might provide a rich knowledge base of programs and practices for integrating diversity into public affairs programs. As understanding about diversity in public affairs education increases, the field might work to develop models of diversity education that set goals and objectives that other programs can pursue.
Appendix 1
Diversity-Related Law Courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
<th>Times offered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AIDS and the Law</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Legal Clinic</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Constitutional Law</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Law Seminar</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminal Procedure</td>
<td>681</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment Discrimination</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Union Law</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Law</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Amendment: Religion</td>
<td>726</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Public Health</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigration Law</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Human Rights Law</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Law</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law and Society of Japan</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law and Education</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law and International Relations</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American Law</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty Law</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race, American Society, and Law</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminar in Global Law</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminar in Human Rights Law</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminar in International Law</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminar in Law and Economics</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminar in Law and Religion</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminar in Refugee Policy</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminar in Sexual Harassment</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminar on Law and Development</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3580</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percent of all elective courses 16.5% 21.1%
### Appendix 2

**Diversity-Related PA Courses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
<th>Times offered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approaches to Development</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Development</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative and International Affairs</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Environmental Policy</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Public Administration</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Urban Finance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Justice</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Management in the Tropics</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Policy in the former USSR</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Globalization Seminar</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of Urban Development</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdependence and Globalization</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Conflict Policy</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Economic Development</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing Workforce Diversity</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newly Independent States of the USSR</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Finance in Transitioning Democracies</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade and Development</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade and Global Competition</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Economic Development</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Government Management</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Management</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Poverty and Public Policy</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1207</strong></td>
<td><strong>85</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percent of all elective courses</strong></td>
<td><strong>22.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>28.3%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Diversity in Professional Schools: A Case Study of Public Affairs and Law

NOTES
1. A previous version of this paper was presented at the 2001 Annual Conference of the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration, Washington, D.C., October 25-27.
3. Nadia Rubaii-Barrett chaired the Committee.
4. The number of faculty may influence the findings. For example, a program with few faculty members might require them to teach broadly, making it less likely that they would offer diversity-oriented electives or have time for diversity-oriented research.
5. The first year for which data on course topics were available was 1994.
6. This section of the NASPAA report draws on the findings of Walter Stafford's study of diversity in APPAM schools based on data from 1997 and 1998.
7. Diversity among departmental staff would also be relevant to the present study, but data on staff were unavailable for the cases we selected.
8. No 918 students in Law and 58 students in PA. This does not consider that some students will have taken more than one course in the subject area and be counted twice; our measure is of enrollments, not of unique students.
9. This figure includes 16 percent who earned law-related master's degrees.
10. This section of the NASPAA Diversity Report draws on research and analysis conducted by Jorge Chapa.
11. As noted earlier, under a university-wide initiative to recruit women and minorities, from 1988-2003, Law had obtained funding for nine hires and PA gained support for five.
12. This section of the NASPAA Diversity Report draws on research and analysis conducted by Walter Stafford.

REFERENCES
Diversity in Professional Schools: A Case Study of Public Affairs and Law


David W. Pitts is a doctoral student in public administration at the University of Georgia, where he is affiliated with the Carl Vinson Institute of Government. His research focuses on public management broadly, with particular interests in diversity management, leadership, and organizational behavior.

Lois Recascino Wise is a professor in the School of Public and Environmental Affairs at Indiana University. Her research and teaching interests center on the broad area of administrative policies and management practices. Both European and U.S.-sponsors have funded her research on diversity in work organizations. She has served as a consultant to public and private sector organizations in the United States and Europe on diversity-related policies and practices for the labor market and work organizations. She regularly offers undergraduate, graduate, and executive education courses on managing workforce diversity. Her research may be found in numerous U.S. and international journals.

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Organizational Culture, Social Equity, and Diversity: Teaching Public Administration Education in the Postmodern Era

Mitchell F. Rice
Texas A&M University

ABSTRACT

An important issue closely related to social equity in public service delivery is the teaching of diversity/diversity management in public administration education. This essay addresses this observation in two ways. First, it provides an overview of the traditional cultural environment of public organizations and offers a view of a social equity subculture. Second, the essay presents a perspective on teaching diversity in public administration education as a way of enhancing a social equity focus in the classroom. The premise of this essay is that social equity can best be achieved if public administrators, public managers, and public service delivery personnel have a clear understanding and appreciation of diversity and diversity management that is built into the organization’s culture. If social equity is seen as having a connection to diversity within a public organization, it may affect how well the organization advances social equity in the public service delivery process. A concluding thought of the essay is that the teaching of social equity and diversity must be included in public administration education coursework and curricula and that a concerted effort should be made to diversity—racially and ethnically—public administration faculty.

Public administration operates in a postmodern period. This is a period, as viewed by Cunningham and Weschler (2002), where traditional methods, processes, and teachings are not compatible with the constructs and realities of the time. The orthodox—bureaucratic—public administration in both theory and practice must give way to a new model for teaching public administration education in the postmodern era (Fox and Miller, 1995). A major feature of the postmodern era in the United States is diverse population groups led by rapidly increasing numbers of Hispanics and Latinos (any race), Asian Americans, African Americans, and other racial groups (see U.S. Census, 2000). Some communities, especially in the South (for example, Georgia and the Carolinas) and Midwest (for example, Iowa) are experiencing tremendous population growths of Hispanics and Latinos, where there were very few some fifteen or twenty years ago (U.S. Census, 2000). Because of this increasing multiculturalism of American society, teaching public administration education in postmodern times demands the inclusion of important topics such as social equity and diversity in the curricula. These topics can facilitate students’ knowledge and learning and increase their overall competency, better preparing them to both manage and work in public organizations in a contemporary multicultural society.¹

Why is the inclusion of these topics important in the education and development of future public administrators, managers, and public service delivery personnel? If social equity involves fairness and equal treatment in public service delivery and public policy implementation, then a more basic focus in public administration education curricula and courses has to examine who works in public organizations, how well are they managed, and who receives public services in a multicultural society. Further, is there a connection between a public organization’s interest or lack of interest in social equity in service delivery and its ability to promote and manage diversity among its workforce?

¹ Why is the inclusion of these topics important in the education and development of future public administrators, managers, and public service delivery personnel? If social equity involves fairness and equal treatment in public service delivery and public policy implementation, then a more basic focus in public administration education curricula and courses has to examine who works in public organizations, how well are they managed, and who receives public services in a multicultural society. Further, is there a connection between a public organization’s interest or lack of interest in social equity in service delivery and its ability to promote and manage diversity among its workforce?
Although the concept of social equity does denote fairness and equal treatment, this view does not clearly and fully address the concept within the practice of public administration (see Svara and Brunet, 2004). For public administrators, social equity can also be a value commitment that may involve implementing targeted programs as a way of bringing about equality of results (outcomes) as opposed to input equality—that is, treating every resident, consumer, or client the same. Social equity also involves procedures or process, access, and quality in public service delivery (Svara and Brunet, 2004). Because the meaning of social equity is not clearly understood, and equity measures or standards have yet to be fully developed and accepted, the concept has been slow to find its way into extensive debate and discussion in the contemporary public administration literature and in the profession. With these shortcomings in mind, the National Academy of Public Administration’s Standing Panel on Social Equity (2000, 2-3) offers the following definition of social equity:

The fair, just and equitable management of all institutions serving the public directly or by contract, and the fair, just and equitable distribution of public services, and the implementation of public policy, and the commitment to promote fairness, justice and equity in the formation of public policy.

The connection between social equity and diversity takes into account the fact that public organizations and public administrators, managers, and public service delivery personnel can profoundly affect how well they manage and deliver services to all groups in society. If a public organization has a socially diverse workforce that is well managed and has proactive diversity strategies in place, will this contribute to a public organization’s consideration of social equity in public service delivery? An operating assumption behind diversity in public organizations is that having different types of employees increases productivity and organizational effectiveness, because individuals with different characteris-

cics have different work styles and cultural knowledge that makes them valuable assets to public organizations in a multicultural society (see Edelman, Fuller, and Mara-Drita, 2001, 1618). Miller and Katz (1995) note that diversity gives an organization a greater range of creativity, problem-solving and decision-making skills, and a potential for seeing 360 degrees of the landscape. The point here is that a proactive organizational diversity strategy can be a vital social equity asset in public service delivery.

Therefore, it would seem that an important issue, closely related to social equity in public service delivery, is the teaching of diversity and diversity management in public administration education. This essay addresses this observation in two ways. First, the essay provides an overview of the traditional cultural environment of public organizations and offers a view of a social equity subculture. Second, the essay presents a perspective on teaching diversity in public administration education as a way of enhancing a social equity focus in the classroom. The premise of this essay is that social equity can best be achieved if public administrators, public managers, and public service delivery personnel have a clear understanding and appreciation of diversity and diversity management that is built into the organization’s culture. If social equity is seen as having a connection to diversity within a public organization, it may have an impact on how well the organization advances social equity in the public service delivery process. A concluding thought of the essay is that the teaching of social equity and diversity must be included in public administration education coursework and curricula along with a concerted effort to diversify— racially and ethnically—public administration faculty. It is expected that the discussion that follows may generate considerable debate in the teaching of public administration education among both public administration scholars and public professionals.

The Cultural Environment of Public Organizations: An Overview

Traditionally, the cultural environment of public organizations has not been positively associated with
social equity or diversity. Promoting social equity in public service delivery involves citizen input and participation, neither of which a public organization has a strong interest in pursuing or operationalizing (see King et al., 1998; Peters, 1999). Perhaps one explanation is that the bureaucratic culture of an organization reflects those who run and control it. Generally, public organizations in the United States are controlled by individuals of western European descent who have adopted a specific process for the way things are done. The literature has identified this specific process as a culture of conformity (Feldman, 1985), a culture of technical rationality (Adams and Ingersoll, 1990), a culture of process (Deal and Kennedy, 1982), or a culture of control (Ban, 1995). According to Claver et al. (1999, 456), “it is possible to analyze how to improve working habits and the results” of a public organization by examining its culture.

Culture is “a set of values, symbols and rituals shared by members of an organization,” describing the way duties and responsibilities are carried out internally and how the organization relates to its customers or clients and the environment (Claver et al., 1999, 456). These values, symbols, and rituals are both formal and informal or written and unwritten. Culture in public organizations takes into account how employees are treated and how the public service delivery process is rationalized. In other words, the culture of a public organization determines its public service orientation. Traditional bureaucratic culture is internally centered and oriented and has the following features (Claver et al., 1999, 459):

- The management style is authoritarian, and there is a high degree of control.
- There is little communication, and the management is usually univocal and top-down.
- Individuals search for stability, have limited scope for initiative, and are oriented toward obeying orders.
- The decision-making process is repetitive and centralized.
- There is reluctance to start innovative processes.
- There are high degrees of conformity.

A citizen-oriented culture in a public organization is more externally focused and has the following orientation (Stewart and Clarke, 1987, 163-164):

- The tasks and activities that are carried out are solely aimed at usefully serving the citizens.
- The organization will be judged according to the quality of the service given with the resources available.
- The service offered will be a shared value provided that is shared by all members of the organization.
- A high-quality service is sought.
- Quality in service requires a real approach to the citizen.

Claver et al. (1999, 459) add to these features:

- The citizens have a primary role in the scale of shared values.
- There is frequent contact with the citizens.
- The problems that arise in public service delivery are thoroughly analyzed.
- All members of a section or department of public administration seek prompt service.

Combining the latter features with those of a citizen-oriented culture would seem to add some elements of a social equity perspective to public service delivery in comparison to the features of a public organization with a traditional bureaucratic culture where internal processes, proper hierarchical protocol, verticality, and formality are emphasized. Further, a citizen orientation perspective in a public organization would require the organization to have responsibility to all clients or customers, not just majoritarian preferences (Vigoda, 2002). Arguably, a responsive public organization “must be reactive, sympathetic, sensitive and capable of feeling” its clients’ needs and opinions (Vigoda, 2002, 529).

Responsiveness also denotes fairness, accuracy, and speed in service delivery (Vigoda, 2002). Traditional public administration has not fully stressed the external responsibility of public organizations in providing public services to clients or customers with differing needs. This is especially the case in the teaching of public administration.
Traditional Public Administration Education

Coursework in public administration education consists of most of the following subjects: public personnel management/human resources management; public management; public budgeting and finance; organizational management theory and behavior; research methods/quantitative analysis; policy analysis; and ethics. The National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA, 2003, 11) classifies these subject matters into three “common curriculum components”: “The Management of Public Service Service Organizations,” “The Application of Quantitative and Qualitative Techniques of Analysis,” and “Understanding of the Public Policy and Organizational Environment.” The overall objective of this coursework is to cover a broad range of topics such as the origin and development of public administration as a field of study and academic inquiry; political and legal institutions affecting public management; economic and social institutions and processes; how to prepare a budget; decentralization, devolution, and bureaucracy; the public policy process; personnel/human resources functions; distinction between public administration and business administration; and the principles of public management—efficiency, effectiveness, and economy in the public sector.

When a program presents itself for accreditation review, NASPAA determines if the program’s course offerings and contents, as well as other factors, meet its criteria for delivering “a basic level of educational quality” (Breaux et al., 2003, 259-260).

NASPAA’s common curriculum components do not identify social equity and diversity as required course content areas. The closest topics that can be associated with social equity and diversity are the issues of representative bureaucracy and affirmative action. The public administration literature covers these subjects quite extensively. Yet, recognizing contemporary demographic developments and changes, NASPAA does seem to be indirectly supportive of the teaching of social equity and/or diversity by permitting public administration programs the flexibility to use “additional curriculum components” to help develop students’ general competencies “that are consistent with the program mission” (NASPAA, 2003, 12). Although this is commendable, the topics of social equity and diversity, if included in a program’s coursework, would seem to be secondary to, or less important than, the common curriculum competency areas. Perhaps the topics of social equity and diversity should be included as part of the common curriculum components, to make them part of NASPAA’s minimal required academic standards for public administration education.

Traditional coursework in public administration sees the influence of cultural differences in organizations as something that is invisible, illegitimate, and negative (Adler, 1991) and inconsistent with the values of efficiency, effectiveness, economy, and good management, and the practices of control, standardization, neutrality, and impersonality. If these values and practices continue to receive primary consideration in the classroom, with little attention to social equity and diversity, are we as teachers of public administration teaching courses and topics that are necessary and relevant? Are we preparing aspiring students for public service work in a multicultural and diverse society? If we continue to teach the Weberian model of bureaucracy and all of the characteristics that have come to be associated with it, are we continuing to promote a bureaucratic culture that is rigid and does not emphasize innovation and change? If so, we are teaching that those who work in a bureaucratic culture have routines and habits that lead to safety and conformity, and that any modification of these routines and habits will create anxiety and discomfort for the public organization’s executives, managers, and service delivery personnel. Golembiewski and Vigoda (2000) maintain that public bureaucracies have a vertical flow of orders and reports, accountability to highly ranked officers, fear of sanctions and restrictions, and sometimes even a lack of sufficient accountability dynamics. Thus, it would seem that traditional curricula and coursework in public administration is well suited to transmitting well-defined facts and theories, particularly to academically inclined, well-schooled audiences. But this kind of teaching and coursework may not be particularly suited to educating a broader and
more racially and ethnically diverse group of future public administration decision-makers and service delivery personnel.

Instead, as teachers, we should provide students with the perspective that a public organization can be transformed into one with a culture of responsibility, a culture of innovation, and a culture of cost awareness. In other words, public organizations should move from a culture of conformity and status quo, emphasizing procedures and continuity, to embrace a culture of performance (Kest, 1992) advancing a social equity subculture. A social equity subculture stresses responsibility to clients who need public services more, innovative public service delivery strategies and techniques, and greater focus on cost awareness in programs and services as opposed to a focus on budgeted costs. As future public administrators, public managers, and public service delivery personnel, students must be taught that a traditional bureaucratic culture can be modified or changed to reflect a citizen-oriented or social equity-oriented service delivery culture. Claver et al. (1999) offer a cultural diagnosis methodology consisting of the following process:

1. Making a diagnosis of the present culture;
2. Explaining the need for modifications;
3. Defining the values desired;
4. Involving management;
5. Making collaborators aware of this new need;
6. Changing the symbols;
7. Changing training programs to incorporate the new values; and
8. Periodically revising the values.

This methodological approach, better known as a cultural audit, examines the organization’s core assumptions and their manifestations as a way of describing its current state and the reasons for it (Thomas, 1999).

In a related way, Denhardt (2001, 507) raises the question: “Do we seek to educate our students with respect to theory or to practice?” The question begs discussion, because pre-service students and in-service students bring a different mindset to the classroom—one shaped by their educational, professional, and/or life experiences. The mindset of students from different cultures, ethnicities, and races may also be different. Students from these backgrounds, in many instances, may be seeking a public administration education to sincerely carry out the adage “to make a difference in the quality of life” for individuals within their specific cultures, ethnicities, and races. Yet teachers of public administration prepare and teach from their own frame of reference. Although we would like to not think so, teaching is not a neutral activity. Students are influenced by our answers to their questions, what we tell them in lectures, and the textbooks, articles, and readings we assign to them.

At the risk of raising the ire of many of my colleagues, the teaching of social equity and diversity may be problematic if a teacher’s culture, background, race, and social and life experiences are very different from those of the students they are teaching. This is not to say that white faculty cannot teach African American students, or vice versa. It is to say that diversity in the public administration faculty would logically accentuate and convey the importance of diversity to our students and would perhaps increase the likelihood that coursework taught by a racially and ethnically diverse faculty would include a social equity and/or diversity component. Very few people of color are on the faculties of public administration education programs (excluding programs at historically black colleges and universities), and even fewer are teaching in nationally recognized programs. This may be one explanation behind why public administration education coursework continues with a strong theoretical and functional orientation and with little or no focus on social equity and diversity issues. As Cunningham and Weschler (2002, 106) and Faerman (2000) note, we teach theories and practices that maintain and perpetuate stable organization systems. Of course, we teach what we were taught in our own academic preparation, which for many of us did not include the issues of social equity and diversity. From this perspective, professors seldom teach, nor do they firmly grasp, how a focus on social equity and diversity may induce organizational instability and uncertainty. In traditional public administration education, social equity and diversity have not been emphasized in....
coursework focusing on organizational operating procedures and missions. While coursework in organizational theory and organizational development may focus on organizational instability, uncertainty, and the impact of the environment on the organization, how would such coursework handle social equity and diversity issues and change in organizations?

Further, regardless of whether we are teaching public administration students to be staff practitioners or line-manager practitioners, the issues of social equity and diversity/diversity management are important to the areas of responsibility of both types of public practitioners. On one hand, Cunningham and Weschler (2002, 105) note that staffers' responsibilities revolve around “1) planning and implementing research projects; 2) carrying out statistical analysis; 3) formulating policy options; and 4) creating and refining financial, personnel and information systems.” Staffers work in a multicultural environment and must possess social equity and diversity knowledge and understanding. Staffers can also incorporate social equity analysis and diversity observations into research projects and statistical analyses. In this way, their work can be passed on to superiors.

On the other hand, line-manager practitioners’ responsibilities include “1) deciding among policy options; 2) implementing policy; 3) negotiating with stakeholders; 4) motivating subordinates; and 5) anticipating impending changes in the organization’s environment” (Cunningham and Weschler, 2002, 105). Line managers are more directly related to the public organization’s service delivery process, and their responsibilities involve leadership of subordinates and peers and leadership with stakeholders. Line-manager practitioners must handle social relationships, deal with emotionally challenged situations, supervise multicultural personnel, and seek win-win solutions to complex problems. Therefore, line-manager practitioners’ understanding of diversity may affect their subordinates’ views of social equity and diversity in the service delivery process. In consideration of this line of thought, the teaching of social equity and diversity would seem to be a necessary competency for students to gain from a public administration education. Below, I describe how I teach diversity as a way of enhancing my students’ understanding of social equity.

Teaching Diversity as a Way of Enhancing a Social Equity Focus

In teaching a course on diversity and public organizations, we must first identify the primary objectives of the course. In my graduate course, “Diversity, Public Policy and Public Administration,” the primary objectives are to prepare students who have career aspirations to be employed in the public sector to meet the diversity and multicultural social challenges they will face as future public administrators, public managers, and public service delivery personnel; to enhance students’ knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of cultural diversity; to provide cultural competencies needed to interact successfully in a rapidly demographically changing society; and to emphasize that diversity is not a four-letter word in public administration (see Auman and Myers, 1996). The course emphasizes that public administration/public management is a dynamic process involving the provision, allocation, management, and distribution of public services to diverse constituencies representing different races, ethnicities, backgrounds, and genders. The course gives considerable attention to distinguishing between affirmative action, multiculturalism, and diversity management, and uses readings, discussions, and experiential activities on managing diversity and valuing diversity paradigms, monoculturalism, and organizational culture.

My students are also required to complete two field assignments. One assignment requires an interview—from a set of questions I provide—to obtain the views of a public administration executive or administrator (such as a city manager, police chief, fire chief, personnel administrator) on how diversity is affecting the work environment and service delivery (see Table 1). This assignment gives students the opportunity to meet and talk directly with a public administrator, public executive, or department head. An indirect outcome of this interview assignment is that students are sometimes asked to submit a job
Organizational Culture, Social Equity, and Diversity

application to the organization. The other assignment consists of attending a policy-making body’s public meeting to observe first-hand interactions between policymakers and public administrators, the extent of the diversity of policymakers and public administrators, and whether and how this diversity plays out in an interactive policy-making process. Both of these field assignments provide students with a closer connection to their public administration education. Further, many students have never met or spoken with a public administrator, public executive, or department head or have never attended a public body’s policy-making meeting. These assignments fill this void.

The course maintains that affirmative action, multiculturalism, and diversity have different meanings and that operationalizing them leads to different quantitative, qualitative, and behavioral outcomes. The different outcomes result from different implementation strategies and approaches. Tables 2 and 3 define key diversity terms and show the differences between affirmative action, multiculturalism, and managing diversity; unlike affirmative action and multiculturalism, managing diversity is a pragmatic, synergistic strategy driving productivity, service delivery, organizational competitiveness, and social equity (see Rice, 2001). The course also discusses the differences between monocultural, affirmative action, and multicultural organizations (see Table 4).

Among the important understandings conveyed in the course are that (1) hiring diverse personnel is simply not an end in itself, and neither is a diversity edict from top leadership; (2) implementing public policy initiatives requires an understanding of the diverse constituencies served by the organization; (3) public organizations are synergistic organizations (Adler, 1991) that seek to maximize the advantages of diversity while minimizing its disadvantages;

Table 1. Interview Questions for Public Administrators

You are required to interview a high-level public administrator in a city, county, or state agency to carry out this assignment.

This assignment must be prepared in a question/answer format. The ten required questions must be presented in numerical order with the answers. You are required to ask at least two additional questions not listed here with answers. These additional questions and answers must be indicated with an asterisk (*). The individual that you will interview must be approved in advance by the instructor.

Is diversity in society impacting your organization or agency? If so, how? If not, why not?
In your opinion, what does the term diversity mean for your organization or agency?
Do you see employee diversity being a plus in carrying out the objectives and mission of your organization or agency? Explain.
How is your organization demonstrating its commitment to diversity?
Does your organization use diversity training? Why? Why not?
How do your employees respond to diversity training?
Do you see diversity as a major issue in your organization? Explain.
Have you noticed differences in leadership communications and leadership interactions among persons of different racial and ethnic backgrounds in your organization or agency? Explain.
How has diversity impacted your ability to carry out your job? Explain.
Has your organization or agency ever conducted an employee survey on diversity issues? Why? Or why not?
Organizational Culture, Social Equity, and Diversity

Table 2. Diversity Glossary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural Audit</strong></td>
<td>Examines the values, symbols, rules, and routines that maintain a public organization’s purpose and existence to uncover counterproductive activities and barriers that may adversely affect the organization’s public service mission and service delivery process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diversity</strong></td>
<td>Refers to a broad range of differences among employees, including race, gender, age, ethnicity, physical abilities, sexual orientation, education, and so on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diversity Audit</strong></td>
<td>Allows the employer to uncover how selected groups of employees are experiencing the organization and to uncover hidden perceptions or confirm perceived biases before an incident of harassment or discrimination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diversity Climate</strong></td>
<td>Refers to employee behaviors and attitudes that are grounded in perceptions of the organizational context related to women and minorities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diversity Recruitment Quotient</strong></td>
<td>A process in which an organization’s materials and environment are analyzed from a minority perspective to determine why the organization does not receive employment applications from diverse applicants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Managing Diversity</strong></td>
<td>Refers to the effective utilization of the diversity of the workforce to accomplish organizational goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Monoculturalism</strong></td>
<td>Refers to the values, customs, and dominance of one culture over another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Multiculturalism/Valuing Diversity</strong></td>
<td>Refers to “the process of recognizing, understanding and appreciating cultures other than one’s own,” and to a change in perspective on the diversity of individual workers in an organization; the change is from regarding differences as a disadvantage to seeing them as important assets in an organization.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(4) Diversity strategies are preceded by cultural audits and/or diversity audits and what they consist of to provide a comparative analysis for measuring diversity progress; and (5) several types of diversity training methodologies are available to draw on based on findings from cultural audits and/or diversity audits (Rice, 2002). These are two separate and distinct audits seeking different information. A cultural audit attempts to examine the values, symbols, rules, and routines that maintain the public organization’s purpose and existence to uncover counterproductive activities and barriers that may adversely affect the organization’s public service mission and service delivery process. A diversity audit seeks to uncover how selected groups of employees are experiencing the organization and the prevailing diversity climate in the organization (Rice, 2002).

A second issue in teaching diversity in public administration education is what texts are available for student use. This is also the case for teaching social equity. Only a few textbooks discuss social equity and diversity in a public sector context. Svara and Brunet (2004) argue that social equity is a blind spot in the seven most widely used texts in the field. They conducted a content analysis of these works and found that only one text defined social equity and only two texts gave attention to the historical aspects of social equity in the field. A majority of the texts provided coverage on the issues of due process, discrimination, sexual harassment, equal
Organizational Culture, Social Equity, and Diversity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative Action</th>
<th>Multiculturalism (Valuing Differences)</th>
<th>Managing Diversity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus. Fairness and equality.</td>
<td>Focus. Learning and effectiveness of cultural differences.</td>
<td>Focus. Integrating diversity for organizational productivity and effectiveness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative. Emphasis is on achieving equality of opportunity in the work environment through the changing of organizational demographics. Progress is monitored by statistical reports and analysis (descriptive data).</td>
<td>Qualitative. Emphasis is on the appreciating differences and creating an environment in which everyone feels valued and accepted. Progress is monitored by organizational surveys focused on attitudes and perceptions.</td>
<td>Behavioral. Emphasis is on building specific skills and creating policies that get the best from every employee. Efforts are monitored by progress toward achieving goals and objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legally driven. Written plans and statistical goals for specific groups are utilized. Reports are mandated by EEO laws and consent decrees. Demographic characteristics are most important.</td>
<td>Ethically driven. Moral and ethical imperatives drive this culture change.</td>
<td>Strategically driven. Behaviors and policies are seen as contributing to organizational goals and objectives, such as profit and productivity, and are tied to rewards and results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remedial. Specific target groups benefit as past wrongs are remedied. Previously excluded groups have an advantage.</td>
<td>Idealistic. Everyone benefits. Everyone feels valued and accepted in an inclusive environment.</td>
<td>Pragmatic. The organization benefits; morale, profits, and productivity increase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assimilation model. Model assumes that groups brought into the system will adapt to existing organizational norms. Employees’ apparent differences do not count.</td>
<td>Diversity model. Model assumes that groups will retain their own characteristics and shape the organization as well as be shaped by it.</td>
<td>Synergy model. Model assumes that diverse groups will create new ways of working together effectively in a pluralistic environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opens doors. Efforts affect hiring and promotion decisions in the organization.</td>
<td>Opens attitudes, minds, and the culture. Efforts affect attitudes of employees.</td>
<td>Opens the system. Efforts affect managerial practices and policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resistance. Resistance is due to perceived limits to autonomy in decision-making and perceived fears of reverse discrimination.</td>
<td>Resistance. Resistance is due to a fear of change, discomfort with differences, and a desire to return to the “good old days.”</td>
<td>Resistance. Resistance is due to denial of demographic realities, of the need for alternative approaches, and of the benefits of change. It also arises from the difficulty of learning new skills, altering existing systems, and finding the time to work toward synergetic solutions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Derived from Rice (2001) and Riccucci (2002).
Organizational Culture, Social Equity, and Diversity

Table 4. Contemporary Organizational Cultures

| The Monocultural Organization                                                                 |
| - Domination of one group over another.                                                         |
| - Seeks to establish and maintain superiority.                                                   |
| - Exclusionary hiring and membership practices.                                                |

| The Affirmative Action Organization                                                              |
| - Committed to actively recruiting and hiring underrepresented or formerly discriminated individuals. |
| - All individuals in the organization are encouraged to behave in a nonoppressive way.            |
| - All members of the organization still conform to norms and practices of the dominant group.    |
| - Targets change at the individual level.                                                        |
| - Focus on hiring numbers and assimilation.                                                       |

| The Multicultural Organization                                                                 |
| - Reflects the contributions and interests of diverse cultural and social groups in mission, operations, etc. |
| - Diverse cultural and social groups play an influential role in all levels of the organization. |
| - Supports efforts to expand diversity and multiculturalism.                                     |


employment opportunity/affirmative action, and representativeness. None of the texts covered cultural competencies, equity measures, and ethics. The literature on diversity in public administration, although more abundant and more developed, has only a few available texts. I edited a volume in 1996 titled Diversity and Public Organizations: Theory, Issues, and Perspectives, which is now under revision. More recent works are those by Mathews (1998), Broadnax (2000), Riccucci (2001), and Naff (2001). Scholarly articles and other publications focusing on diversity and diversity management are more plentiful, and may be assigned as complementary reading materials. Examples of complementary reading materials are Thomas (1999), Soni (2000), U.S. Office of Personnel Management (2000), and Naff and Kellough (2001).

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

In the postmodern era, it would seem that, in order for social equity in service delivery to be a primary concern in public administration education and in public organizations, both must first get their own houses in order. The teaching of social equity and diversity must be included in curricula and coursework in public administration education, and a concerted effort must be made to provide students with a racially and ethnically diverse faculty. These efforts may contribute to the culture of public organizations incorporating diversity within their missions and their management practices. A strong focus on diversity inside a public organization may posture it to move from a bureaucratic culture toward a citizen-oriented/social equity culture. This movement requires a shift and adjustment to three new cultures: a culture of responsibility; a culture of innovation; and a culture of cost awareness (Claver, 1999). Adopting this typology of culture leads to what Claver (1999) calls a culture of performance with a social equity subculture. In this cultural environment, decision-making takes on a certain degree of innovation, improvisation, and risk (Keston, 1992). Surely, social equity considerations on the part of public organizations would best occur in this kind of cultural environment.

One way to ascertain whether this type of culture exists in a public organization is to conduct a culture diagnosis, the purpose of which is to identify not only the particular culture that is present and its

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operating values but also the extent to which it is shared by members. The cultural diagnosis can determine whether a negative bureaucratic culture exists and inhibits effective public service delivery and considerations of social equity. In addition, a diversity audit can be administered to uncover hidden perceptions or confirmed biases about certain groups of individuals.

Public administration education needs to incorporate into its curricula and courses, in a very substantive way, the topics of social equity and diversity in order to be more relevant to contemporary students. Perhaps one way to achieve this is for public administration education to structure—or restructure—its learning developmental sequence to include not only cognitive development and linguistics or interactive development but also a strong focus on psychosocial development (Denhardt, 2001). The knowledge attained in the psychosocial development sequence focuses on action skills of interpersonal improvement, which would seem to lend itself to the promotion and consideration of social equity in public service delivery. Denhardt argues (2001, 530) that "one's interpersonal skills are those capabilities that provide psychological and moral grounding for our actions." As a result, with the psychosocial development sequence, future public administrators should be more adept at acting morally, responsibly, effectively, independently, and equitably. Imparting these skills in public administration education may require that NASPAA elevate the topics of social equity and diversity to the level of common curriculum components.

NOTES
1. Versions of this paper were presented at the Special Symposium on The Social Equity Component of Public Affairs Education at the National Academy of Public Administration, Washington, D.C., February 14, 2003, and at the Annual Conference of the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration, October 16-19, 2003, Pittsburgh, Pa. The author wishes to thank two anonymous reviewers for their comments and critiques on an earlier draft of this manuscript.

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Teaching Social Equity in the MPA: Reflections from the Social Equity Symposium

From the Special Issues Editors
Susan Gooden
Race and Social Policy Research Center, Virginia Tech

Samuel Myers, Jr
Roy Wilkins Center, University of Minnesota

This part of the symposium contains six short essays by prominent policy professionals who were panelists at the February 2003 Social Equity Symposium at the National Academy of Public Administration. It concludes with an essay based on comments from several former and current federal, state, and local public administrators who could not attend the symposium but generously shared their ideas in follow-up interviews.

WHAT IS TO BE DONE? GLOBALIZATION AND SOCIAL EQUITY
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Director and Cofounder, Global Change Institute, Nicosia, Cyprus
University of Houston-Clear Lake, Houston, Texas

Although globalization is hotly debated (Held et al., 1999; Hirst and Thompson, 1996; Dicken, 1992), scholars who share a historical materialist perspective "have identified historical processes through which internationally active segments of the capitalist class [as it is gendered, raced, and sexualized] have organized to frame common interests, project a universalizing worldview which effectively depoliticizes the economic sphere, and coordinate their own political action to realize their interests and visions" (Rupert, 2002, 5, citing Steger, 2002; Rupert, 2000; Sklair, 1997; Gill, 1990). Corporate transnational restructuring, as a political project, is fundamentally transforming the organization of socioeconomic and political power and uses the axes of power of race, gender, and sex as criteria for deciding whom to include and exclude from the neoliberal global capitalist project. Racial, class, and sexual distinctions underpin the deceptively ordinary and outwardly processes of transnationalization of capital, the "compassionate" intervention of institutions like the World Trade Organization (founded in 1995) and the United Nations Commission on Human Rights (founded in 1948) that are designed to address how capitalism is reproduced in a globalizing world.
1995) and the International Monetary Fund, the emergence of multinational firms and the transnational organization of production, the transnationalization of production, as well as the restructuring or “transnationalization of the state” (Robinson, 2002) as an accumulation strategy.

Corporate globalization, as defined above, has created dramatic changes in the way we understand and explain social relations and, more specifically, public affairs. The Standing Panel on Social Equity of the National Academy of Public Administration has declared that social equity is the third pillar of public administration next to efficiency and economy. This declaration is very timely, especially within a context in which corporate globalization is vying for global power in its raced, sexual, and classed formations while the bulk of the world’s people are politically and economically fenced off by this system of power (Klein, 2002; Schalit, 2002). This declaration, though useful, still falls short of the demands of the new globalized times. We in public affairs need to argue for a vision of the world that emerges out of the activist participation of all communities, including public administrators, and centralizes social equity as the vision itself—a vision in which people are not fenced-off and are not excluded from having basic access to social resources because of the color of their skin, the communities they find themselves in, their class, their gender, or their sex. Such a political project centralizes social equity as the vision, integrates creatively the knowledge and labor of the bulk of people, and constitutes community as action and solidarity.

**Articulating a Feminist Democratic World Project: Social Equity and Transformation**

The context within which we are addressing social equity—definition, measurement, and incorporation into the public affairs curriculum, training, and research and practice in public policy, public affairs, public administration, and management—is a context that is ridden with transnational changes and massive marginalization politically, socially, and economically. Even when this system faces accumulation crises and political tensions among its different globalist fractions, it still vies for constituting its power on a global scale through its cutting-edge practices and pedagogies by fencing off the bulk of the world population from these globalization processes and putting resources and wealth out of their hands. Thus, our understanding of social equity and its practice—its methods and pedagogies—needs to be developed within this context, which has concrete effects on raced, classed, national, and sexual bodies of women—and men—in the public sphere, the academy, the streets, workplaces, households, prisons, and social movements. What does it mean for feminist theorizing to make social equity the vision toward a global democratic society? Substantiating our thinking on social equity as a vision of public affairs requires us to ask several questions: (1) Who is responsible for forging and shaping a feminist democratic project in which social equity becomes a guiding principle? (2) What kinds of pedagogies do we produce in making such a vision a reality? (3) In what kinds of struggles and contestations do we participate in forging a social movement that fights against corporate globalization and transforms globalized inequalities? (4) What role do public affairs educators play in the shaping and forging of a world in which social equity is the vision?

The new corporate, neoliberal project of globalization produces knowledge that is gendered, raced, and classed. For example, one of the major strategies of further accumulation is the commodification of women’s bodies and labor, intensified competition, the privatization of social resources, and the transformation of the state as a site that makes possible the further accumulation of profits and capital in the hands of the few. If the neoliberal project and its agents are participating in such practices as well as producing knowledge that mystifies their practices, then critical pedagogues in public affairs need to critique this project and its contingent politics of knowledge production. How we teach social equity is at least as important as the research we do on these issues in the “struggles over knowledge and citizenship in the U.S.” (Mohanty, 2003, 517) and political rights. “The way we construct curricula and
the pedagogies we use to put such curricula into practice tell a story—or tell many stories” (Mohanty, 2003, 517), such as who deserves and who does not deserve resources, who historically and in relation to others received resources and did not, and who is complicit in constituting people as poor, refugees, migrants, working class, and on welfare, and so forth. Behind these economic patterns exist discursive apparati that are entrenched with notions of efficiency and neoliberal economy, which is superiority. For example, Western knowledge about free markets, democracy, development, and progress informed by colonialism and imperialist politics is used by public administrators to decide locally, nationally, and internationally which communities and countries are eligible for resources. However, such knowledge ends up being complicit in further constituting these sites as poor and underdeveloped, requiring the neoliberal model of progress to be implemented at any cost. Of course, this strategy does not take into consideration people’s contexts, histories, and methods of organizing their social relations.

Critical pedagogies allow for models and ways of organizing that move beyond “you should do this or that” in order to develop or progress but rather provide visions of social equity that argue, “I want this for all of us. This is how I think things should go in the world” (Brown, 2002, 215). This approach moves beyond the politics of identity and focuses on shaping and forming a project in which all people are working toward critiquing or casting critical light on the illegitimate use of power by state and market actors, by using reason and solidarity through intervention that fashions strong political bonds in the process of democratizing one’s communities and societies (Brady, 2002, 59). It is crucial that our vision of social equity, the pedagogies we employ to make it into a democratic reality, are based on a comparative feminist solidarity model that assumes that “differences and commonalities thus exist in relation and tension with each other in all contexts. What is emphasized are relations of mutuality, coaccountability, and common interests, anchoring the idea of feminist solidarity” (Mohanty, 2003, 521). For example, when we examine racialization and

look at it in a global context, we recognize that social relations are more than a black and white issue because racialization and genderization are primary strategies that colonial, imperial, and nationalist policies employ to exploit and marginalize. Looking at racialization processes in a comparative context makes it possible for us to explore relations of mutuality, coaccountability, common interests, and also methods of politically bonding as we push to democratize our societies, economies, communities, ourselves.

By Way of Conclusion: What Is to Be Done?

When global capitalism employs genderization, racialization, and class to (re)structure social relations transnationally as its major strategies, feminist public affairs educators, by focusing on social equity as the guiding principle of any politics and intervention, teach active engagement and solidarity with antiglobalization struggles. A solidarity based on intervening in the public sphere and in the process of pushing to democratize communities constitutes strong political bonds. It raises questions about (1) efficiency and economy; (2) who is controlling social resources and how, questions that need to be at forefront of what we mean by social equity; (3) who decides when these resources are going to be distributed and with the use of what criteria; (4) who makes the rules in the transnational context and what kinds of tools they use in the process; and (5) how we constitute social equity between the developed and less developed regions. These issues bring me back to why social equity should be the principle that guides the new vision of public affairs. Prioritizing social equity as the vision in public affairs challenges our understanding of efficiency and economy as neutral concepts and pushes us to produce pedagogies and research that empower public affairs workers/activists to participate in larger struggles for justice: how can people at the margins, through the work of public affairs agents, be empowered to make decisions about their own lives rather than continue to believe that a lot of other bigger institutions outside their communities have to decide for their survival and well being? As we
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reframe our political understanding of what it means to live, work, and struggle in a society with widening class differentiations and increasing racialized inequalities, questions about social equity in public affairs can no longer remain localized. Our discussions and debates about social equity cannot be contained in localized spaces—e.g., Washington. They need to be located in a global framework, thus recognizing that history—theirs—is interwoven and made with our histories.

REFERENCES


A CRITICAL SOCIAL EQUITY COMPONENT OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS EDUCATION: THE ROLE OF THE CIVIL RIGHTS MOVEMENT

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We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of separate but equal has no place.
—Chief Justice Earl Warren, May 17, 1954

The decision rendered in the landmark U.S. Supreme Court case Brown v. Board of Education denotes a major conceptual shift for race and equality in American jurisprudence. In Brown, the judicial branch signaled an end to a 58-year-old system of “separate but equal” access to public facilities based on race. That system had provided the legal underpinning for Jim Crow, stripping the founding documents of our republic of their pronouncement of the universality of equality of persons. By 1954, the Supreme Court found racial segregation to be at odds with a constitutional republic that embraced equality.

Ours is, however, a tri-part government, and the judiciary obviously could not and did not in and of itself end segregation. The courts alone did not create the America that closed out the twentieth century and takes us into the twenty-first. Brown, in conjunction with actions of the executive and legislative branches, affirmed the death of Jim Crow. The dismantling of racial segregation began in 1948 with President Harry Truman’s desegregation of the armed forces. Congress, with the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965, completed the action. Desegregation, the process of transforming America from a segregated to an integrated society, was in fact the result of combined action of each of the three branches. As we approach the fiftieth anniversary of Brown and its accompanying celebratory activities, we must recall that desegregation involved more than isolated judicial action. Desegregation involved the government in total, each branch acting within its realm and in concert to bring about the monumental social change that is the fruit of the Civil Rights Movement.

Desegregation, as implemented in our public institutions, also involved what is often termed the “fourth branch” of government—the public administration. And, as this essay argues, desegregation involved additional institutions, not considered branches, yet highly influential in the framing of our modern republic—a republic that embraces social equity as a core component of governance. We return to the main points of our question—social equity, public affairs education, and effective change agents in nonprofit and research organizations, and discuss each briefly.

Social Equity

The Standing Panel on Social Equity in Governance of the National Academy of Public Administration (2000) defines social equity as “[t]he
fair, just and equitable management of all institutions serving the public directly and or by contract, and the fair, just and equitable distribution of public services, and implementation of public policy. The Panel affirms that, much as was stated in Brown, the doctrine of “separate but equal” has no place in their definition of a core value of the public administration.

This rejection of inequality is significant. The public administration, as implementer of our national ideals, must embrace the principles of our governing bodies. Through the Civil Rights movement, our governing principles evolved. Today we see an America that, though not perfect, is closer to realizing its founding premise of human equality. The call for equality of the 1940s, ’50s and ’60s was heeded. The nation adopted the goals of the movement by removing restrictions on equal treatment. The Panel, in its declaration, embodies the spirit of the movement.

The Civil Rights movement is foundational to the concept of social equity as accepted in practice. Public affairs education must therefore find a way to bridge the movement, governance, and administration in a manner that furthers the understanding of students, many of whom have no personal connection to an America that was limited by its imposed segregation. Continuing the evolution of social equality in America, the movement is where Jefferson’s eloquence met King’s beliefs and determination. It is where founding ideals became foundational realities. It is the point at which America truly became a democratic republic.

What brought us to this point? What force led America through the transition from segregation to integration? It was not government. It was government responding to stimuli from external organizations, one of those being the American black church. It is difficult to discuss the Civil Rights movement without mentioning the role of religion. How then do we bridge the church and governance for students of public affairs?

Public Affairs Education

Intimately involved in the realization of this symposium is the Journal of Public Affairs Education, a journal “[d]edicated to advancing teaching and learning in public affairs broadly defined, which includes the fields of policy analysis, public administration, public management, and public policy” (J-PAE, 2003). We seek to find the connection between the black church and American governance; it is important that we understand the church’s role from the perspective of the study of public affairs.

The Constitution forms the foundation of our study of American public affairs. Focusing first upon the three branches, we expand our study to include the public administration. Policy analysis further expands the study to include nongovernmental organizations—the iron triangle, networks, and the advocacy coalition are but some examples of the ways in which we view the interaction between government and community. These frameworks offer the opportunity to include the black church in the study of public affairs and particularly in the study of social equity.

Understanding the role of the church in black America during segregation aids in the understanding of its effect on America. Excluded from government, blacks did not cease to organize as citizens and to govern; to the contrary, they self-governed. For black America, the church was the government and the public administration. It was where black Americans congregated, voted, planned, budgeted, implemented, and advocated. As an organized body, the black church was highly effective as a nonprofit and community organization in effecting change. Prior to Brown, it, along with historically black colleges and universities, professional and social organizations, and segregated military units, comprised the institutions black America created to serve citizens not served by government. Those institutions then helped government mature, allowing it to realize its more enlightened modern day state.

Effective Change Agents

The black church in segregated America was an exemplar nonprofit and community institution for effecting change. Its record affirms. In understanding the evolution of social equity, its record should be woven into the study of public affairs. We seek inclusion. Today’s students would be well served by the introduction of this connection to the study of the
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Social equity component of public affairs. Professors might begin with a sociological overview such as E. Franklin Frazier (1963) and C. Eric Lincoln’s (1974) *The Negro Church in America/The Black Church Since Frazier*. A more historical account may be found in *Mighty Like a River: The Black Church and Social Reform* by Andrew Billingsley (1999). Robert Franklin (1997) offers a charge to the “public theologian” in *Another Day’s Journey: Black Churches Confronting the American Crisis*.

Presenting examples of organizations that have been effective in promoting change will assist in preparing students to be effective change agents in nonprofit and research organizations. The black church is but one example. The founders, in freeing religion from governmental control, set in motion a process that would eventually transform government. The separation of church and state freed the church to liberate the state. Nonprofit and research organizations, though apart from government, possess the power to effect change. Students of public affairs exposed to exemplar organizations of change may well be inspired to effect the change that shapes tomorrow’s America. Let us therefore share our (inclusive) history with them.

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FROM SOCIAL EQUITY TO NATIONAL SECURITY:
SHIFTING RATIONALES FOR ENHANCED DIVERSITY IN INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

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Achieving social equity and the full potentials of American democracy have been the twin pillars of programs designed to enhance minority participation in international affairs. Other values behind such programs have been domestic legitimacy and occasionally a recognition of the instrumental value of diversity in the conduct of international diplomacy between the United States and the ancestral homes of hyphenated Americans of color.

Today, a combination of structural, conjunctive, and ideological shifts is redefining the intersections of race and culture with national interest and national security. As a consequence, the traditional rationales of social equity and democratic promise should be superseded by considerations of national interests, including national security, diplomatic effectiveness, and international competitiveness. Professional schools that train the next generation of international affairs experts, and the institutions that hire that next generation, need to be more aware of this shift and should be taking more aggressive steps to enhance minority participation to advance the national security interest. Equity remains important (Svara and Brunet, 2003), but national interest must be brought to the fore.

Structural Shifts

The structural shifts are demographic and economic, and they include the rapidly rising percentage of people of color in the U.S. population and especially their movement into the politically active and economically influential middle classes. (In California, for example, minorities taken together are now a majority of the state’s population). This occurs at a time when U.S. communities are more engaged with the global economy than ever before. In addition to these domestic changes, a parallel shift has occurred as the top tier of leading global eco-
Embracing these long-term structural shifts, the catastrophic terrorist attack of September 11, 2001, seared itself into the awareness of Americans long accustomed to the sense of security provided by two oceans and superpower status. The attacks also launched a national debate over the relevance of religion, culture, and race in the design and conduct of international affairs. The loyalty of Arab Americans and Muslim Americans—not the same things—was called into question, and the oft-heard traditional American debate over divided loyalties, raised also in the case against Chinese-American scientists, was again on the front pages.

A second conjunctive factor was the recent U.S. Supreme Court decision on the University of Michigan’s affirmative action policies, a decision that upheld the principle that institutions may use race as one factor among others in seeking greater diversity in national affairs. The intellectual basis for Justice Sandra Day O’Connor’s majority opinion was not redress for past wrongs. Instead, she accepted the University of Michigan position that diversity is essential to advancing the national interest of all Americans. Enhanced diversity through affirmative action, she claimed, benefits all students—white as well as nonwhite—by educating them in the intercultural, social, and political dynamics of an extremely diverse American population, which requires new skill sets built on shared civility, mutual respect, and willing engagement if the country is to thrive and achieve domestic tranquility.

Third—and related—is the fact that, over the past decades, the public discourse over race and ethnicity has changed substantially, so that redress for past wrongs is proving much less compelling a reason to target resources to achieve diversity, especially for a generation for whom de jure segregation—not to mention slavery—has been consigned to the distant and mostly forgotten past of American history.

These three new conditions should be pressing the community of Americans interested in international affairs to rethink the intersections of race, culture, religion, American national security, and America’s role in the world. As a Congressional panel put the question in September 2002, “Would Americans today feel more secure and comfortable in their homes and places of work, with a diplomatic corps, a military and with intelligence services that truly reflect multi-hued, multi-cultural America, or with personnel services with the experiences, mind-sets and features only of Maine or Kansas?”

Interventions to Advance Diversity in International Affairs

Although there have been some interventions in the recent past to address these shifts, they are certainly insufficient for the near future given the opportunities and the threats before us. Beginning in the mid-1980s, some farsighted educators and foundation executives recognized the accelerating demographic shifts underway and developed programs to expand the recruitment of minorities into all areas of public policy. A few years later, some recognized special recruitment and training challenges for careers in international affairs, and the programs were modified to reflect this heightened recognition. Using a pipeline metaphor of the stages through which individuals are recruited, trained, and hired into international affairs, these innovators identified the blockages to minority career advancement and set out systematically to design programs to expand the volume of people of color moving through the pipeline, and thereby enhance minority participation in international affairs. Virtually every
important institution in the international affairs profession got involved. Early proponents were a few executives at the Sloan Foundation, and people like William Diaz and Shepard Foreman at Ford and Stephanie Bell-Rose at Mellon were early critical supporters. With resources available, the professional schools of public administration, public policy, and international affairs got on board, usually through their deans, agreeing to contribute generous fellowships as well as faculty and administrative time. At the high point, top schools had summer programs—Berkeley, Harvard, Michigan, Princeton, and University of Washington. The professional associations like APSIA and APPAM also joined the initiatives, as did elite foreign policy bodies like the Council on Foreign Relations (Council on Foreign Relations). Eventually, the employers at the other end of the pipeline, like the Departments of State, Commerce, and Agriculture, provided money for fellowships and used the programs to recruit good students on their own. The Department of Education also mobilized new resources for such programs, and in 2003 Congress funded the Rangel Fellowships to help minorities prepare for the Foreign Service exam.

These new commitments resulted in programs that attacked the problem at different points along a professional career. At the front end were programs that recruited students in their sophomore or junior years in college to attend summer institutes and then helped pay for graduate school, like the Public Policy and International Affairs (PPIA), the Woodrow Wilson Foundation programs like the Thomas R. Pickering Foreign Affairs Fellowships, and the Institute for International Public Policy (IIPP), which targets historically black colleges and universities but also recruits more widely. There are also midcareer programs like the International Career Advancement Program (ICAP) based at the University of Denver and led by Tom Rowe. These programs have been hugely successful within the scope of their resources. The number of students who attended some elite graduate programs doubled and tripled. The IIPP has been recruiting twenty students a year—African American, Asian American, and Hispanic—who go through junior and senior institutes. The result is that people of color are much more visible in the State Department, the Peace Corps, and the National Security Council staff, and are much more active and visible in the military and in nonprofit organizations like Care or Catholic Relief Service. Yet as successful as these programs have been, they add only drops of color into what is still a largely white profession. The percentages of people of color at the middle and upper reaches of international affairs professions remains tiny, in the 1 percent to 3 percent range (Goodman). And in spite of the compelling need, and their unambiguous successes, two of the leading programs are being defunded just at the time when America is perhaps realizing that diversity is a national security benefit, not just a do-good exercise. And universities are cutting back as well (Young).

Over the past fifteen to twenty years, several lessons and conclusions have emerged from these various experiments with diversity. Curiously, perhaps, the implications are rarely addressed systematically or in the open, though they bear huge implications for the profession’s ability to deliver on its efficiency and equity promises. These issues of race, ethnicity, and culture are sensitive in the classroom and the workplace and are difficult to talk about honestly. All parties feel some discomfort raising them: when those in authority point to race and foreign affairs, they are concerned about being accused of racial insensitivity or pigeonholing people of color; when the new recruits raise them, they fear being stigmatized or viewed as overly critical, hostile, or ungrateful.

The observations that follow are drawn from twenty years of scholarly research and participant observation in government, think tanks, and the university. I served as the principal Ford Foundation consultant helping to design their program in 1985, and was subsequently involved with four of five similar programs over the years. I have also taught core foreign policy seminars in schools of international and public affairs and served as a senior foreign affairs practitioner in the White House, on a Congressional staff, and in executive agencies. Some
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of the interpretations offered below are also evident in other studies, such as the Report of the Council on Foreign Relations, which observed, for example, that “[i]nsensitivity to other cultures has had negative consequences for foreign policy, yet America’s own cultural diversity has not been adequately used as a resource base to formulate foreign policy” (Council on Foreign Relations, 1997, 25; Wilson, 2003; Wilson, 1994).

Social Conditions Produce Unique Minority Views on Foreign Affairs

Over the past two decades plus, it has become increasingly clear that the attitudes and policy preferences of people of color can differ along important dimensions from the traditional white foreign service officer, corporate manager, or nonprofit executive. These attitudes reflect, I argue, past and current societal realities in America. If America is to harness the full potential contributions of all its citizens, then it is imperative to recognize these societal differences and the different attitudes they provoke. Indeed, I will argue that, in some areas, the attitudes of traditionally excluded citizens are more in line with current global realities than are the conventional, high policy perspectives of the traditionalists.

What are these unique societal conditions? In essence, African Americans, Hispanics, and many Asians come from backgrounds where their families are more likely to be at the bottom of the American social pyramid than the top; where they and their families have traditionally been on the outside of dominant American institutions, historically excluded and marginalized from Harvard and Stanford, the Council on Foreign Relations, or the Aspen Institute. Third, they come from cultural backgrounds quite different from European culture—Latin America, Africa, the Caribbean, Asia—with different normative and value preferences. They look back toward Delhi or Lagos, or Dublin or London.

The consequences of these differences have direct impacts on the design and implementation of American foreign policy and on dynamics in the classroom, and should be introduced into the curriculum. Let me be clear. I am not claiming that all minorities hold one set of values on every issue, and all others another. Certainly many people of Euro-American backgrounds share these perspectives too; and many minority individuals hold traditionalist foreign policy views. I simply claim that, of 100 individuals from minority communities and backgrounds, a higher percentage is more likely than their white counterparts to share certain foreign affairs attitudes. Of course, it is also the case that many surveys indicate that, on many important, foundational issues of foreign policy, minority and majority views are rather close to one another (Lindsay). But on some dimensions they do differ in the following ways.

First, individuals from communities of color are more likely to identify regions in the developing world as worthy of serious U.S. attention, and do not define U.S. interests as centered solely on Europe. Second, the topics that interest them are not only arms control and formal diplomacy; they are more likely to be as interested in human rights, trade, and economic and political development. This is hardly surprising. Nor is it totally a surprise that their definitions of the relevant elites with whom U.S. foreign policy leaders should interact regularly is much broader—not only their immediate counterparts in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, but more popular grass roots elements in civil society, the media, and nonprofit sectors. As a whole, minorities are likely to have somewhat greater sensitivities to cultural differences and respect for local cultures, all too often seen through traditional American eyes as occupying the same excluded, marginalized, bottom-of-the-pyramid position as black or brown communities in America. Finally, all things considered, people of color in the United States are somewhat more likely to resonate to the plight of the underdog in societies. On the heels of 9/11, and the other global shifts described above, these are precisely the kinds of correctives that need to be adopted by all members of America’s international services, whatever their backgrounds. The capacity to redefine America’s national interests through a more sophisticated recognition of American interests in nontraditional regions and policy areas, while maintaining and enhancing core national values, should be
absolutely required for recruitment and advancement through the ranks of today’s international services, whether diplomatic, intelligence, or military. A multicultural service with multiple language skills, cultural perspectives, and actual experiences living among people of other cultures will be better able to understand and influence the world than those from monocultural backgrounds who cannot speak another language and who cannot interpret customs and political dynamics as intuitively. The challenge for America is two-pronged—to recruit and train more minorities into the services, and simultaneously to enhance programs to train all recruits, white and nonwhite, in the finer points of respectful and attentive intercultural, interfaith, international diplomacy. These perspectives then must be meshed with the traditional military and security elements of a national security strategy, a task that will be very challenging for all parties. But the need for a new national conversation on merging traditional and “new” perspectives is the topic of another essay.

Four Next Steps

If my analysis is accurate, then what can be done to advance America’s national interests in an increasingly multicultural, dynamic, and complicated global system? Let me suggest four initial steps.

1. The leaders of America’s international services—governmental, nonprofit, private, and others—must define greater diversity in their ranks as, in the words of the military, mission critical. Superior performance is impossible without greater diversity of skills and perspectives.

2. Funders should maintain and enhance existing diversity programs that advance American national security and national interests. Programs with proven efficiency and effectiveness like IIPP, Rangel Fellows, PPIA, and Woodrow Wilson/FAF must not be reduced or eliminated. On the contrary, programs that advance diversity effectively should be maintained and expanded.

3. Third, America in general and the leaders of the foreign affairs community in particular must begin more open and honest discussions over the multiple intersections of domestic diversity, national interests, and international affairs among all the existing players in the international affairs pipeline. Notions of equity and democracy should not be tossed aside; along with legitimacy, social equity remains an important goal of international affairs program. However, we need to expand the discussion from a near-exclusive focus on equity to emphasize national interests like national security and global competition.

4. Finally, schools of public administration, public policy, and international affairs should take the lead in advancing this national discourse. Their deans and senior professors must be more personally engaged with the subject, teaching it in their classes, introducing it into their core required curriculum, not just into ghettoized electives. Schools should expand their scope and press diversity and the national interest more directly with the employers who hire their students, working downstream to agencies, corporations, and nonprofits to sensitize them to these new structural and conjunctive imperatives, and back upstream to colleges and perhaps even to secondary school programs. These are issues of national security, the efficiency of international trade, and the effectiveness of American bilateral and multilateral diplomacy. In a world where powerful players, both nonstate and state, come from such a wide variety of religions, cultures, and races, can we afford not to draw on all our national assets to advance the national interest of all Americans? We need Americans of all backgrounds who can, in the vernacular, literally talk the talk and walk the walk.

Author’s note: I wish to thank Mark H. Chichester and Richard O. Hope for their comments on earlier drafts of this essay. I alone am responsible for any errors of fact or judgment.

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PREPARING MPA STUDENTS FOR THE PUBLIC INTEREST WORKPLACE
Jocelyn Frye
Director of Legal and Public Policy
National Partnership for Women and Families

The National Partnership for Women and Families is a national advocacy group, founded in 1971 as the Women’s Legal Defense Fund. We are a national advocacy group developed to work on a range of issues that affect women and their families, to ensure equal opportunity in the workplace, to help women and men balance their work and family obligations, and to promote greater access to quality healthcare.

This symposium asked us to consider how well public affairs programs are preparing students to engage in social equity research. As an advocate who will be working with the students your institutions produce, I bring a different perspective to that question. For me, the question is simply, What is it that I need from your students if they are going to be effective in the organization where I work? I want to suggest several points that I believe should be essential priorities in helping students prepare for the public interest workplace.

First, I need students who recognize that social equity issues—whether they involve race or gender or any other factor—are integral to gaining a full understanding of public policy concerns. Consider two issues that I work on: affirmative action and welfare reform. It is not uncommon for requests to come to me to speak on a panel and “add the race piece on welfare” or “add the gender piece on affirmative action.” Although I always am willing to discuss these issues, such requests are a reminder that race or gender too often are viewed as add-ons to different policy discussions. From my perspective, analyzing the equity implications of particular policies, such as a welfare policy’s potential impact on a racial or ethnic community, is a central part of a comprehensive approach to policy development.

Thus, I need students who understand that equity issues are not mere add-ons, but rather are at the core of any policy analysis that we do. Moreover, it is also important for students to learn how to develop a more sophisticated understanding of equity, with the ability to move beyond viewing such issues as narrow, singular concepts. Social equity issues frequently have intersectional implication; rather than simply raising a question about race or a question about gender, sometimes an equity concern arises because of attitudes linked to race and gender. Thus, understanding the connections between race and gender can lead to a very different analysis and policy outcome than if you limit your analysis to just one factor. When you evaluate different welfare policies, for example, alongside the rhetoric and stereotypes about welfare clients, it becomes clear that too often policies are fueled by perceptions linked not simply to the fact that clients are disproportionately from minority communities, or that they are disproportionately female, but rather because they are both minority and female. The combined factors of race, ethnicity, and gender together generate a distinct set of attitudes about who welfare clients are and how they conduct themselves. If students do not appreciate the multilayered nature of many equity issues, then they will not be able to help me accomplish the work of the organization. So, as a threshold matter, it is important that students have
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the capacity to understand that race, ethnicity, and gender are central to the analysis of public policy issues on the table. That is the first point.

Second, it is critical that students are able to balance the practical and the theoretical. We need students who can dream about what is possible but who also have the capacity and the ability to understand what is doable. It is not unusual for me to receive a student resume that details a course of study, or list of courses, with broad conceptual descriptions or names such as equality or justice. Obviously these are important concepts, but it provides me with no concrete understanding of what the student has really learned. I have no way of knowing how these broad concepts being discussed in the academic setting will translate as a practical matter into the workplace. I think of my own law school experience, where too often we discussed theory largely divorced from reality. We debated what constituted reasonable cause for a search and seizure, for example, from a theoretical perspective without sufficiently analyzing the role that race might have played in the decision. But the theoretical analysis of what is reasonable may be irrelevant if it ignores the reality that other factors, such as race, can influence how the theory operates in practice. It is not that theory has no value; it is essential and critical. But theory must be juxtaposed against the reality in which we work. I need students who have the capacity to do both: who understand that there are practical realities that affect how policies actually operate, and there are theories behind the policies we develop. Students must be able to distinguish between what is happening in the classroom and what is happening in the real world. Both are invaluable experiences, but I need students who can shift between both universes.

The third point: we need students with the creativity to pursue research with public policy relevance. As a general matter, there are not enough connections and collaborations between researchers and advocates. For example, the reality is that, despite the millions of dollars allocated to welfare research since 1996, only a handful of studies have even scratched the surface in evaluating potential racial and ethnic disparities in the types of services that welfare clients receive (Gooden, 2000; Applied Research Center, cite). But from an advocacy perspective, those are precisely the data and analyses I need to evaluate the potential civil rights impact of recent welfare program changes and to identify possible remedies to discrimination problems. Thus, when I say that I need research with public policy relevance, what I really mean is that I need research that is connected to the current issues on the table. It is critical for student researchers to think about the relevance of their work, why it is important, and how it is connected to current public policy debates. In short, they should ask themselves, is it usable, is it accessible, is it relevant?

Fourth, it is important that students have a good understanding of the public interest institutions they are being urged to join. Public interest work is very rewarding and energizing, and the public interest community is composed of advocates and organizations that are dedicated, motivated, and even at times inspirational. But there are always pluses and minuses with the professional choices that we make. The public interest community is more diverse than many other work environments, but yet there is still much work to do to foster greater diversity. There are many excellent organizations, talented advocates, and strong coalitions, but there also can be competition between groups and disagreements about strategy and goals. Students may have idyllic expectations and assume that, because it is the public interest community, each individual they encounter will come to the table with the right attitude, perspective, and ideas. Students may expect to avoid politics as well as issues of advancement and glass ceiling barriers. But students, in fact, may confront some of the very same barriers found in corporate settings. It is important for students to be prepared for that dynamic when they walk in the door and have a realistic understanding of the institutions they will be joining. Further, if students are committed to working on social equity issues, they must be prepared to face possible resistance. Not everyone is sensitive to incorporating issues of race, gender, and/or ethnicity into broader policy discussions.
Students must be resilient and committed if they want equity issues to be a core part of their work; it is that very commitment that will help ensure the development of effective, meaningful policy changes.

Fifth, in terms of basic skills, we need students who are critical thinkers and who are strong writers, with the ability to write in a way that is accessible for the average person. I place a particularly high value on students who read carefully and pay attention to language, for example, when reviewing legislation, rules, or proposals. In many cases, the racial or ethnic impact of a law is not immediately apparent. Students must be able to read language closely enough to have a clear understanding of how a law or rule is supposed to work, and then employ the critical thinking skills necessary to analyze the potential effects of the language in a thoughtful manner. Thus, for me, a student who can review legislation and other official documents closely and carefully with an eye toward understanding their broader implications is essential.

Last, we still always need students who are truly committed to social change and who have leadership capabilities. Even though many public interest organizations in principle are committed to change, too often we continue to do things the same way we have been doing them for a very long time. It is important to have students with fresh ideas who can push the envelope and energize our communities to think critically about what we are doing well and not doing well. Students can provide the impetus to try new strategies and new ideas. It is this energy and enthusiasm that is critical to the continued vitality and growth of all of our most cherished institutions.

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Training Students in Racial Analysis Techniques: An Unmet Need
William Spriggs, Executive Director
National Urban League Institute for Opportunity and Equality

The National Urban League (NUL) is the nation’s oldest and largest community-based organization dedicated to moving African-Americans to the economic mainstream. At over ninety-two years old, we have well over one hundred affiliates in thirty-four states, including the District of Columbia. A core component of our mission is that research drives our program. So the League has been at it for a long time. I want to talk about what I look for in the people we have been recruiting for our institute, but also more broadly in terms of what is needed for public policy education: an understanding that racial equity analysis is a valid area of public policy analysis.

One of the big problems is that we have not created a structure for academics to view racial equality as a goal for public policy to achieve. For that reason, a lot of students have been shaped into believing that this kind of research is not objective. Other policy research focused on efficiency or effectiveness outcomes warrants valid, objective study. However, equity work is somehow in a different category. In both instances, the sword cuts both ways. A critical challenge is for policy programs to seriously think through how we evaluate public policy and what we think is a fair outcome for public policy. Policymakers, educators, researchers, and students need to understand that this is clearly part of what ought to be within a public policy analysis exercise. Ideally this should be essential to public policy training, because it is really through the public policy arena that race itself becomes real.

Race is not a real thing. We know it is not biologically real, we know it has no genetic meaning to it. It only has meaning because it has a public policy reality in this country. America created a whole set of individuals who could and could not have access to the goods and services of this country. America decided who would be second class. We chose an arbitrary standard of what that would be. We piggy-backed on those who are clearly identifiable with
those who might have been or were, in fact, slaves at some point. Now, having said that race and racial equity have to be accepted as legitimate primary areas of public policy research, there are a number of ways in which that can be done.

First, we have to abandon the notion that a policy that does not mention race is a race-neutral policy. This simply an unwarranted and likely false assumption. The nation is so racialized that any policy that does not mention race is very likely to exacerbate racial differences.

Second, we cannot assume that antidiscrimination legislation equals antidiscrimination policy implementation. We cannot assume a mysterious level of enforcement on the ground level. Public policy analysis far too often assumes that, because antidiscriminatory policies are in place, we do not have to analyze our managerial procedures and processes, which can be a rampant carrier of social inequities and discriminatory treatment. Given the quality and capacity of information technology and monitoring systems in public sector organizations, our lack of research in this area is another great policy analysis failure that routinely occurs.

For example, we have racial profiling problems in law enforcement. But it does not stop with the police department. It permeates many other areas of social policy. The NUL has done research on unemployment insurance systems as well. In job training, our research has noted that administrative discrimination occurs; in Medicaid and Medicare, where people have access to public health, we see racial disparities in the types of treatment people receive (Smedley, Stith, and Nelson, 2003; National Urban League, 2002). These are illustrative examples relating to the failure of a data system designed to collect and monitor data on racial disparity outcomes.

I'll give an example of macroeconomic policy as well. We have a tax code that presumably is race neutral. After all, it never mentions race, and so often when I talk about tax policy and race, people want to say: “But, you know it affects everybody at the same income the same way, so it can’t have anything to do with race.” Well, sources of income are not distributed equally, so it doesn’t affect race in a neutral way. Ownership of assets doesn’t occur in a race neutral way. So, when our tax policy allows you to deduct interest on loans that are secured by your home, but we’re going to disallow interest that is not secured by your home, and 78 percent of whites own homes and 49 percent of blacks and 49 percent of Hispanics own homes, we are not race neutral.

When you have the Federal Reserve determine that one of its key tools in rejuvenating the economy is to lower interest rates, its primary effect is that companies and individuals can restructure their debt. Well, if you are a homeowner, you have been running out and restructuring your home debt. If I took a poll, I’m sure I would find that almost all of you have refinanced and gotten lower mortgage rates on your homes—on top of which, the data from the Survey of Consumer Finance clearly points out that whites have been restructuring their debt. They have been moving away from credit card and installment debt and restructuring their debt by getting cash back out of their homes’ equity and changing their debt structure. As a group, white are moving their debt to a tax-deductible way of refinancing themselves. Whereas, in the African American and Hispanic community, you have a lower home ownership rate, making restructuring of debt less common. Myers’ research on credit scoring found that many of those 49 percent of African American and Hispanic homeowners cannot refinance at the lower rates anyway (Myers, 1995). If they do refinance, many of them will have to pay some sort of private mortgage insurance, which is not tax deductible. So that whole tax structure ends up not being race-neutral in terms of outcome. In fact, it drives racial disparity. Even though on the face of it you look at tax policy and say: “What is the issue here? Why should the NUL raise tax policy as a civil rights issue?” Why? Because it drives racial disparities and makes the disparities worse during times of economic downturn.

Let’s turn our attention to health care. A third of African-Americans and a third of Hispanics get their health care through Medicaid. When you examine state budgets and realize that 20 percent of the state budget goes to Medicaid, and states are now strapped for funds, having the worst financial time
they have ever had in the post-war period, you then realize that states will have to cut Medicaid. So a policy on the part of the federal government that says we won’t bail out the states means that you are putting at jeopardy the way that a disproportionate share of minorities in this country have access to health care. It is not race-neutral. It doesn’t have a race-neutral outcome.

These are a few of many examples that underscore the need for public policy programs to train students in racial analysis public policy techniques. The first key is to have students to understand that, because race is a public policy creation, it is a fair assignment to examine these type of disparities. In fact, not only is it a fair and objective assignment, but it should be the top priority, because the only way we are going to undo the creation of race as a public policy creation is to make sure that public policies have not only race-neutral inputs, but race-neutral outputs. When public administration and policy programs make these changes in their curricula, it will be far easier to recruit individuals who know how to do race-focused public policy research. Examining race in public policy analysis does not equate to people putting their thumb on the scale or being biased in doing their research. Rather, it will remove racial blinders for much of the public policy research techniques we teach our students. And that is a greatly needed sea change in public administration, public affairs, and public policy education.

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RECRUITMENT OF ADVOCACY RESEARCHERS
Gary Delgado, Executive Director
Applied Research Center

As director of the Applied Research Center, a public policy education and research institute that emphasizes issues of race and social change, the work I do focuses on creating research materials that are accessible to a broad audience. But my background combines social activism and research. My activism includes working as an organizer with the National Welfare Rights Organization, as one of the initial organizers of the Association of Community Organizations for Reform Now (ACORN), and as a cofounder of the Center for Third World Organizing, a national training center for young people of color interested in becoming labor or community organizers. I was trained as a researcher at the University of California at Berkeley in what was then called grounded theory—the notion that the people involved in social action have the ability to define their own actions. In my work at the Applied Research Center, I’ve attempted to blend the skills of organizing and research into an approach we call “advocacy research.” Borrowing from the conservative movement’s notion of “Intellectual Ammunition”—the title of a glossy magazine published by the right-wing Heartland Institute—we’ve attempted to create “data bullets,” materials that can organizations interested in advancing racial equity can use.

Before discussing the skills, talents, and qualities we’d like to see in newly recruited researchers, I’d like to describe our work in a little more detail, both how we frame the work and how framing shapes specific research projects. Because we see research as integrally related to advocacy, ARC’s advocacy research work is organized around the following five elements:

- Results. What results do you want your research/advocacy to achieve? Results are not only direct material gains or policy wins. They also include the ability to shift public debate, involve new constituencies, or create new methods to deliver messages. However, in order to achieve results, it is important to know who
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has the power to make key decisions, who potential allies are, who key opponents are, and under what conditions they may be susceptible to change their position.

• Audience. Who, specifically, is your research attempting to reach and influence? What is the best way to reach them?

• Messages and messengers. Different audiences will be swayed by different messages—often different formulations of the same data. However, while the same messages may work on slightly different audiences, they’ll work even better if the messenger is one who has the rapport and respect of that constituency.

• Presentation. Research may be presented as a report, a book, an ad, a speech, or a PowerPoint presentation. It may be woven into interactive training sessions. The ideas can be turned into posters or cartoons. Information may be turned into skits for middle schools. Key messengers can take the message to the radio. Religious publications and ethnic press may use data bullets in the form of op-eds or short pieces. We try to figure out the best ways to get to an audience, then try to reach them two or three ways with the same message.

• Signs of success. What are some benchmarks that indicate success in achieving the results we’ve articulated for the project? We need to assess them rigorously.

These elements frame our work. What have been the results of this approach? First I’ll describe how we used this framework in two studies, and then describe the kinds of researchers we’d like to recruit to work with us.

The first study, “Cruel and Usual: How Welfare Reform Punishes Poor People,” published in 2001, actually had three audiences. The first was women who, as recipients of cash assistance, were being steered into work activities. After the new welfare law had passed, there were many instances in which women were treated quite badly. However, because their experience was individualized, many of them felt isolated as well as stigmatized because they were receiving public assistance. In order to address this constituency, we designed a participatory research project. Members of welfare rights organizations in fourteen cities were recruited to work with ARC staff to develop a survey instrument and to conduct 1,500 interviews with their peers. We also worked with each of the groups to interpret the data. Our findings in this study were as follows:

• While welfare reform had cut the rolls by more than half, it had done little to lift people out of poverty.

• Devolution, the new version of “states’ rights,” has greatly exacerbated the arbitrariness of the welfare system.

• There is strong evidence of discrimination with respect to gender, race, language, and country of origin. The findings were documented with survey data that demonstrated that many people’s medical benefits were incorrectly terminated when they stopped receiving welfare cash benefits, that one woman in six had experienced sexual harassment in her work activity, and that a significantly higher percentage of people of color than of white respondents were required to perform workfare (i.e., to work not for wages, but for a welfare check.)  “Cruel and Usual” helped to collectivize the experiences of women in the program. It also helped prod our second audience—other researchers—to deepen their analysis of the success of welfare reform. The study was released with local hooks in five cities, by local groups in collaboration with ARC to our third audience—print media.

A second study, “Mapping the Immigrant Infrastructure,” published in the spring of 2002, developed a typology of immigrant and refugee organizations in the United States, explored the impact of post-9/11 policies and procedures in the immigrant and refugee communities, and developed specific recommendations for grantmakers to expand the capacity of immigrant and refugee groups. This study involved interviews with eighty-seven organizations in four languages, focus groups with key leaders, and
the compilation of six analytical case studies in four cities. While pointing to the immediate dangers of post-9/11 racial profiling and the need for coalition-building between immigrant communities and established resident communities of color, the report also highlighted the tremendous depth and ingenuity in immigrant and refugee communities and the need for grantmakers to support immigrants’ rights groups to conduct public policy advocacy. The report was released at a meeting of a foundation affinity group on immigrant and refugee issues, and a slide show production of key findings was presented to four national foundations, two regional gatherings of grantmakers, and two national meetings of immigrant and refugee rights organizations. The skills needed to conduct these studies are the same skills we look for in new researchers.

First, we seek people who have both the comfort level and the skill to work in communities of color. Researchers must not only be able to conduct an interview or assess an organization, they must also understand nuance and be able to convey political context. If you work with people who are under the gun, you have to be able to describe the gun. These qualities are more than cultural competence or diversity. My staff is majority people of color. We are very diverse. We have immigrants on staff, we have African Americans, African Carribeans, Asians Americans, Latinos and Native Americans. One of the things we pretty immediately have to get people to understand is that the fact that you are African American or Korean does not mean that, if you work as a researcher for ARC, the only people you get to talk with are people who look and speak like you do. For us, cultural diversity means everybody has to work at understanding the nuances in different cultures. Researchers must be able to withstand the justifiable suspicion of outsiders that we encountered on the welfare study. In the immigrant study, researchers needed be both patient and respectful when they were working through traditional familial structures in order to gain access to interviewees.

Second, if people are going to work in organizations that support social movements, it would help if they actually knew something about social movements. At ARC, in addition to understanding social justice work, it is necessary to understand the history, key issues, and current debates within the racial justice movement. Not just race theory; they also have to understand the social movement work that is connected to making racial justice. Our work at ARC grows out of a deep connection with community organizing, so it helps if people know what a power analysis is—not just the macro analysis of who has the power in the world, but who has the power in a particular situation to make a change. A power analysis can determine both the primary audience for your research and who your key messengers are.

Third, people have to be good writers. By good writers, we don’t mean people who can do a good paper. Currently there are three kinds of people we hire at ARC. We get people who have a graduate degree, usually in public policy or the social sciences. We get activists who can write. And we get journalists. Of the three types, the most difficult to train are those with academic degrees. They usually have little on-the-ground experience, lots of opinions, and lack the ability to write for an audience broader than their academic discipline. Activists are usually good with people, but their writing often lacks nuance—it is a little too blatantly advocacy-oriented. Journalists are often the best writers, they are pretty good with people, and most importantly, they write on deadline. But their concern with putting a human face on a piece of research sometimes misses the broader political context. So, we need people who have an organizer’s passion, the broader perspective of an academic, and the ability of a journalist to write accessibly and produce on deadline.

Finally, the most important skill is actually not a skill at all. It is an attitude. Although we do want people at ARC who are intellectually sharp, frankly, intellectual acumen is fairly easy to come by. We need people who are willing to pitch in and ensure that all the work of the organization moves forward. In an organization like ARC, a job description that says one does quantitative or qualitative research is not quite as accurate in an organization like ours,
which attempts to support social movement work, as it might be in an organization that sees itself strictly as a research institute. Although ARC has offices in Oakland, Chicago, and New York, we are relatively small. We have twenty-five staff people. That means we do everything. I’m the executive director, but sometimes I move the furniture. And, more often than I’d like, I answer the phone. Working in a small nonprofit, one has to be attuned to the fact that people have cross-programmatic relationships. We all pitch in when necessary.

My essential point about the kinds of people we recruit is very simple: Because we conduct research that has as its goal influencing specific audiences, we recruit people who agree with our political perspective, have the skills and talents to conduct fieldwork and assess complicated multicultural and multilingual situations, are able to communicate nuance, complexity, and humanity to a broad audience, and are also willing, when necessary, to empty the garbage.

SOCIAL EQUITY ANALYSIS AND MANAGEMENT: WHAT MPA AND MPP STUDENTS NEED TO KNOW

Susan T. Gooden and Samuel L. Myers, Jr.

Does eliminating pupil tracking provide more equitable educational experiences for students? Is providing a weekly trash collection service equitable when poor, inner-city residents live in close environments without the garbage removal and garbage disposal options frequently available in suburban areas? Does the proposed location for a new library or recreational facility raise social equity concerns? The opportunities for public administrators to consider and address practical social equity questions are seemingly endless. Though these questions may be challenging, they should not be optional—especially for public administrators. As H. George Frederickson reminds us, “Social equity emphasizes responsibility for decisions and program implementation for program managers” (Frederickson, 1999, 228). Put simply, individual managers are obligated to perform some sort of social equity analysis as they develop, design, and implement public programs.

Are our MPA and MPP graduates prepared for this task? To consider this question, we asked four current and former public administrators to discuss the social equity issues they routinely confront and how well prepared recent graduates are to analyze these issues. Their comments suggest that, although public administration and public policy education is very valuable, there is still considerable work for us to do in preparing our students to do social equity analysis.

The Concept of Social Equity

The National Academy of Public Administration’s Standing Panel on Social Equity defines social equity in public administration as “[t]he fair, just and equitable management of all institutions serving the public directly or by contact, and the fair, just and equitable distribution of public services, and implementation of public policy” (National Academy of Public Administration, 2000, 11). Though the concept is fairly straightforward, its implementation in practice is quite complex: “Just as we have learned over time that the principles of efficiency and economy in public administration are not simple, we also have learned that social equity is not simple. Equality is not one thing upon which we all agree. And yet, there is no disagreement regarding the centrality of equality in American public life and the transcendent importance attached to it by the American people. The actual day-to-day work of public administration often involves patterns of reconciliation between social equity concepts” (National Academy of Public Administration, 2000, 15).

We use the term “social equity analysis” to mean examining ways to distribute a limited amount of goods or services. In Deborah Stone’s fictional chocolate cake distribution, there are at least eight ways to distribute the cake, each resulting in very different outcomes for potential recipients. Though Stone was concerned with political decision-making, these equity concerns can readily be extended to public administrators who confront equity concerns among and between individual citizens, hierarchical
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segments, or citizen groups. Hence, it is not difficult for public administrators to understand the concept of social equity or to accept our social equity obligation. Rather, we are missing a social equity analysis process to govern our decision-making.

To begin to develop such a process, we asked four former and current public administrators, with considerable expertise in performing social equity analysis, to assess how well or poorly MPA or MPP programs are doing in preparing students to do this work. We also solicited their suggestions for improving students’ skills in this area. The public administrators we interviewed are Sharon Sayles Belton, former mayor of Minneapolis; Lloyd Blanchard, senior advisor for financial management, National Aeronautics and Space Administration; Major Riddick, former chief of staff to Maryland Governor Parris N. Glendening; and Yvonne Pena, director of the City of Durham (North Carolina) human relations department. The broad experiences of the administrators span multiple federal, state, and local agencies, across diverse geographical contexts and organizational structures. We do not intend to provide a scientific, generalizable assessment of core ingredients in performing social equity analysis. Rather, we identify informed suggestions that might be useful for educators who want to develop or enhance the social equity analysis skills of their students.

Ways to Promote Social Equity Analysis

Provide a historical grounding. In order for students to better understand the dynamic dimensions of contemporary social equity issues, it would be helpful for students to have a greater understanding of historical patterns of inequity. Pena says that “[a] good core course for every student would be a history class centered on the evolution of the racial/class/cultural tensions that currently exist in America today. If the students can understand why people think, feel, and act the way they do, they will be able to address problems of social equity more successfully” (Interview, 2004).

Students could be required to research the historical development of a policy area, with a particular emphasis on identifying inequitable patterns. Analyzing policy patterns over a hundred-year trend can provide important historical grounding and provide a better context for understanding the evolution of contemporary concerns.

Analyze an expanded range of policy areas. Some students engage in very limited social equity analysis. They may only engage in such thought processes when topics such as affirmative action or environmental justice are being examined. But social equity issues span nearly all public policies. Blanchard points out that “[a]ll issues of government are issues of social equity, because it is usually the main justification for government intervention in the first place” (Interview, 2004). Because public policy appropriately considers the distribution of limited resources, social equity concerns are relevant. Riddick identified a broad range of policy areas including “education, housing, economic development, minority business [enterprises], environment, transportation, health, and social services” (Interview, 2004). Public administrators discussed the need for classroom instruction to focus directly on social equity issues; Blanchard pointed out that “[s]ome quantitative courses use social equity questions as examples to demonstrate methodologies, but rarely with a focus on social equity alone” (Interview, 2004).

Acquire significant community knowledge and interaction experiences. The public administrators we interviewed emphasized the need for students to understand the communities they are serving. To obtain this community knowledge, our interviewees emphasized the need for excellent communication skills. As Pena explained, “Communication skills are of the utmost importance when it comes to dealing with social equity concerns. A person...must be able to communicate, both orally and in writing to citizens. They must also have excellent listening skills so that they can understand the citizen’s concerns. The ability to explain why a specific decision was made in each case and provide backup information that supports their decision is a key component in dealing with social equity issues” (Interview, 2004).

To revisit Stone’s chocolate cake dilemma, once the method to divide the cake has been decided, the
decision must be communicated, justified, and revisited. As public administrators we should be concerned when the method of distribution results in a predictable pattern of cake receipt. Processes that continuously yield the same set of winners and losers should be subject to heavy scrutiny.

Some administrators pointed to internships as an effective way to acquire social equity analysis skills: “Another key program would be to evaluate each student and provide him or her with an internship in a community that is very different from their background. For example, a student who grew up in the city could have an internship with a suburban or agricultural community that would involve issues and people they are not that familiar with. The key is to take the students out of their comfort zone and expose them to new situations and new issues” (Pena Interview, 2004). This will allow students to better understand the effects of social equity issues.

Belton expressed the need for longer-term community interactions: “I have no doubt that they (students with MPA or MPP degrees) are proficient in researching and assessing. I don’t know whether they know how to apply that analysis to the communities or in the communities in which they’re working because I don’t know what level of experience they have in doing this…. Ideally, that could be in place throughout the entire graduate school experience so that you come in the door assigned to work with some local unit of government, be it education, municipal, state, legislative, local county, or state government” (Interview, 2004). Administrators also cautioned that individuals who cannot work with diverse communities face significant career limitations. Belton said he refers to such individuals as “house technocrats—people who had proficiency in the technical skills of public policy but who had no skills in translating this to the community” (Interview, 2004).

Provide additional faculty preparation. The skills we teach are a direct reflection of the skills we have acquired. Many public administration and public policy faculty have not engaged in social equity analysis. We do not routinely think in social equity terms or encourage our students to do so. “My expectations were always low in this area (social equity analysis) because even the high-priced tenured faculty would pause before considering themselves social equity experts,” Blanchard said. “Until faculty in general become such experts, there will always be disappointment in this area” (Interview, 2004).

Administrators further commented on the need for faculty to become more comfortable with social equity conflict: “Public administration/policy students are fairly well prepared to think through and analyze social equity concerns. However, often times, issues of discrimination and disparity are often not addressed head on in order to avoid discomfort in the classroom” (Riddick Interview, 2004). Neglecting to address these topics in the classroom can leave students ill-prepared to deal with social equity conflicts in the real world and unable to recognize the positive aspects of conflict. Belton said, “I am particularly looking for people who are able to articulate their ideas and perspectives clearly and are especially able to do that in a hostile environment…. I need to have people who are interested in understanding controversy but able to see the greater good, and to face and embrace controversy for the greater good” (Interview, 2004).

Recruit and enroll a diverse group of students. Public administrators saw a clear relationship between having a diverse group of students in the classroom and the likelihood of engaging in more social equity analysis. “Colleges and universities are becoming more inclusive in their acceptance rates, thereby at least creating a forum where health dialogues can be held,” Riddick noted. “However, until issues are examined for differing perspectives, we will never reach our potential to attain social equity. If we engage only in discussions with our own kind, whatever the kind, we promote one-sided views and limit the solution finding process” (Interview, 2004).

The advice offered by these public administrators provides a useful way to enhance MPA and MPP students’ social equity analysis experiences. Identified as the third pillar of public administration, social equity needs to be incorporated into policy analysis at the same level as efficiency and economy.
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should be a pervasive concern that receives reflexive examination. Public administrators regularly consider social equity implications, but it is unclear how well MPA and MPP programs prepare students for this task. Frederickson conveyed the concern succinctly when he wrote, “It will always be the task of public servants to balance the needs for efficiency, economy, and social equity—but there can be no balance if public servants understand only the complexities of economy and efficiency but cannot plumb the details of fairness and equality (Frederickson, 1990, 235). We hope that the suggestions we present offer useful ideas to improve the social equity analysis exposure we provide to our students.

REFERENCES
People in Public Affairs

**Bob Denhardt** of Arizona State University has been awarded the ASPA Dwight Waldo Award, given to a scholar who has made “outstanding contributions to the professional literature of public administration over an extended career.” **Joe Cayer** was awarded the Paul Van Riper Award this year, given for “significant contributions to both the academic and practitioner communities of public administration.” Awardes have distinguished themselves through their current active engagement in and contributions to developing the public service of the future.

**Gerald Andrews Emison** has joined the political science faculty at Mississippi State University to teach public management and environmental policy. Previously Emison served in the senior executive service of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency and held adjunct faculty appointments at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill and Duke University.

California State University Hayward has welcomed a new faculty member, **Toni Fogarty**. She serves as an assistant professor in the Healthcare Administration Program in the Department of Public Administration. Fogarty previously held faculty positions at San Jose State University, the University of San Francisco, and Golden Gate University, where she taught courses in healthcare administration and organizational development. She has a wide range of research interests, including assessment and quality control of urinary incontinence care in long-term nursing facilities, use of chemical and physical restraints for residents with dementia, long-term nursing facilities, issues in providing care for patients with HIV/AIDS in nursing facilities, and the cost implications of implementing the clinical guidelines for prevention and early treatment of pressure ulcers. Recently, she has turned her attention to risk management, business continuity planning, and the use of instructional technology, especially in the virtual classroom. Fogarty received her doctoral degree in 1990 and received a MA in Experimental Psychology from Middle Tennessee State University (MTSU) in 1988.

**Randall Miller** joined the MPA faculty at Augusta State University this year. Miller is a graduate of University of Illinois, Springfield, and brings with him municipal-level experience in emergency management, human resource management, and budgeting. Miller’s research interests are in emergency management and leadership.

Ohio University has a new assistant professor, **Jay Eungha Ryu**, whose doctorate in public administration and policy is from the University of Georgia. Prior to his arrival at Ohio University, Ryu was a research assistant in the Department of Public Administration of Policy at the School of Public and International Affairs at the University of Georgia, where he also served as a graduate research assistant in the Carl Vinson Institute of Government. In addition, he has also been vice director of the office for a member of the Korean National Assembly and director of the center for civil petitions in the office. He is teaching public budgeting and finance, and public management, to MPA students.

Memorials

NASPAA notes with sadness the passing of **Raymond Shapek**, retired Professor Emeritus of Public Administration at the University of Central Florida. Shapek began his career with thirteen years in the Air Force. After earning an M.P.A. and Ph.D. in public administration from the University of Colorado, he began a thirty-two-year academic career that included a professorship at the University of Central Florida, as well as positions with the U.S. Civil Service Commission, the National Science Foundation, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, the City of Austin, Texas, and state agencies in Florida. He was also active internationally, helping to implement an M.P.A program at the College of the Virgin Islands, create a B.A./M.P.A. program at the University of Sofia in Bulgaria, and train state officials from Poland through USIA. During his career he published three books and scores of articles and conducted numerous workshops on public administration topics. Professor Shapek’s service included the editorial boards of five professional journals, the Florida Board of Regents.
representative to the Advisory Board for the Florida Center for Solid and Hazardous Waste Management, and the Florida City and County Manager’s Association. He not only loved his career in academics and public administration, but he was also an avid gardener, landscaper, mason, stained glass artist, and novelist. He was an eighteen-year resident of Chuluota, Florida, with his wife, Laurie Rasmussen-Shapek. He was a frequent and enthusiastic participant in NASPAA activities.

NASPAA also notes with regret the February 18, 2004, passing of Marshall R. Singer, professor emeritus of the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs at the University of Pittsburgh. Dr. Singer came to Pittsburgh in 1964 as a professor at GSPIA, a position he held until his retirement in 1998. He directed GSPIA’s International Affairs program from 1987-1990 and the International Corporate Environment Initiative from 1987-1989. Professor Singer specialized in international political analysis, particularly in the developing world and on the relations between weak and powerful states; and in intercultural communication, a field he helped develop. He helped to found the Society for Intercultural Education, Training, and Research. Also an activist and philanthropist, Dr. Singer was founder and former president of the board of TRI-PAC, the first gay PAC for Western Pennsylvania, Eastern Ohio, and Northern West Virginia. Friends and colleagues may wish to sign the guest book at www.caringbridge.org/dc/marshallsinger/. The family requests that memorial contributions be made to MetroTeenAIDS (information at www.metroteenaids.org).

Programs and Conferences

The University of Colorado’s Graduate School of Public Affairs has launched a new national format for its MPA Program on Domestic Violence. The new format requires 24 credit hours online, with the remaining 12 credits taken as five week-long intensive stays at CU-Denver. Instruction is based on a cohort model. Intensive courses focus on domestic violence issues and nonprofit organization management and feature skill-building and leadership activities.

The University of San Francisco has extended its provision of the Master of Nonprofit Administration program to USF’s regional campuses at Santa Rosa and Sacramento. This expansion allows more people in these areas to take advantage of the only nonprofit management master’s degree program currently offered in northern California.

Each year at the University of Akron, the department’s two student associations (PAUSSA—Public Administration and Urban Studies Student Association, and DAASPA—Doctoral Association of Arts and Sciences and Public Affairs) hold a banquet and silent auction. In each of the last four years they have given awards to organizations and persons who embody the spirit of service and community engagement. Over those years they have recognized eighteen individuals, ranging from political leaders to local judges to heads of nonprofits, and seven organizations. These nominations come from the community. They also created a lifetime achievement award in honor of a former Congressman from the area (John Seiberling). This year the recipient was a sixteen-term Congressman from the county to the south of Akron, Congressman Ralph Regula. The former Mayor of Cleveland, Michael White, was the keynote speaker, and the silent auction raised nearly $5,000 for the student association.

George Washington University inaugurated its new School of Public Policy and Public Administration (SPPPA) on January 21, 2004. The school’s degree programs, some of which were formerly housed within the School of Business and Public Management and the Columbian College of Arts and Sciences, include a Master of Public Administration, including a J.D./M.P.A. joint degree program; the Master of Public Policy (M.P.P.), including a J.D./M.P.P. joint degree program and M.P.P./Ph.D. in political science dual degree program; and the Ph.D. in public policy and administration. In addition, the SPPPA is affiliated with a number of policy institutes, including GW’s Institute of Public Policy, the Center for Excellence in Municipal Management, the Center for Law Practice Strategy and Management, the Center for Washington Area Studies, and the Center for Innovation in Public Service.

The Fulbright Scholar Program for Faculty and Professionals is offering research, lecturing, and lecturing-research awards to Central and Eastern Europe, the Baltics, and Eurasia in public policy and public administration for academic year 2005-06. These awards offer unique opportunities for specialists in public administration and public policy to assist in the development of new academic programs and in the preparation of new cadres of public officials in the post-Communist era. Grantees may be requested to provide in-service and executive training. Opportunities exist in a broad range of specializations in public administration and policy, including public policy, NGO management, public finance, urban and health administration, and state and local government. For general information about application requirements and staff contacts, visit the CIES Web site at www.cies.org. Application materials can be downloaded from the Web site or requested via email to apprequest@cies.iic.org.
Should Leadership Be in the Core Curriculum?

NASPAA queried member schools about the role that “leadership” plays in their MPP/MPA curriculum, and their views on whether it should be in the core curriculum. Most schools address leadership somewhere in their programs, but its treatment in the core varies significantly across institutions and even within a school because of rotations of teachers and syllabi. Course topics and classroom methodologies differ significantly among programs, and leadership courses seem to be given significant curricular freedom. This may reflect the possibility that a flexible academic approach is valuable to leadership development, or simply imply that there is less consensus on methods for approaching leadership in the curriculum.

One of the most noticeable debates about leadership in the core concerns the differentiation of leadership and management. The key questions are whether these topics can—and should—be academically separated, and whether an undifferentiated course in management (perhaps including elements of leadership) provides an adequate leadership background for the M.P.P./M.P.A. graduate. While some schools have distinguished leadership from management in their core, others provide modules or lessons on leadership in their public management courses. Each program’s definition of leadership in the curriculum dictates the level of independence it receives from other elements of the core. While some leadership courses focus specifically on traditional organizational theory, others go further to include the history and theory of leadership, ethics and democratic theory, skills-based approaches, and/or case studies.

Several dozen schools responded to our inquiry of how leadership is represented in their core requirements, and a few themes emerged from their submissions. First, many programs are currently examining how they address leadership in the core and have recently created courses or have specific plans for new offerings. Based on the responses, it appears that a number of schools are shifting away from a strictly theoretical approach and moving toward a more experiential and skills-based methodology, focusing on role playing, classroom exercises, conflict resolution, and negotiation. The other common thread appearing in many of the responses is the significance of managing and leading change. A few schools offer courses explicitly on leading change, and several others listed the topic as a principal theme in a required or elective course. Here are some of the approaches.

Schools with Leadership in the Core

Educating principled leaders is a central mission of the George Bush School of Government & Public Service at Texas A&M University. Their program offers students an extensive leadership curriculum both in and out of the core, focusing on five key competency areas to create committed, principled, skilled, experienced, and educated public servants. The core leadership course, “Leadership and Public Administration,” compares administrative leadership in practice with alternative theories of leadership. Students examine the relationship between leadership, management, and administrative roles in public service. In addition to the core, the Bush School requires students to complete the Leadership Program. Leadership assessments and workshops run concurrently with classes and provide students with an experiential and skills-based background. Students participate in three separate self-assessments, a semester-long capstone project, and a personal leadership plan. Guest speakers and strong professional development programs supplement the skills-based seminars.

The Maxwell School of Syracuse University addresses leadership lessons through its Executive Leadership Seminar requirement. Students can take the three-week capstone course offered in the summer or take an alternate course, such as “Managerial Leadership in the Public Sector.” This course introduces the changing role of leadership and encourages students to address their own leadership skills. It begins by building an understanding of leadership theory and then guides students through experiential activities intended to examine their leadership competencies, and culminates in a personal leadership action plan.

The Humphrey Institute at the University of Minnesota has a particularly strong leadership component in its midcareer MPA core curriculum. The first of two required leadership courses is “Leadership for the Common Good,” which is organized around the book of the same name. Course topics include leadership in theory and context, as well as personal, team, organizational,
visions, political, and ethical leadership. The second course, “Transforming Public Policy,” stresses policy entrepreneurship though team projects. Students decide on a policy problem, identify solutions, and devise a policy strategy for implementing and protecting those solutions. The Humphrey core curriculum also includes a leadership class for its early career MPP students—“Public Management and Leadership.” The course largely uses case studies to illustrate leadership challenges for discussion and analysis.

The core curriculum at the University of Maryland School of Public Affairs includes “Public Management and Leadership,” a course that emphasizes leadership concepts and frameworks for complex public organizations. The goal of the course is to introduce students to these leadership concepts and encourage interactive discussion. Case studies and the discussion of management tools are heavily emphasized. In all sections, students are required to give an oral presentation on a leadership topic of their choice. Maryland also requires a course on the political process and public sector organizations titled “Political Institutions and Leadership.” This course focuses broadly on political interaction and decision-making in contrast to the more personal leadership development emphasis of “Public Management and Leadership.”

MPA students at Florida International University College of Health and Urban Affairs are required to take a course on leadership mechanics. The course strongly emphasizes applied leadership as “it is designed to teach students to lead.” The curriculum includes a discussion of leadership theory and visioning skills; however, the primary emphasis is on decision-making, group problem-solving, supervisory skills, conflict resolution, and negotiation. Games and exercises are a significant component of classroom activity, allowing students to practice the skills and learn to modify their approaches.

Auburn University also offers a comprehensive leadership class in the core for all MPA students. Auburn’s “Seminar on Administrative Leadership, Responsibility, and Democratic Government” addresses leadership, democratic theory, and ethics for public administration.

The School of Public and Environmental Affairs at Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis is considering a new core course, “Governance and Leading in a Global Society.” Pending final approval, it will be offered beginning in fall 2005. The course will be the gateway to the graduate MPA curriculum and will serve several functions. It will seek to help students identify their professional competencies as they embark on the graduate public affairs degree curriculum and strive to enhance the professionalism of participants by identifying norms associated with effective practice and developing skills to support these norms. The course also seeks to prepare students substantively to lead and govern in a global environment. Students develop an understanding of globalization as an international system, models of governance emerging within the new global order, and leadership strategies aligned with globalization and governance. The school also offers an elective course titled “Executive Leadership,” which is effectively a requirement for all students in the executive program. The course examines factors that contribute to successful executive leadership practice in a wide variety of organizational settings. Topics include what leadership is, what impact leadership has, and how leaders use various approaches and powers to achieve their goals. Recent topics have included leadership and technology, leading different generations, the star performing leader, and leading change.

Walden University offers two M.P.A. courses on leadership. “Leadership and Ethics” is a required core course in Walden’s program for all M.P.A. and P.P.A. students. Students learn to analyze individual decision-making strategies and organizational programs from an ethical perspective. The course examines complex ethical decisions in both the public and private sector. The second offering, “Third Sector, Entrepreneurship, Governance and Social Change,” focuses specifically on nonprofit leadership and is a requirement for the Nonprofit Management and Leadership Specialization.

The M.P.A. core curriculum at Clemson University includes the course “Administrative Leadership.” It provides a comprehensive overview of leadership theory, techniques, and approaches with an emphasis on ethical leadership. Special attention is given to values influencing the decision process in public service.

The M.P.A. program at Ohio University includes a seminar, POLS 523: Political Leadership, which is separate from the strategic management course, and a core requirement of the program.

The University of Memphis M.P.A. program focuses its required M.P.A. capstone course on leadership, beginning the semester with a review of the classic leadership literature that is often covered initially in some of the other core courses. The middle part of class takes a personal leadership development focus with reflective exercises and an assigned reflective/goal setting paper. The final
third of the course emphasizes shared leadership, integrating research, and practical application through a case analysis final.

Schools with Courses about “Leading Change”

At Duke University’s Sanford Institute of Public Policy, students select two modules to satisfy core management requirements. In the course titled “Leading Change,” students explore processes of change in policy-oriented private organizations with the objective of increasing their personal leadership effectiveness. They participate in experiential activities, including a significant leadership project involving the campus community. Classroom work involves case studies and leadership theory, along with frequent guest speakers. The students are also required to meet occasionally outside of class to continue the leadership discussions. The other modules vary but may include negotiation, nonprofit management, budgeting, and information technology.

The LBJ School of Public Affairs at the University of Texas offers two leadership courses each year. “Principles and Practices of Effective Leadership” introduces students to major theories of leadership from philosophy, history, and the modern social sciences. Special emphasis is placed on ethics and values as students discuss applications of the concepts to real leadership situations. The second offering, “Leading Change,” complements LBJ’s policy development courses. Students learn to reduce and overcome resistance to change and to become leaders of change. Again, ethics and values are discussed as students explore these issues. LBJ also had a core requirement called “Public Administration and Management.” While it does not wear leadership in the title, some sections heavily emphasize development of leadership skills. Topics include multi-culturalism, communication, motivation, vision, negotiation, listening, team building, leadership styles, improving performance, restoring trust, shaping organizational culture, and developing human capital.

As part of its mission of “empowering leaders for a just and humane world” Seattle University presents an elective leadership option, “Leadership, Learning, and Change Management.” This course explores contemporary theories of leadership both conceptually and experientially. Students are introduced to dynamics of learning and change on an individual level and for public and nonprofit organizations.

The University of Hawaii offers a leadership course popular with MPA students titled “Strategies of Change: Leadership.” It is an applied class that encourages students to address their self-perceptions by experiencing leadership issues. The students examine theories of change, action research, organizational culture, and interventions for change. This course is separate from Hawaii’s core curriculum, which is a one-year program organized by modules.

At the University of Arkansas students can take a policy leadership course intended for the Ph.D. that emphasizes the differences between policy, individual, and organizational leadership. Arkansas also offers a nonprofit class that addresses leadership and change.

Schools Requiring Leadership for Some Concentrations

Jackson State University emphasizes a unique multicultural and servant leader approach in their “Seminar in Executive Leadership.” This course is required for Ph.D. students and for several of the master’s-level concentrations. The seminar presents leadership from both the theoretical and applied perspectives.

Texas Tech has required students in its public management track to take a survey of leadership theory. That course is currently being redesigned to involve more skills-based and experiential lessons. The proposed course, “Managerial Leadership in Public Administration,” would address negotiation, conflict resolution, networking, communication, leadership roles, and problem solving.

Schools with Leadership as an Elective

Arizona State University’s elective course, “Leadership Skills in Public Organizations,” spotlights new approaches to leadership. The students explore leadership from a scientific viewpoint (studying observed leadership styles and qualities) and from an artistic perspective (focusing on performance, creative use of time and energy, and learning to lead). The course examines how the study of leadership is changing from the traditional top-down model concentrating on a powerful individual legitimated by a hierarchical structure, to an emphasis on leadership as a process at all level of organizations. Key ideas include
shared leadership, the servant role of leadership, and personal growth. Students are required to give a presentation of their written work.

The University of Tennessee, Chattanooga is changing the name of their leadership elective, “Executive Process in Public and Nonprofit Agencies” to “Leading Public and Nonprofit Agencies” to better reflect the nature of the course. The focus is on applied leadership challenges such as community relations, institution building, and symbolic communications.

At DePaul University’s Public Services Graduate Program, a women-focused leadership course is currently in planning. In the mean time, the program offers its M.S. students “Leadership & Management,” a course offered both in the traditional semester format and in a one-week intensive program at either DePaul’s Chicago campus or its partner school in Dublin, Ireland. The objectives of the course are to understand the main conceptual approaches to organizational leadership, to understand the key principles and practices of leadership in order to improve leadership skills, to apply organizational leadership concepts through critical thinking, to evaluate the effectiveness of particular organizational leadership styles, and to improve personal leadership practices through leadership assessments and coaching. In-depth analysis of psychological systems, interpersonal relations, and the relationship of rewards to performance are addressed through case studies, role play, and readings.

Rutgers University, Newark, offers a leadership class that is nearly always full. They credit this in part to the ability of the instructor to blend the theoretical and practical aspects of management. Course readings are supplemented by a series of guest lecturers from the public and private sectors. Rutgers supports a strong theoretical foundation supplemented by the practical experiences of managers.

The University of Baltimore addresses leadership theory as a subject in its core course, “Public Personnel.” The program also offers a popular elective course on leadership that combines a review of literature and theory with case discussions.

Oakland University offers MPA students three leadership choices: “Public Sector Leadership,” “Criminal Justice Leadership,” and “Leadership and the Media.” The University of Southern California covers leadership in two of their core courses, “Human Behavior in Public Organizations” and the capstone “Professional Practice of Public Administration.” Northern Kentucky University provides the elective “Executive Management,” and addresses leadership in their culminating experience, the “Public Administration Capstone.” Northern Illinois University has an elective public sector leadership course, and the University of Maine offers “Community Power, Leadership, and Administration.” Medgar Evers College, CUNY does not have an MPA degree program—they currently offer bachelor’s and associate degrees in public administration—but a professional master’s degree in leadership within the business school is planned.
Student-Produced Journals

NASPAA has compiled a roster of public affairs/public administration journals produced solely by students. These journals cover an array of topics, discussing current trends and issues in the field of public administration. It is our hope that you share this information with your colleagues and students. Promoting quality scholarship from students can help bring more exposure to the field of public administration and demonstrate the strength of public affairs/public administration academic programs.

In the future, updates to this listing of journals and any new journals being written will be added. If you know of a journal that should be included on this list, please send us that information. This listing can be found on the NASPAA Web site at www.naspaa.org.

Asian American Policy Review
Harvard Journal of Hispanic Policy
Journal of African American Public Policy
John F Kennedy School of Government
Harvard University
79 John F Kennedy Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138
Phone: 617-495-1100

Asian American Policy Review
Web: www.ksg.harvard.edu/aapr/
Email: aapr@ksg.harvard.edu
Phone: 617-496-8655   Fax: 617-384-9555

Harvard Journal of Hispanic Policy
Web: www.ksg.harvard.edu/hjhp/index.htm
Email: hjhp@ksg.harvard.edu
Phone: 617-496-8655   Fax: 617-384-9555

Journal of African American Public Policy
Web: www.ksg.harvard.edu/HJAAP/
Email: hjapa@ksg.harvard.edu
Phone: 617-496-0517   Fax: 617-384-9555

Chicago Policy Review
Harris Graduate School of Public Policy
University of Chicago
1155 E. 60th Street, Room 191, Chicago, Illinois 60637
Phone: 773-834-0901   Fax: 773-702-2286
Email: cpr@uchicago.edu
Web: www.harrisschool.uchicago.edu/publications/cpr/index.html

The Georgetown Public Policy Review
Georgetown Public Policy Institute
Georgetown University
3600 N Street, NW, Suite 200, Washington, DC 20007-2670
Phone: 202-687-8477   Fax: 202-687-5544
Email: gpprevw@georgetown.edu
Web: www.georgetown.edu/grad/gppi/GPPR/index.html

Journal of International Affairs
School of International and Public Affairs
Columbia University
Box 4, International Affairs Building, 420 West 118th St.
New York, NY 10027
Phone: 212-854-4775   Fax: 212-662-0398
Email: jia@columbia.edu
Web: http://jia.sipa.columbia.edu/

LBJ Journal of Public Affairs
Lyndon Baines Johnson School of Public Affairs
The University of Texas at Austin
Drawer Y, University Station, Austin, Texas 78713-8925
Phone: 512-471-3622
Email: lbjjpa@uts.cc.utexas.edu
Web: http://uts.cc.utexas.edu/~lbjjpa/

Perspectives in Public Affairs
Arizona State University
School of Public Affairs
Attn: Erin Mote, Editor in Chief
P.O. Box 870603, Tempe, AZ 85287-0603
Phone: 480.965.3926   Fax: 480.965.9248
Email: erin.mote@asu.edu
Web: http://asu.edu/mpa/journal.htm

Pi Alpha Alpha On-Line Journal
PAA National Office
1120 G Street NW, Suite 730, Washington, DC 20005
Phone: 202-628-8965   Fax: 202-626-4978
Email: paa@naspaa.org
Web: www.naspaa.org/initiatives/paa/journal/journal.asp

Policy Perspectives: The George Washington University Journal of Public Administration
The George Washington University
Department of Public Administration
302 Monroe Hall, 2115 G Street, NW
Washington, DC 20052
Phone: 202-994-6295   Fax: 202-994-6792
Email: polpersp@gwu.edu
Web: www.gwu.edu/~pad/journal
Roster of PA Organizations

NASPAA has compiled a partial list of organizations that share common interests within the field of public administration. In subsequent issues, the information will be updated. Be sure to email NASPAA at naspaa@naspaa.org with corrections and additions.

American Academy of Certified Public Managers
The AACPM is a professional association of public sector managers. Among its purposes is to unite Certified Public Managers, encourage the acceptance of management in government as a profession established upon an underlying body of knowledge, promote a high professional, educational, and ethical standard in public management, and facilitate positive changes to enhance the delivery of public services.

President: Ronald L. Bucholz, CPM
Division of Safety and Buildings
P.O. Box 2599, Madison, WI 53701-2599
Phone: 608-266-1817  Fax: 608-266-9946
Email: rbucholz@commerce.state.wi.us
Web: www.cpmacademy.org/
Publications: AACPM Newsletter
Editor: Bill Herman

American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business
AACSB—the International Association for Management Education—is a nonprofit association of educational institutions, corporations, and other organizations devoted to the promotion and improvement of higher education in business administration and management.

600 Emerson Road, Suite 300, St. Louis, MO 63141-6762
Phone: 314-872-8481  Fax: 314-872-8495
Web: www.aacsb.edu

President: John J. Fernandes, john@aacsb.edu
Publications: Newsline, Guide to Doctoral Programs in Business Management, Ph.D. Project, Curriculum Guides, BizEd Magazine
Meetings: Annual Conference
April 17-20, 2004/ Montreal, Quebec, Canada

American Political Science Association
APSA is the major professional society for those engaged in the study of politics. Its mission is to reach out to scholars, teachers, students, and others throughout the world to facilitate learning, teaching, and research in the field of political science.

1527 New Hampshire Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20036-1290
Phone: 202-483-2512  Fax: 202-483-2657
Web: www.apsanet.org
E-mail: apsa@apsanet.org
President: Susanne Hoeber Rudolph
Executive Director: Michael Brintnall
Publications: American Political Science Review—Lee Sigelman, editor; PS: Political Science and Politics—Robert Hauck, editor; Perspectives—Jennifer L. Hochschild, editor
Meetings: Annual Meeting
September 2-5, 2004/Chicago, IL

American Society for Public Administration
ASPA is the largest and most prominent professional association in the field of public administration. It is a focal point for linking thought and practice within the field of public administration.

1120 G Street, NW, Suite 700, Washington, DC 20005-3885
Phone: 202-393-7878  Fax: 202-638-4952
Web: www.aspanet.org
President: Walter Broadnax
Exec. Dir.: Mary Hamilton, CAE, mhamilton@aspanet.org
Publications: Public Administration Review—Larry D. Terry, Cleveland State University, editor; P.A. Times—
Association of Government Accountants
AGA is an international organization recognized as a leading professional association dedicated to the enhancement of public financial management. The association serves its members by providing education, encouraging professional development, influencing governmental financial management policies and practices, and acting as an advocate for the profession.
2208 Mount Vernon Avenue, Alexandria, VA 22301-1314
Phone: 703-684-6931, 800-AGA-7211
Fax: 703-548-9367
President: Jullin Renthrope
Exec. Director: Relmond Van Daniker
E-mail: rvandaniker@agacqfm.org
Web: www.agacqfm.org
Meetings: Professional Development Conference
June 27-30/Washington, DC

Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management
APPAM encourages excellence in research, teaching, and practice in the field of public policy analysis and management.
P.O. Box 18766, Washington, DC 20036-8766
2100 M Street, NW Suite 610, Washington, DC 20037
Phone: 202-496-0130 Fax: 202-496-0134
Email: appam@appam.org
Web: www.appam.org
President: Richard Nathan,
Rockefeller Institute of Government
Exec. Director: Erik Devereux
Publications: Journal of Policy Analysis and Management
Peter Reuter, University of Maryland, editor
Meetings: 26th Annual APPAM Research Conference
October 28-30, 2004/Atlanta, GA

Association of Professional Schools of International Affairs
APSIA is an institutional membership organization comprised of U.S. graduate schools of international affairs. These schools are dedicated to advancing global understanding and cooperation by preparing men and women to assume positions of leadership in world affairs.
2101 Van Munching Hall, College Park, MD 20742
Phone: 301-405-7553 Fax: 501-403-4675
Email: info@apsia.org Web: www.apsia.org
President: Robert Galucci, Georgetown University
Executive Director: Jeffry Lewis
Publications: APSIA Publications
Gazette

Consolidation of Social Science Associations
COSSA is an advocacy organization for federal support for the social and behavioral sciences and stands alone in Washington in representing the full range of social and behavioral sciences.
1522 K Street NW, Suite 836, Washington, DC 20005
Phone: 202-842-3525 Fax: 202-842-2788
Email: cossa@cossa.org Web: www.cossa.org
President: Orlando Taylor, Howard University
Exec. Director: Howard J. Silver, silverhj@cossa.org
Publications: COSSA Washington Update

Council for Excellence in Government
The CEG is a national organization whose mission—improving the performance of government—responds to a critical national challenge. The Council works directly with public and private executives and organizations to achieve its objectives.
1301 K Street NW, Suite 450W, Washington, DC 20005
Phone: 202-728-0418 Fax: 202-728-0422
Web: www.excelgov.org
Pres./CEO: Patricia McGinnis, pmcginnis@excelgov.org
Chair: John D. Macomber, JDM Investment Group
Publications: (available through Web address), E-News Online, Prone Books, Partnership for Trust in Government newsletter

Independent Sector
IS is a national leadership forum working to encourage philanthropy, volunteering, nonprofit initiatives and citizen action that help us better serve people and communities. Its mission reflects the shared value of every nonprofit organization: to pursue a goal for the public good.
1200 18th St NW, Suite 200, Washington, DC 20036
Phone: 202-467-6100 Fax: 202-467-6101
Email: info@IndependentSector.org
Web: www.independentsector.org
President: Diana Aviv, diana@independentsector.org
Chair: John R. Seffrin, American Cancer Society
Publications: 888-860-8118
Meetings: Annual Conference
Theme: Making Participation Count
November 7-9, 2004/ Chicago, IL

International City/County Management Association
ICMA is a professional and educational organization of appointed administrators and assistant administrators serving cities, counties, other local governments, and regional entities. The purposes of ICMA are to enhance the quality of local government through professional management and to support and assist professional local government administrators internationally.
777 N. Capitol Street NE, Suite 500
Washington, DC 20002-4201
Phone: 202-289-4262 Fax: 202-962-3500
Web: www.icma.org
President: David J. Krings
Exec. Director: Bob O’Neill, roneill@icma.org
Publications: ICMA Newsletter, Job Opportunities
Bulletin for Minorities and Women in Public Management, IQ Reports, Public Management, Publications and Services Catalog (800-745-8780)
Email: subscriptions@icma.org
Meeting: 90th Annual Conference
October 17-20, 2004/San Diego, CA
Email: ICMAConference@icma.org

International Personnel Management Association
IPMA is a nonprofit membership organization of human resource professionals representing the interests of more than 6,000 individual and 1,300 agency members at the federal, state, and local levels of government.
1617 Duke Street, Alexandria, VA 22314
Phone: 703-549-7100 Fax: 703-684-0948
Web: www.ipma-hr.org
Exec. Director: Neil Reichenberg
Email: nreichenberg@ipma-hr.org
Publications: Public Personnel Management, IPMA News, Agency Issues, Center for Personnel Research Services Review
Meetings: IPMA-HR Annual Training Conference
October 17-20, 2004/ Phoenix, AZ
Contact: Shannon Nicko Adaway, phone 703-549-7100

National Academy for Public Administration
NAPA is an independent, nonprofit, nonpartisan organization chartered by Congress to assist federal, state, and local governments in improving their performance. The Academy, through its many projects, is at the forefront of efforts to create more efficient, effective, and accountable government.
1100 New York Avenue NW, Suite 1090 East
Washington, DC 20005
Phone: 202-347-3190 Fax: 202-393-0993
Web: www.napawash.org
President: C. Morgan Kinghorn
Publications: NAPA Publications
Phone: 202-347-3190, ext. 3130
Meetings: Annual Conference
November 19-20, 2004/ Washington, DC

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National Forum for Black Public Administrators
The NFBPA is a professional membership organization dedicated to the advancement of black leadership in the public sector. It includes managers and executives in virtually all disciplines represented in state and local governments. It is dedicated to strengthening the capacity of state and local government managers in a multitude of disciplines, through intensive training, professional development programs, and a powerful network of black public leadership.
777 N. Capitol Street NE, Suite 807, Washington, DC 20002
Phone: 202-408-9300   Fax: 202-408-8558
Web: www.nfbpa.org
President: Cheryl Perry League
Exec. Director: John E. Saunders, III
Email: jsaunders@nfbpa.org
Publications: NFBPA Forum
Meetings: National Conference
Theme: Public Administration: Managing in an Era of Transformation, April 03-07, 2004 / Philadelphia, PA

The Partnership for Public Service
A newly formed nonpartisan organization dedicated to revitalizing public service. The Partnership seeks to restore public confidence in and prestige to the federal civil service through an aggressive campaign of public/private partnerships as well as focused research and educational effort.
1725 Eye St. NW Suite 900, Washington, DC 20006
Phone: 202-775-9111   Fax: 202-775-8885
Email: mail@ourpublicservice.org
Web: www.ourpublicservice.org
President: Max Steir, msteir@ourpublicservice.org
Publications: Daily Pipeline, Partnership Reports

Pi Alpha Alpha
PAA is the national honor society for the field of public affairs and public administration. Those universities and colleges which are members of the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) are eligible to establish a PAA chapter. The society is dedicated to recognizing outstanding scholarship and accomplishment in the field.
1120 G Street NW, Suite 730, Washington, DC 20005-3081
Phone: 202-628-8965   Fax: 202-626-8978
Email: paa@naspaa.org
Web: www.naspaa.org/initiatives/honor.asp
President: J. Steven Ott
Publications: Online Journal
Meetings: National Council Meeting in conjunction with the NASPAA Annual Conference and the Biennial Society Meeting in odd-numbered years.

Policy Studies Organizations
The purpose of PSO is to promote the application of political and social science to import policy problems. Policy studies is interested in 1) the impact of policy causes, such as policy schools; 2) the causes of policies, such as free speech versus repression; 3) the impact of policies, such as free trade versus tariffs; and 4) the achievement of desired effects, such as policies to promote peace, prosperity, and public participation.
1527 New Hampshire Ave NW, Washington, D.C.
Phone: 202-483-2512, ext. 107   Fax: 202-483-2057
Contact: David Merchant
Email: dmerchant@ipsonet.org
President: Paul J. Rich, president@ipsonet.org
Web: www.ipsonet.org

Public Employees Roundtable
PER, a nonpartisan, nonprofit, educational association was formed in 1982 to address the need for improved communication and understanding between government and the citizens it serves. Its mission is to inform Americans about the contributions public employees make to the quality of our lives, to encourage excellence and esprit de corps in government, and to promote public service careers.
P.O. Box 75248, Washington, DC 23-5248
600 Maryland Ave. SW, Suite 280, Washington, DC 20024
Phone: 202-314-3536   Fax: 202-314-3539
Email: info@theroundtable.org
Web: www.theroundtable.org
Chief Operating Officer: Adam Bratton
Email: abratton@theroundtable.org
Chair: Kirke Harper
Meetings: Public Service Recognition Week/ National Mall Event
May 02-05, 2004/Washington, DC

Society for Human Resource Management
SHRM is the leading voice of the human resource profession, represents the interests of 91,000 professional and student members from around the world. SHRM provides its membership with education and information services, conferences and seminars, government and media representation, online services and publications that equip human resource professionals for their roles as leaders.

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and decision makers within their organizations.
1800 Duke Street, Alexandria, VA 22314
Phone: 703-548-3440 Fax: 703-535-6490
Email: shrm@shrm.org
Web: www.shrm.org
Exec. Director: Sue Meisinger
Chair: David B. Hutchins
Publications: HR Magazine, H.R News, Employment
Management Today
Meetings: 56th Annual Conference & Exposition
June 27-30, 2004/ New Orleans, LA

Urban Affairs Association
The UAA is the international professional organization for
urban scholars, researchers, and public service providers.
UAA encourages the dissemination of information and
research findings about urbanism and urbanization and
provides leadership in fostering urban affairs as a profes-
sional and scholarly discipline.
University of Delaware
298 Graham Hall, Newark, DE 19716
Phone: 302-831-1681 Fax: 302-831-4225
Email: uaa@udel.edu
Web: www.udel.edu/uaa
Chairperson: Nancy Kleniewski, Bridgewater State College
Exec. Director: Pamela Leland
Publications: Journal of Urban Affairs
Editor: Scott Cummings, St. Louis University
Meetings: 34th Annual Meeting
Theme: Context Matters
March 31-April 03, 2004/ Washington, DC

Roster of International Associations
Following is a list of international associations that share
common interests with the field of public affairs and pub-
lic administration. Any additions and/or corrections
should be sent to the national office.

Canadian Association of Programs in Public
Administration
CAPPA is an association of schools, programs, and depart-
ments across Canada engaged in teaching public adminis-
tration. Forty-five affiliated programs are members of the
twenty-five-year-old association. All involved are dedicated
to the improvement of the quality of public administration
education. CAPPA sponsors an annual mini-confer-
ence on teaching and conducts occasional sessions at the
annual meetings of the Canadian Political Science
Association.
Canadian Association of Programs in Public Administration
1075 Bay St., Suite 401, Toronto, ON M5S 2B1 Canada
Phone: 416-924-8787 Fax: 416-924-4992
President: Sandford Borins, University of Toronto at
Scarborough
Email: Sandford.Borins@mbs.gov.on.ca
Web: www.cappa.ca/index.html

Commonwealth Association for Public Administration
and Management
CAPAM is devoted to the exchange of timely information
of the renewal efforts of the fifty-one Commonwealth
members. CAPAM's aim is to enhance Commonwealth
cooperation to improve managerial competence and organi-
zational excellence in government.
1075 Bay Street, Suite 402, Toronto, Ontario Canada, M5S
2B1
Phone: 416-920-3337 Fax: 416-920-6574
Email: capam@capam.ca
Web: www.capam.comnet.mt
President: Jocelyne Bourgon
Exec. Director: Art Stevenson
Publications: Commonwealth Innovations, Newsletter of
Public Administration and Development
Meetings: Biannual Conference
October 23-27, 2004/Singapore
Sixth Annual Public Executive Seminar
August 02-06, 2004/Cape Town

European Group of Public Administration
The EGPA aims to 1) organize and encourage the
exchange of information on developments in the theory
and practice of public administration; 2) foster compara-
tive studies and the development of public administrative
theory within a European perspective; 3) facilitate the
application of innovative ideas, methods, and techniques
in public administration; and 4) include young teachers,
researchers, and civil servants in its activities.
rue Defacqz, 1, Bte 11, B-1000 Bruxelles (Belgique)
Belgium
Phone: 32-2-536-08-84 Fax: 32-2-537-97-02
Email: geapegpa@iiasiisa.be
Web: www.iiasiisa.be/egpa/agacc.htm
President: Dr. Werner Jann, Professor, Universität Postdam,
Faculty of Social Sciences and Economics,
Postfach 900 327, D-14439 Potsdam, Germany
Email: jann@rz.uni-potsdam.de

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Publications: *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, contributes to IIAS Newsletter
Meetings: EGPA Annual Conference
September 01-04, 2004/ Ljubljana, Slovenia

*International Institute of Administrative Sciences*

The IIAS is an international scientific association specializing in public administration and the administrative sciences. Its scope includes questions that concern contemporary public administration at the national and international levels.

rue Defacqz 1, Bte 11, B-1000 Bruxelles (Belgique)
Belgium
Phone: 32-2-536-08-80 Fax: 32-2-537-97-02
Email: iias@iiasiisa.be
President: Jean-Marie Atangana Mebara
Web: www.iiasiisa.be/iias/aiacc.htm

Publications: *International Review of Administrative Science* (write to address above for catalog of publications)
Meetings: Twenty-sixth International Congress of Administrative Sciences
July 14-18, 2004/ Seoul, South Korea
Contact: Veronique Fagel, fagel@iiasiisa.be

*International Association of Schools & Institutes of Administration*

IASIA is a specialized association of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences, (IIAS), and is a network made up mainly of schools, institutes of administration, and other organizations providing services related to training, education, consultancy, research, and publications aimed at respond to the institutional development needs of public management and public administration.

rue Defacqz 1, Bte 11, B-1000 Bruxelles (Belgique)
Belgium
Phone: 32-2-536-08-80 Fax: 32-2-537-97-02
Email: iiasa@iiasiisa.be
Web: www.iiasiisa.be/schools/aeacc.htm
President: Rosenbaum Allan
Email: rosenbau@fiu.edu
Meeting: Annual Conference
July 14-18, 2004/ Seoul, South Korea

*National Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe*

NISPacee supports the development of public administration education and training programs in Eastern and Central Europe.

Hanulova 5/B, P.O. Box 163, 840 02 Bratislava 42, Slovak Republic
Phone: 421-2-64285557 Fax: 421-2-64285557
Email: nispa@nispa.sk
Exec. Dir: Ludmila Gajdosova, gajdosova@nispa.sk
Web: www.nispa.sk/
Meeting: Annual Conference
Theme: Central and Eastern European Countries Inside and Outside the European Union: Avoiding a New Divide
May 13-15, 2004/ Vilnius, Lithuania

**About NASPAA**

NASPAA is an association of more than 249 schools of public affairs and administration in the United States and assorted associate members in the United States and abroad. We are committed to promoting quality in public affairs education and to promoting the ideal of public service. NASPAA serves as the specialized accrediting body for academic programs in public administration, public policy, and public affairs. This accreditation practice now includes a roster of 150 accredited programs.

Featured activities on NASPAA’s agenda include an active campaign for public service and public service education, which includes initiatives addressing media relations and the tracking of public policy issues relevant to NASPAA’s mission. We are sponsoring research and action on the status of minorities in public affairs education. NASPAA works closely with the International City Managers Association (ICMA) on education and training for local government management. In recognition of the broadening dimensions of our field, we have developed a set of guidelines for nonprofit education in collaboration with the Nonprofit Academic Centers Council. We are also working on outreach in other areas central to NASPAA programs, such as health management education. In addition, we are engaged internationally, particularly in the development of the Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPacee) and the new Inter-American Network for Public Administration Education (INPAE).

The NASPAA Annual Conference on public affairs and public affairs education is a meeting focused on research and dialogue on academic program administration, on curriculum and teaching, and on the synthesis of research on topics of current importance and the relationship of
this research to teaching and practice. The conference is an active mix of program administrators, faculty, students, and practitioners in our field.

- **NASPAA on the Internet**
  - **Web site:** [www.naspaa.org](http://www.naspaa.org)
  - **Listserv:** To subscribe to the NASPAA listserv, e-mail your request to majordomo@scwis.unomaha.edu. The subject line should remain blank. In the body of the message, type only the following line: subscribe naspaa your complete name. To submit items to the listserv, address them to naspaa@fa-cpacs.unomaha.edu.

  NASPAA also has specialized listservs for career directors and doctoral program directors. Please see [www.naspaa.org/principals/news/listserv.asp](http://www.naspaa.org/principals/news/listserv.asp) for details on how to join these lists.

- **NASPAA Staff Directory**
  - **Kenneth Tolo,** Ph.D., Executive Director
tolo@naspaa.org
  - **Crystal Calarusse,** Project Assistant
calarusse@naspaa.org
  - **Jacqueline F. Lewis,** Conference/Project Coordinator
jlewis@naspaa.org
  - **Jocelyn Lewis,** Project Assistant
jocelyn.lewis@naspaa.org
  - **Laurel McFarland,**
    Managing Director of COPRA/Academic Director
mcfarland@naspaa.org
  - **Ana Mejia,** International Programs Consultant
mejia@naspaa.org
  - **Barbara Bridgely,** Finance Officer
bridgely@naspaa.org
  - **Rebecca Singer,** Project Assistant
singer@naspaa.org
  - **Monchaya Wanna,** Office Manager
wanna@naspaa.org

  Inquiries about specific program areas may be sent to the following e-mail addresses or to NASPAA at 1120 G Street NW, Suite 730, Washington, DC 20005. Phone: 202-628-8965. Fax: 202-626-4978.

  - **General Info:** naspaa@naspaa.org
  - **Conferences:** meetings@naspaa.org
  - **Publications:** publications@naspaa.org
  - **PAA:** paa@naspaa.org
  - **J-PAE:** jpaee@naspaa.org

Please send news about your program, faculty, honors, etc., in writing, for upcoming issues of the *J-PAE Gazette*. Fax: 202-626-4978. E-mail: jpaee@naspaa.org