The Journal of Public Affairs Education (JPAE) is the flagship journal of the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). Founded in 1970, NASPAA serves as a national and international resource for the promotion of excellence in education for the public service. Its institutional membership includes more than 250 university programs in the United States in public administration, policy, and management. It accomplishes its purposes through direct services to its member institutions and by:

- Developing and administering appropriate standards for educational programs in public affairs through its Executive Council and its Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation;
- Representing to governments and other institutions the objectives and needs of education for public affairs and administration;
- Encouraging curriculum development and innovation and providing a forum for publication and discussion of education scholarship, practices, and issues;
- Undertaking surveys that provide members and the public with information on key educational issues;
- Meeting with employers to promote internship and employment for students and graduates;
- Undertaking joint educational projects with practitioner professional organizations; and
- Collaborating with institutes and schools of public administration in other countries through conferences, consortia, and joint projects.

NASPAA provides opportunities for international engagement for NASPAA members, placing a global emphasis on educational quality and quality assurance through a series of networked international initiatives, in particular the Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee), the Inter-American Network of Public Administration Education (INPAE), and the Georgian Institute of Public Affairs (GIPA). It is also involved locally; for instance, directing the Small Communities Outreach Project for Environmental Issues, with support from the Environmental Protection Agency.

NASPAA's twofold mission is to ensure excellence in education and training for public service and to promote the ideal of public service. Consistent with NASPAA's mission, JPAE is dedicated to advancing teaching and learning in public affairs, defined to include the fields of policy analysis, public administration, public management, and public policy. Published quarterly by NASPAA, the journal features commentaries, announcements, symposia, book reviews, and peer-reviewed scholarly articles on pedagogical, curricular, and accreditation issues pertaining to public affairs education.

JPAE was founded in 1995 by a consortium from the University of Kansas and the University of Akron and was originally published as the Journal of Public Administration Education. H. George Frederickson was the journal's founding editor. In addition to serving as NASPAA's journal of record, JPAE is affiliated with the Section of Public Administration Education of the American Society for Public Administration.

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The Certainty of Uncertainty
Kathryn Newcomer

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From the Editor

This issue of *JPAE* is the first under the current editorship devoted entirely to the interlinked themes of diversity and equity, incorporating as well the inaugural address of NASPAA President Kathryn Newcomer. Her extraordinarily incisive message underscores NASPAA’s historic commitment to diversity and equity in the discipline and professoriate; it is also indicative of the vision and strength of leadership that NASPAA enjoys with Dr. Newcomer as president.

As of this issue, the *Gazette*—the purpose of which is to serve as NASPAA’s publication of record on important items such as doctorates received, as well as to publish newsworthy notes—will no longer appear as part of *JPAE* but will be offered independently. The separation of the *Journal* and the *Gazette* will allow for a larger number of peer-reviewed articles to be included in each issue of the *Journal*; this current issue is the first to go to the expanded format. The expectation is that there will be eight to ten refereed articles published per issue, as compared to a previous norm of five or six. It is also expected that each quarterly issue will be organized around a specific theme, as has been the case for the last five issues.

It is anticipated that phased, graduated efforts toward the electronic and online provision of the *Journal*—in addition to continued print publication—will be made throughout 2007 and into next year. Innovation in this regard will always aim at increasing the *JPAE*’s impact on pedagogy in public affairs and administration, for instance through increased indexing and citation and greater international exposure. Change will be explored with as wide a consultation as possible, with the *Journal*’s editorial board, the NASPAA Executive Council, the ASPA Section on Public Administration Education (for which *JPAE* serves as section journal), NASPAA members, and other interested parties and stakeholders.

Several changes are anticipated for the editorial roster, ones that should strengthen *JPAE*’s content and visibility, beginning with the Spring issue. These will be announced in the editor’s preface to that issue. One that may be signaled here is the creation of an Editors’ Council, comprised of former editors-in-chief Ed Jennings and James Perry and founding editor George Frederickson, and charged with assessing strategic and operational decisions concerning the *Journal*’s future.

All who are committed to the success of the *Journal of Public Affairs Education* are fortunate to have enjoyed the guidance and support of these leaders in our discipline and profession. We have benefited immeasurably from their selfless dedication.

—Mario A. Rivera, Ph.D.
Information for Contributors

The *Journal of Public Affairs Education* (JPAE) 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. *JPAE* pursues its mission by publishing high-quality theory, empirical research, and commentary. The core values of *JPAE* are rigor, relevance, clarity, accessibility, and methodological diversity.

**Articles**: *JPAE* welcomes contributions from all public affairs educators who seek to reflect on their professional practice and to engage *JPAE* readers in an exploration of what or how to teach. *JPAE* 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 *JPAE* 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, national and international/comparative disciplinary and pedagogical developments, 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 examin-
ing what JPAE 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 jpa@unm.edu. Only electronic submissions sent to this email address as Microsoft Word attachments will be considered. Any accompanying message should be addressed simply to “Editors,” not to a particular editor.

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

- Ensure that the manuscript is anonymous by leaving off your name and putting self-identifying references in a separate Microsoft Word file and as a separate attachment.
- Use margins of one and one-half (1-1/2) inches at the left, right, top, and bottom of the page.
- JPAE 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; or (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 stimulated and able to use the information.

Submissions for Creative Pedagogy should be sent to Editors, JPAE, at jpa@unm.edu, as indicated above.
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 about review essays should be sent to Mario A. Rivera, Editor, at jpaev@unm.edu.

Copyright Notice: Manuscripts will not be published unless a copyright transfer agreement has been signed by all the authors of a manuscript and has been received by JPAE. Copyright transfer forms are sent out by the NASPAA office. Educators may reproduce any material for classroom use only and authors may reproduce their articles without written permission. Written permission is required to reproduce JPAE in all other instances.
I am honored to assume the presidency of NASPAA. I am humbled by the opportunity afforded me to help steer us through the challenging process of considering the goals of public affairs education as we revise our standards. The challenges that will be presented to the public sector in the future are unknowable. To ensure that future generations can meet tomorrow’s challenges, I believe that we must refocus our attention on the analytic skills and the fundamental values that are essential for democracy—values such as empathy, equity, fairness, and accountability.

As I consider our task, it seems appropriate to reflect upon how the context in which we operate has changed and continues to change and how we must change in response. In my own case, it has been 25 years since I joined our profession, so I have chosen that time frame to chronicle how the environment in which NASPAA operates has changed.

How has the social, political, and economic environment changed over the past 25 years? First, our American workforce has changed. As Figure 1 illustrates, the proportion of women in the workforce has increased. Colleges and universities, as well as professional schools including our own, are welcoming classes that typically have more women than men. Women are more likely to make it to the executive suite than ever before, though many professional women struggle with the conflict about working full-time while raising children, a situation experienced by many of our students and alumni.

The complexion of our workforce has also changed over the last 25 years. Official figures on immigration show some volatility in the number of immigrants the United States has welcomed during the last 25 years, as seen in Figure 2. Between 1990 and 2000, we experienced what some have called “the second great wave of immigration” in American history. Our immigrant population grew by 57 percent during that decade, while our native-born population grew by 9 percent. By 2000, one in five children was the child of immigrants.

Kathryn Newcomer
President, NASPAA
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Figure 1. Women’s Labor Force Participation

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Figure 2. Immigration to the United States, 1980-2005

Source: Yearbook of Immigration Statistics, 2005

Figure 3. Racial Composition of U.S. Population, 1986-2005

Source: U.S. Census Bureau
As Thomas Freidman recently pointed out in his book, *The World is Flat*, scientists and engineers from other countries are most likely to get desired visas to join us, since we so desperately need them, but others face a rising wall (2005). Patterns of immigration, of both documented and undocumented immigrants, have contributed to the changes in the work force.

The relative proportions of white, black, Hispanic, and Asian Americans in our country has been changing, as Figure 3 illustrates. And our multilingual population presents new challenges in public service, raising the need for cultural competency in our public servants to new levels.

Representation of minorities in public service employment has not kept pace with the changing demographics of the American public. Focusing on some available public workforce data, in the federal government, the proportion of minorities hired into government service has not matched the changes that have taken place in the larger society (as Figure 4 demonstrates).

The set of the work skills required in the “weightless economy,” as Alan Greenspan termed it, has changed. The proportion of Americans with a college degree—the ticket into professional careers in our society—has increased in the past 25 years, although the proportion of minorities graduating from college has consistently lagged behind that of the majority, as seen in Figure 5. Changes in our economy have clearly affected the number and types of jobs available to non-college graduates, as well. Over the past 25

**Figure 4. Percentage of Federal Employees, 1996-2005**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
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<tbody>
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Source: U.S. Census Bureau

**Figure 5. Share of College Graduates, 1980-2004**

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<th>Year</th>
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Source: U.S. Census Bureau
years, the value of a college education has increased, but the knowledge acquired there has an increasingly short shelf life.

Second, our nation’s economic well being has changed over the last 25 years. First, inflation-adjusted gross domestic product was $5.3 trillion in 1981, and in 2005 it was $11.1 trillion. So the economy just about doubled in size over this period, as shown in Figure 6. In 1981, about 22.2 percent of the output of goods and services in the economy came from government at all levels, and, of this total, defense accounted for 5.2 percent. In 2005, the corresponding statistics are 20.1 percent and 4.0 percent. The production and provision of government services grew with the overall economy, although not quite as fast.

Although the economy has grown, the benefits of economic growth have been distributed unevenly. The median income in constant dollars has grown, as seen in Figure 7. However, inequality in the economic conditions of Americans has also increased markedly over this period. According to the Center on Budget and Policy Priorities, adjusting for inflation, the average income of the richest Americans doubled over the past 25 years, while the income of middle-class Americans increased by only about 15 percent (Piketty, 2006). As Figure 8 shows, the percent of the nation’s wealth controlled by the top 10 percent of the richest Americans has increased from 33 percent to 43 percent over this period.

And we still have a significant number of Americans, including many children, living in poverty, as seen...
in Figure 9. Other data suggest an increasing economic insecurity for Americans. Jacob Hacker has noted the upward trends in the number of personal bankruptcies, mortgage foreclosures, and Americans without health insurance over the last 25 years. Insecurity for those least well off in our society persists, and, as Hacker argues, insecurity for the middle class has increased (Hacker, 2006).

Third, with globalization, our nation’s role in the “flattening” world has changed quite substantially in the last 25 years. The U.S. trade deficit has tripled in the last 25 years, as shown in Figure 10. Freidman notes that the United States’ role in the world’s economy has changed dramatically because of open-sourcing, outsourcing, insourcing, offshoring, and supply-chaining (2005). As a consequence of growing interdependence, we must acknowledge that the problems of the world can no longer be treated as distant concerns: they affect us in important ways. This is a challenge that only began to emerge 25 years ago.

Fourth, the nature of governance in the United States has changed rather dramatically. We now speak less about government and more about governance by networks. The trend in public sector employment has
been to hire fewer full-time federal employees, as seen in Figure 11, and instead to contract out government jobs to the private sector. As Paul Light alerted us, "the shadow government" continues to grow because our governments hire more and more contractors (2006). Figure 12 provides some data on the number of contract jobs in the federal government. As of 2002, the number of contractors was double that of full-time federal employees. Frequently, "doing more with less" means doing more with contract employees for whom we do not need to pay benefits. Government services are delivered in complex networks involving for-profit, nonprofit and faith-based providers. And these complicated delivery systems make ensuring accountability for both process and performance more difficult.

And while the complexity of governance has grown, so have the costs of governance. The federal government has increasingly spent more than it takes in, as seen in the increasing federal debt shown in Figure 13. The Congressional Budget Office’s most recent long-term budget outlook suggests that a continuation of current policies—principally driven by future increases in costs for Medicare, Medicaid, and Social Security—
will result in a doubling of federal debt as a percentage of gross domestic product in 20 to 30 years (CBO, 2005).

Finally, another interesting piece of contextual data pertinent to governance in the United States concerns the trust that citizens have in their government. Figure 14 shows the percentage of Americans who expressed trust in government from 1958 to 2004; despite some fluctuation, trust in government has declined. The numbers may be even lower this month as a result of the recent “Foley-gate” Congressional fiasco. It is also worth noting that Americans have been encouraged to mistrust government by political leaders for much of the last 30 years. Yet, while Americans express distrust in their governmental institutions, they continue to expect myriad services from them.

Despite the low levels of trust in government, many young people still choose public service careers. Throughout this 25-year period, professional public affairs education has grown, adapted, and added considerable value both nationally and internationally. We have witnessed a steady number of students choosing public affairs programs (as shown in Figure 15), public affairs programs joining NASPAA and APPAM (Figure 16), and programs accredited by NASPPA (as shown in Figure 17). While not all schools offering public affairs degrees are NASPPA members, the vast majority has joined. During the last five years, a significant number of colleges and universities outside the United States have started offering public affairs degrees, most notably master of public administration degrees. Dozens of new MPA programs in China and the United Kingdom, for example, have been developed in the last five years. Increasing inter-

**Figure 14. Trust in Government, 1980-2004**

[Graph showing trust in government from 1980 to 2004]

**Figure 15. Public Administration/Social Service and Business Degrees, 1981-2004**

[Graph showing number of students in public administration, social service, and business degrees from 1981 to 2004]
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...est in public affairs education is a response to recognition of the new knowledge and skills required to lead the complex governance networks emerging across the world. A number of the public affairs programs in other countries have recently asked NASPAA to consider them for accreditation. We have been reticent thus far, wondering if we are up to the task.

As we ponder the future, I suggest that the immediate social and economic environment needs to be examined. What might we expect in the coming decade as we reconsider NASPAA’s role in public affairs education?

I offer the metaphor of churning waters ahead for public service. It is likely that the workforce, the economy, and the complexity of government will continue to evolve in unexpected ways in the coming years. The challenges future generations of students will face are not predictable in subject matter, timing, or magnitude. In the coming decades, several ongoing political and economic realities will make the environment in which public service is practiced unstable and unpredictable.

Figure 16. NASPAA and APPAM Members, 1980–

Figure 17. Number of Schools with NASPAA-accredited Degree Programs, 1980–2006

Source: NASPAA

Source: NASPAA and APPAM
Consider just a few of the challenges that we face.

Globally, we see:

1. severe and widespread poverty in many parts of the world that will continue to produce intractable health and environmental problems;
2. persistent animosities, distrust, and violence in many parts of the world—Iraq and elsewhere—with seemingly intractable ethnic and religious differences;
3. emerging markets and changing economic systems in countries throughout the world—most notably in China and the former Soviet Union—that confront challenges of governance for which the traditional labels of “communist” and “democratic” are no longer instructive or relevant; and
4. the proliferation of nongovernmental actors—many of whom are hostile to the United States and other developed nations—who will continue to use “terrorist” tactics in order to advance their causes.

And in the United States, we face:

1. persistent social and academic problems in public schools, for which there are both insufficient political will and resources to address and that produce increasingly dire social problems at the neighborhood level;
2. continuing debate about how to cover the rising costs of the medical and social security benefits to the elderly while at the same time keeping government financially solvent;
3. volatility in the trust Americans have in the ability of their government to address all of the above;
4. frustrations within a multisector workforce that needs to work cooperatively despite differential incentives and conflicting organizational cultures;
5. steep learning curves for the new hires taking over from retiring baby boomers; for example, 51 percent of the CIA’s employees have worked at the agency for three years or less, a situation that is soon likely to characterize many other government agencies as well;
6. continuing high demand for data documenting persisting problems and suggesting new solutions; for example, the Government Accountability Office currently has a nine-month backlog of requests for data from the 88 different Congressional committees with interests in Homeland Security; and
7. continuing demands to evaluate the performance of government programs and agencies—a task that is made more complicated by the myriad cooperative arrangements used to deliver services, and the
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immense difficulty of devising appropriate measures for the success of many government activities.

Although the challenges are imposing, I am optimistic. Twenty-five years ago the president of this body could have listed many national and international challenges that faced public policymakers at that time (stagflation and the Cold War come to mind). It is unlikely that 25 years ago anyone could have foreseen that the largest reorganization in the history of the federal government (the creation of the Department of Homeland Security) would be precipitated by an attack on the world’s only remaining superpower by a nonstate organization based in Afghanistan. Although we cannot know with great precision what the future holds, we can nevertheless prepare for the “certainty of uncertainty.” In public affairs education, this means that we must better prepare public policymakers to be flexible and nimble.

Public services are now provided by a more diverse set of actors than ever before. The quick turnaround in which issues can absorb attention offers more potential to distract public servants than ever before. However, by focusing on the fundamental democratic values of fairness, equity, and accountability, we can prepare for whatever the future brings. These core values can provide the normative foundation for good government that is essential for public servants who must stay focused as they navigate through churning waters.

What might we provide our students to lead in the new public service? Because the distinction between public policy making and policy execution has now blurred almost to the vanishing point, graduate programs in public affairs need, increasingly, to see their principal goal as training thoughtful generalists who can contribute to both the formulation and the management and implementation of public programs and policies. This requires people who are comfortable working with the results of policy analysis (if not necessarily contributing to it themselves) and with the complexities of implementing policy in a multisector world. Anyone who seeks to be a well-rounded public affairs professional needs to have, at least to some degree, the skills and competencies that 25 years ago would have been taught in policy analysis programs, as well as those traditionally associated with programs in public administration. Master of public policy programs, that is, need to address management; and master of public administration curricula need to include economics and other analytical tools coursework. Perhaps the very distinction between policy and administration degrees now requires fundamental reassessment, one that might well be an outgrowth of the growing collaboration between APPAM and NASPAA.

The boundaries between sectors have also blurred. Our students are likely to work in many sectors during their careers—even if they stay in one service or policy issue area. Disciplinary boundaries are blurring as well. What public affairs professionals need to know to uphold such values as privacy and transparency of
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governance draws from technical disciplines, such as information technology, as well as from the more philosophical, such as ethics and constitutional law.

Many faculty members have provided helpful guidance on these issues. Collaborative governance has become even more challenging as the diversity of stakeholders in the governance process has increased. Terry Cooper’s work on local governmental collaboration with citizens, for example, is at the leading edge of research in this area. Leading people in an increasing uncertain and diverse world requires new and different skills—now variously labeled “emotional intelligence” or “social intelligence”—in order to develop caring, empathic leaders who steward people and resources with vision and integrity.

Public officials who exemplify these qualities already abound among our alumni. One, about whom I have direct and personal knowledge, is Admiral Thad Allen, a George Washington University MPA graduate, who directed the federal effort in the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina. When the U.S. Coast Guard secured residents stranded by the hurricane, Admiral Allen expressed his philosophy by stating. “I told my men and women to treat every citizen they helped as if they were a family member.”

We know that our students need to develop more complex and nuanced analytical skills. Sensemaking in policy and management areas characterized by radical uncertainty is the new reality in the public sector. As Louise Comfort has recommended that in the area of homeland security, public servants need to be skilled in “auto-adaptation” (Comfort, 2002). Comfort’s focus on the necessity to develop skills in assessing risks; estimating consequences, capacities, and strategies; and redesigning actions is relevant in most policy arenas. Interestingly, leading effectively in the public sector continues to be more challenging than in the private sector. We have even more to consider as we rethink our standards than our business school counterparts.

Teaching our students to focus on the fundamental values, to lead with integrity and kindness, and to reflect and adapt quickly when assessing risks is what our schools do well. Recent political proposals to establish a public service academy, much like our existing armed service academies, to my mind, have missed the point. We already have superb public service academies in most of our state capitals, and in small and large communities across the country—from Lawrence to Pittsburgh to New York City (and I can’t neglect to mention my home town, Washington, D.C.). What we do need is more support for public service education within our existing public service “academies.” I believe an ROTC-like model for graduates and undergraduates in public affairs to support our students, wherever they study, would be more valuable and feasible.

In light of the new environment of public service, my belief is that our community needs to focus on how we can exert a positive influence on the quality of public affairs education across the globe. We need to collaborate with our international colleagues and domestic stakeholders to
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1. Clarify core values in public service;
2. Envision and articulate a comprehensive skill set for our students;
3. Challenge our students to expand and embrace skills and solution sets from outside our disciplines; and
4. Challenge our researchers to examine, explore, and evaluate new programs and processes to enhance the knowledge set available to public servants worldwide.

As the old Arabic saying goes, the only thing certain in this world is change. To recreate education for the public service in order to meet the challenges of tomorrow, we must embrace and prepare for change by equipping our students with the moral sense and the analytic skills they need in order to adapt. By preparing future generations to meet challenges that we cannot yet imagine, we will have left a great legacy: the capacity for democratic self-governance. That is our purpose, and that will be my goal as NASPAA’s president.

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Refocusing Graduate Public Affairs Education: A Need for Diversity Competencies in Human Resource Management

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Abstract
It is generally agreed that diversity is a critical challenge for managers and that advancing organizational diversity is both an ethical and a pragmatic requirement for effective public administration. However, it may be argued that graduate public affairs education relating to human resource management (HRM) has not sufficiently attended to diversity topics and that public affairs graduate curricula in general have not evidenced sufficient inclusion of diversity themes. This essay indicates a need for curricular revision that includes diversity competencies. The research and corresponding analysis is presented in two parts, corresponding to two phases of research. The first addresses findings from graduate student surveys conducted over three years at the University of Vermont. The second concerns data collected from 41 NASPAA-accredited and 17 unaccredited NASPAA-member programs in public affairs. The results from the first phase suggest that graduate public affairs students need greater exposure to diversity themes and issues. The second phase results suggest that NASPAA-accredited programs are not much different from unaccredited member programs in incorporating diversity topics into curricular offerings or otherwise exhibiting a commitment to diversity. The essay ends with several recommendations for programs intending to develop or revise their public policy and administration curricula in order to better attend to diversity concerns.
Human resources management (HRM) courses have been a part of graduate public affairs education in the United States since the 1920s (Ferris et al., 1999). In fact, many related disciplines, including public administration, policy studies, social policy, health policy, educational administration, and educational leadership, have long had HRM concentrations or tracks in their programs, as has business administration.

HRM is a fully established field in business administration, although it often associated with organizational behavior studies on such questions as identity group dynamics and employee motivation. A number of schools and programs offer HRM master’s or doctoral degrees; programs at the University of Minnesota, New York University, Utah State University, the University of Nebraska, and Colorado State University are among many now offering graduate degrees solely in HRM studies. Another sign of disciplinary maturity is the existence of influential professional organizations, such as the International Human Resources Management Association, the Society for Human Resource Management, and the Academy of Human Resource Development, which define professional and institutional stances on topics such as employee equity programs, diversity management, and diversity education and training.

However, there does not appear to be quite as intense an interest in diversity issues in the HRM-related graduate public affairs curriculum. The relative lack of emphasis on diversity in the formation of public sector managers is worrisome, because management is largely about managing people, and increasingly people from very different demographic and socioeconomic backgrounds. Consequently, to fail to attend sufficiently to questions of diversity in the curriculum is, arguably, to do a disservice to students in graduate public affairs programs.

**Purpose and Context of the Study**

While one purpose of this essay is to indicate the need to refocus HRM graduate education in the direction of diversity, the essay also aims to further the social equity agenda in graduate public affairs education. Although diversity and social equity are not always explicitly linked, they are logically and normatively tied and need be examined together, as Frederickson (1980) suggests.

Martha Dede (2002) found that six functional areas or clusters constitute the HRM field. Briefly stated, these are (1) position classification and compensation; (2) recruitment and examination; (3) employee training and development; (4) performance appraisal, promotion, and discipline; (5) labor relations and collective bargaining; and (6) equal employment opportunity and diversity. The overall purpose of Dede’s research was to introduce a new pedagogy for teaching HRM to graduate students, requiring them to use a modeling approach to create a personnel system for a hypothetical city. The semester-long project helped improve students’ understanding of the six functional areas just noted. Dede made a strong contribution with her innovative simulation approach to teaching HRM, generating a great deal of attention and debate; however, her work did not serve to prompt dialogue about diversity _per se_.

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Likewise, HRM texts have had little impact because their treatments of diversity are too often overly brief or too limited to a concern for mitigation for diversity as a problem to be handled, and defensively. A more robust approach is found in the work of Earnest and Shawnta (2003, 863), who offer a substantive method for the creation of a diversity strategy that would become “systemic to an organization’s culture and its way of doing business,” along a continuum that runs from “acknowledging to valuing, and ultimately…systemically managing diversity.”

**Critical Definitions: Equity, Diversity, and Competency**

The germane literature suggests that there continues to be confusion over what diversity is and what equal employment opportunity is and what larger agenda these elements of employment equity might constitute. While one might simply conclude, as does Dede, that equal employment opportunity and diversity issues are inextricably connected, it is probably better, for analytical purposes, to distinguish between the two. On one hand, equal opportunity employment practices are prescribed and proscribed by federal law, along with state and local laws. On the other hand, diversity practices turn on ethical norms, because they are based on the philosophical or moral belief that differences in people actually enrich the world of work.

An equal employment approach may then merely become a matter of legal sanction and risk management, while a diversity approach would turn on a commitment to representativeness, equity, and difference. The former operates in the institutional domain of the law, and the latter in the normative realm of public ethics. Whether equity or diversity is the more comprehensive framework is unclear and unimportant; public programs carry one or the other more or less interchangeable moniker. Both represent complex managerial challenges.

Riccucci, for one, argues that, as a subject of managerial concern, diversity derives from federal equal employment opportunity and affirmative action initiatives (2002, 2). Tshikwatamba (2003) notes that diversity and equity have two dimensions: constants such as age, ethnicity, and physical ability, and attributes such as educational background, income, and work experience. For Anderson and Collins (2004, 1) diversity is about an awareness of and sensitivity to “the intersections of race, class and gender,” about seeing “linkages to other categories of analysis, including sexuality, age, religion, physical disability, national identity and ethnicity,” and about appreciating the disparities of power “that produce social inequalities.” They argue that diversity should not be reduced to defensive forms of management (i.e., how to avoid or counter discrimination or harassment actions). They also argue that diversity study should not be trivialized as an excursion into various forms of essentially equivalent “life experiences,” because the experiences of racism, sexism, or poverty are not ones for which anyone would likely opt.
The Tilford Research Group of Kansas State University (2004) defines “diversity competencies” as the attitudes, attributes, knowledge, and skills that college and university students will need to live and work in a globalized world. One of the Tilford Group’s suggestions is that it is not only students who need to develop multicultural competencies, but also faculty, staff members, and senior administrators, and it also proposes strategies for the development of diversity competencies. It has evaluated training programs, interviewed specialist diversity and multicultural trainers and managers, reviewed literature from a variety of disciplines from social work to education and management, and conducted focus group research with faculty and students at Kansas State University to identify essential competencies (listed in Table 1 below). Interesting in light of concerns taken up later in this paper, these queries were linked to accreditation when the following survey question was put to the faculty: “How do accreditation guidelines influence how you prepare students to live and work in a diverse world?”

Table 1. Tilford Group Diversity Competencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I. Knowledge: Awareness and understanding needed to live and work in a diverse world.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Cultural self-awareness—The ability to understand one’s ethnic self-identification.</td>
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<td>2. Diverse ethnic groups—An understanding of different cultures and ethnic groups.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Social/political/economic/historical framework—Understanding how sociopolitical, economic, and historical factors and events affect racial groups around the world.</td>
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<td>5. Understanding population dynamics of race and ethnicity.</td>
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<tr>
<th>II. Personal Attributes: Traits needed by to live and work in a diverse world.</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Flexibility: Being able to adapt to a changing world.</td>
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<td>2. Respect: An appreciation for differences in others.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Empathy: The ability to respect another person’s culture and perspective.</td>
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<tr>
<th>III. Skills: Behaviors and performance tasks needed to live and work in diverse world.</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Cross-cultural communication—Verbal/nonverbal communications with different groups.</td>
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<td>2. Teamwork—The ability to work with diverse groups with toward a common goal.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Conflict resolution—The ability to resolve cultural conflicts.</td>
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<td>4. Critical thinking—Being able to use inductive and deductive reasoning.</td>
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<td>5. Language development—Being able to speak and write more than one language.</td>
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<td>6. Leadership development—The ability to provide diversity leadership.</td>
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Adapted from: Tilford Group (2004).
Extending the reach of the diversity framework into leadership studies and the public affairs curriculum, Burnier (2003), writing in the *Journal of Public Affairs Education (JPAE)*, addressed the insufficient representation of women in top public sector leadership positions, and this current issue of *JPAE* attests to growing scholarly interest in the many dimensions of the topics of diversity and equity. Nonetheless, Oldfield, Candler, and Johnson (2006) make the argument that diversity subjects as such have been largely absent from public affairs scholarship.

It is interesting to note that today, in many ways, the most nuanced treatments of diversity and the changing workforce come out of the business administration literature. As Argyle (2005, 2) argues, an “emphasis on Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Opportunity (AA/EEO) no longer provides adequate guidance for managing the workforce in either public or private sectors, yet much of what we continue to teach in MPA programs and continue to practice in public-sector management remains driven by AA/EEO.” Argyle adds that the “public sector was in the forefront of implementing AA/EEO, serving as a role model for the private sector [but] the same cannot be said when it comes to managing diversity.” He finds that, now, the “private sector leads in this area, and we in the public sector are playing catch-up.” In short, the public sector has largely relinquished its leadership in the area of diversity, if gradually and imperceptibly.

It is instructive in this context that students graduating from business schools are expected to have at least a basic understanding of how diversity affects an organization’s bottom line—i.e., a pragmatic and operational understanding of diversity—while graduates of public affairs programs have no such expectation in common, either from their schools or from employers. Most business managers will note that having a diverse workforce and knowing about diverse markets makes good business sense and provides a competitive edge (Hudson, 2003), while business administration scholars such as Baugher, Varanelli, and Weisbord (2000) have been insistent in their call for attention to diversity and to related benefits such as job satisfaction.

However, recent work by public administration scholars is attending more closely to the performance implications of diversity. David Pitts of Georgia State University and Elizabeth Jarry of the University of Georgia (2005) have produced a strong empirical treatment of diversity and organizational performance against the backdrop of a comprehensive review of the literature. Their findings are counterintuitive: diversity among managers—as distinct from street-level officials (in this case, teachers)—was not related to work outcomes in a statistically significant way, although the authors caution against drawing inferences beyond specific factor categories. Noting that theirs is “the first public administration study to use large-N data to link a measure of diversity to organizational performance,” Pitts and Jarry (2006, 26) remark that “the field is still waiting on the first study to use qualitative data to achieve the same goal.” Mitchell Rice of Texas A&M presented a similarly compelling study of cultural competency and performance measurement.
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at the 2006 annual conference of the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). Such research indicates that research on both the performance and normative implications of diversity is gaining centrality in public administration scholarship.

It appears that more and more organizations, public and private, are developing an integrated diversity orientation that attends to productivity and equity (Bagshaw, 2004). An integrative approach is advised, because diversity presents challenges associated with personal alienation and organizational conflict that managerial responses alone cannot resolve. One common vector of conflict is found, for instance, in the widely divergent attitudes commonly found toward affirmative action (Jansen, 2005). Whatever the source of division, what is required, beyond the creation of a climate of tolerance, is the promotion of an organizational culture that positively values diversity and difference (Seyed-Mahmoud, 2004; Tshikwatamba, 2003; Riccucci, 2002; Golembiewski, 1995).

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The first phase of a two-part investigative effort used student surveys and was conducted at the University of Vermont during a three-year period. Three co-hourts of human resources management students, with about 10 students in each class (total N=28), were queried. The students were asked to report on stereotypical images of which they were aware—not their personal views—of men of color, white men, and working-class men. In the same survey, the students were asked to repeat this exercise for women in the same racial and socioeconomic groups. The second part of the investigation involved electronic content analysis of graduate program Web site information. Follow-up phone calls were made to program offices, university registrars, and NASPAA in order to verify the accuracy of Web information. Content analysis was conducted over a period of three months, with phone calls made during the subsequent month.

The sample included 41 public affairs graduate programs in the United States. The programs were selected because they offered an HRM concentration or track. Programs only offering a single course in HRM were not selected. The sample consisted of master’s programs accredited by NASPAA. Seventeen unaccredited but NASPAA-member programs were also studied to ascertain differences between the two. Variables such as core requirements, course content, faculty research interest, and number of faculty of color were also considered because of their pertinence to diversity, in particular an effective commitment to diversity.

PHASE I FINDINGS: SURVEYS

At the University of Vermont, the same faculty member has taught HRM for the last three years (AY 2003, 2004 and 2006), making for consistency in the survey process. For three years, graduate students taking the HRM course were surveyed at the beginning of the semester to identify social attitudes toward
people of color and toward social class. The faculty member teaching the class is a person of color who used the survey findings to frame seminar topics during the same semester in which the survey was administered. A large majority of the students reported not fully understanding the connection between HRM and the survey, and 3 percent reported feeling uncomfortable about discussing such issues in a graduate seminar and therefore opted out of the survey. However, the remaining 97 percent did complete the survey.

The survey asked two principal questions: “Please identify social stereotypes for African American men, Hispanic men, Asian men, Native American men, white men, and working-class men” and “Please identify social stereotypes for African American women, Hispanic women, Asian women, Native American women, white women and working-class women.” The survey findings suggest that 98 percent of the students responding were aware of a number of racial, gender, and class stereotypes in the larger society, as Tables 2 and 3 below indicate.

It is interesting to note that people of color were more often than not described by negative stereotypes, while their white counterparts were more often characterized as ambitious and high achievers. Poor and working class people—across racial lines—were also cast negatively. Although gender was included in the

| **Table 2. Racial Perceptions of Men/Working-Class Men** |
|-----------------------------------|---------|------|-----|-----|
| **African American Men**         | thriving | sexy | athletic | rappers |
| **Asian Men**                    | intelligent | quiet | small | autocratic |
| **Native American Men**          | drunks | spiritual | uneducated | |
| **Hispanic Men**                 | macho | uneducated | high sex drive | greasy |
| **White Men**                    | CEOs | nonathletic | cheaters | privileged |
| **Working Class or Poor Men**   | large family | unambitious | city resident | |

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<th><strong>Table 3. Racial Perceptions of Women/Working-Class Women</strong></th>
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<td><strong>African American Women</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Asian Women</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Native American Women</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Hispanic Women</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>White Women</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Working Class or Poor Women</strong></td>
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survey, sexual orientation, age, disability, and other possible categories were not addressed. The students surveyed uniformly indicated that they themselves did not share the perceptions reported, but that they were aware of them as persistent social stereotypes. The expectation of considerable distance between individual perceptions and the stereotypes reported and the fact that these distances varied to an unspecified extent among respondents represent threats to survey validity. Nevertheless, the researchers take the survey results to be a broad-stroke, proximate measure of the extent to which these respondents will have to contend, as managers, with jaundiced images of minorities and women in the workplace.

**Phase 2 Findings: Electronic Content Analysis**

According to NASPAA guidelines, graduate public affairs programs interested in attaining or holding accreditation need to address diversity in the curriculum. NASPAA standards go further in indicating that such programs must demonstrate commitment to faculty and student diversity through diversity planning and diversity plan implementation. The draft diversity standards that NASPAA is currently considering as part of a comprehensive standards review would revise current standards on faculty and student diversity (5.5 and 6.1) with language that more directly acknowledges the importance of intellectual diversity and diversity in the curriculum.

While currently not subject to the same prescriptive weight under a guideline as faculty and student diversity is under a standard, diversity across the curriculum appears poised to gain greater emphasis in NASPAA accreditation. NASPAA guidelines already encourage the exploration of diversity in the curriculum and provide numerous suggestions for how to accomplish such an effort, as the excerpt that follows, taken from the NASPAA Web site, makes clear.

*Curricular and Programmatic Enrichment*

All graduates of a master’s degree program in public affairs and administration are required to function in increasingly diverse and heterogeneous organizational settings. Consequently, course and curriculum materials as well as other programmatic activities should expose students to issues relating to race and gender and develop in them the capacity to work effectively with individuals representing diverse backgrounds.

Among the activities which might be undertaken are the following:

1. Development of specific course and/or workshops dealing with race and gender.
2. Use of prominent women and minority officials as guest speakers in courses, workshops or special programs.
3. Design of internship experiences to place students under the supervision of women and minority agency mentors.

4. Throughout the curriculum, use of case studies, simulations and problem solving exercises which either feature women and/or minorities in leadership roles or which examine issues of particular concern for women and minorities.

5. Integration within a range of courses of research studies relating to women and minorities.


The Tilford Group at Kansas State considered the influence of accreditation guidelines on diversity to be significant enough to make a question about accreditation a central query for its faculty focus group.

The phase 2 research findings are reported here as summary results of the aforementioned electronic content analysis and follow-up phone interviews. The main purpose of this second phase of research was to determine how accredited and unaccredited programs alike fared in featuring diversity in course offerings and in the representation of faculty of color and women. The reason for an additional question about the proportion of doctoral hires from top schools is tied to diversity aims in faculty hiring; it is discussed in the concluding section below.

The content analysis did not take up issues of student diversity. The emphasis was on the extent to which programs attended to diversity in their curricula, with reference to the NASPAA Guidelines, and with additional emphasis on elements of field and integrative experience pertaining to diversity. The relationship of this research phase to the first revolved around the premise that a sustained, programmatic diversity commitment is needed to equip students to deal, as public managers, with persistent social stereotypes in the workplace.

Findings were as follows. All of the accredited programs studied had a full complement of core requirements consistent with NASPAA standards. This was not an unexpected result, because their curricula typically had been designed or modified to meet NASPAA accreditation standards. However, it was somewhat surprising that 95 percent of the unaccredited (or not yet accredited) programs reported having NASPAA-compliant core curricular requirements in place as well. Thirty-nine percent of accredited programs had a course significantly focused on diversity, while only 26 percent of unaccredited programs did so.

For the purposes of this study, a diversity course is defined as an HRM course that deals explicitly and significantly with one or more diversity-related topics (prominently, race, ethnicity, gender, and social class). As the study unfolded,
registrars and NASPAA staff were called when the investigators could not easily
tell what a course was really about. Programs would sometimes indicate in the
process that, consistent with NASPAA guidelines, they have diversity coverage
distributed among several courses rather than addressed centrally in a stand-alone
course.

Questions about internship or field experience and about a thesis or other
integrative writing project were intended to gauge academic rigor consistent
with a practitioner or professional orientation and to assess the competencies
that employers can expect from graduates of accredited and unaccredited gradu-
ate programs in public affairs. Consistent with NASPAA curricular standards,
63 percent of accredited programs offered an internship or field placement experi-
ence, and they also indicated a separate integrative writing experience such as a
thesis. The finding that 74 percent of unaccredited programs had an internship
or thesis option indicates that they had not disaggregated field experience from
academic integration at the end of graduate study. In many of these cases, intern-
ships were intended to serve the integrative function.

The researchers found that a field experience or internship course—in and of
itself—is often an opportunity for exposure to communities of color. As such,
field experience opportunities can be an important component of diversity educa-
tion. Such courses may serve to offset a lack of explicit treatment of diversity in
the curriculum, at least provisionally, and they may be particularly useful for
pre-service students or for others with relatively little exposure to such communities.

The relative closeness of responses from accredited and unaccredited programs
is probably due to the fact that the latter, as NASPAA member programs, have a
common interest in moving toward accreditability by striving to attain NASPAA
standards. When standards were at play, as with common core curricular compo-
nents, the responses indicated close compliance with those standards, and they
were exceedingly close between accredited and unaccredited programs. However,
when guidelines governed, as with diversity curricular coverage, the incidence of
compliance was lower and there was marked divergence between the two pro-
gram categories.

**CONCLUSION**

The purpose of this article was to argue for greater coverage of diversity
in HRM graduate curricula in public affairs, with an ancillary purpose of
re-examining the logical and normative linkage between diversity and social
equity. The essay also reported on surveys and content analyses conducted over a
three-year period, complementary studies that confirmed the persistence of racial,
ethnic, and gender social stereotypes and the variability and lack of centrality of
countervailing diversity commitments in public affairs curricula.

A telling comparison may be drawn between this study and one conducted
by Nolan Argyle in 2005. His study of MPA program Web pages revealed the
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following: In a sample of 80 accredited or accreditable MPA programs, 28.8 percent reported having faculty with diversity as part of their research interests, 6.3 percent had a stand-alone course on managing diversity, and 11.3 percent reported courses with the word “diversity” in their title (Argyle, 2005, 5). The combined measure of 17.3 percent course coverage of diversity, together with presumed additional coverage in HR and other courses, would approximate the findings of the study reported here. The outstanding question in both instances concerns the centrality of diversity in the classroom, in faculty research, and in the lived experience of students in their programs.

We conclude with four recommendations that graduate programs might wish to consider in adding or strengthening a diversity orientation. The first is to either add required courses that explicitly speak to issues of diversity or to include diversity issues in required courses. Programs might consider two courses, one a general survey course taught with reference to as many components of diversity as possible, and the second a topics course more intensively addressing race, ethnicity, and gender, coupled with consideration of socioeconomic status or class.

It should be expected that some faculty will suggest that they already incorporate diversity into their courses. The incorporation of diversity in coursework, like the integration of ethical, international, economic, or information management issues across various parts of the curriculum, is consistent with current NASPAA guidelines. However, diffuse approaches such as these are difficult to track and even more difficult to measure, and, while necessary, may be insufficient in and of themselves to prepare students for diversity challenges in the workplace.

Next, HRM graduate programs should have an internship option attached to a field experience that would deliberately put the student in contact with communities of color—most often through social service and advocacy agencies—thereby encouraging real-world interaction with such communities. However, allowing a choice between internship or an integrative exercise such as a thesis may be a disservice to both. Even though an integrative final project may include both writing and fieldwork, and though an internship may be an integrative experience, each element—field experience and capstone course—provides distinct benefits to students.

Third, this research suggests that a better-rounded faculty recruited from a more varied pool of graduate schools would likely be a more diverse faculty. Public affairs graduate programs, like other academic programs, should strive to attract the best workforce possible. However, when—as found in this study—there is a preponderance of faculty with doctorates from the top 30 public affairs programs in the country (according to U.S. News & World Report rankings), the extent of student diversity in these same programs can become a constraint. If public affairs programs seek to attract talented faculty from a variety of different
places beyond the elite schools, it is likely that they will encounter greater numbers of minority faculty candidates.

Fourth, one of the unanticipated findings of this study was the dearth of research literature concerned with diversity. It is recommended, therefore, that department or program chairs or deans encourage their faculty members to devote time and effort to researching diversity. Such scholarship would strengthen courses concerned with diversity and would enrich the HRM field in general. And faculty of color or women should not automatically be expected to be the ones to take up this kind of research (Trower and Chait, 2002). As Tillman (2002) suggests, majority faculty can conduct diversity scholarship as successfully as anyone else. As suggested throughout this essay, diversity should be about valuing differences in shared activity, and diversity scholarship is as good a starting place as any for that undertaking.

REFERENCES

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Johnson wishes to thank the American Society for Public Administration for allowing him to present an earlier version of part of the study discussed here at its 2006 national conference in Denver. He also thanks the faculty who gave him feedback on the study as well as senior faculty mentors Susan Hasazi and Curtis Ventriss at the University of Vermont for their assistance in framing the topic.

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Teaching Diversity in Public Administration: A Missing Component?

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Abstract

Since its inception, the discipline of public administration has been challenged by its dual mission of educating both practitioner and academician (Golembiewski, 1977; Denhardt, 2001). Normative issues such as ethical behavior, social equity, and the impact of diversity on public institutions and policies are matters that conjoin public administration scholarship and practice. However, these subjects are not standard in the public administration education curriculum. Ethics and social equity have received intermittent attention in the professional journals and in the curriculum offerings of schools associated with the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA; Bowman, 1990; Lee and Paddock, 1992; Gooden and Myers, 2004). This study explores the question of whether the issue of diversity has received similar attention in public administration education. After reviewing the curricula at 50 NASPAA accredited-schools, this study concludes that teaching diversity in the public administration/public affairs curriculum is not, in fact, overlooked. However, our finding that the topic of diversity is relatively neglected in the published scholarship indicates a need for public affairs education programs to support such scholarship.

Since its inception, the discipline of public administration has struggled with a mission to educate both the practitioner and the academician (Golembiewski, 1977; Denhardt, 2001). Determining what courses to teach, what theories to promulgate, and how to best develop efficient professional leadership have nagged the discipline for more than half a century (Ventriss, 1991; Greenwood and Eggins, 1995; Denhardt, 2001). For almost a hundred years, public adminis-
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Administrations have tried to establish its legitimacy as an academic discipline, against fears that, if it strays too far to either the practitioner or academic side, its suitability for the preparation of students for a professional leadership role in public service will be diminished (Ventriss, 1991).

Caught in this dilemma, public administration education has focused on a curriculum with common components that support the management of public service organizations, the application of quantitative and qualitative techniques of analysis, and an understanding of the public policy and organizational environment (NASPAA, 2006). Within these components, an academic program should include a host of concrete and abstract issues that link scholarship to informed action, thus enabling the student to function decisively as a professional and to effect change in the public sector. In other words, there is no common core, but there are skills and issues that affect all public organizations and the entirety of society (Averch and Dluhy, 1992).

Issues such as ethical behavior, social equity, and the impact of diversity on public institutions and policies are matters that conjoin public administration scholarship and practice. Far from being seen as standard in the curricula of public affairs education, however, these are often viewed as ancillary or even tangential concerns requiring little attention (Rosenbloom, 2005; White, 2004).

The need to include ethics, social equity, and diversity in preparing public administration students for leadership in public service may be ill defined, perhaps because their introduction into the scope of public administration education reaches back to the behavioralist era of the profession (Golembiewski, 1977). This was a time during which many practitioners felt that the profession was mired in behavioral “nonsense” and was deterred from its logical course, namely that of being organizationally centered and committed to economic and efficient government. Emphasis on community and social and economic justice was likewise believed to be taking the profession in the wrong direction (Golembiewski, 1977). Over time, then and now, have questioned the need for the inclusion of these issues, given the breadth of technical, procedural, methodological, and scholarly knowledge public servants need in order to govern effectively. However, ethics, social equity, and diversity are inescapable dimensions of the challenges that the profession must meet.

Several studies have examined the educational advantages of diversity in the curriculum (Hurtado, 2005; Maruyama and Moreno, 2000; Niemann and Maruyama, 2005). Researchers found that diversity education fosters self-reflection, greater personal development, greater intellectual and social self-confidence, greater critical thinking and problem solving skills, and greater acceptance and openness to racial and cultural change (Astin, 1993; Chang et al., 2006; Niemann and Maruyama, 2005). Diversity education promotes social concern, fostering humane values and greater participation in community and public service (Chang and Astin, 1997). Greater civic engagement serves the develop-
ment of a democratic state a central goal for public administration ((Niemann and Maruyama, 2005; McSwite, 2005).

Both ethics and social equity have received intermittent attention in the professional journals and in the curriculum offerings of schools associated with NASPAA (Bowman, 1990; Lee and Paddock, 1992; Gooden and Myers, 2004). Has diversity, as a curricular and professional issue, received similar interest in public administration education? This study explores that question.

Review of the Literature

A host of meanings is associated with the term diversity. It is defined as “race, ethnicity, class, gender, sexual orientation, age, religion, and disability differences among people” (White, 2004, 115). Diversity is ubiquitous, associated as it is with numerous cultural, social, economic, and demographic groups, and associated demographic changes such as mass migration are creating structural shifts that in turn will make for the development of new public policies (Wilson, 2004). The ways in which public administration professionals facilitate and implement these public policies will depend upon their training and their ability to effectively, responsibly, and morally respond to these demographic and social changes (Denhardt, 2001; Downes, 1998).

According to Evans and Lowery (2006), public administration as a discipline grew out of normative claims that, like diversity, were contentious. This means that the discipline addresses, and should address, broad social questions that provide for public discourse. It is in the course of dialogue about these issues—in professional meetings, in educational settings, and in scholarship—that the public administration community can debate and assess the validity of the normative claims surrounding diversity and other pressing concerns.

An academic discipline is a community with a particular and systematic type of discourse. The major type of discourse is through scholarly writing that is highly focused, analytical, and critical (Northedge, 2003b) and that helps develop shared meanings and in some instances shared values. If there is little discourse, then teachers, students, and practitioners alike have limited participatory access to this discourse, especially as it becomes more specialized (Northedge, 2003).

A review of the literature on the topic of diversity tends to present a picture of inadequate treatment (Rice, 2004; Northedge, 2003a; Wise and Tschirhart, 2000). A limited search of the number of articles on diversity and/or the teaching of diversity was conducted in the Journal of Public Affairs Education (JPAE) and Public Administration Review (PAR) over a five-year period (2001-2005). PAR was chosen on the basis of its usefulness to academics and practitioners (Terry, 2005, 644) as “the preeminent journal in the field of public administration research and theory for more than 60 years (American Society for Public Administration, http://www.aspanet.org/scriptcontent/Library.cfm).” JPAE was chosen because of its dedication to advancing teaching and learning in public affairs.
Between the years 2001 and 2005, PAR published a total of 536 articles, only 10 of which focused on issues of diversity. Eight of those 10 articles addressed gender issues. JPAE took a broader approach. Of the 130 articles (including commentaries, essays, review essays, and peer-reviewed articles) published during the same period, 11 (8 percent) were devoted to diversity issues. Unlike PAR, only three of the JPAE articles focused on gender issues. Obviously, a combined 21 articles devoted to diversity issues in five years is quite scant.

When a discipline appears to have limited discursive engagement through its professional literature and activities around a particular issue, any of several difficulties may be at work. Members of the discipline may not have accepted the particular concept as germane to the field; they may prefer to discount the issue or concept until further study is done or until circumstances warrant further engagement; or they may believe that they are inadequately prepared pedagogically to handle discourse associated with diversity (Mayhew and Grunwald, 2006).

According to Rice (2004), when there is a paucity of articles in the professional journals on an issue such as diversity and there is a meager offering of related courses, it may mean that the faculty feel the subjects are not viable pedagogically or they may simply lack interest. Faculty may find themselves inadequately prepared to talk knowledgeably about diversity issues or to write about it. Inadequate preparation may indicate that important elements of the teaching role—framing meaning; planning, organizing, and leading discussion of an issue; and enabling students to competently handle the issue in speech, writing, and action—cannot be adequately addressed in diversity education (Northedge, 2003a), and therefore students cannot be engaged in thinking critically about diversity and its ramifications for public service.

Several studies have taken a critical look at faculty receptivity to diversity in the curriculum. Those studies indicate that faculty members who fail to include diversity in their curriculum do so primarily for two reasons: goal incongruence and/or perceived ineffectiveness of changes to include diversity (Mayhew and Grunwald, 2006). Lack of goal congruence may be explained by the personal values of the faculty member or by a particular department’s attitude toward diversity. Mayhew and Grunwald found that if the perceived academic climate in a department is receptive to and supportive of diversity then individual faculty are more likely to incorporate diversity into their course materials or to support it as part of the curriculum. If the perceived climate is neutral or nonsupportive, faculty will tend not to support diversity in the curriculum.

Maruyama and Moreno (2000) found that senior faculty in particular were less positive about the benefits of diversity in their discipline and were less likely to address the issues associated with diversity. Such reluctance on the part of senior faculty may be linked to a lack of receptivity by journal editorial boards to articles on diversity (Oldfield, Candler, and Johnston, 2005). Research shows that, even when individual faculty have liberal views about diversity and inclusiveness
and acknowledge the importance of diversity education, they are ineffectual in their advocacy for diversity education (Maruyama and Moreno, 2000; Smolen et al., 2006), and incongruity found in other disciplines as well (Chang, 2000).

**Study Design and Methodology**

This study looks at the emphasis placed on diversity in public administration/public affairs curricula at NASPAA member schools. Its aim is to determine the extent to which programs include classes that focus on issues of diversity. Specifically, the study looks at course titles and catalog descriptions of courses in public administration and public policy programs to assess the coverage of race, nationality, religion, gender, age, sexual orientation, disability, and class.

Data were generated from schools selected through a systematic random sample of accredited programs listed on the NASPAA Web site. Systematic sampling, also known as interval sampling, is a procedure in which there is a gap, or interval, between each selection. The data were selected using intervals of three until the entire population was exhausted. This yielded a sample of 50 programs, or 37.31 percent of the accredited schools listed. The characteristics of the schools varied. Some were private, but overwhelmingly they were public institutions. The schools were geographically dispersed across 31 states and the District of Columbia.

Content analysis was used as a qualitative methodological approach to analyze the information found in course titles and descriptions from the selected schools. This technique tests for recurring thematic instances that are systematically identified across the data set (Silverman, 2004). The instances identified are the terms used by White (2004) to define the various elements of diversity.

Content analysis “provides researchers with a systematic methodology for analyzing the data obtained from archival records, documents, and the mass media” (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2000, 296). Trochim (2006) notes that written documents can also include Web sites, annual reports, and newspapers. Using key words in context (KWIC), which allows words to “be analyzed in their specific context to be disambiguated” (Krippendorf, 2004), course descriptions were examined from each of the 50 programs identified. Any and all of the terms included in White’s (2004) definition of diversity were observed for their inclusion in the curriculum.

The levels of emphasis of the terms in each course were loosely constructed. The key words were identified and measured from three perspectives: 1) if an independent course focused solely on one of the terms; 2) if a term was included in the general course description as one of the major topics covered; 3) if one or more terms were included in the title or course description. Courses that covered more than one descriptor were counted under the multiple coverage heading. Courses were counted only once based on the dominant category reflected in the course description. For example, a course focused solely on the administration of
programs for Hispanics was classified under the race/ethnicity category. A course covering women, poverty, and race was noted under the multiple coverage category. Data were collected using the following descriptions:

a. race, ethnicity—courses covering any of the populations identified in Title VII of the Civil Rights Act as protected classes.
b. religion—courses focused on religious theory, practices, and influence on public administration/public policy.
c. nationality—courses exploring issues associated with administering public programs to non-native American populations in the United States.
d. gender—courses focused on women and public administration either in the workforce as administrators or decision makers, or courses addressing gender disparities.
e. sexual orientation—courses addressing gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender issues.
f. disability—courses extensively covering the responsibility of administrators in dealing with issues of the disabled or differently abled including but not limited to the Americans with Disabilities Act and administering agencies serving the disabled and the mentally challenged.
g. class—courses providing an understanding of the role of public administrators in issues of poverty or socioeconomic disparities.
h. age—courses exploring the unique issues associated with managing an aging workforce, issues associated with the administration of the Age Discrimination Act, and other similar factors.
i. multiple or general coverage—courses providing general exposure to all aspects of diversity. Courses placed in this category may also combine the study of one or more elements of diversity such as age and gender or race and socioeconomic disparities.

The limitations of this study design include:

• Observing catalog descriptions rather than syllabi. These are broader and often do not show specific teaching modules.
• The generalizability of the study may be limited based on the small sample of only 50 units.
• Because there is no standard definition for diversity, or many of its key elements, the descriptors used in the word search may have excluded courses.
• This study does not consider diversity courses that students are permitted to take that may be offered in other programs or departments unless they are included among the list of public administration courses in the catalog.
FINDINGS

Table 1 provides a descriptive picture of the findings. Overall, 28 programs (56 percent) had at least one diversity course and 10 programs (20 percent) had more than one course. The largest number of courses were those providing a general overview or covering multiple aspects of diversity. Seventeen of the 50 programs observed (34 percent) had courses that covered more than one element of diversity. Of those 17, three programs had more than one course.

When diversity is disambiguated into its various elements and courses focused on the separate descriptors are observed, two of the descriptors, religion and sexual orientation, had no independent courses in the programs sampled. These topics were covered, however, in the general or multiple coverage courses. Gender was the second largest category; seven schools (14 percent) had at least one course covering gender issues. Two of those seven had two courses devoted to the topic. Gender appeared in all of the courses covering multiple issues. This is not surprising but is consistent with the literature: in the journals, gender issues are covered more than any other individual diversity descriptor.

Ranking third in the number of courses was the race and ethnicity descriptor. Four schools had courses covering one or more aspects of this element of diversity. Only one school had more than one course on this issue. Class and age issues ranked fourth among the elements. Only three schools had courses covering topics emphasizing socioeconomic disparities and age issue. No schools had more than one course in these areas. Nationality and disability were the lowest ranked of the elements, with only one school with a course. Additionally, of the 50 programs observed, a large number had courses in comparative administration that addressed, or sometimes focused on, specific nationalities. None of the schools addressed the element of nationality or national origin within the context of diversity as defined for this study.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

What can be concluded? Teaching diversity in the public administration/public affairs curriculum is not a missing component of public affairs education, as might have been expected at the outset. More than half of the programs in the sample deemed it necessary to include diversity in their curriculum. Given the conceptual framework, this indicates that a majority of public administration programs recognize the importance of this topic in preparing students. Of particular importance is the inclusion of gender and gender issues in the curriculum. Public administration faculty should not at this point feel discouraged by the relative lack of articles about diversity in the journals. It was not until the 1990s that scholarly research about diversity appeared to be seen as legitimate (Wise and Tschirhart, 2000). It was during this period that top-ranked journals began publishing articles about diverse populations such as women and African Americans. Many of the articles, however, were descriptive and lacked the attributes of
research-based studies (Wise and Tschirhart, 2000); over-reliance on descriptive articles is common across public administration’s practitioner and research publications (Wright, Manigault, and Black, 2004). Academicians and practitioners must continue to engage in dialogues about the topic and support the inclusion of more research-based articles in the journals.

If the central purpose of public administration education is to prepare students for leadership roles in public service, the absence of engaged thought about as vital a subject as diversity is an important void. Research indicates that, as managers and other public officers move into more responsible positions, they must acquire broader sets of skills in order to be effective. They must demonstrate technical competency, but they also must develop leadership, flexibility, communications skills, and intrapersonal skills if they are to serve the public effectively (Denhardt, 2001). If their education is lacking in cultural competency and diversity issues, then their ability to deliver responsive public service may be in doubt.

Table 1. Diversity Courses by School/PA Program

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## Teaching Diversity in Public Administration: A Missing Component?

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### School Legend

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REFERENCES


Teaching Diversity in Public Administration: A Missing Component?


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Promoting Cultural Competency in Public Administration and Public Service Delivery: Utilizing Self-assessment Tools and Performance Measures

Mitchell F. Rice
Texas A&M University

Abstract
Demographic changes and growing cultural diversity in the U.S. population have resulted in a greater possibility that, during a service delivery encounter between client and public agency provider, there will occur an exchange involving different cultural backgrounds, material realities, beliefs, practices, behaviors, and language. This increasing cultural diversity raises several important questions about the future role of public administration and the delivery of culturally appropriate and culturally responsive public services. These questions, which focus on the central issue of cultural competency in public administration and public service delivery, include: What is cultural competency in public administration and public service delivery? Can public agencies become culturally competent organizations? What self-assessment tools and performance measures will improve an agency’s ability to provide culturally appropriate and responsive services? This paper addresses these questions by providing a definition of cultural competency in public administration and public service delivery and by identifying self-assessment tools and performance measures that can assist public agencies in moving toward cultural competency in delivering public services and programs.

What Is Cultural Competency?
Competence is “having the knowledge, skills, and abilities to be effective in a particular area” (U. S. DHHS, 2001a, 2) or having attained a level of mastery (3). In cross-cultural situations, competence is the capacity to function within the context of culturally integrated patterns of human behavior defined
Promoting Cultural Competency: Self-assessment Tools and Performance Measures

by a group. Thus, being competent in cross-cultural situations means learning new patterns of behavior and effectively applying them in appropriate settings. Cultural competency can be defined as an “ongoing commitment or institutionalization of appropriate practices and policies for diverse populations (Brach and Fraser, 2000). Cross et al. (1989) view cultural competency as a “set of cultural behaviors and attitudes integrated into the practice methods of a system, agency, or its professionals that enables them to work effectively in cross cultural situations.” Cross et al. also see cultural competency as a developmental process occurring along a negative-positive continuum consisting of six possibilities, starting from one end (negative) and building toward the other end (positive): 1) cultural destructiveness; 2) cultural incapacity; 3) cultural blindness; 4) cultural pre-competence; 5) cultural competency; and 6) cultural proficiency.

Cox and Beale (1997) define cultural competency as the ability to “effectively respond to the challenges and opportunities posed by the presence of socio-cultural diversity in a defined social system.” Hurdle (2002) posits that cultural competency is the “development of adequate professional skills to provide services to ethnic, racial, and cultural groups. The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2002) sees cultural competence as “comprising behaviors, attitudes, and policies that can come together on a continuum: that will ensure that a system agency, program or individual can function effectively and appropriately in diverse cultural interactions and settings.” Bush (2000) defines cultural competency as a “respect for, and understanding of, diverse ethnic and cultural groups, their histories, traditions, beliefs, and value systems” in the provision and delivery of services.

Operationally, within an organization, cultural competency is achieved by integrating and transforming knowledge about individuals and groups into specific practices, standards, policies, and attitudes applied in appropriate cultural settings to increase the quality of services, thereby producing better outcomes (Davis, 1997). In short, the practice of cultural competency stresses effectively operating in different cultural contexts and providing services that reflect the different cultural influences of constituents or clients. Being culturally competent in cross-cultural functioning and settings means learning new patterns of behavior and applying them in appropriate situations (see National Association of Social Workers, 2001).

When operationalizing the concept of cultural competency, two major dimensions need to be considered: surface structure and deep structure (U.S. DHHS, 2001a, 9). Surface structure involves matching intervention materials and messages to observable characteristics of a target population. The observable characteristics are generally ones that are very apparent and superficial, such as race, ethnicity, age, or gender). Developing and matching appropriate materials and messages may involve the use of people, places, and language familiar to and
preferred by the target population. Surface structure also involves which channels and settings are the most appropriate for the delivery of messages and programs. That is, which media—such as radio, TV, posters—and locations—such as churches, clinics, schools, centers—to use. Surface structure focuses on increasing the receptivity or acceptance of materials and messages and is a prerequisite for feasibility. Deep structure has to do with sociodemographic and racial and ethnic population differences in general as well as how ethnic, cultural, social, environmental, and historical factors may influence specific behaviors. Deep structure conveys relevance and determines the efficacy or impact of a program, strategy, or intervention (U.S. DHHS, 2001a, 9). Overall, an organization’s use of cultural competency builds on the strengths and perspectives of minority cultures, beliefs, habits, behaviors, and value systems to establish service delivery intervention strategies and approaches.

The dramatic population growth of immigrants and Hispanics and the growing cultural diversity in the U.S. population (see U.S. Census Bureau, 2005a, 2005b) has resulted in a greater possibility that, during a service delivery encounter between client and public agency provider, there will occur an exchange involving different cultural backgrounds, material realities, beliefs, practices, behaviors, and language (Franco, 2003). This increasing cultural diversity raises several important questions about the future role of public administration and the delivery of culturally appropriate and culturally responsive public services. These questions, which focus on the central issue of cultural competency in public administration, include What is cultural competency in public administration and public service delivery? Can public agencies become culturally competent organizations? What self-assessment tools and performance measures will improve an agency’s ability to provide culturally appropriate and responsive services? This paper addresses these questions by providing a definition of cultural competency in public administration and public service delivery and by identifying self-assessment tools and performance measures that can assist public agencies in moving toward cultural competency in delivering public services and programs.

Cultural Competency, Public Administration, and Public Service Delivery

A culturally competent public administration and public service delivery system can be defined as “one that acknowledges and incorporates—at all levels—the importance of culture, assessment of cross cultural relations, vigilance toward the dynamics that result from cultural differences, expansion of cultural knowledge, and adaptation of services to meet culturally unique needs” (see Betancourt et al, 2003). Yet the focus on cultural competency in public administration/public service delivery is evolving very slowly and, therefore, the concept has yet to be clearly accepted and understood by the community of pub-
lic administration/public service delivery scholars and administrators. In short, cultural competency in public administration/public service delivery is largely uncharted, and marginalized groups—especially people of color—have not been consistent, highly regarded topics in the study of the administrative state (Stafford, 1999).

Further, the consideration of cultural competency in public administration/public service delivery is lacking because the study and practice in the field sees cultural differences and cultural variations in public service delivery and public agencies as invisible, illegitimate, and negative (Adler, 1991) and a focus on cultural differences/cultural variations does not fit the neutrality/equality principles—treat all clients the same with neutral feelings—advocated in textbook scenarios describing specific client needs in public service delivery. Moreover, cultural competency has been seen as a “soft science” (Betancourt et al., 2005)—lacking an evidence-based scientific approach for application and utility in public and social service programs.

Contemporary literature points out at least four important reasons for embracing and supporting cultural competency in public administration and public service delivery. First, embracing cultural competency recognizes the salience of understanding the cultural context in which any direct public service encounter occurs (Applewhite, 1998). Second, it is argued that advancing cultural competency presents an opportunity to address the incomplete and often inaccurate public services and public programs provided to minority populations (Geron, 2002). Third, a focus on cultural competency increases the relevance of a public agency’s administration, services, and programs to the groups that can best utilize them (Boyle and Springer, 2001). Fourth, with knowledge, awareness, and skills in cultural competency, service delivery professionals are better prepared to do their jobs (Suzuki et al., 2001).

The Role of the Federal and State Governments in Promoting Cultural Competency in Public Programs and Service Delivery

The federal government has become a critical actor in the quest for cultural competency in public programs and public service delivery through administrative and congressional actions. The Office of Minority Health, in the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services in December 2000, issued “Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Standards” (CLAS) for health care organizations that receive federal funds. These standards require that health care organizations—

- offer and provide language-assistance services, including bilingual staff members and interpreter services, at no cost to each patient with limited English proficiency at all points of contact in a timely manner during all hours of operations;
• provide to patients and consumers in their preferred language both verbal offers and written notices informing them of their right to receive language assistance services,
• ensure the competence of language assistance provided to limited-English-proficient patients and consumers by interpreters and bilingual staff; family and friends should not be used to provide interpretation services except on request by the patient or consumer; and
• make available easily understood patient-related materials and post signs in the languages of the commonly encountered groups and groups represented in the service area (U.S. DHHS, 2001b).

Congress has enacted several key laws that require or promote cultural competency in federal programs (Bailey, 2005). Among the laws are: The Disadvantaged Minority Improvement Act of 1990; the Developmental Disabilities Assistance and Bill of Rights Act of 1994; and the Emergency Medical Treatment Act of 1996. Combined, these laws clearly delineate the special populations covered, define cultural competence, and require language assistance to those with limited English proficiency. The Developmental Disabilities Assistance and Bill of Rights Act of 1994 law defines cultural competence as “services, supports or other assistance that are conducted or provided in a manner that is responsive to the beliefs, interpersonal styles, attitudes, language, and behaviors of individuals who are receiving services, and in a manner that has the greatest likelihood of ensuring their maximum participation.”

At the state government level, several states have instituted provisions that require cultural competency. California has an “Annual Review Protocol for Consolidated Specialty Mental Health Services” that requires each county to have criteria for cultural and linguistic competence (see CCR, title 9, Chapter 11, Section 1810.410 DMH Information Notice No: 97-14, cited in Chin, 2003). California’s “Cultural Index of Accessibility to Care,” a system for rating culturally component service requirements of health maintenance organizations when contracting for services, also attempts to ensure effective services for its diverse Medicaid population (Coye and Alvarez, 1998). The state of Washington uses a “parity initiative” to compare services to ethnic minority populations against the population residing in the county. Parity is a contract requirement used for accountability of services to ethnic minority populations since 1989 (see Chin, 2003); its intent is to ensure that racial/ethnic groups will be served by the public service delivery system.

Assessing and Measuring Cultural Competency in Public Agencies

Geron (2002) argues that cultural competency addresses the capacity of an organization to support and provide culturally appropriate and responsive
programs and services. Of course, the most difficult aspect of providing culturally appropriate and responsive programs is actually formulating a set of viable guidelines or approaches that will improve the public agency’s ability to meet high quality standards with all populations and that will translate into measures of accountability. One approach for determining the extent to which an agency provides culturally appropriate and culturally responsive services is to conduct an organizational self-assessment, involving organizational leadership and staff, of mission statements that support multiculturalism and diversity; organizational culture; outreach, hiring procedures and hiring outcomes that reflect the utilization and engagement of individuals from undervalued and underrepresented groups; continuing staff training in cultural diversity; effective communications and appropriate languages; policy and procedural manuals that support cultural competency; and efforts to make the organization more welcoming to all cultural and linguistic groups.

Appendix 1 is an example of a cultural competency public agency self-assessment tool that focuses on an agency’s physical environment, materials, resources, communication styles, values and attitudes, treatment and services, access, and authorization. This kind of self-assessment is more focused on clinical competencies, taking into account the interaction of the agency’s array of programs, services, and treatment and their relevance, impact, and effectiveness on clients. Clinical cultural competence interventions are efforts designed to enhance an agency’s knowledge of the socio-cultural background of diverse clientele and to equip public service providers with the tools and skills to serve diverse clientele (see Betancourt, 2003). Some other self-assessment tools get at clinical cultural competence by focusing on an agency’s community knowledge, agency resources, community connections, and community outreach (see, e.g., Anne E. Casey Foundation, 2003). While still other self-assessment tools focus on an agency’s governance, administration, policy development, personnel practices, dealings with culturally biased incidents, cultural diversity, and methods of service delivery (see Cultural Diversity Institute, 2000). A self-assessment tool of this latter type focuses on organizational system structures and structural functions that may inhibit cultural competency. Organizational cultural competence efforts focus on ensuring that leadership and workforces are representative of the clientele served by the agency. These efforts include diversity and minority recruitment initiatives (see Betancourt, 2003). Structural cultural competence interventions are initiatives that focus on the structural processes of service delivery including such things as interpreter/language services and agency literature in clientele’s language. Overall, self-assessment tools seek to ascertain the agency’s culture toward its clients or customers and whether the agency’s leadership and staff provide culturally and linguistically appropriate services and programs. A self-assessment tool may be viewed as a kind of cultural audit (Rice, 2004), a tool
that “examines a public organization’s values, symbols, rules, and routines which maintain its purpose and existence to uncover counterproductive activities and barriers that may adversely impact its public service mission and service delivery process” (Rice, 2005, 77).

The goal of the self-assessment tool is to answer many questions including:
1) Do the agency’s leadership and personnel understand and respect the cultures of the clients it serves? 2) Do agency programs and services address the unique needs and concerns of the cultures of the clients it serves? 3) Is cultural competence reflected in the agency’s mission, operations, policies, practices, and procedures? 4) Are the agency leadership and staff representative of the clients it serves? 5) Does the agency provide language assistance and/or translation to clients who do not speak English? 6) Does the agency collaborate with community groups to provide culturally diverse services and programs? 7) What processes does the agency utilize to remove barriers that inhibit culturally diverse services and practices? 8) Does the agency have a dedicated budget to promote cultural competency? Appendix 2 provides a more comprehensive list of questions that public agencies can ask themselves as they explore the issue of cultural competency in public service delivery. Many of these questions are captured in several of the eight key areas of organizational cultural competence illustrated in Figure 1: administration; mission and governance; organizational culture; effective communications; personnel practices and staffing patterns; service delivery; and outreach and marketing approaches. The states of Oregon, New York, and New Jersey have utilized self-assessment tools to determine the extent of cultural competency in selective agencies’ services and programs (Mason, 1995; Chambers, 1998; Weiss and Minsky, 1996).

Another approach for determining the extent and efforts of an agency to provide culturally appropriate and culturally responsive services involves developing performance measures. Measures of agency cultural competence usually focus on an organization’s structural and/or process activities. Table 1 offers 21 specific performance measures identified in several of the key areas shown in Figure 1. As shown in Table 1, performance measures can be devised that focus on the organizational commitment to cultural competency, the role of an advisory committee in cultural competency, cultural competency in training and education, cultural competency in linguistic capacity, and cultural competency in service delivery. Performance measures examining organizational commitment to cultural competency clearly indicate how these measures are related to all other performance measures. That is, a formal, written cultural competency plan that elaborates and spells out cultural competency as a part of the organization’s mission, where cultural competency fits into all organizational components, what office is responsible for cultural competency, and an identifiable budget will impact all other organizational cultural competency performance measures.
The public agency cultural competency self-assessment tool and performance measures of agency cultural competence identify organizational and structural barriers that serve as impediments to promoting cultural competence. Organizational systems and structural processes for service delivery are shaped by the leadership that designs them and the workforce that carries them out. For racial, ethnic, and cultural groups, this leadership has led to structural policies, procedures, and delivery systems inappropriately designed or poorly prepared to address their public service delivery needs and issues. In public administration and

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<tr>
<th>Table 1. Selected Performance Measures for Cultural Competency (CC) in a Public Agency</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>I. Organizational Commitment to CC</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. CC as a part of the mission statement</td>
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<td>2. A formal, written CC plan</td>
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<td>3. CC plan for all organizational components</td>
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<td>4. Named office/person responsible for CC</td>
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<td>5. Identifiable budget for CC</td>
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<td>6. Diverse leadership and governance/board membership</td>
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<td><strong>II. CC Advisory Committee</strong></td>
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<td>7. Make recommendations to leadership regarding CC for clients and community</td>
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<td>8. Make recommendations regarding CC training to all agency volunteers</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Make recommendations regarding collaborations with culturally diverse external individuals, groups, and organizations</td>
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<td>10. Make recommendations regarding CC providers and CC services</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>III. CC Training and Education</strong></td>
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<td>11. CC staff training and education requirement</td>
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<td>12. Awareness of social resources</td>
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<td>13. Sharing population data with organizational components</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>IV. CC Linguistic Capacity</strong></td>
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<td>14. Language interpretation service</td>
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<td>15. Linguistic competence of interpreters</td>
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<td>16. Language assistance at first contact</td>
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<td>17. Language translation service</td>
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<td>18. Service descriptions in language</td>
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<td>19. Educational materials in language</td>
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<td><strong>V. CC Service Delivery</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>20. Adaptation of services and interventions to cultures</td>
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<td>21. Promotion and assessment of CC services</td>
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*Source: Derived from Siegel et al. (2003)*
Promoting Cultural Competency: Self-assessment Tools and Performance Measures

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<td>• Respect for the right of an individual to his/her cultural customs, beliefs, and practices</td>
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<td>• Recognition of an individual’s culture as an integral part of his/her well-being</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Incorporation of language, race, ethnicity, customs, family structures, and community dynamics in developing management and service delivery strategies</td>
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<td>• Openness and acceptance of differences</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Cultural diversity in the community reflected in board membership</td>
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<td>• Representation of relevant social, political, and economic sectors of the community in the Board</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Ongoing diversity training for all board members</td>
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<td>• Explicit recognition of cultural diversity and commitment to culturally competent services in the organization’s mission statement and goals</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Barriers in communication with culturally diverse people identified and removed</td>
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<td>• A list of culturally diverse media developed/used</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Availability of interpretation and translation of culturally appropriate languages</td>
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<td>• Cultural diversity in the community reflected in text and illustrations</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Availability of resource material relating to cultural competency</td>
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<td>• Inclusion of culturally diverse writers/artists’ work in publications</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Input from all staff and volunteers in decision making</td>
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<td>• Culturally diverse people in the community consulted to identify key diversity issues</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Cultural competency incorporated into all policies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Allocation of adequate resources to implement cultural competency policy</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Culturally diverse communities consulted before finalizing policies that may have cultural impacts</td>
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<td>• Barriers preventing culturally diverse people from having access to services identified and removed</td>
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<td>• Outreach strategies to ensure participation from culturally diverse people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Culturally appropriate methods of service delivery</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Culturally diverse communities consulted to identify needs and develop program goals, objectives, and activities</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Cultural diversity incorporated in all aspects of service delivery, including assessment, planning, intervention, and evaluation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Availability of support services (i.e.: E.S.L., interpretation)</td>
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<td>• Employment opportunities advertised in ethnocultural media</td>
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<td>• Active recruitment of qualified culturally diverse staff/volunteers</td>
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<td>• Cross-cultural skills as a requisite criteria for selection and performance review</td>
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<td>• Meaningful participation of culturally diverse people at all levels of the organization</td>
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<td>• Cultural competency training to all staff and volunteers</td>
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<td>• Racial, ethnic, religious, and linguistic composition of the community reflected in staff and volunteers</td>
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<th>Public Agency</th>
<th>MARKETING AND COMMUNITY RELATIONS</th>
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<td>• Acknowledgment of cultural diversity in the community</td>
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<td>• Collaborations with culturally diverse individuals, groups, and organizations</td>
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<td>• Utilization of cultural expertise among community leaders</td>
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<td>• Participation in community network to advocate and advance cultural competency</td>
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<td>• Roles/services understood and respected in the community</td>
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Source: Derived from Cultural Diversity Institute (2000).
public service delivery systems where operating rules and economic forces drive both structure and function, the service needs of vulnerable diverse and minority populations inevitably suffer. Structural barriers arise when the clienteles that need the services are faced with the challenges of obtaining services from public service delivery systems that are too complex, overly bureaucratic, and/or archaic in design. It is important for organizational leadership to recognize that performance measures cannot strive to attain a uniform and normative criterion without attending to different norms and targets for different communities and racial, ethnic, and cultural groups. Thus, performance measures have to be different for different racial, ethnic, and cultural groups. If not, public service delivery fails to be culturally competent when service delivery leads to inappropriate utilization and ineffective services.

**Some Concluding Observations on Promoting Cultural Competency in Public Administration and Public Service Delivery**

Promoting and incorporating cultural competency into the study and practice of public administration and moving a public agency toward cultural competence in public service delivery is an ongoing effort that requires the recognition of several activities. First, the study of public administration must acknowledge that cultural differences are important in the delivery of public services and public programs. When culture is ignored or not considered in the study of public administration or by a public agency, there is a very strong possibility that individuals, families, and groups will not get the services or support they need, or, worse yet, they will likely receive services and assistance that is more harmful than helpful. Second, all members of the agency require continuous internal leadership and support. Third, culturally competent public administration and public service delivery require the following attributes: cultural appropriateness; cultural accessibility; and cultural acceptability. Culturally appropriate public service delivery recognizes the needs of the target population or populations and the types of services provided. Culturally accessible public service delivery opens the door to services for different cultural groups; this includes addressing the structural barriers that can impede cultural competency. Once these barriers are addressed, culturally acceptable services are more likely to occur in all areas of the agency.

Fourth, a public agency’s use of cultural competency builds on the strengths and perspectives of minority cultures’ beliefs, habits, behaviors, and value systems to establish service delivery intervention strategies and approaches. This has been referred to as the “emic” approach, working from the inside—in other words, utilizing the beliefs, behaviors, perspectives, and values of minority cultures to help frame and provide culturally appropriate and responsive services (U.S. DHHS, 2001b, 5). With this approach, public service providers are
acknowledging the significance of culture in minority groups’ problems as well as in their solutions. Fifth, acquiring cultural competency is a developmental process whereby organizations and individuals attain cultural awareness, cultural knowledge, and cultural skills through both training and cultural encounters with individuals from different cultural groups. This process acknowledges that cultural competence is not static and requires frequent learning, relearning, and unlearning about different cultural groups. Attaining cultural competency helps public service delivery providers avoid stereotypes and biases while at the same time promoting in a positive way characteristics of particular groups (U.S. DHHS, 2001b). Finally, cultural competency in public administration and public service delivery will require thinking outside the box to examining and incorporate different nontraditional and non-mainstream sources and approaches, including assessment tools and performance measures. This new thinking recognizes that the teaching and practice of public administration has a major impact on society and, as a result, the teaching and practice of public administration must focus on cultural competency in a contemporary, multicultural era.

REFERENCES


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APPENDIX 1: Cultural Competence Public Agency Self-assessment

The self-assessment instrument can assist public agencies in identifying areas in which they might improve the quality of their programs and services to culturally diverse populations.

Self-Assessment Checklist
for Personnel Providing Public Agency Programs and Services

Please enter A, B or C for each item listed below.

A = Things my public agency does frequently
B = Things my public agency does occasionally
C = Things my public agency rarely or never does

Physical Environment, Materials, & Resources

___1. The agency displays pictures, posters, artwork and other decor that reflect the cultures and ethnic backgrounds of clients served by the agency.

___2. The agency displays magazines, brochures and other printed materials in reception areas that are of interest to and reflect the different clients served by the agency.

___3. When using videos, films, or other media resources for health education, treatment or other interventions, my agency ensures that they reflect the cultures and ethnic background of individuals and families served by the agency.

___4. The agency ensures that printed information disseminated takes into account the average literacy levels of individuals and families receiving services.

Communication Styles

When interacting with individuals and families who have English proficiency:

___5. The agency uses bilingual-bicultural staff and/or personnel and volunteers skilled or certified in the provision of medical interpretation treatment, interventions, meetings, or other events for individuals and families who need or prefer this level of assistance.

___6. For individuals and families who speak languages or other than English, program and service staff in the agency attempt to learn and use key words in their language so that they are better able to communicate with them during assessment, treatment, or other interventions.

___7. Program and service staff attempts to determine any familial colloquialisms used by individuals or families that may impact on assessment, treatment, or other interventions.

___8. When possible, the agency ensures that all notices and communications to individuals and families are written in their language of origin.

___9. The agency understands that it may be necessary to use alternatives to written communications for some individuals and families, as word of mouth may be a preferred method of receiving information.
Values & Attitudes
___10. The agency avoids imposing values that may conflict or be inconsistent with those of cultures or ethnic groups served by the agency.
___11. The agency screens books, movies, and other media resources for cultural, ethnic, or racial stereotypes before sharing them with individuals and families served by the program or agency.
___12. The agency intervenes in an appropriate manner when it is observed by other staff or clients within a program engaging in behaviors that show cultural insensitivity, racial biases, or prejudice.
___13. The agency recognizes and accepts that individuals from diverse backgrounds may desire varying degrees of acculturation into the dominant culture.
___14. The agency understands and accepts that family is defined by different cultures (e.g., extended family members, fictive kin, godparents).
___15. The agency accepts and respects that male-female roles may vary among different cultures and ethnic groups (e.g., who makes major decisions for the family).
___16. The agency understands that age and life-cycle factors must be in interactions with individuals and families (e.g., high value placed on the decision of elders, the role of eldest male or female in families, or roles and expectation of children within the family).
___17. Even though staff’s professional or moral viewpoints may differ, the agency accepts individuals and families as the ultimate decision makers for services and supports affecting their lives.
___18. The agency recognizes that the meaning or value of services and treatment and programs may vary greatly among cultures.
___19. The agency accepts that religion and other beliefs may influence how individuals and families respond to services, programs, and treatments.
___20. The agency seeks information from individuals, families, or other key informants that will assist in service adaptation to respond to the needs and preferences of culturally and ethnically diverse served by my program or agency.
___21. Before visiting or providing services in the home setting, the agency provides information on acceptable behaviors, courtesies; customs and that are unique to the culturally and ethnically diverse groups by my program or agency.
___22. The agency keeps abreast of the major concerns and issues for ethnically and racially diverse client populations residing in the geographic locale served by the program or agency.
___23. The agency promotes and advocates for the review of its programs and/or its agency’s mission statement, goals, policies, and procedures to ensure that they incorporate principles and practices that promote cultural and linguistic competence.

How to use this self assessment instrument
This instrument is intended to heighten the awareness and sensitivity of executives and personnel to the importance of cultural and linguistic competence in public service delivery settings. It provides statements that reflect the kinds of beliefs, attitudes, values, and practices that foster cultural and linguistic competence at the individual or practitioner level. While there are no correct responses, frequent “C” responses may indicate that you do not necessarily demonstrate beliefs, attitudes, values, and practices that promote cultural and linguistic competence in public service delivery programs.
APPENDIX 2: Public Agency Questions on Cultural Competency
(for agency administrators and service delivery personnel)

1. When you hear the term “cultural competence” what comes to mind?
2. What are the most challenging aspects of providing agency services and programs to multi-ethnic/multicultural clients?
3. What are the major organizational obstacles (policies, organizational characteristics, and etc.) inhibiting ethnic and cultural understanding among staff, clients, and service provider personnel?
4. What issues have arisen (need for resources, conflict, and etc.) as your agency attempts to meet the needs relating to ethnic and cultural diversity clientele?
5. What mechanisms, if any, are in place that promote communication among different levels and departments within the public agency on cultural competency initiatives and efforts?
6. What has the agency done to provide the best service for the multi-ethnic and cultural population (e.g., educating providers about different ethnic-cultural beliefs and client practices; use of specific services—interpreters, community liaisons, etc.)?
7. In what ways has the agency addressed the ethnic and cultural needs of clients as they receive agency services and programs?
8. What services and programs related to ethnic-cultural-related issues are available to agency staff?
9. In what ways are agency providers trained and helped to deal with ethnic and cultural issues (e.g., trained to recognize diseases common in certain populations; mechanisms and protocols by which providers can request assistance in dealing with ethnic/cultural issues and needs)?
10. What relationships does the agency have with particular community groups and how have these relationships affected the ethnic/cultural competency efforts of the agency (community businesses under contract, initiatives with neighborhood centers, etc.)?
11. What community outreach actions has the agency taken (e.g., health education programs, materials, and forums for various ethnic-cultural groups, community support for clients of various ethnic-cultural backgrounds)?
12. In what ways are ethnic and cultural differences recognized throughout the agency (e.g., celebration of certain days, community events, and programs)?
13. What, if any, ethnic-cultural professional programs can be developed and/or instituted at the agency to attract culturally competent staff and service and program professionals? Are internships targeted toward ethnic professionals? Mentoring programs? What are the challenges in developing and delivering these programs?
14. What government guidelines or regulations guide or influence the agency services, programs, and initiatives for ethnic/cultural diversity and cultural competence?
15. What are the greatest strengths and the biggest concerns of the agency in the delivery of services and programs and interactions with the multi-ethnic/cultural populations of its community?
16. What have you seen or would you like to see in terms of actual effects of ethnic/cultural initiatives on the work environment and on client services and programs in the agency?
17. What are you concerns about any of the ethnic-cultural activities undertaken by your agency?

This essay was presented at the 2006 Annual Conference of the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration.
Integrating Social Equity into the Core Human Resource Management Course

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Blue Wooldridge
Virginia Commonwealth University

Abstract
The National Academy of Public Administration’s Board of Trustees recently adopted social equity as the fourth pillar of public administration. Human resource management (HRM) courses are situated to increase the public affairs graduate curriculum’s emphasis on social equity, because these courses already give attention to related concepts such as due process, discrimination, sexual harassment, and work-life policies. The challenge is to directly apply this pillar in the HRM curriculum by strengthening students’ exposure to formal and informal personnel policies and practices that promote or impede social equity. Drawing on our teaching experiences, we describe how HRM professors can enhance their students’ social equity competencies by incorporating the use of informal “HR dialogues” in their courses. These dialogues allow students to develop managerial competencies to handle the real-world social equity tensions and resistance they are likely to encounter.

Issues of equity and justice are fundamental concerns of public administrators. Public administrators face the constant challenge of ensuring equity in governance (Akram, 2004), and in certain respects the field of public administration has moved slowly in applying principles of justice. In fact, equity or fairness in public services was the last established “pillar” of the field—and it still remains secondary in emphasis behind economy, effectiveness, and efficiency. Although the National Academy of Public Administration is not the decisive voice of the discipline—nor does such a decisive voice exist—this respected organization’s adoption of social equity elevates its importance to our profession.

Social equity is generally identified as a post-1960s concern of public administration. As H. George Frederickson notes, “It was during the 1960s that it
became increasingly evident that the results of governmental policy and the work of public administrators implementing those policies were much better for some citizens than for others” (Frederickson, 2005). In 1974, Public Administration Review published a symposium on “Social Equity and Public Administration.” This symposium helped build social equity theory, citing social equity as 1) the basis for a just, democratic society; 2) an influence on the behavior of organizational man; 3) the legal basis for distributing public services; 4) the practical basis for distributing public services; 5) operationalized in compound federalism; and 6) a challenge for research and analysis (Frederickson, 1990, 229). In February 2000, the National Academy of Public Administration’s Board of Trustees authorized the establishment of a Standing Panel on Social Equity. This panel defined social equity as “[t]he fair, just and equitable management of all institutions serving the public directly or by contract, and the fair 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” (National Academy of Public Administration, 2000).

It is important to assess how well we are educating our students about this fourth pillar of public administration. What do we teach MPA students about social equity? More importantly, what training to practice social equity do they receive in our programs? It stands to reason that we want our students to become equipped to understand and practice social equity in their jobs as public servants. But what formal training do our students receive to do so? This article suggests that the human resource management (HRM) area is one logical place to expand our focus on social equity by offering specific suggestions to educate students on the formal and informal social equity practices related to human resources.

Gooden and Myers (2004) co-edited a symposium on social equity in public affairs education in the April 2004 volume of the Journal of Public Affairs Education. As part of his response to that volume, David Rosenbloom (July 2005) asked for an explanation for “the advantages, if any, of applying the term social equity to standard, longstanding subject matter in MPA education” (249). Rosenbloom’s question is an important one, as it essentially asks about social equity’s added value in our curricula.

Our response parallels the sentiments of Svara and Brunet (2004) when they state

A commitment to social equity prompts one to analyze and explore the activist limits of equal protection, whereas the absence of this commitment might cause one to tolerate instances of inequality out of concern that remedies might not pass the equal protection test. Although Rosenbloom is concerned that social equity will be “muddled when it is treated as a pillar built of sometimes incompatible concerns and concepts,” an opposing view is that it is stronger because it is based on considering and balancing multiple forms of analysis reflecting the four dimensions [efficiency, economy, effectiveness and equity] (255).
Integrating Social Equity into the Core Human Resource Management Course

Our central response to Rosenbloom’s question is that applying social equity into MPA education—specifically in the HRM area—offers the opportunity to 1) introduce students to the concept of social equity; 2) provide an opportunity for them to analyze common formal and informal HRM practices through the concept of social equity; and 3) provide students with the tools and resources they need to actively apply the social equity pillar in their future professional work. The latter purpose is of particular importance. Ultimately, professors in HRM courses can integrate social equity for each HRM component by ensuring that their students understand how the formal context promotes or discourages social equity and how the informal “HR dialogues” promote or discourage social equity. In each instance, students need to carefully consider the role of the public sector manager.

Human Resource Management: A Promising Training Ground

The National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) is the accrediting body for graduate programs in public affairs and administration. The Standards for Professional Master’s Degree Programs in Public Affairs, Policy, and Administration are proposed by its Standards Committee and adopted by NASPAA. The curriculum components are designed to produce professionals capable of intelligent, creative analysis and communication and action in public service (NASPAA, 2005). Although NASPAA does not require specific courses, it does identify common curriculum components. As Table 1 shows, HRM is a key component in the management of public sector organizations.

Issues of social equity should permeate the entire public affairs curriculum (Wooldridge, 1998). This is especially true for HRM courses. Social equity issues are not exclusive to personnel management, but they do have a historical tie there. According to the National Academy of Public Administration (NAPA), “[t]hese issues were front-and-center in the early years of affirmative action and were reflected in public administration practices such as hiring and promotion, the selecting of contractors and bidders, and the like” (2000).

In their textbook, Shafritz and Russell (2002) identify three qualities of social equity:

All public administrators have an obvious obligation to advance social equity. However this obligation can be legitimately and honorably interpreted in several ways. First is the obligation to administer the laws they work under in a fair manner.

The second way of interpreting obligations to advance social equity is to feel bound to proactively further the cause—to seek to hire and advance a varied workforce. The attitude requires a specific approach: It is not enough to go out and find qualified minorities. You must go out, find them, and then qualify them.
The third aspect to advancing social equity is best illustrated by a story. In 1963 George C. Wallace, then governor of Alabama, dramatically stood in the doorway of the University of Alabama to prevent the entry of black students and the desegregation of the university. It was a major media event. Wallace, backed up by the Alabama National Guard, stood waiting at his designated chalk mark on the pavement wearing his TV network microphone. As was arranged, the deputy U.S. attorney general, Nicholas Katzenbach, backed up by 3,000 federal troops, ordered Wallace to allow a black student, Vivian Malone, to enter. After a longwinded speech about federal encroachment on state's rights, Wallace stepped aside and Katzenbach escorted Malone to the university cafeteria.

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<th>NASPAA Common Curriculum Components</th>
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<td>4.21 Common Curriculum Components. The common curriculum components shall enhance the student’s values, knowledge, and skills to act ethically and effectively:</td>
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<td>In the Management of Public Service Organizations, the components of which include:</td>
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<td>• Human resources</td>
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<td>• Budgeting and financial processes</td>
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<td>• Information management, technology applications and policy</td>
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<tr>
<td>In the Application of Quantitative and Qualitative Techniques of Analysis, the components of which include:</td>
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<td>• Policy and program formulation, implementation and evaluation</td>
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<td>• Decision-making and problem-solving</td>
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<tr>
<td>With an Understanding of the Public Policy and Organizational Environment, the components of which include:</td>
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<td>• Political and legal institutions and processes</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Economic and social institutions and processes</td>
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<td>• Organization and management concepts and behavior</td>
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These area requirements do not prescribe specific courses. Neither do they imply that equal time should be spent on each area or that courses must all be offered by the public affairs, public policy or public administration programs.

Source: NASPAA, 2005
This incident is a famous aspect of the Civil Rights Movement. Journalist Jacob Weisberg in his “In Defense of Government” adds an element to this well known story that shows government at its best. After Malone entered the cafeteria, she got her tray of food and sat alone. Almost immediately some white female students joined her. They sought to befriend her, as they would any new student. According to Weisberg, “That’s the most powerful part of the story because it is about a change that good government inspired but could not force.” Then, as now, government can go only so far in forcing social equity. But there is no limit to the amount of inspiration it can provide to encourage people to do the right, decent, and honorable thing. This encouragement has a name. It is called moral leadership (10-11).

Each of these three qualities of social equity is directly related to HRM. First, public administrators must administer the laws fairly. Second, public administrators should proactively hire a diverse workforce. Finally, public administrators should provide moral leadership to the fulfillment of social equity. At the crux of each of these normative qualities is the eminence of government workers. Human resource management essentially forms the base of social equity in public administration. Personnel and personnel policies matter. As Frank Thompson (1991) states,

Personnel policies lay the ground rules for position determination—the creation and allocation of formal roles within agencies (e.g., job design and classification). They shape human-resource flows—recruitment, promotion, transfer, demotion, removal. They specify an approach to performance appraisal—processes through which managers acquire and interpret information concerning the activities of subordinates. They seek to motivate subordinates to behave in certain ways through regulation, the establishment of incentive systems, and socialization that instills certain knowledge, perceptions, skills, and values” (vii).

The human resource management area already has the most activity in connection with social equity. It provides a natural focal point upon which to increase the integration of social equity into public administrators’ professional training. In their analysis of social equity coverage in public administration textbooks, Svara and Brunet (2004) found “the most attention is given to procedural social equity concerns, including due process, discrimination, and equal employment opportunity” (104).

**Increasing Student Exposure to Social Equity Through Formal and Informal Personnel Policies and Practices**

HRM refers to the comprehensive set of managerial activities and tasks concerned with developing and maintaining a qualified workforce—human resourc-
es—in ways that contribute to organizational effectiveness (DeNisi and Griffin, 2001). HRM components include job analysis, human resource planning, recruitment, placement, performance appraisal, compensation, training and development, organizational justice, and collective bargaining. Each component is shaped by formal and informal personnel policies and practices. By formal, we mean technical and legal policies. By informal, we mean what happens in reality. It is common for HRM textbooks (and courses) to discuss the former. It is less common to discuss the latter, especially in terms of social equity. This reality is characterized by conversations we call informal “HR dialogues” that affect all aspects of personnel. These are the behind-closed-doors conversations that occur throughout each component of personnel management. These dialogues include verbal and nonverbal actions that can greatly affect personnel practices but are not routinely monitored.

Such dialogues are often complex and discomforting. As one external reviewer noted, “Discussions of race, gender, religion, sexual orientation, and disability in organizations are usually emotionally charged as each individual brings a unique set of feelings, beliefs, experiences and motivations.... We must provide students (and ourselves) with the frameworks and practices of having these difficult conversations in class to ensure adequate preparation for the workplace and community.” As with efficiency and effectiveness, there may not be one best way to promote social equity, but clearly some decisions and practices are more equitable than others. We used personnel textbooks, literature, federal policy and initiatives, and our own instructional and selection committee experiences to guide the suggestions formulated in this article. However, this article is not intended to offer a systematic assessment of HR textbooks, government resources, federal policy, or HR dialogues. Rather, we describe our use of these dialogues to illustrate how public affairs educators can enhance the social equity focus of their HRM courses. As stated earlier, multiple aspects of human resource management are commonly covered in public affairs programs. For illustrative purposes in this discussion, we limit our discussion to three: job analysis, employee recruitment, and employee selection.

**Job Analysis**

Job analysis is the process of recording information about the tasks (job elements) an employee performs. It results in a job description: a written statement of the employee’s responsibilities, duties, and qualifications. Typically, the information described and recorded include the purposes of a job, major duties or activities required of job holders, conditions under which the job is performed, and the competencies (i.e., skills, knowledge, abilities, education, experience) an employee needs to perform the position’s duties at a satisfactory level (Jackson and Schuler, 2002).

**Social Equity Lesson #1.** Job analysis is shaped by a fluid legal context that is directly related to social equity elasticity. Executive orders, laws passed by the
legislative body, and court decisions all affect the widening or constricting of social equity. In one of the landmark Equal Employment Opportunity law cases, *Griggs v. Duke Power*, Willie Griggs was an applicant for a job as a coal handler. The Duke Power Company required its coal handlers to be high school graduates, but “Griggs claimed this requirement was illegally discriminatory because it wasn’t related to success on the job and because it resulted in more blacks than whites being rejected for these jobs” (Dresser, 1997, 43). The 1971 *Griggs* decision is a clear example of how public employment laws can promote social equity: “For the first time, an employer would have to prove in court that its personnel practices were valid and job-related if the numbers showed that minorities were not succeeding in the same proportions of minorities” (Nigro and Nigro, 2000, 33). Federal support of employment policies designed to promote social equity has declined since the 1980s, from which time “Presidents Reagan and Bush declared that remedial hiring ratios were a form of reverse discrimination...both also expressed their commitment to Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) and ‘color blind’ personnel policies” (Nigro and Nigro, 2000, 36). Although the 1991 Civil Rights Act was a shift away from employment policies of the 1960s and 70s designed to promote social equity, it remains a key component of human resource management.

As a current example, Title 41, Section 60, in the Office of Federal Contract Compliance in the U.S. Department of Labor’s Code of Federal Regulations details the purposes of affirmative action and encourages public sector agencies to implement affirmative action programs beyond formal requirements.

**Purpose.** (1) An affirmative action program is a management tool designed to ensure equal employment opportunity. A central premise underlying affirmative action is that, absent discrimination, over time a contractor’s workforce, generally, will reflect the gender, racial and ethnic profile of the labor pools from which the contractor recruits and selects. Affirmative action programs contain a diagnostic component which includes a number of quantitative analyses designed to evaluate the composition of the workforce of the contractor and compare it to the composition of the relevant labor pools. Affirmative action programs also include action-oriented programs. If women and minorities are not being employed at a rate to be expected given their availability in the relevant labor pool, the contractor’s affirmative action program includes specific practical steps designed to address this underutilization. Effective affirmative action programs also include internal auditing and reporting systems as a means of measuring the contractor’s progress toward achieving the workforce that would be expected in the absence of discrimination.
An affirmative action program also ensures equal employment opportunity by institutionalizing the contractor's commitment to equality in every aspect of the employment process. Therefore, as part of its affirmative action program, a contractor monitors and examines its employment decisions and compensation systems to evaluate the impact of those systems on women and minorities.

An affirmative action program is, thus, more than a paperwork exercise. An affirmative action program includes those policies, practices, and procedures that the contractor implements to ensure that all qualified applicants and employees are receiving an equal opportunity for recruitment, selection, advancement, and every other term and privilege associated with employment. Affirmative action, ideally, is a part of the way the contractor regularly conducts its business. OFCCP has found that when an affirmative action program is approached from this perspective, as a powerful management tool, there is a positive correlation between the presence of affirmative action and the absence of discrimination.

**Affirmative action obligations.** The use of selection procedures which have been validated pursuant to these guidelines does not relieve users of any obligations they may have to undertake affirmative action to assure equal employment opportunity. Nothing in these guidelines is intended to preclude the use of lawful selection procedures which assist in remedying the effects of prior discriminatory practices, or the achievement of affirmative action objectives.

**Encouragement of voluntary affirmative action programs.** These guidelines are also intended to encourage the adoption and implementation of voluntary affirmative action programs by users who have no obligation under Federal law to adopt them; but are not intended to impose any new obligations in that regard. The agencies issuing and endorsing these guidelines endorse for all private employers and reaffirm for all governmental employers the Equal Employment Opportunity Coordinating Council’s “Policy Statement on Affirmative Action Programs for State and Local Government Agencies” (41 FR 38814, September 13, 1976 and (41 CFR 60-2.10 and 41 CFR 60-2.17, November 13, 2000).

Formal requirements of job analysis are shaped by the current landscape of social equity. Human resource management students should critically analyze subtle and not-so-subtle changes in public employment policy for their effect on
social equity. What do these formal changes mean for social equity? How do governmental agencies communicate their commitment to social equity? How can our students assess formal social equity dimensions of job descriptions? A primary way is to have students perform a social equity analysis of job descriptions. Does the job description contain a statement regarding its equal employment opportunity policy? Does it contain a reasonable accommodation statement? Where are these statements placed within the job description? Overall, after reading the job description, what impression would a job applicant have about this agency’s commitment to social equity? What are the social equity implications of the specific enumerated job qualifications (knowledge, skills, and abilities)!

Job analysis is also influenced by informal HR dialogues. The following is an example of a social equity HR dialogue surrounding qualification requirements for a fiscal technician position (see Table 2). The issue in this scenario is the agency’s commitment to abiding by the qualifications listed in the position. Although the position description allows applicants with a college degree or four

Table 2. HR Social Equity Dialogue: Job Analysis Scenario

Freda (manager): We’ve received 18 applications for our fiscal technician position. I hope you’ve each had a moment to look over these applications. I’d like to leave our meeting today with an agreement on the candidates we’d like to bring in for an interview.

Maria: Yes, I’ve looked at these and I noticed that five of the applicants do not have a college degree.

Carlos: Our job ad clearly states that a candidate should have a four-year college degree or 4 years of related experience. The applicants who do not have a college degree have related experience.

Maria: Well, I wouldn’t say this beyond this room, but I think—in this day and time—it would be a mistake to hire someone without the degree. We’ve received applications from several people who have a degree, so I think it’s only practical that we focus our energies on this group.

Carlos: I have a real problem with that. Just look at our ad.

Maria: Carlos, I know you haven’t been with our agency that long, but generally we try to hire people with a degree. We had to advertise the position that way to get it approved through HR. In practice, we try to hire people with degrees.

Freda: We need to look at all of the applications. But, Maria has a point. We do tend to hire people with degrees. When we’re reviewing the applications, if someone without a degree really stands out, we can consider bringing that person in for an interview. Now, let’s turn our attention to selecting the specific individuals we’d like to interview.
years of related work experience to apply, the HR dialogue captures the organization’s practice of preferring individuals with a college degree. This scenario raises several social equity concerns. How do the norms and practices of this agency compare with the specific language contained in the job description? What are the social equity implications of these differences? Older applicants, minority applicants, and individuals who live in or are from low-income families may be disproportionately affected. How could the manager handle this situation more effectively? If public managers wish to integrate social equity into areas where it has previously been ignored, what challenges will they face? How can they overcome these challenges?

Recruitment

Recruitment is the process of attracting individuals in a timely manner, in sufficient numbers, and with appropriate qualifications to apply for jobs within an organization. It is specifically the set of activities and processes used to legally obtain a sufficient number of the right people at the right place and time so that the people and the organization can select each other in their own best short-run and long-run interests (Schuler and Huber, 1997). It is the process of developing a pool of qualified applicants who are interested in working for the organization and from which the organization might reasonably select the best individual or individuals to hire for employment (DeNisi and Griffin, 2001). Recruitment has a direct relationship to social equity, because it is the initial step in placing more employees from protected groups in government jobs (Klingner and Nalbandian, 1993, 142). For example, using the aforementioned lens of Shafritz and Russell’s (2002) three qualities of social equity, how can public managers advance the second quality to aggressively “seek to hire and advance a varied workforce” within their agencies?

Writing in 1944, J. Donald Kingsley developed the concept of “representative bureaucracy,” which asserts that all social groups have a right to participate in their governing institutions. This concept has been expanded to hold that the bureaucracies should reflect the demographic composition of the general public (Kranz, 1976; Meier and Nigro, 1976; Riccucci and Saidel, 1997; Dolan 2000; Dolan 2002), so that the preferences of a heterogeneous population will be represented in organizational decisionmaking (Riccucci and Saidel, 1997). Public administrators should be alerted to seek out opportunities when turnovers, growth, the need for new competencies, and other circumstances can allow for currently underrepresented populations to be recruited, promoted, or developed to fill these anticipated vacancies.

Social Equity Lesson #2. Courses designed to enhance HRM competencies and to integrate social equity concepts would certainly stress the need for employers to generate and use innovative recruitment methods and locales. The disparate impact of high-tech job postings and recruitment methods, such as Web-based or
Internet strategies, on ethnic/racial/religious minorities, individuals with disabilities, and low-income individuals must be assessed. Traditional recruitment practices that involve reliance on “word-of-mouth and employee referral networking; the use of executive search and referral firms in which affirmative action/EEO requirement were not always made known” (Riccucci, 2002, 69) also serve as institutional barriers for some currently underrepresented groups. For some groups, nontraditional recruitment approaches such as religious organizations, social associations, and recreational outlets can be effective for reaching currently underrepresented groups.

Our MPA programs should familiarize students with formal social equity initiatives that are currently in place in governmental agencies. Nigro and Nigro’s textbook, *The New Public Personnel Administration* (2000) offers a useful example.

Table 3. OPM’s Hispanic Employment Initiative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiative</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Providing employment information to students, faculty, and the Hispanic community by sponsoring Employment Information (Touch Screen) Computer Kiosks and placing them in Hispanic-serving institutions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expanding the Presidential Management Intern (PMI) recruitment program to include visiting more institutions that are graduating significant numbers of Hispanics.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing assistance in coordinating the placements with federal agencies of Hispanic students under the National Internship Program of the Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities (HACU). HACU interns are college students with grade point averages of 3.0 or better who work in federal agencies for 10 weeks over the summer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using the flexibilities available under the federal Student Employment Program to bring Hispanic students into federal occupations where there are shortages of qualified applicants, as well as all other occupations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing mentoring programs to encourage and support young Hispanics’ educational development and career progress.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage participation of Hispanics in agency career development programs, including intergovernmental rotational assignments for senior executives, management, and professional/technical occupations (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 1997a).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Nigro and Nigro, The New Public Personnel Administration, 2000, 90-91*
of the formal relationship between social equity and recruitment through the Office of Personnel Management’s Hispanic Employment Initiative (Table 3). Students in our HRM courses should acquire competencies in recruitment practices designed to promote social equity. One such way is to have students engage in group projects that require direct involvement with governmental agencies to propose similar employment recruitment initiatives for underrepresented groups. This allows students to take a social equity HRM concept (hiring a more diverse workforce) and apply it in a practical setting (working with a governmental agency to understand their diversity needs) with a real-world application (developing an agency-specific social equity proposal).

Our students also should become competent in the informal HR dialogues that affect social equity and recruitment. The HR dialogue recruitment scenario contained in Table 4 displays a common tension between efficiency and equity that emerges in the recruitment area. In performing an analysis of the recruitment scenario, students can assess the social equity implications of these dialogues. For example, Kevin, the manager, conveys an important message about the agency’s values. This is a direct application of the tension of the public administration pillars. In this scenario, the manager’s clear message is that efficiency—filling the application quickly—is more important than equity.

Kevin also conveys a value statement on how employees should spend their time. Engaging in social equity activities would distract from other, more important job tasks. As the manager, Kevin’s comments convey a concrete statement on social equity. He is not opposed to it, but fundamentally views it as distractive. His comments suggest that promoting social equity in recruitment should be an individual employee activity rather than an agency-wide activity. William, an employee, tries to advance the public administration social equity pillar, but receives little support from either his coworkers or his supervisor. What implications does this have? What message does an organization send when social equity efforts are individually driven rather than agency driven? How is William viewed? What risks does William take? What are the tradeoffs if William continues to push the issue?

Jack also makes an important value statement. In his view, the agency should not engage in strategies specifically designed to recruit minorities as a first step. Rather, this should be a secondary consideration. Jack and Jennifer appear neutral at first. They weigh in only after receiving cues from the manager, Kevin. A social equity analysis of this scenario raises many important questions. A follow-up assignment could require students to rewrite this dialogue displaying a stronger agency value of social equity, using insights from representative bureaucracy.

Selection

Selection is the process of gathering legally defensible information about job applicants in order to determine who should be hired for a long- or short-term po-
situation (Schuler and Huber, 1997). The selection process is concerned with identifying the best candidate or candidates for jobs from the pool of qualified applicants developed during the recruiting process (DeNisi and Griffin, 2001).

**Social Equity: Lesson #3.** Professional public affairs programs should ensure that students are competent in formal, federal guidelines for employee selection. One excellent, practitioner-oriented resource is *The Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection*, which provides a set of principles for determining proper test use and selection procedures, covering topics such as test fairness and adverse impact. Easily accessible from the Office of Personnel Management’s Web site, these guidelines incorporate a single set of principles designed to assist employers, la-

### Table 4. HR Social Equity Dialogue: Recruitment Scenario

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kevin (manager):</th>
<th>Well, we need to think about how we want to advertise our position. Typically, we post these positions on our agency's Web site, and the state DOL's website. We'll also advertise this in the employment section of our local newspaper.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>William:</td>
<td>Yes, this sounds good. Perhaps we also should consider advertising our position in minority communities a bit more. There's the Minority Tribune [weekly newspaper with a readership base of African-Americans] and we could also submit our posting to several listservs that have an excellent link to minority communities. There are three that come to my mind, right off hand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jennifer and Jack: [on recruitment committee, but remain quiet; body language suggests indifference and slight disengagement]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kevin: [looks around at the committee]</td>
<td>I agree, William, those are all good ideas. But, we also need to consider our overall budget and where we can get the most bang for our buck. And, we need to think about the overall workload involved. One of us will need to make sure all of these postings go out. And, I'm sure we all agree we need to fill this position quickly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>William:</td>
<td>Well, the electronic venues I'm thinking of are free or involve minimal costs. It's just a matter of getting the information out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kevin:</td>
<td>Sure, I'm not opposed to that at all. It seems like you've got some good leads there. So, you—and for that matter—any of us can forward this announcement to any group we'd like. How does that sound?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jennifer:</td>
<td>Yes, that sounds good to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack:</td>
<td>Yes, we could try this and see where it gets us. Then, if we don't get a good group of applicants, we can consider advertising more broadly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>William: [disappointed]</td>
<td>OK.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kevin:</td>
<td>Great. Well, I think that about wraps up our meeting for today.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Schmitt and Chan, 1988, 171.*
bor organizations, employment agencies, and licensing and certification boards to comply with requirements of federal law prohibiting employment practices that discriminate on grounds of race, color, religion, sex, and national origin. They are designed to provide a framework for determining the proper use of tests and other selection procedures (Office of Personnel Management, n.d.)

The assessment applied by public employers usually involves some combination of the following: minimum qualifications requirement; evaluations of training, education, and experience; written tests of knowledge and analytic skills; job performance tests and simulations; oral examinations by individual examiners or boards; background checks or investigations; and medical and physical examinations (Nigro and Nigro, 2000, 97-98). Although public employment searches often use a combination of these methods, the job interview remains an important part of the process. Most organizations will not hire an applicant without an interview because they believe it provides them the opportunity to observe an applicant’s appearance and interpersonal skills and to ask questions not adequately covered on the application (Klingner and Nalbadian, 159).

Figure 1. Representation of Various Influences on Interview Decisions
Perhaps most relevant to social equity analysis, the body of research focused on interviews seems to be oriented toward the discovery of what irrelevant constructs are measured in the interview. Schmitt and Chan (1988) contend that the interview decision comes out of the complex interplay among the situation and the characteristics and behavior of both interviewer and interviewee (Figure 1). Race (Parsons and Liden, 1984), gender (Hitt and Barr, 1989), physical attractiveness (Pingitore, Dugoni, Tindale, and Spring, 1994) and age (Avolio and Barrett, 1987) have all been related to interviewer judgments. The two most important considerations to increase interview reliability and validity are to rely upon the use of multiple independent interviewers and to ask the applicants a similar set of structured or semi-structured questions (Schmitt and Chan, 1988). The situational interview is one particular development that avoids some of the pitfalls of conventional interviewing (Stohr-Gilmore et al., 1990). In particular, the situational interview structure avoids the possibility of including discriminatory questions that are unrelated to job performance (Hays and Kearney, 1990, 100).

One critically important component of the selection process is the informal HR dialogue that occurs when selecting the final candidate. Klinger and Nalbadian (1993) include a case study that captures important behind-the-scenes HR dialogue that ultimately impacts candidate selection (Table 5). This scenario raises important questions regarding the role of politics in employee selection and what the statement “best qualified candidate” really means. A typical application of this scenario is to have students decide whom to hire and to provide a justification of their reasoning. An important extension of the students’ hiring decision is to consider the social equity implications if multiple candidates with similar backgrounds are always or nearly always hired. Ultimately, it is an organization’s cumulative pattern of hiring decisions that alters or fails to alter the advancement of social equity in the public sector workforce.

**Conclusion**

What competencies will students gain from engaging in formal and informal social equity analysis in HRM courses? First, they increase their formal knowledge of personnel practices. For example, we have found when sharing the OPM’s Hispanic Employment Initiative in our classes that many students are not aware of the initiative. A few even express surprise, thinking that such an initiative would be illegal. It is important that HRM courses provide a clear sense of the legal guidelines and the vast opportunities to formally include social equity in their managerial actions. Second, through the use of informal HR dialogues, students develop managerial competencies to handle the real-world social equity tensions and resistance they are likely to encounter. These competencies allow future managers to become better equipped to structure, manage, and influence such dialogues. Taken together, schools of public administration and public affairs will better prepare students to breathe agency life into the fourth pillar of
Integrating Social Equity into the Core Human Resource Management Course

Table 5. HR Social Equity Dialogue: Employee Selection Scenario

Brenda: Well, I don’t know about you two, but in my book this John Simpson seems to have enough experience to handle the job. I need someone who can take over the internal operations of the agency while we get this new program off the ground. But what really impressed me is his commitment to the policy direction we’re headed in.

Mary: You know I admire your judgment, Brenda, but does he really have the skill to pull off the job? We know Don Johnson is doing a fine job now as a division director. He already knows the ropes around here, and I think he’s ready for a bigger job. Besides, it’s about time we get another minority into this sacred secretarial hut!

Brenda: Hold on, Mary. You know I supported our affirmative action program. I gave you a boost some time ago, I remember.

Mary: Now wait a minute! Let’s not dredge up the history on that one. You know very well I was qualified for this job. This is now, and Don’s qualified.

Brenda: Mary, Don may be able to do the job; I’m not as convinced as you, but this Simpson is on target when it comes to supporting the philosophy behind the new program. And the more I think about it, the more I need that commitment to make this thing go. There’s a lot at stake in making the program a success. Don’s pretty hardheaded when it comes to seeing us turn this agency into what he feels is a soft-hearted bunch of social workers.

Larry: Look folks, I hate to complicate things for you, but the governor’s been getting pressure to find a spot for Jim Massington.

Mary: Jim who? I’ve never heard of him.

Brenda: Well, I have. He worked pretty hard in the governor’s last campaign, didn’t he?

Mary: Oh no! I can see it coming.

Larry: Don’t get excited. Just give the guy some consideration. Brenda, you know the governor went out on a limb with the legislature to give you the chance to experiment with this new program, and he may need a favor here.

Mary: I just don’t like the politics in all this.

Brenda: Look Larry, I want to help, but I need someone who is committed to this program.

Mary: And I think we’d better get someone who can manage the internal operations of this agency.

Larry: Well, I think you ought to look at Masington’s application. You know that’s all the governor is asking.

Brenda: Thanks, Larry. I want to think about this. Mary, let’s get together on this tomorrow afternoon.

Mary: Politics!


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public administration and to better implement the concept of social equity in their work as public administrators.

NOTE
1. See National Academy of Public Administration, Strategic Plan, Spring 2005.

REFERENCES
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Competency-based Educational Models for Electronic Governance: Implications for Inclusion and Responsiveness in the Public Service

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The University of Chile

ABSTRACT
This article proposes a structured approach to the creation of a formative, competency-based model of public affairs education. With it, public affairs education would become more attuned to the demands of a public service responsive to the citizenry, pursuant to the duties of public officials. The paper examines, in particular, the challenges presented in this context by the rapid development of electronic governance. There is an important difference between incidental or improvised approaches to education for the public service and deliberate approaches built on precise strategic objectives. The proposal presented here builds on a critical premise, namely that the demands placed on public officials by electronic (or digital) government constitute a challenge of the first magnitude, one that will radically alter the relationship between the state and civil society, that is, the political and administrative functions of the state. The potential impact of emerging information and communications technologies on public affairs education and on public administration is limitless and all but unimaginable.

“[C]urricular development [in public affairs education] derives from a study of...the student, the learning process, cultural exigencies, and the content of the disciplines involved. Consequently, [it] should begin with an analysis of society and culture, of the student, of the learning process, and of the nature of knowledge, in order to determine the purposes of the given school and the character of its curriculum” (Taba, 1983, 32).

It has become commonplace to note that we are undergoing historical change with the emergence of an information society and a knowledge economy. The
technological and institutional developments brought by the Internet alone are incalculable, as are the World Wide Web’s profound implications for the worlds of work and culture and for social relations in general. Globalization and these new technologies are coevolving along numerous interrelated dimensions—economic, financial, and cultural. The causes and consequences of these global processes have been examined in multiple works by leading social theorists for a number of years (Castells, 2001, and Carney, 2002, for example). Their conclusions are that we are in a most important time of change, undergoing a new form of social organization capable of optimizing human activity, and we find ourselves at the threshold of a new, technologically supported enlightenment.

Misgivings abound about these changes, but they may be unfounded. For instance, the myth that new information and communication technologies necessarily generate unemployment and social inequity has all but been dismissed (Carnoy, 2002, 16). Rather, developments along these lines, especially among the technologically more advanced societies, have outweighed job displacement with new forms of work. The prospects are significant for such technological development to qualitatively and positively affect the incorporation of women into the workplace (bolstering “gender mainstreaming”) and otherwise affect issues of social equity and diversity in ways that will close the so-called digital divide. Neither will work opportunities in the public sector decline, but rather the professionalization of the public service. In addition, qualified individuals, irrespective of gender, race, ethnicity, or disability, will be incorporated into government service in greater numbers because of new technological modes of work.

The nature of work has been transformed, particularly in the composition of linking mechanisms between worker and employer. Today, temporary work and workforce mobility is a growing reality, one that has progressively reached Latin Americans—who, in their demographic mobility, may in some sense have invented it. What is of interest here is the adequacy of an individual’s professional education, so that he or she can serve effectively in new technological contexts and do so in diverse ways that extend beyond the limited contractual horizons of a given job. There is constant demand is for the ability to function through flexible, self-directed teams capable of using technology in managerial innovation.

As with the private and nonprofit sectors, it is clear that public sector productivity will vary in direct relationship with technologies in use. Greater technological capacity should therefore increase the productivity, and consequently the competitiveness and effectiveness, of organizations of all types, across all sectors.

What will be the implications for public management specifically? There is no doubt that with the adoption of new technology the public service will be able to increase its productivity and provide more and better services, doing more, more responsively. With new technology, public employment should not be diminished as a matter of course, but rather would require a new kind of professional official who has the capacity to learn, to innovate, and to manage information.
What will be required is someone conversant with team-based forms of management in new, untraditional, technological frameworks.

The utilization of new technologies in the production of public services and in public administration and politics generally, seems to be a given today (Gervasoni, 2003, 2). The strategic framework for performance management in the U.S. government, under the Government Performance and Results Act, incorporates four operational dimensions that are increasingly being defined by e-government: the interaction between government and the citizenry, between government and the business sector, among levels of government (intergovernmental relations), and among organizational levels (intragovernmental relations; Porrúa, 2003, 3).

Cowley (2004, 2) argues for the strategic, phased introduction and articulation of online government processes, using Singapore as an example. There is growing use of electronic technologies in the interaction between citizen users and public services, in four phases: informative (information about governmental procedures), interactive (online forms, consultations, and citizen complaints), transactional (exchange and procedural interactions), and integrational (consolidation of services, particularly with one-stop Web portals). In the case of Chile, the government has chosen to articulate a development strategy hinging on electronic government projects that allow greater responsiveness along with value creation—the creation of high public value (Sepúlveda, 2004, 155).

The concept of high public value can be defined as the creation of unique and distinctive value for citizen users, for service quality, and for government efficacy. An important element of value is the precision that can be reached not only in the conceptualization of public services, but also in their economic realization. Projects as diverse as electronic invoicing, rents, fees, fines, licensure, and certification of various sorts are all understood as projects of high public value. Other instances of value creation include the following:

- For the citizen, ease of use from home, work, telecenters, or anywhere, avoiding travel to a given public agency, with services available at any time of day; this set of features (which empowers those with mobility problems such as physical disability) produces savings in time and money for citizen users and government providers.
- For the public service in general, the possibility of better and more consistent service provision, in terms of accuracy, time, transparency, effectiveness, and efficiency—in sum, better quality service. Also of significance in this context are savings associated with better and more accurate recovery of information.
- For the government specifically, better cognizance of the citizenry, through better delivery of services and greater responsiveness, all of which bring political benefits.
An important set of empirical studies has demonstrated, though with some differences, that the increasing use of information and communication technologies in the Latin American public sector is an established fact (Reylli, 2004, 71). In fact, e-government has become part of an obligatory agenda for Latin American governments, at least for those with defined administrative strategies, definite development plans, and public agencies ready for the new agenda that electronic government represents. Financial support mechanisms for e-government programs have been established as governments develop programs associated with online services, with a clear identification of social benefits for users. These efforts also signify a commitment to more responsible and accountable government beyond administrative procedure or bureaucratic process. Conversely, the political implications for a redefined relationship between state and civil society are found particularly in new forms of often urgent lobbying and political participation on the part of citizens, directed at all levels of government, from municipal to national levels, on issues ranging from environmental protection to the economy.

In light of these developments, what demands are made on the formation of public officials? One arises from the need for participatory and responsive governance, consistent with the market paradigms of the new public management. While we have an information and knowledge society in fact and in prospect, government typically represents a constraining cultural and social reality of its own, in keeping with national political culture. Changes in political culture are a factor that should be appreciated and understood, if the incorporation of new instruments of strategic planning, performance management, process integration, and program and policy evaluation are to take hold.

It is in this vein that Porrúa (2003, 6) addresses the prospects for the use of new information technologies in the formation of students in public affairs education programs. This kind of work would define a new information or knowledge worker as one having a high level of specialized education, the capacity to make decisions, and the ability to take initiative, all in new technological contexts. Here, education has to less to do with the quantity than with the type of learning, and less with specific types of knowledge than with the development of germane skills and new ways of thinking in the face of increasingly variable and complex tasks, time compression, and a continually evolving task environment (Castells, 2001, 109). The qualities sought are those of individual autonomy in the face of variable task demands, a teamwork orientation, and the ability to act in institutional and extra-institutional domains as situations demand.

The new public official must therefore meet varied expectations, such as the following:

1. Become an active problem solver, taking individual initiative and technologically adept initiatives involving planning and managerial control.
2. Become capable of building or functioning in self-directed teams reaching for ever-greater levels of productivity, transparency, and informativeness.
3. Become imbued with a clear sense of institutional mission, so that personal and organizational goals become aligned, while remaining adaptive and creative in the implementation of tasks, particularly in those involving the procurement, processing, and production of information and knowledge.

These expectations are associated with personal and institutional development. They lead to corresponding expectations for the competencies to be imparted by public affairs education. What are these competencies? Using Alles’ (2003) terminology, what are the e-competencies that are expected in the public sector today? Along with Levy-Leboyer (1997), Alles helps us identify the following specific competencies:

1. professional or technical competence; in other words, an individual with formation in some discipline related to the task structures he or she will have to address.
2. propensity for continual learning that allows him or her to deal with new problems, technological developments, and technical applications;
3. the ability to interpret problems presented by stakeholders and the public as a whole, and to respond appropriately with technologically enabled measures;
4. the ability to innovate in the search for answers, to diagnose entirely new problems, and to move institutions toward efficacious responses;
5. the ability to gather whatever information is needed for such decision making;
6. the ability and willingness to undergo professional formation and develop capacities and abilities on a continuing basis—i.e., lifelong learning;
7. the ability or capacity to work with a great deal of independence, and to make decisions autonomously, in response to citizen and stakeholder demand, consistent with the role attributes and expectations of public office;
8. the ability to work in teams empowered by the application of new technologies;
9. the ability to exercise self-restraint consistent with managerial controls, in the use of resources at the public official’s disposal, in particular technological resources;
10. the ability to understand and apply the concepts and tools of the “information society” in the process of government reform and political development;
11. in general, the ability to appreciate the importance of e-government for the reform and modernization of the state; and
12. the ability to deploy new technologies for electronic governance consistent with new or emergent conceptions of the role of the state and of public administration.

Consequently, in defining educational objectives for public affairs education, we need to move to three interrelated questions, namely: What are we to teach? Whom are we to teach? And how are we to teach? Finally, how are we to better think, plan, and work strategically toward the ends that have been previously outlined? These questions are taken up in briefly in turn, in the hope of stimulating continuing discussion.

**What to Teach**

The 12 competencies just identified correspond to core curriculum and extended curricular components for a new public affairs education, particularly graduate education. While these are defined with significant specificity by accrediting bodies such as the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration in the United States, and by governmental accrediting bodies across Latin America, curricular requirements may be specifically defined in relation to the issue of e-governance. Courses that complement core curricula may be developed, emphasizing both theoretical and applied questions relating to e-government, such as:

- information and the knowledge society,
- public management and electronic government,
- strategic management and digital government,
- technical and process applications of e-governance,
- the ethics of electronic governance,
- gender, equity, and e-government, and
- the knowledge management function in organizations.

Templates for such courses are widely available, especially in the form of course syllabi from business and public administration programs across North and Latin America.

**Whom to Teach**

The obvious answer to this inquiry is that we teach both current and future public officials. However, these might be further defined in a three-fold way,
corresponding to a hierarchy of three formative levels that pertain to electronic government:

1. top appointed officials at cabinet or departmental levels, in particular those driving new political and policy processes relating to electronic government,
2. implementing officials acting through coordinating teams or groups that are working on or with e-government tools and technologies, and
3. professional specialists developing, selecting, incorporating, and operating new technologies and attendant processes pertaining to e-governance.

Each of these student constituencies should have a formative or pedagogical model of its own, although specialized curricular offerings for e-government should be integral extensions of the public affairs educational curricula from which they are developed.

**How to Teach**

Pedagogical approaches and methods designed for e-government must have the same qualities expected of the new technologies we have been discussing. Students should not only be expected to make effective use of technology but also to appreciate the ways in which it can enlarge public value, aggregate information, and improve public service.

It is not solely a matter of technical competence, but also a matter of imparting the ability to respond to the managerial, organizational, and political demands of new information systems in government. Students should be placed in situations that allow them to exercise judgment, apply and enlarge their analytical capacity, and strengthen their ability to diagnose and solve specific problems—for instance, through case-based dialogue and simulation exercises. Equal emphasis should be placed on an appreciation of the demands of public service and public ethics and on strategic thinking, as previously suggested. Also of great importance is reliance on proven methods of evaluating student outcomes, in order to inform the curriculum for the purpose of continuous improvement.

Education in this context requires the modeling of e-governance via the use of Web- and computer-based e-learning technologies, in the direction of “self-learning competency” (Nyhan, 1991, 16), meaning the ability to learn independently. E-government would be presented as being above all about the inclusion of previously marginal groups and communities, to counter various forms of exclusion based on socioeconomic status, health and disability, geographic isolation, or cultural and linguistic distance.

Education for electronic governance, broadly defined as it is here, is today a central part of an international dialogue on formation for the public service, a dialogue premised on performance criteria pertaining to quality and efficacy, as
well as on ethical principles of diversity, equity, inclusion, responsibility, and accountability. Public affairs education represents a foundation upon which to build a new public service that is, in short, more responsive and equitable, as government comes to make the fullest possible use of new information and communication technologies toward these ends.

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Attracting and Retaining a Diverse Student Body: Proven, Practical Strategies

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Abstract
Graduate schools in the United States have made a philosophical commitment to support greater diversity, including attracting and retaining students of color. With an increasingly diverse U.S. population, recruiting and retaining a diverse student body is critical. This paper offers some practical suggestions for accomplishing the goal, based on the author’s practical experience with adult students.

Graduate programs of public administration and nonprofit management need to increase the number of students of color who enter and continue through graduation. A widespread philosophical commitment exists among graduate schools in the United States in support of greater diversity, including attracting and retaining students of color (Council of Graduate Schools, 2003; Bass et al., 2003). For NASPAA members, this commitment is articulated as accreditation standard 6, “reflecting specific concern for the representation of minorities” (NASPAA, 2006). The basis of this need for programs of public administration and nonprofit management is still more fundamental. The national population our graduates serve is increasingly diverse. The percentage of the population who self-identify as a race other than “white alone” was 26.9 in 2000, compared to 19.71 in 1990 (U.S. Census, 2002). In addition, a substantial proportion of our experienced public servants are retiring. The projected new retirements of permanent, full-time federal civil service employees is increasing. About five years ago, the annual retirement levels of these workers was about 41,000; but 58,031 were projected to retire in 2006 (Office of Personnel Management). The annual projections then increase to an annual level of 61,267 in 2009 (Office of Personnel Management). Similarly, about half the AFSME membership of state, county, and municipal workers are over age 45, with about 54 percent likely to leave the workforce by 2008 (Houlihan, 2001).
The question is how to attract and retain students of color. Although recruitment and retention are frequently addressed as separate issues, this is not actually accurate. Recruitment and retention are simply part of the same continuum. Considerable research has been devoted to the question of recruitment and retention for undergraduates (Swail, 2003; Tinto, 1982). At the graduate level, some interesting models have been offered for large institutions with strong financial institutional commitments targeting science and technology programs, while other models consider graduate programs for doctoral students without regard to race, through not in the fields of public administration or nonprofit management (Bass et al., 2003; Golde, 2005). The importance of students feeling integrated into the institution and supported by the faculty are recurring themes (Guiffida, 2005; Swail, 2003; Tinto, 1982). Practical barriers exist to attracting and retaining students of color. One of the more critical for the purposes of this paper is the demographic characteristic of most faculty members (Johnson-Bailey, 2003). As a whole, U.S. faculty members are overwhelmingly white, non-Hispanic, and middle class—80.8 percent as of fall 2003 (Cataldí et al., 2004).

Some programs are more successful than others, however. In the nonprofit management graduate program of the College of Notre Dame of Maryland, where I teach, for example, more than 50 percent of the students are people of color; their retention rate is more than 75 percent. Though the college is by tradition a small private Catholic women’s institution, with few economic resources to devote to this priority, these levels are no accident. This paper offers some practical suggestions for accomplishing the goal of attracting and retaining a diverse student body, suggestions honed by our practical experience and the suggestions of members of our adult student body.

**Basic Assumptions**

The strategies in this paper are based on an academic program focused on adult students, not traditional-aged undergraduates. The first assumption is that the emphasis of the program is to educate and to empower practitioners in public administration and/or nonprofit management. Though many of these approaches may well be successful in programs emphasizing the development of students’ research skills, these suggestions are grounded in a program focused on fostering practical management skills. In the Notre Dame nonprofit management program, our students are largely middle- and upper-level managers of nonprofit organizations and local government. That said, their responsibilities range from managing and coordinating programs with budgets ranging from $50,000 to several million a year, from local initiatives for youth to statewide substance abuse programs.

The second basic assumption is that the similarities among our adult mid-career students, regardless of ethnic background or type of organization, out-
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weigh their differences. These are people who have chosen similar career paths and are similarly open to the idea that graduate education is a possible approach to improving their ability to serve the community and to enhance their careers. Despite these similarities, some important distinctions remain in factors that have an impact on the recruitment and retention of many students of ethnically different groups.

RECRUITMENT

It is valuable to remember that recruitment and retention are simply part of the same continuum. Recruitment is not over with the beginning of the first class. In essence, we must recruit students, not just to send in applications, but continually to remain in our programs. Students—particularly adult students with ongoing careers and families already in place—do not necessarily register for the next class. As many of us have discovered, some do not automatically choose to complete even the current course.

Attracting students of color can be considered in four basic aspects: using mass media thoughtfully, nurturing relationships with community leaders, focusing on potential and continuing students as individuals, and reviewing the effectiveness of the application process. In our experience at the College of Notre Dame, analyzing these aspects of the program has, in fact, yielded benefits for our recruitment efforts of mid-career adults generally.

Media remains—rightly—a cornerstone of efforts to attract and retain students. What people see and hear in the mass media, what people see in your printed and Web-based information about yourself, all affect their impressions of both the quality of your offerings and their expectations of the learning environment in your program. Think about the messages you are actually communicating in the images of people and success you present. Many programs use pictures of young students, sprinkled with individuals of different minority groups, smiling at each other in idyllic settings outdoors or focusing their attention on an instructor at the front of the classroom. What does this communicate? To me the focus on young students implies that adult students are the exception. To me the judicious sprinkling of isolated individuals of color in every photo would suggest that people of color can expect to be more tokens than contributors in an active learning community. In our program we make an effort to use pictures of mature students for our brochures and booths at conferences. Many of the students in our programs identify more with images of adults in “serious” settings. They are looking for an environment that will support the effective use of each moment of their time. At Notre Dame, we do use photos of adults at graduation, but we use more photos of our adult students in their workplaces, actively engaged with the people they serve. In our photos of adults in the classroom, we focus more on students interacting in animated small group discussions than on students star-
ing up at the instructor giving a lecture. Many adults do want to know that their tuition dollar will buy access to a knowledgeable instructor, but they also want to know that they will be active learners, not simply unengaged viewers of lectures. Our student discussion groups do not have one face of each hue but groups with more than one African American. We want to communicate that people of color will not feel like isolated “tokens.” Few people are comfortable being the only representative of their race in a classroom. Remember this as you choose the pictures for your Web site and brochures and for your advertisements and informational shots in the mass media.

Programs need to consider carefully the mass media outlets to target. It is a mistake to neglect ethnic media. Forty-five percent of all African American, Hispanic, Asian American, Native American and Arab American adults prefer ethnic media outlets to mainstream ones, according to a poll conducted by Bendixen & Associates (2005). African-American adults, with annual incomes above $30,000—presumably those more likely to attend graduate school—listen to ethnic radio more often than those who are younger and poorer, and ethnic weekly newspapers reach almost 60 percent of all African Americans (Bendixen & Associates, 2005). In our area, the Baltimore–Washington media market, the Afro American newspaper is a natural choice for us. Their circulation is over 100,000, and most of these readers fit our target group of individuals ages 25–54 with undergraduate degrees (Afro-American, 2006).

Programs also need to consider the kinds of messages to communicate. We take out ads to invite applications for specific opportunities and to celebrate successes. As a small program, we have not real media budget. When we apply to local foundations for tuition support for cohorts of students, we add a line-item in the budget for purchasing media coverage. The sums have not been extravagant, but we have been able to buy space in the ethnic press. In one case, for example, we placed a large ad in the Afro-American celebrating our students of color completing the program funded through the local Associated Black Charities. This ad has been mentioned to me more often by potential African American applicants than any of our other media coverage. These ads also reinforce student retention. They, their families, their friends all have reinforced the image of people of color succeeding in our program.

The second aspect of the recruitment strategy is nurturing relationships with community leaders, people well known in local professional, governmental, and faith circles. Many professional graduate programs are careful to develop long-term relationships with local and national leaders, recruiting them to serve on advisory boards, for example. Their expertise helps us develop curricula that are useful; their connections foster links to career placements for our students and to research opportunities. Nurturing relationships with community leaders of color can help our programs not just in these ways, but also in our efforts to recruit
and retain professionals of color to our programs. To attract the support of these leaders, it is critical to demonstrate respect and appreciation of their role, not as “tokens” but as sources of real value for our program. Successful individuals, particularly those of color, are approached by many groups seeking their endorsement. We have successfully approached leaders of color by recruiting them, not exclusively on the basis of their race, but on the basis of their expertise in a particular area of interest. This has required time and effort, off campus and on.

Getting the attention of these individuals took some work. I mobilized my networks among current (white) supporters to find out who had professional links to these leaders. Using current supporters’ names, I was able to get my emails read and, eventually, get a place on their calendars to come to their offices to make, in essence, a pitch that our program was serious enough to merit their interest and that we would value their input, not as tokens, but as knowledgeable professionals with specific areas of expertise. For example, we recruited the executive director of the local Associated Black Charities, explaining to her that we needed her wisdom as the manager of a foundation that also provides direct service, an unusual and compelling expertise. Similarly, we successfully approached an African American bishop by stressing our Catholic foundation and our interest in serving faith-based groups. Our efforts had to extend to the campus environment as well. When we brought these distinguished individuals to campus, we worked hard to demonstrate our respect by having them talk to members of our administration with comparable stature and by trying to avoid any perception on their part that they are isolated tokens. Getting the attention of these on-campus individuals also required effort. I needed to cultivate those higher in the chain of command both in the academic and the institutional advancement hierarchies.

The effort was worthwhile. For example, when that executive director and that bishop first came to campus, they met with our president. When they realized that this is the level of access they would have both on campus and to each other as their peers in the community, we were able to engage them with much greater ease than would otherwise be the case, securing their advice about our curriculum and other issues that benefit our students, and making connections to their staffs. In addition, that meeting enhanced our visibility within the campus community. The meeting also highlighted our emerging program for our campus leadership. We used it as a springboard to solicit the participation of the president herself on our initial advisory committee. The president’s engagement as a member of the advisory committee further enhanced our ability to attract outside leaders of all races and to win resources on campus.

To recruit and retain students of color, winning the advice of community leaders of color is important, but making the links with the networks within their organizations is also critical. It is those subordinates and their colleagues at other organizations who enroll as students. To capitalize on the entry gained through
the advice of the head of the organization or department, it is important to demonstrate respect in the community for those organizations. We have done this by sending a ranking representative of our program to their kick-off events.

For example, as director of our program, I attended the Associated Black Charities event announcing a new program to empower community-based organizations affiliated with churches. Most of the audience was made up of African American professionals. My being there affirmed the value of their program, as their executive director’s meeting with my college president had enhanced the perceived value of our program. This led to my being introduced from the stage and that, in turn, added to my credibility as I discussed the College’s nonprofit management program with potential students of color in the informal gathering that followed. This outreach also lead to an informal conversation with the mid-level executive running the new program for ABC which, in turn, a few years later, led to ABC’s funding a cohort of students of color to take a series of courses. This took place even though the executive director and the manager of the grant which was celebrated that afternoon had, by that time, left for opportunities in other cities. It is valuable to become known, not just to a few people at the top of the organization, but also to those at the next level: the mentors and potential students themselves.

In addition to being intentional in the use of mass media and cultivating relationships with community leaders, the effective recruitment of persons of color involves focusing on individual prospective students. In general, part-time adult students considering professional graduate programs share specific interests, not the least of which include a curriculum that is clearly practical and pertinent to their careers, a faculty with expertise in their areas and the ability to communicate that knowledge base, and easy access to support functions that serve students. To attract adult students, including those of color, we must be able to articulate the logic of the program offerings to individual inquirers. For many adult students, faculty expertise at teaching information pertinent to students’ careers is more critical than faculty publication records. Clearly, this does not mean that research is unimportant or unrelated to teaching; it does mean that faculty Web sites and informational material need to connect faculty areas of knowledge to students’ career interest areas. The availability of support functions for part-time adult students also matters in recruitment. If potential students are required to take time off to travel to campus to speak to admissions personnel or use the bookstore or meet with financial aid officers, the campus-based program will look less attractive compared to online ones. This does not mean that the public administration program, alone, can solve these part-time adult student concerns and keep those university offices open in evenings and/or on weekends, but any success in these areas can have a real impact on student recruitment and retention. We have found that communicating frequently with adult students about services that matter to them is also important. For example, we email our
tentative projected course schedules to our students before we share them with the Office of Academic Affairs. This gives students an opportunity to raise any serious concerns about basic scheduling issues. Their responses influence the days and times when we offer most classes and this, in turn, has lead to some increased enrollments and to students completing the program more quickly. In addition, students report that they tell their friends that they should come to our program because we actually listen to students.

At our college we have found that people of color who are considering applying to the program are more likely to come in person to meet with the program director than other prospective students. For many, they are the first in their family to go to an accredited graduate school. If the investment is to be made, they want to be sure that this is a serious program, run by people worthy of respect who, themselves, show respect to their students. Because of this, it makes sense to consider the formality of the interview experience. In my experience, informality is more welcomed by middle class whites who are coming to talk about the program. This has not been the case for people of other ethnic backgrounds. For example, after the first few inquirers of color asked about my background, I decided to hang my framed diplomas on the wall. I have noticed that these are frequently examined by those coming to discuss the possibility of entering the program. I am more attentive about the exchange of business cards. I try to convey my respect for the potential applicant in my dress and conversational style.

Another distinction I have noticed is that many of the adults of color inquiring about our program have more overt support from their families. One of the indicators of this has been that family members and/or friends are more likely to come to informational interviews than is the case with white inquirers. It makes sense to view the effort of these family members and friends not as an inconvenience but as a demonstration of the importance of the selection of a graduate program to that potential student. Those family members deserve respect, and this is easily extended. For example, when a potential student schedules a personal interview, I make a point of looking down the hall to see if they are accompanied by family or friends. If so, I ask to be introduced. If a child is there, I find an empty classroom where they can wait and the child can draw on the board.

Moving beyond the inquiry, the application process itself needs to be easily accessible to mid-career adults. Many adult applicants, including those of color, have not had a full-time educational experience for some years. They are practitioners, the people working in the field, with more and current experience in the real world of public administration and/or nonprofit service delivery than in classrooms. This may limit the likelihood that they have had the kind of recent academic experiences that prepare one well for the GREs or GMATs. If we want to attract practitioners to our programs, we need to review the admissions criteria. These criteria need to make sense to mid-career adults and to faculty members, and they must be good predictors of success. People understand that
one must hold an undergraduate degree before beginning a graduate program. On the other hand, the grade point average that dates from a decade ago—in a very different time of their lives—may not seem to them, and may not actually be, a good indication of their current approach to studying. The GREs may represent serious barriers to adults, including those of color, without giving admissions personnel a reliable indication of applicants’ likely success in the program. The computerized format, the specific types of questions, and the approach of the software’s selecting questions that retest areas of examinee weakness represent real barriers to many adult students. The question is whether the exams are sufficiently similar to our professional school graduate settings to predict student outcomes. GRE scores cannot indicate the tenacity, determination, and focus so critical to graduate studies success (Bass et al., 2003). Furthermore, as of July 2006, the GRE costs $130 to take in the United States. The GRE Kaplan classroom preparation course costs well over $1,000. It makes sense to consider whether the test results are sufficiently correlated to success in your program to justify the barrier the GREs may represent to potential adult students, including those of color. In our program, we have found that good indicators of success are personal essays about why the applicants are interested in the program and how these studies fit in their vision of their own future. Applicants are often quite candid. We find that the degree of professionalism each demonstrates in the essay is generally a good predictor of that person’s capacity to produce graduate-level work. Another possible admissions criterion is to assign applicants the task of writing a brief essay commenting on the evidence in a specific professional article that is representative of the kinds of material students use in program courses. The additional advantage of this approach is that potential applicants have more information about program standards and are more able to self-select in, or out, of the application process.

The barriers that the application process poses may not be limited to criteria that are not clearly predictive but that discourage potential practitioner-students. A rapid turnaround in the application process is also important. Groups under-represented in our programs, frequently individuals who do not have family and friends who have gone to graduate school, often decide to apply to graduate school closer to the start of classes than the four months before the beginning of classes that many programs mandate. The lag times can represent an important barrier. We have found that applications to our professional graduate programs sometimes spike in the last month before the start of class. However, if we roll their acceptance over to the next semester, those applicants are much less likely to register for classes. The rush just before classes is an irritation for our admissions staff, particularly in August, but that is the applicant-cohort of many of our students of color. We have found that encouraging our admissions staff to process those applications very rapidly has paid off in more course registrations.
Retention

Successful strategies for increasing the retention rates of adult part-time students of color should include attention to three areas: teaching techniques, relationships fostered beyond the classroom, and recognition strategies. The teaching component addresses both the classroom experience and the assignment and communication strategies. Relationships beyond the classroom include relationships among students and those between students and faculty members. Successful recognition strategies emerge from a conscious recognition of the importance of ceremony and of family support.

The classroom experience is probably the most critical aspect of the retention strategies (Tinto, 1997). The instructor must build on the assets of adult students of color, not highlight deficits. This is by no means unique to adult students of color, but it is critical to their retention. The first aspect of the classroom experience that impacts retention is course selection. In programs that focus on practitioners more than on budding researchers, we are likely to have some students whose life experiences have nurtured their ambition to serve the public, and so to pursue graduate work, more than their fond memories of success in the classroom. Probably a disproportionate number of students of color have experienced first-hand the inadequacies of some nonsuburban public school systems. This may influence the sequence of courses we suggest they take early in the program. It is critical to balance courses that will address foundational needs, perhaps focusing on writing or quantitative skill sets, with courses that students will appreciate as immediately practical and applicable to their current career experience, courses in which their life experience will count. In essence, our course selection advising needs to balance the bitter with the sweet. Students may need to make up for past educational deficits early in the program to lay the foundation for future academic success; but no one likes to experience pain, to be reminded of past inequities, constantly. If students cannot have some experience with success and genuine respect for all they bring to the classroom early in the program, chances are high that they will not continue. Good advice about course selection is critical to retention, particularly if students are among the first of their family and friends to attempt graduate education. They may well not come into the program with the advice that other students with more formally educated family and networks receive outside the university as a matter of course.

Once good course selection decisions are made, the approach to managing the learning experience in the classroom itself is the next critical part of the retention process. Instructors of adult students typically work with classes that combine different generational groups. Many of us have found the “generation gaps” observations of Ron Zemke and others to be useful: “veterans” aged 60 and above prefer orderly, stable, risk-free learning environments with authority figures as instructors who offer classroom summaries as a dominant teaching
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approach; “boomers” prefer interactive and non-authoritarian environments with learning teams engaged in interactive learning experiences, excluding role play; “gen-Xers” aged 25-45 prefer a learning environment that is self-directed and identify themselves as people who learn by doing and visual stimulation rather than words as vehicles for learning; “next-ers” ages 25 and under prefer a learning environment dominated by teamwork and technology with structured presentations that focus on marketability using a variety of media (Zemke et al., 1999). These observations are, presumably, based on white middle-class workshop participants who are numerically dominant in the corporate training environments Zemke studied.

The ages assigned to these cohort groups, however, may be incorrect for adults of color. My students have pointed out to me, repeatedly, that the concept of age-based cohorts of learning-style preferences may be useful, but the age divisions do not match their observations. The difference seems to be that the “generations” should be adjusted to the younger cohort group. The preference for lectures that Zemke associates with veterans ages 60 and over should be linked, they suggest, to African American boomers.

This not only matches my observation in the classroom, it also seems reasonable given U.S. history. Many of my African American students ages 50-65 had early educational experiences in very traditional classrooms, in segregated settings in which the teacher may have lacked material support but enjoyed tremendous community and parental respect, certainly compared to the white suburban classrooms many white boomers attended in the 1960s. Early experiences encouraging a nonauthoritarian preference were more likely the background of adults of color ages 30-50. This would be the case particularly if families had recently moved to urban areas and faced a more chaotic high school environment as systems coped with desegregation, integration, busing, and in many cases, resegregation in city schools. Meanwhile, the suburban schools of our white students were experimenting with learning environments, such as open classrooms, in which those who could develop self-direction and learn visually were more likely to succeed, but more noisy nonauthoritarian interaction was greeted harshly.

For my students who are African American and under 30, the learning preference cohort appears to be associated more with the economic strata of their families than simply their ages. Those whose families did not move to the suburbs seem to me to be more self-directed learners, a good adaptive reaction perhaps to the challenges of urban schools of the 1990-2000s. Those whose families did get them into suburban schools had the same technology- and student-team-dominated learning experiences that I associate with the preferences of white adult students of the same age cohort. The implication for retention, then, is that we need to adjust our classroom teaching approaches to meet the preferences and needs of the cohort groups of students we serve. In general, we expect to use a range of teaching strategies to engage students with differing learning styles. The
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mix used is dictated to some extent by the particular mix of students who make up any one section. To serve our students well, in a diverse class in particular, we cannot take for granted that students of similar ages fall into the same learning cohort groups. We need to be open to the possibility that not age but other demographic identifiers will be important in helping us gauge the most useful classroom environment as our student mix changes each term.

Frequently, our classes of adult practitioner, part-time students are so mixed in age and academic background that no one cohort group dominates. In my experience, the classroom environments that have been most successful in retaining students of color in these circumstances have emphasized cooperation and fostered trials over competition. By fostered trials, I mean an approach of moving from theory to individual practical application of a given concept, by way of small group trial applications. For example, in a general program evaluation class we expect students to understand the basic theory of using surveys to obtain information from program participants. To demonstrate their grasp of the material, students are required to devise surveys that could be used as part of an evaluation of a particular program in which they are interested. In the classroom, the instructor reinforces the theoretical basis of survey development. Ultimately, each student will develop survey questions that will be graded. The link between the lecture and the assignment is the fostered trial, in which small groups of students try to develop a few questions as a group. The fostering comes through their cooperative effort. The instructor circulates among the groups, providing positive feedback to successfully developed questions. When the full class reconvenes, the instructor calls on the small groups that were most successful to highlight their trial questions. The cooperative atmosphere of the small groups is reinforced because there is no public correction of errors (characteristic of a more competitive environment). Students are then encouraged to bring up difficult sample situations, and the class as a whole brainstorms possible solutions, encouraged by the instructor, who draws attention to only the successful contributions. The object, of course, is that students will be confident and successful at applying the concept individually after the noncompetitive fostered trial applications. Based on course evaluations and individual comments, students find this approach to be useful, particularly when they select their own small groups.

Teaching strategies that help in retention also extend to assignments. The assignments most frequently associated with the retention of adult students in service professional programs appear to be those that share three characteristics. They are, first, designed to be concrete and apply directly to something the individual students really care about; second, they are linked to clear and well-defined instructor expectations; and, third, they are rewarded with prompt and positive feedback. Consider the example of survey development used to illustrate fostered trial applications in the classroom. The linked assignment is to create a hypothetical survey to support the design of an evaluation for some aspect of
a program, chosen by each student. Students must take the theoretical material about sample groups, question construction, etc., and apply it in a very concrete way, linked to the programs they care about. Many adult students have been away from the academic environment for some time. Many, including a disproportionate number of students of color, may well have had undergraduate experiences that did not emphasize individual thought, beyond multiple choice exams once or twice a term. Particularly early in the graduate program, then, students need real clarity about instructor expectations. Enhancing that comfort level, giving personal feedback promptly, and focusing more on the strengths of the submission than on its deficits all increase retention.

Direct personal communication between the student and the instructor move retention levels to a still higher level, based on graduates’ comments. Students and/or instructors may feel a little shy or overly rushed for individual face-to-face interactions. This is particularly true when racial differences exist. This can be overcome by requiring briefly, emailed personal reflections from students a few days after each class meeting. Students take one idea from the class discussion or readings and relate it to their own professional lives, offering an example or observation that supports or contradicts the material. This is not a summary of the course material but the development of a personal interaction with the material. The instructor responds by the next class meeting. Students and instructors develop a personal relationship through this exchange. Students who feel a personal connection with some individual(s) in the program are more likely to continue the program. In our experience, instructors who know more about their students individually can enrich class presentations because they have a more vivid idea of the kinds of applications and examples that will seem useful to their students. The impact is even stronger when the instructor and student come from different backgrounds.

Students’ personal connections to individuals in the program become particularly powerful when relationships beyond the classroom are fostered among students and with faculty members. Frequently, informal cohorts form among students. In my experience this is particularly true of women, often women of color. Students choose to sit close to each other, to self-select into the same small discussion groups. Often advising or offering additional help to one is, in effect, giving it to the group. These mutually reinforcing informal cohorts increase retention. As such, it makes sense for the faculty member, for the program, to reinforce the phenomena. Sharing advice, for example through emails clearly addressed to all the members of each informal team, helps this. We have also had excellent response to enhancing shared coaching by official recognition. For example, one of our students has been particularly successful in seeking outside funding for her education. We invited her to share her expertise with other students. The program then publicized the presentation event. The director attended; refreshments were served. The student event was enhanced by receiving
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this “official” recognition. Relationships among students—and with the director—were fostered outside the classroom, and retention benefited. Students’ relationships with faculty can be enhanced in other ways. Offering “group advising” face-to-face helps this. Shared celebrations, shared grieving are important. We have found it helpful to keep sympathy cards on hand, for example. When a student shares that an assignment will be turned in late because of a death in the family, it is easy to send a word of condolence from the faculty member alone, or depending on the timing, to make the card available to the class to sign. This acknowledgment can be really helpful to all concerned, especially when it builds on established links already forged and/or when it cuts across lines of color.

Finally, recognition strategies are critical to attracting and retaining students of color—or any other community. Events that recognize student accomplishments represent an opportunity to go beyond rewarding the individual, to reaching out to the overlapping networks of which each participant is a direct or indirect part. Recognition ceremonies are not necessarily limited to commencements and honor society inductions. Orientations for accepted students, the completion of the cohort portion of a graduate program, and any other recognizable mid-points in the graduate experience represent possible moments to acknowledge achievements. For us, successful recognition ceremonies have led to additional recruitment among groups that we do not reach as successfully through the College’s usual media outlets.

Three elements have emerged as critical to these events: formality, family engagement, and links to students’ other associations. In our experience, however informal the classroom atmosphere, all the recognition events benefit from a very formal tone. The student accomplishments, from admittance to graduation, usually represent a serious investment of resources from an extended group of people. In communities that do not have many members in graduate programs, that investment in education cannot be taken lightly. Many do not feel sufficiently respected if the tone is informal. This extends to the physical setting; the rank, dress, and demeanor of the program’s representatives; and the comments offered. Our experience has been that communities of color are more likely to celebrate these occasions as families than we find with more “mainstream” graduate students. For example, some of our students have been funded as cohorts for some of their coursework. At the concluding ceremonies for groups dominated by white students, comparatively few family members attend. When the group is predominately students of color, on the other hand, many more family members come—from grandparents to lots of children. This may affect the venue of the celebration and certainly adds to the cost of the refreshments. But it also creates a much greater opportunity to reach out to new potential students in groups we want particularly to serve. We want to become part of the long-term plans of cousins, friends, of children who will be possible students in 20 years. These cer-
emonies also become a useful occasion to foster links to the other associations of our successful graduate students of color. We send copies of the pictures from the event not just to the funders and the students, but also to their supervisors and the editors of the newsletters of their organizations. We ask students to suggest others who should receive the photos—churches, undergraduate fraternities and sororities, whomever. Our program wants to celebrate those students, but we also want to remind the people in their networks and associations that similar success may be available to them through education at our institution. This brings us back to the issue of recruitment. The morale-building events designed to promote the retention of existing students can also be useful in recruiting new ones.

Graduate programs of public administration and of nonprofit management have a real responsibility to educate people who are representative of our entire nation and the people served by government and nonprofits. We know that the educational experiences we have to offer can benefit not just our students’ careers but all those they serve. Reaching out to attract and then successfully retain adult practitioners, however, is no easy task. This is particularly true when the students we seek are of different cultural or racial backgrounds than our own. Success is possible. Thoughtful, strategic approaches to recruitment and retention, undertaken collaboratively by faculty and administration, are practical and powerful. The same efforts not only hold the promise of diversifying our graduates but also of enriching the experience of all our students and the rest of the university community.

References
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Mentoring Minority and Female Students: Recommendations for Improving Mentoring in Public Administration and Public Affairs Programs

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Abstract
Significant amounts of research have suggested how important mentoring is to success in academic careers. Studies have also explored the unique issues that arise for women and minorities in mentoring situations (Chandler, 1996). This study utilizes Kram’s (1988) mentoring functions as a framework for analyzing mentoring relationships for minority and female doctoral students in public administration and public affairs programs. It also adds to the empirical evidence of the importance of mentors for women and minorities pursuing academic careers and the unique situations they face. Survey data is collected from current high-performing women and minority students who are preparing for research careers in academia. Survey responses are supplemented with notes of interviews between students and mentor program coordinators. After an analysis of the surveys and transcripts from women and minority students currently in mentoring relationships, suggestions are provided for how public administration and public affairs schools can use this information to improve the retention and success of minority and female doctoral students pursuing academic careers in our discipline.

Introduction
In 2004, Schroeder, O’Leary, Jones, and Poocharoen published results from a study of 89 of the most highly successful scholars in public administration and affairs. Although their survey did not directly ask how mentoring influenced the scholars’ success, many respondents reported that early mentoring relationships were important to their future success. Respondents noted that the importance of
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Mentors went beyond skill development. Learning how to conduct research and publish the results were highly important aspects of the mentoring relationship. Other aspects of the relationship, such as socialization to the profession, instilling confidence in their work and abilities, and learning how to interpret and accept criticism, were also noted as important aspects of mentoring relationship as well (94). This study expands the idea of mentoring in the success of young scholars of public administration and public affairs and specifically considers issues unique to minority and female students in the mentoring process.

MENTORING

In one of the foundational studies of mentoring, Kram (1988) categorizes mentoring functions into two broad groups: career functions and psychological functions. Career functions include sponsorship, exposure, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. Career functions roughly translate to traditional ideas of mentoring. There is a focus on skill development and introduction to networks of influential colleagues. Career functions rely on a mentor’s senior position, experience, and past and current success. Psychological functions, on the other hand, rely on the mentor and protégé’s interpersonal relationship, and include role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship. Psychological functions focus on personal support, confidence building, and identity. Kram (1988) argues that the best mentoring relationships encompass all of these functions; however, all mentoring relationships do not necessarily contain all functions.

Kram (1988) does consider how cross-gender mentoring relationships may affect these functions. She notes that female protégés with male mentors may have a difficult time gaining access to the psychological functions of the relationship because of factors internal and external to the relationship. Even though formal mentoring may occur in these relationships, informal mentoring may not take place as frequently, and many of the psychological factors of mentoring develop from informal, rather than formal, mentoring processes (Kram, 1988). Kram does directly address issues that arise in cross-gender mentoring relationships, but she does not consider cross-cultural relationships. Many studies that do consider cross-gender and cross-cultural mentoring issues in depth, however, have consistently stressed the importance of all of the mentor functions discussed by Kram (1988).

O’Neill (2001) reviews studies comparing male and female protégés as well as minority and nonminority protégés. She finds that, while results are mixed in most studies, whites and males tend to be involved in mentoring relationships that are instrumental. Instrumental relationships focus mainly on career functions and advancement within organizations. Minorities and women tend to be involved in mentoring relationships that focus on psychological functions, without a clear focus on career advancement. Race/ethnicity and gender also af-
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fect the outcomes of mentoring relationships. Having a white male mentor has been shown to increase compensation in corporations, and publications within academia (Goldstein, 1979; Dreher and Chargois, 1998; Ragins and Cotton, 1999). O’Neill (2001) posits that this may be because of the function focus of these relationships; with a white male mentor, career functions may be stressed, whereas a minority or female mentor may stress psychological functions within the mentoring relationship.

Chandler (1996) focuses exclusively on women and minority protégés. She conducts a review of mentoring studies for managers’ professional development and academic careers. She finds that women and minorities in management settings, academic settings, and science-focused settings all face unique issues when it comes to mentoring relationships. These studies generally find that mentoring helps with two different aspects of careers: career advancement and success and personal support. Career advancement and success are career-enhancing functions, which generally involve structural support and skill building. Within academia this includes offering opportunities for research, sponsorship of research, guidance on research skills, and guidance on how to interpret criticism. The second positive career advancement and success function of mentoring is network building. Mentors are generally high-ranking professionals who have already made a name for themselves in their selected discipline. Their networks and name recognition facilitates their protégé’s ascent into higher social networks with increased opportunities for collaboration. Traditionally mentors also provide personal support while completing academic programs and beginning academic careers. Chandler (1996) found, however, that this second function of mentoring relationships is difficult for minorities and women to attain in conjunction with the first. Minorities and women may have to choose to focus on one of the two functions, career advancement and success or personal support.

Traditionally, protégés seek out mentors who are similar to themselves in race/ethnicity and gender, and mentors seek out protégés who are similar to themselves in race/ethnicity and gender (Bowman, Kite, Branscombe, and Williams, 1999). This allows mentors to simultaneously serve as role models for their protégés, demonstrating precisely what success may look like for them one day (Noe, 1988; Wright and Wright, 1987). For many, their support network is built into their mentoring relationship. Because the mentor and protégé share similar backgrounds, counseling and friendship come easily. The mentor also reinforces the possibility of success by being a successful role model that the protégé can hope to emulate. This creates a few issues for minority and female students. There are numerically fewer minority and female professors to work with as mentors, with an even smaller numbers of women of color to look to as mentors. Additionally, minorities and women who would be able to serve as mentors may be overburdened with other responsibilities.
Studies have consistently found that minority and female faculty members have a higher burden of service than their white, male counterparts. Minority faculty members are pressured to serve on committees throughout the university, demonstrating the institution’s commitment to diversity (Phillip, 1993). There is also an increased burden of advising for minority and female professors. Students throughout the university rely on the few available minority and female professors for guidance, advice, and support (Wiley, 1992). These added commitments not only limit the ability of minority and female professors to act as mentors but also provide their white male counterparts an edge in scholarly production by leaving them more time for writing and research (Konrad, 1992).

Methods
This study considers mentoring from the protégé’s perspective and will focus on minority and female students. The information gathered, including student and mentor demographics, was intended to provide insight into what aspects of the mentoring relationship are most important to students, and it is evaluated in light of Kram’s (1988) mentoring functions. After considering the empirical information gathered, I make suggestions for improvements in public administration and public affairs doctoral programs that can lead to the greater retention and success of minority and female students.

Students Considered
Two groups of high-achieving undergraduate students preparing for entrance into graduate school and eventual research careers were considered for this study. The University of Kansas houses two programs that traditionally were aimed at increasing the number of minority faculty members. One, the McNair Scholars Program, is a federally funded TRIO Program. Applicants who are interested in research careers apply during their undergraduate careers, and the program matches them with a mentor in their field, holds a number of training sessions on research, and provides funding for summer research and opportunities to share research at national conferences. Originally, the program was available only to members of certain minority groups; because of recent legal changes and ideological shifts in federal funding, it is now open to people of all racial backgrounds, but it has become focused on low-income and first-generation college students.

The second program is the Dean’s Scholars Program. This program is unique to the University of Kansas. It began in 1992 and was funded by the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Student Senate, and other funds from the University of Kansas Endowment Association. The program’s goal was also to increase the number of minority faculty members, specifically in disciplines in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences. Students in this program meet weekly for a seminar on preparing for graduate school. The seminar focuses on skill development,
discussing issues unique to minority, female, and first-generation college students in graduate school, building a network among the scholars and finding funding sources for graduate school. Students also must find a mentor and are encouraged to participate in research with their mentor. Because of a lack of funding, this program is not able to provide research stipends on a regular basis, but it does sporadically hold research exhibits that provide stipends for the students who participate. Like the McNair Scholars Program, the Dean’s Scholars Program has shifted its focus to low-income and first-generation scholars. Both programs saw a change in their demographics when their application pools were opened. There are now fewer students of color involved in the program and more women and low-income or first-generation white students.

Survey

This study uses a mix of questionnaire responses and notes of meetings between Dean’s Scholar Program coordinators and students. The questionnaires were distributed to the current Dean’s Scholars and McNair Scholars, 26 students in all. There was a response rate of 73 percent (19 surveys). Questionnaires consisted of close-ended questions concerning demographics of the student and their mentor, mentor helpfulness, networking, and research opportunities. The questionnaires also included open-ended questions about the mentoring relationship.

Interview Analysis

Because this is a small, purposive convenience sample, surveys were supplemented with three years of notes from meetings between Dean’s Scholars Program coordinators and Dean’s Scholars. Three years of meeting notes allowed for longitudinal coverage of 28 mentoring relationships. Dean’s Scholars are required to meet with a member of the three-person staff at least twice a semester to discuss their progress in school, their research, and their mentoring relationship. The staff member takes notes on these meetings and saves them to a shared drive. The meetings are generally discussed by the entire staff, so everyone is kept abreast of students’ progress; notes may be modified after the meetings. I was formally a Dean’s Scholar and a member of the Dean’s Scholar Program staff for one academic year (2005–2006), which allowed me access to these notes and name recognition for both Dean’s Scholars and McNair, resulting in the high response rate of the surveys.

Results

Table 1 provides descriptive statistics from survey respondents. Table 2 provides descriptions of the mentors about whom the respondents were reporting.

All but one of the students ranked their relationship with their mentor as very important to their success in academia. The one student who rated the relationship as neutral to his success in academia commented, “I have always found
school in general to be very easy”; this was a white male student with a white male mentor, and the student had been in the mentoring relationship for less than a year. The average length of the mentoring relationship for all the respondents was 1 to 3 years (68 percent). Eleven percent of students had been in their mentoring relationship for less than a year, and 21 percent had been in their mentoring relationship more than three years. Because of the small variance in the dependent variable “how important is your mentoring relationship to your success in academia,” no statistical tests were possible. Most interesting were the students’ responses to the open-ended questions about their mentoring relationship.

Kram’s (1988) categories of mentoring functions proved valuable in analyzing the students’ responses. Minority and female students with white, male mentors focused on career functions. They often remarked about the expectations and goals set by their mentors. Two responses about the benefits of the mentoring relationship were common: “more structure, directed expectations” (Latina student with white, male mentor), and “[o]verall it was rewarding. At times he was insensitive and demanding, but I was happy with our accomplishments at the end of the summer, and I have continued working with him” (Native American female student with white, male mentor). Students commented on the lack of a strong interpersonal relationship with their mentor. No psychological functions of mentoring were mentioned. Career functions, however, were stressed. Students

Table 1. Respondents’ Descriptions

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Table 2. Mentors’ Descriptions

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with well-established, white, male mentors often commented on the challenging research projects with which they were able to assist. These challenging assignments provided technical skill production and at times increased visibility for future projects with other scholars.

In contrast, the responses from students with female and/or minority mentors focused almost exclusively on the psychological functions of mentoring. These responses often discussed support, help, and building confidence:

• “The mutual respect, collaboration, and collegiality are steadfast and trustworthy” (white, female student with black, Asian, male mentor)
• “Supportive yet challenging” (Latina student with Latina mentor)
• “Extra attention and help” (black, female student with a white, female mentor)
• “My mentor is nurturing and full of encouragement” (white, female student with white, female mentor)
• “She is honest with me and is always helpful and reassuring” (white, female student with white, female mentor)
• “The support you gain from a mentor is incalculable. Emotionally, and academically, it helps to know someone is behind you and believes in what you are doing” (Asian, female student with black, female mentor).

The students quoted above have all found acceptance and confirmation with their mentors. Often friendship and counseling also accompany these relationships. One striking aspect of these findings is the strict divide in mentoring functions. Established white, male professors provide career functions but seem to discount the psychological functions of the mentoring role. Minority and female mentors, who are often younger, have fully embraced the psychological functions of their mentoring relationships but seem to discount the career functions. Protégés with female and/or minority mentors felt more personally supported. Protégés with white, male mentors felt the focus of their relationship was on research and skill development. Both of these categories of mentoring functions are important for mentoring relationships. Minority students, however, noted an increased need for the psychological functions, especially acceptance and confirmation and counseling. The findings from the survey are also supported by the review of Dean's Scholars meeting notes.

Two students' stories typify this difference. One is Juan, a Latino, male biology major working with a Dr. Smith, a white, male full professor. Juan's meeting notes are full of references to grants and projects he is working on. He notes that he has been introduced to researchers from other institutions and thinks that he has a good shot at a prestigious fellowship for graduate school with Dr. Smith as his recommendation writer. He works in Dr. Smith's lab as an assistant, but never
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mentions seeing Dr. Smith off campus. He is clearly excited about the relationship, but discusses his schedule, which is packed with research activities. Juan admits he might be a little overwhelmed, but he believes it will be worth it in the end because he will have the credentials he needs to succeed in his field. Juan and Dr. Smith’s relationship presents many of the career functions discussed by Kram (1988). Juan has a challenging assignment. Dr. Smith is also sponsoring him for a prestigious fellowship that would allow him to study at a top university and would position him well for a successful academic placement.

On the other hand, there is Katie, a white, female, sociology major with Dr. Jones, a white female assistant professor. At the start of almost every meeting, Katie mentions Dr. Jones; however, it is interesting to note that it is always by her first name, Sarah. Katie discloses most of the details of Sarah’s professional and personal history in the meetings she has with Dean’s Scholar staff. Katie notes that she was nervous about her skills for graduate school, but Sarah has been quite supportive. There are numerous references to coffees and lunches at Sarah’s home; Sarah and Katie also participated on a trivia team together to fundraise for the research fund the College supports. Katie is participating in research with Sarah and does discuss the research skills she is acquiring, but this is always background to the more personal stories she likes to share. Katie clearly admires Sarah as a role model and can see herself taking a similar path in her own life and career. Sarah provides Katie with a lot of support, acceptance, and confirmation. They have also developed a strong friendship over their time together. Katie and Sarah’s relationship demonstrates all of the psychological functions that Kram (1988) discusses. Some career functions are mentioned, but they are not as fully developed as the psychological functions.

DISCUSSION

The differences found in mentoring relationships are not new. These results are a small, empirical example of what scholars writing for the mentoring literature have been theorizing about for years. White, male mentors focus their relationships on career functions, including skill development and research experiences. Minority and female mentors provide psychological functions, including personal support and encouragement. They also try to provide research opportunities, but they may not be at the point in their careers when they have resources for research assistance. Relationships are more personal and focus on role modeling for students from groups that may have few role models within the academy (Chandler, 1996).

How do these conclusions inform a successful strategy for schools of public administration and affairs hoping to bring more women and minorities into the public administration and public affairs teaching and research ranks? Mentoring offers clear benefits. Previous research and the findings of this study show that mentoring can provide opportunities for skill building and research and provide support for and increase the confidence of the protégé.

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Minority and female students, in particular, expressed the importance of support and confidence-building in their relationships. These are students who do not have as many role models in academia as their white, male counterparts, which may be one reason that support and confidence-building must be more explicit in these situations. Reid and Wilson (1993) found that, when students of color fail to complete doctoral programs, it is often because they feel the burden of being the only person from their cultural background. They feel increased pressure and a lack of confidence, which may be intensified by a lack of role models (Read and Wilson, 1993). This is needed support that seems to come readily from younger minority and female professors when they are available to mentor. All graduate students need to sharpen their research skills and participate in research and publishing projects, but these opportunities seem to come more readily with established professors, who are more often white men.

In order to increase the number of successful minority and female scholars, it is important to encourage all of the positive aspects of mentoring relationships without overburdening the minority and female scholars who have already established, or are on their way to establishing, successful scholarly careers. As scholarship on mentoring continues to mature, the focus has shifted from traditional two-person mentor-protégé relationships to multiple connections and relationships (Higgins and Kram, 2001). There is no reason for the career functions and psychological functions of mentoring to come from a single person. I propose that administrators of schools of public administration and public affairs focus on two elements in order to increase the number of successful minority and female doctoral students ready for successful careers in academia—first, adopting a sustained focus on mentoring minority and female students, recognizing that minority and female students occupy a unique situation within the academy, and, second, encouraging peer mentoring for minority and female students to provide the psychological functions of mentoring relationships, which they may not be receiving from their traditional senior-junior mentoring relationships.

Recommendation 1: More explicit support and encouragement of the mentoring of minority and female students. A departmental focus on mentoring should provide the career functions of mentoring relationships. It also will bring recognition to the unique situations that minority and female students face within our field. This recommendation seems simple, but it has yet to be fully embraced in our field. Minority scholars in particular are often the only representative of their cultural background in their department. This increases the attention they receive and may increase the expectations for success placed on them. Women and minorities do not have as many role models in the field, and they do not see as many people who look like them succeeding, and therefore they may need more explicit encouragement from faculty in their departments. Simple recognition of the situations that young minority and female scholars face may go a long way toward ensuring their success within our field.
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Recommendation 2: Administrators and faculty in schools of public administration and affairs must encourage their minority and female students to participate in peer networking.

Peer mentoring may be one alternative to traditional mentoring for providing the psychological functions of mentoring to minority and female students. In peer mentoring, minority and female students participate in nonhierarchical relationships to share strategies for success and personal encouragement. Peer mentoring has benefits; it provides support to minority and female students without overburdening already over-relied-upon minority and female professors. It also provides students increased access to scholars with similar personal backgrounds who may better understand the issues they are facing in academia. All elements of the psychological functions of mentoring can be handled within peer mentoring relationships, especially if minority and female students who are further along in programs are encouraged to serve as role models for newer students. One drawback to peer mentoring is that the students participating in peer mentoring may one day find themselves in direct competition for resources or future academic appointments; this does not negate the possible benefits of programs and strategies like this.

Programs like the Diversity in Academia Initiative sponsored by the National Association of Schools of Public Administration and Affairs (NASPAA) go a long way toward helping minority scholars feel as though they are a valued part of our field and encouraging peer mentoring relationships. This program brought 30 young scholars together for preconference events at the last two annual meetings of the American Society of Public Administration, in 2005 and 2006. Approximately 15 scholars also met in Washington, D.C., in the summer of 2006 to discuss research and career development issues. This program has been successful in creating a strong network of young minority scholars. Programs like this demonstrate that the field as a whole has a commitment to helping minority and female students succeed and become part of the future of the professoriate. These programs can also encourage peer mentoring and provide increased access to successful minority and female role models in the discipline nationwide. Having a larger support network, generated through participation in national programs like this one, may lessen the feeling of isolation that minority and female students currently often have.

Conclusion

The question is not whether mentoring is important to scholarly success; 95 percent of the students in this study said it was, confirming most theorists’ and practitioners’ assertions. Rather, the question is how can we create the most beneficial mentoring relationships for minority and female students—relationships that will increase their success as scholars in our field. I have presented a few recommendations in this paper, including increased departmental support for minorities and women in the academic pipeline, new forms of mentoring such as
peer mentoring, and the promotion of programs like the NASPAA-sponsored Diversity in Academia Initiative. I hope that this study can further and strengthen the discussions of mentoring and scholarly success for students in groups that are still underrepresented in academia in general and in public administration and affairs in particular.

Author's note: All students' and professors' names and department affiliations were changed for their privacy.

REFERENCES

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Expanding the Pipeline: Explorations on Diversifying the Professoriate

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Abstract

This article serves as an exploration of issues of recruitment into and retention of minority doctoral candidates in the fields of public administration and public affairs. It builds off of a need recognized in several reports that argue for increasing the diversity of faculty members in a number of academic disciplines. Drawing on survey responses from doctoral program advisors, current doctoral students from underrepresented communities, and people from underrepresented communities who are considering doctoral programs, the article explores key factors that might affect strategies for enhancing the recruitment, retention, and completion strategies for minority doctoral candidates in public administration and public affairs.

The past several years have witnessed a number of articles observing rapid demographic changes in the make-up of the diversity of the United States, and specifically, how academia might respond to these changing demographics. This article presents findings from an initial exploratory process to examine diversity in the public administration and public affairs doctoral candidate pool. It builds off of a recognition of the challenge of ensuring a diverse faculty, a theme of many discussions in higher education in recent years (Smith, 2000; Woodrow Wilson Foundation, 2005).

This article begins with review of some of the key arguments for the value of a diverse professoriate and some of the strategies for enhancing the diversity of a pool of doctoral candidates. It then draws upon a three-year process that explored issues of diversity among future faculty members. First, it reports on findings of a focus group that discussed the issue of the recruitment and retention of minor-
ity doctoral candidates at the 2002 meeting of the Conference of Minority Public Administrators (COMPA). It then reports on a survey administered to doctoral program directors on challenges and opportunities related to the recruitment and retention of minority doctoral candidates. Next, the article presents a qualitative review of narrative responses from individuals who are from groups underrepresented in the public administration and public affairs doctoral pool and who are considering doctoral programs or currently are in doctoral programs. Finally, the article concludes by identifying components of a strategy for enhancing the retention and recruitment of minority doctoral candidates in public administration and public affairs.

Ultimately, it is anticipated that, as more public administration programs wrestle with issues of diversity in the field and specifically examine strategies for attracting individuals from underrepresented communities into doctoral programs and for ensuring their completion of such programs, the findings presented in this article might enable programs to develop more effective strategies for influencing the demographic representation of their doctoral candidate pool and the future faculty cohorts in our field.

**Why Diversity**

A recent report by the Woodrow Wilson Foundation (2005) observed that, although nearly a quarter of Americans in 2003 were Hispanic or African-American, only one in 14 Ph.D.s awarded that year went to Hispanics or African-Americans. The demographic impact is best articulated by the observation of the Woodrow Wilson Foundation that “the next generation of college students will include dramatically more students of color, but their teachers will remain overwhelmingly white, because a white student is three times as likely as a student of color to earn the doctorate” (2005, 7).

Strategies for diversifying the faculty at the university level have appeared in the literature of numerous disciplines. Much of this exploration has been stimulated by widespread recognition of demographic changes and by years of recent political and legal debates on matters of diversity.

In the fields of public administration and public affairs, the theme of diversifying future faculty appeared several times in the National Association of Schools of Public Administration and Affairs (NASPAA) diversity report that resulted from focus group discussions at the 1999 NASPAA annual conference, and it was formally presented to members and the NASPAA Executive Council in May 2000. First, Chapa (2000) observed a proportion of minorities among university faculty that was lower than the proportion of minorities in the general population. His analysis of faculty diversity data, based on seven years of NASPAA accreditation reports, set a stage for the exploration of why representation ratios of diversity in faculty makeup are as they are. In the same report, Wooldridge and Rubin (2000) explored several of the underlying challenges of ensuring faculty diver-
First, they noted that potential entrants into the doctoral candidate pool are often presented with many more lucrative options than careers in academia, thus ultimately dissuading many of them from entering the field. They also observed that a number of external forces often dissuade individuals from underrepresented groups from entering academia, including pressure that might surface from family or cultural groups. As a result, they argue, there is an enhanced need for adequate mentors to help individuals from these groups navigate the requirements of academia and to see academia’s various rewards.

Observations noted in the NASPAA diversity report coincide with other observations of the importance of ensuring a diverse faculty as well as the strategies for moving closer to such diversity in representation. Hammond (1999) argued that, as the nation continues to experience various demographic changes, it is important that students see a diversity of individuals in leadership positions, particularly in academic settings.

Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) provide an overview of research that has been conducted on mentoring doctoral students from underrepresented communities. They argue that the factors enabling effective mentor relationships cultivate a student’s development in four ways: integrating a student into the departmental fabric; helping to build professional and social networks; helping to develop research competencies; and helping with placement issues upon the completion of a graduate program. They note, however, some of the complexities that surface within a mentoring context, in particular the critical factors of cultural difference that often are not taken into account when cross-cultural mentoring relationships occur. In particular, they observe comments from many African-American students of having received limited—if any—support from mentors in their graduate studies.

Lindholm’s (2004) exploration of the decision-making factors that influence an individual’s decision to pursue a doctoral career provides some background on potential strategies. Lindholm argues that work examining the vocational decisions that underscore the decision-making of people within the field is particularly relevant at a time when academia is preparing for major retirements within the field and there is a significant need to increase the supply of candidates to replace retiring faculty members. Much of Lindholm’s work points to the role of graduate school experiences in helping individuals determine whether or not they will obtain a doctoral degree or whether they will pursue an academic or nonacademic career after completing their doctoral studies. Lindholm also notes that women and minorities tend to look at service to the larger community as a driving force more than nonminority doctoral candidates.

**Methodology**

This article reports on a three-year process examining potential strategies for enhancing the pool of public administration and public affairs doctoral candi-
dates from underrepresented communities. The process undertaken was three-staged. First, a focus group at the 2002 meeting of the Conference of Minority Public Administrators (COMPA) explored the question of expanding and supporting the pool of minority candidates in the public administration and public policy fields. Second, in 2004, a survey was administered to doctoral program directors on matters of recruitment and retention of minority students. Third, a pool of current doctoral candidates and individuals who have expressed interest in participating in doctoral programs in the field were surveyed to ascertain a number of factors related to their being drawn to public administration and public affairs in academia.

Focus Group

At the 2002 COMPA meeting, 21 focus group members represented a cross-section of individuals in public policy and public administration programs. Six doctoral candidates, eight master's degree candidates, six faculty members, and one dean participated in an hour and a half discussion on the challenges and opportunities of recruiting minority candidates to and retaining them in doctoral programs.

Appendix 1 includes questions that framed the discussion. Responses to the questions were recorded during the discussion. After the discussion, the responses were categorized into three themes: barriers to attracting minority doctoral candidates to public administration doctoral programs; the establishment of support mechanisms for students; and schools’ demonstrations of commitment to the enhancement of the size of the doctoral candidate pool of students from underrepresented communities.

Theme 1—Barriers to Attracting Additional Minority Doctoral Candidates into Public Administration Doctoral Programs

The central barriers to attracting minority doctoral candidates were viewed as two-fold. First, participants noted that there is a general lack of information about the process of admission into doctoral programs and the processes required to undertake doctoral studies. Several of the participants noted a feeling that potential doctoral candidates are not provided access to advisors who are well informed about admissions processes or who are willing to serve as mentors to the overall process.

This lack of awareness, particularly of the various processes, translates into what some participants noted is the second major barrier: fear of the entire doctoral process. Particular intimidating factors cited were the qualifying examinations, the dissertation, and other components.

To address these issues, participants suggested that organizations such as the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) and COMPA facilitate dialogue with organizations such as the International City Managers Association.
(ICMA), The National Forum for Black Public Administrators (NFBPA), and other organizations with practitioner members to promote the idea of a Ph.D. to practitioners who might have some interest in getting a doctorate, and to begin to have ongoing dialogue with them about the value of academic careers.

Theme 2—Support

The issue of support surfaced in several of the discussions, with an emphasis on building support networks that might enable participants to deal with the challenges of advancing through a doctoral program. One participant noted that such support is necessary because of the differences that exist in academic climates versus other arenas in which participants might interact. Academia has its own set of cultural norms, and for a student who is not used to such norms the process of learning the language and culture of academia can be challenging.

Building a set of social support networks was noted as a critical step. Included in this was the notion of enhancing interactions between students and their cohorts as well as between students and faculty members. Mentoring and its importance surfaced at several points during the discussion. Other discussions related to support focused on exploring ways in which students could obtain additional training, with one participant suggesting a summer institute.

Theme 3—Getting Schools to Demonstrate the Commitment

Several of the participants expressed some skepticism about the degree to which universities truly desire to enhance the diversity of doctoral program participants. As a result, one idea that emerged from the discussion was to explore strategies that would allow schools to demonstrate some form of visible commitment. Participants were asked to explain in detail what demonstrating a commitment to increasing support for candidates from diverse backgrounds might entail.

Several participants said that a visible commitment meant financial support for students, the encouragement of faculty involvement in efforts to enhance the recruitment and retention rates of minority students, and demonstrated funding for initiatives. Several also noted that it is important for a university to demonstrate its commitment from the presidential level to the rest of the university.

Report on a Survey of Doctoral Program Directors

In August 2003, a Web survey administered to directors of public administration doctoral programs explored challenges, opportunities, and strategies for the recruitment into and retention of minority doctoral candidates. Programs whose directors were included in the survey were identified via the NASPAA Web site and its list of doctoral programs. Directors were approached by e-mail and asked to respond to the survey. Twelve of the 60 individuals who were approached completed the survey, a 20 percent response rate. They were asked to respond to
a series of questions on the demographics of their doctoral candidate pool and on potential approaches to the recruitment and retention of doctoral candidates from groups traditionally underrepresented in public administration and public affairs doctoral programs.

The survey instrument permitted respondents to remain anonymous and to not identify their affiliated university. As a result, two of the respondents chose to not note their university affiliation. Of the 10 university affiliations given, nine were public, one was private. Three were in the mid-Atlantic region of the country, two were in the southwest, four were in the upper Midwest, and one was in the south.

The respondents had a total enrollment of 413 individuals currently enrolled at some stage of degree candidacy. Of these, 29 (7 percent) were African-American, 20 (4.8 percent) were Hispanic, eight (1.9 percent) were Asian-Pacific Islanders, and one (.2 percent) was Native American.

The seven questions noted in Appendix 2 framed the survey. Responses to these questions were categorized into two sections. Section 1 explored the recruitment of minority doctoral candidates, and section 2 explored retention strategies.

Section 1 Responses: Recruiting Minority Doctoral Candidates—Challenges and Opportunities

Responses explored strategies for recruiting minority candidates into doctoral programs in public administration and public affairs. Several factors surfaced as challenges in the recruiting processes. First was encouraging qualified applicants to apply to programs. Part of this challenge, noted one respondent, stems from questions about options following participation in a doctoral program. Noted one program director,

It appears from talking with our minority students that a major concern is that there are limited positions available once they complete a doctoral degree; therefore the investment seems to be much greater than a later reward. More work needs to be done to help graduates achieve post-doctoral careers.

Two of the respondents noted that their programs place some emphasis on the GRE, and one respondent observed that GRE scores have been lower for some minority candidates. Another respondent, suggesting that many of the potential candidates that their program draws from are mid-career, noted, “It is not clear whether the GRE is a good predictor of success for mid-career people.”

Lack of financial assistance surfaced as another factor. Five of the 12 respondents noted that a lack of financial assistance was a major challenge their program faced in recruiting minority candidates.

One respondent to a question on the type of program desired by minority candidates suggested that some would like an evening program: “Minority
candidates want an evening program offered so that they can maintain employment or other obligations while completing a Ph.D." One director observed the part-time nature of his program as a strength, particularly when trying to attract mid- to high-level state workers and heads of agencies. That program director also saw reaching out to more of these agencies as one means of encouraging more minority participation in his university’s doctoral program.

Program directors were asked about specific things their universities were doing to facilitate the recruitment and retention of minority doctoral candidates into their programs. Three of the 12 respondents had scholarship initiatives targeting students from underrepresented communities. Two specifically mentioned outreach initiatives targeting minority-majority institutions, where they and recruiters would interact with historically black colleges and universities and Hispanic-serving institutions. Two noted working with pre-existing networks of minorities who are involved with their campus outreach efforts and are involved with outreach to communities that are underrepresented in order to identify potential students.

Section 2 Responses:
Retaining Minority Doctoral Candidates—Challenges and Opportunities

The issue of retaining minority candidates, once they enter doctoral programs, was also examined. All of the respondents noted that the retention rate for minority and nonminority students was relatively the same. Two of the respondents, however, noted that there was some degree of variance in pre-program preparation, particularly in areas of quantitative analysis for many of the minority doctoral candidates in relation to nonminority doctoral candidates. They noted that such variance in pre-programmatic quantitative analysis preparation might have some effect on retention issues.

A theme that did emerge focused on the development of informational systems and networks for minority candidates. More career counseling, providing tutors, establishing a critical mass and minority support groups, providing a good environment (i.e., small programs with close student-faculty relations), and developing strong social bonds among doctoral students through taking classes together and some social activities were among the strategies noted as ways of creating such a network. One respondent actually described a course aimed at building such a network:

This is a for-credit course, so the emphasis is on socializing the students into academe and helping them get acquainted in a non-competitive environment. We tell the students to expect to see these students in classes and in study groups when they come up for comps. This is for all students, but it fosters the idea that everyone has an interest in everyone else’s success.
is especially important because our student group is split 50-50 between part-time and full-time students. The origin of the class was to help connect the part-timers with the full-timers, but it works across demographic lines as well.

**Student Perspectives—Part I**

At the 2004 annual ASPA meeting, an initiative known as Diversity in Academia was launched to begin providing a network for students from groups traditionally underrepresented in public administration and public affairs doctoral programs. Seventeen students participated in the first year’s program, and in 2005 a total of 35 participants represented 21 schools from across the country.

The applications from students who participated in the second year of the program provide an overview of factors related to their choice to begin doctoral studies. In particular, the narratives from the applications provide an overview of reasons why participants are drawn to doctoral programs in the field. They also reinforce much of the literature on the justification for enhanced faculty diversity and strategies for ensuring such diversity. As one student noted,

> the complexity of problems, issues, and concerns that face our public institutions and public at large can be addressed only if one is prepared with the knowledge base to be the change agent required for the twenty-first century. As the gap between needs and services widens, I believe it is especially important for individuals who are in leadership/managerial roles in the public and private sector to remain alert and vigilant to policies and practices that effect [sic] the public in general and historically disenfranchised groups in specific. And, as a member of an underrepresented group, the determination to acquire knowledge, skills and ability to fine tune and polish my God-given administrative talents and gifts, is paramount.

In several of the applications, students noted being drawn to the field by specific issues of interest they had. Said one participant,

> I was drawn to the field of public administration as a way to make a difference and to help people by examining public policies in urban conditions. As a research assistant, I am currently working on the evaluation of a federally funded drug treatment and recovery program for minorities who have HIV/AIDS or who are at risk...[for] contracting the disease. First hand, I see the impact that federal policy (in the form of funding) has on
a treatment program that targets members of a society who are disproportionately affected by HIV/AIDS.

In some cases, student narratives of their experiences in academia and learning about various professions helped to guide their interests in pursuing their doctoral programs. Another participant reported,

My parents raised me knowing that I would attend college, but graduate or doctoral studies were not part of our vocabulary. My father dropped out of college and my mother only has a sixth grade education. I may be more fortunate than many other immigrant Latinos whose parents have less education than mine, but the struggle is still very much alive. I immigrated to this country from Mexico at the age of 10. As a young immigrant Latina, I knew I would have to encounter and break the many stereotypes that society would impose on me. It has been, and I am sure it will continue to be a rocky journey, but I persevere refusing to give up and attempting to pave the way for other individuals like myself who come from underrepresented and underserved backgrounds…. I want to be part of a body that encourages increasing the number of historically underrepresented students to ensure that a true diversity of backgrounds, experiences, and lifestyles are recruited to be a part of and are represented in the field of public administration and public affairs. I would like to be part of the potential that strengthens our field by becoming a more inclusive community. I believe that dialogue is not enough, but...[that this requires] strategic planning and implementation that is intentional and purposeful in creating value around the recruitment of underrepresented students into the field of public administration and public affairs.

The comment of another participant speaks to the need for diverse faculty members and their effect on students:

I can easily count the opportunities that I have had to take classes from or work with minority or female scholars on one hand, and, given the public nature of the field, this is definitely a topic of concern that should be addressed through organizations such as ASPA and NASPAA. Although I do not believe that minority students must work with faculty of a similar race or gender in order to develop critical research skills, I do believe
that the presence of a diverse faculty and student body serves as both a great recruitment tool and a resource for students of all races and genders.

Some comments reflected the need for public administration programs to better reflect the changing demographics of the nation:

I feel public administration programs are very much behind the norm educationally, in terms of leadership, and in keeping up with the rapid changes regarding both the definition and locations of minority populations. As we observe such changes in states such as California, it is apparent that governmental and other institutions would do well to advance the education of minorities to better address the need to lead and train a diverse population.

One final statement reflects some of the general apprehension that some students feel as they weigh their concerns about entering the professoriate in public administration and public affairs:

Until last week, I never wanted to think about what it means to be a minority in academia. I disregarded this concept for fear that if I looked through a lens of difference that all I would see is difference. However, at a lecture on campus last week I was forced to look at the current picture of minorities in academia and subsequently came to the realization that even if I tried to ignore the fact that I am a minority entering academia that the reality would not ignore me. For the first time, I was confronted with the possibility of institutional barriers and cultural norms that could make being an academic difficult. Now, I must admit that I am afraid. As I looked at the lecturer’s overheads, which enumerated the number of minorities by racial category in different academic departments across the United States, and saw the plethora of zeros that represented the number of African Americans in certain departments, I began to doubt my capabilities, and the future that once looked so clear to me seemed bleak. The images made entering the academy seem like a struggle for women who look like me. Honestly, at this point in my life the prospect of starting a new struggle is not at all attractive (at least not a battle for which I am ill-equipped). With all that said, the message that I want to get across is that I really
NEED a brighter picture. I would like to take in the wisdom of people who have made it where I am trying to go. Frankly, there are not too many resources that I can draw on here in my program to provide the type of assurance that I desire.

**Student Perspectives—Part II**

In February 2005, individuals selected to participate in the 2005 Diversity in Academia program were electronically surveyed on matters pertaining to the recruitment and retention in the fields of public administration and public affairs. Responses to questions were coded and categorized within two broad areas: challenges related to the recruitment of minority doctoral candidates, and challenges related to the retention of minority doctoral candidates.

**Recruitment and Retention Challenges**

Table 1 includes questions and categorized responses to perceived issues or challenges related to the recruitment of candidates from underrepresented communities into doctoral programs. Table 2 includes questions and categorized responses to perceived issues and challenges related to the retention of doctoral candidates from underrepresented communities in doctoral programs.

Responses to questions about the challenges of attracting students and strategies for addressing the challenges fell into several categories. First is developing a general awareness about doctoral programs in public administration and public affairs. In some cases, a lack of awareness is the result of a lack of people with doctoral degrees in some communities. As one respondent noted,

Students from underrepresented communities are often not aware of doctoral opportunities and of the benefits/rewards (educationally, financially, social impact) of pursuing a doctoral education. Also students of underrepresented communities are not aware of the importance of pursuing a doctoral education to benefit their specific communities. Another challenge is that students from underrepresented communities do not have access to many role models from their communities who have obtained their doctorate....who can mentor them and explain the opportunities and advantages to pursuing a doctorate.... In addition, lack of information on doctoral program requirements, program structure, admission requirements, and financial resources are a challenge as well.

Awareness also relates to the utility of the doctoral degree in the eyes and perspectives of the potential student. One respondent noted that
Expanding the Pipeline: Explorations on Diversifying the Professoriate

Table 1. Recruitment of Doctoral Candidates from Underrepresented Communities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do you think are challenges that doctoral programs in public administration and public affairs face in attracting students from underrepresented communities?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of awareness of the doctoral degree’s benefits/rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Role Models</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief in self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of awareness — awareness of field (marketing by graduate offices)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disillusionment with the field (and willingness of public administrators to address community challenges).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of information on requirements for admission processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of faculty support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admittance requirements/GREs/other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location: not located in a good area</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How might programs address such challenges?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of the skills that will be acquired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing at career fairs and similar activities (search engines)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering varied courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prove to communities a respect of their members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview members of the target market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examine challenges/issues arising from standardized tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering flexible schedules in programs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What were some challenges you feel you encountered (or are currently encountering) in the process of applying for a doctoral program?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GRE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of information on financial resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding the application process (note comments about mentor and no one in family)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding professors who would put faith in students research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full understanding of requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowing what schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief in own abilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding profs with similar research interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What were some of the factors that led you to the decision of obtaining a doctoral degree?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Related to larger career goals – saw Ph.D. as “top of the field”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wanted to make change in a larger policy arena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realize that not many people in same ethnic/racial group with a doctoral degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidance of mentor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Challenges in Retaining Students in Doctoral Programs from Underrepresented Communities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do you think are challenges doctoral programs in public administration and public affairs face in retaining students from underrepresented communities?</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Funding (including appeal of paying jobs)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancing awareness of challenges in completing program and preparing for entering the job market</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizing activities that are culturally relevant</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensuring people are on the committee in the program (profs) with mutual interests as the student</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensuring fellowship/ connection among students in the program</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering relevant courses</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing meaningful advising</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving doctoral students in the academic community</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishing clear course and graduation requirements</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you are currently in a doctoral program, what are some of the challenges you feel you have encountered thus far in your studies?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work/life balance</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding mentors</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to work on project linked to research interests</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exams</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small network of minority students</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of opportunity for meaningful participation in the academic community</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of reading</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensity of classes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How might programs address such challenges?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Addressing Challenge</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Share financial opportunities early – increase fellowship opportunities</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhance networking opportunities among students in the program for information sharing</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentorship</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Include input from students from underrepresented communities to increase buy-in</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruit more minority faculty members</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expose students to opportunities for completing the programs (job opportunities for after programs)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging Institutional changes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The challenge is making the degree useful to the student. Unless you are currently in a position that would encourage you to move to the next level in education, some just might settle with the master's degree. In my community, we do not have a local doctoral program and do not see many people in public administration with doctoral degree—most have a law degree.

Responses also provided some guidance on marketing strategies that programs might develop and implement to address the challenges of recruiting students from underrepresented communities.

In most cases, public administration and public affairs are not areas that undergraduates can select as majors or fields of interest, and because of this most undergraduate students do not know that a graduate degree in public administration and public affairs is a viable option and do not know what careers are available to them with that type of degree. In addition, most students are not told that they have the capacity to study at that level and that they have something to contribute.

Very little outreach and recruitment is done by offices of graduate studies to attract students from underrepresented communities. The cost of doctoral programs may also be a challenge. Very few doctoral programs in this field are available in the urban areas where concentrations of students from underrepresented communities live. For example, I lived in Los Angeles, where I only found two doctoral programs.

This issue of outreach is related to the lack of knowledge about the doctoral program application process that several respondents suggested exists within certain communities. As one program participant who was applying for doctoral programs at the time of Diversity in Academia noted,

The main challenge is simply not knowing the application process. If a student does not have a strong mentor, the application process may be a bit daunting. Students from an underrepresented community are often...first-generation college graduates and are in need of guidance and support. It would be a good idea to assign the student a mentor from the doctoral program of choice to make sure that the student is taking all the right steps throughout the application process.

Once in programs, some students noted concerns about professors’ and other students’ perceptions about their abilities: “Why do African Americans have to be three better to...[garner] the same type of respect?” asked one respondent. She continued with an observation that “It is okay to be an average white student; African Americans have to be exceptional.”

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The issue of other students’ and faculty members’ perceptions is closely related to challenges students face in identifying potential research and professional mentors. One student shared her reflections on challenges she faced during her doctoral program in finding mentors to assist with her progress in the program. She notes,

My biggest challenge was getting over the idea of waiting for someone to mentor me. The first six months I sort of flailed around trying to find my balance. I feel like I wasted a lot of time which could have been used more effectively. I had this perception of a professional mentor-mentee relationship where the mentor taught and the mentee eagerly soaked up knowledge. It was something that I dreamed up; no one ever made such a promise. It’s just the way that I would have done it. However, I am not the only student that expected this imaginary relationship. Lately, I have adopted a help thyself approach, which requires that I also help others. This approach is working tremendously well for me, and for those with whom I come in contact. I have started asking questions, and...I have started getting answers. But rather than keep the answers to myself, I share them with everyone who will listen. Then I chastise my underrepresented colleagues if they dare hoard any small morsel of information. I hate that it took me 18 months to figure this out.

Finally, the responses to questions about program recruitment brought up challenges to program emphasis on the GRE and other standardized tests as determinants for admission. This issue is one that appeared in numerous critical evaluations of GRE scores and other standardized tests, and debates about their utility for predicting the performance of students in graduate programs (Stack and Kelley, 2002; Goldberg and Alliger, 1992; Morrison and Morrison, 1995). As one respondent noted,

[p]rograms need to address the problem above by establishing policies that take into account factors other than standardized test scores for acceptance into programs. This enables underrepresented students [to have] the opportunities that groups who perform well on these tests have.

CONCLUSIONS
The changing demographic realities of the United States and the increasing global role for many of our programs, as well as recognition of the effect that graduates of our programs have in communities reflecting an increasing level of
Expanding the Pipeline: Explorations on Diversifying the Professoriate

diversity, means that our disciplines will need to continually explore numerous means of improving the representation of doctoral candidates from groups that are not adequately represented among our professoriate.

This article reports on some exploratory steps that have been undertaken to ensure a diverse future professoriate in public administration and public affairs. Drawing on literature on diversifying faculty, the results from a focus group on faculty diversity, perspectives from doctoral program advisors, and perspectives from current doctoral students and potential doctoral students from communities that are underrepresented in the field, it is possible to identify several components of a strategy that might help enhance efforts to diversify the doctoral candidate pool in public administration and public affairs. Such a strategy would include communicating the benefits and opportunities of a doctoral degree to a more diverse audience, building opportunities for the development of a pool of mentors, minimizing barriers to the recruitment process, and developing networks for ensuring access to information and support activities that will further enhance doctoral program recruitment and the completion rates of individuals from traditionally underrepresented communities.

REFERENCES
Appendix 1
Questions from Focus Group,
2002 Conference of Minority Public Administrators (COMPA) meeting

What are some of the barriers to attracting additional candidates into doctoral programs?

What are some of the opportunities that might be accessed within our institutions (organizations), COMPA, or COMPA’s network with other organizations that might help to increase the number of minorities in doctoral programs?

What are strategies that doctoral granting institutions might use to attract additional minority candidates into doctoral programs?

How might we as administrators or practitioners identify potential candidates for doctoral programs?

How might we better support doctoral candidates to help ensure their completion of their programs?

Do you have any general suggestions for strategies to increase the number of minority doctoral candidates that you did not have an opportunity to identify in your responses to the questions above?
Appendix 2

Questions for Doctoral Program Directors

What have been some of the largest challenges you have faced in recruiting minority candidates into your Ph.D. or DPA program?

What do you sense might be some opportunities for recruiting minority candidates into Ph.D. or DPA programs?

What have been some of the largest challenges you have faced in retaining minority doctoral candidates in your Ph.D. or DPA program?

What do you sense might be some opportunities for enhancing the retention rates of minority candidates in Ph.D. or DPA programs?

What specifically are some things that your university does to recruit minority students into your Ph.D. or DPA program?

What are some things that your university does to retain minority students in your Ph.D. or DPA program?

Currently there is some discussion about the development of a network among minority doctoral candidates and potential doctoral candidates to encourage their beginning and completing doctoral programs. If such a network were to form, what are some things that it might do to enhance the recruitment and retention of minority doctoral candidates?

Kyle Farmbry is an assistant professor of public affairs and administration at Rutgers University. His current research interests include intersectoral dynamics; private and independent sector entrepreneurial development; public, private and nonprofit sector roles in minority enterprise development; and community voice in public administration. He may be contacted at kfarmbry@andromeda.rutgers.edu.
How Can We Democratize Higher Education if We Don’t Count the Votes? 
An MPA Case Study

Kenneth Oldfield 
University of Illinois at Springfield

Abstract 
The American Society for Public Administration and the National Academy of Public Administration, as well as several leading authors in our field, have expressed support for a range of ethical principles, including representativeness, diversity, affirmative action, equality, fairness, and justice. Various social equity reformers have argued that universities should expand their integrative efforts to include more students of poverty and working class origins. This study surveyed the nation’s 50 top-rated MPA schools, asking whether they collect data about their students’ socioeconomic backgrounds. While other academic disciplines have initiated social class-based affirmative action plans for enrolling students, none of the 43 survey respondents said they do so. The discussion closes by suggesting that, with this study’s evidence and justification in place, academic public administration, driven by its commitment to the discipline’s acknowledged ideals, has a sound rationale for establishing economic affirmative action plans for student diversity purposes.

This paper examines a subject that is taboo in most American circles. Even in higher education, a place renowned for examining even the most sensitive topics, the question of inequalities based on social class origins gets little attention. This project addresses this oversight in master of public administration (MPA) programs.

The discussion begins with a personal narrative showing how certain events prompted me to poll the nation’s leading MPA programs to discover which ones, if any, were practicing the principles that supposedly guide their behaviors. The middle section details the major elements of these professional standards and
How Can We Democratize Higher Education if We Don’t Count the Votes?

summarizes the writings of several authors whose views are supportive of these ideals. It also shows how the questionnaire employed in this study was developed and administered. The paper closes by linking the survey findings to the current literature and suggesting that academic public administration, driven by a commitment to its acknowledged ideals, should begin establishing economic affirmative action plans for achieving greater student diversity.

BEING AN INVITED SPEAKER

In April 2005, I was asked to give a one-hour guest presentation to an MPA capstone seminar at West Virginia University. I would be discussing how academic public administration mostly ignores the importance of social class considerations, especially the role of inherited economic and social advantages, in policy development and implementation. (Hereafter, MPA includes this and like degrees, such as master of public affairs and master of public management.)

In my discussion, I planned to cover two interrelated themes. First, I wanted students to understand the role of the citizenry’s current social class standing in the public services and obligations they will likely encounter over their lifetimes. Second, I wanted students to examine a question that few, if any, mainstream MPA textbooks ever raise, even in passing. I wanted them to see how peoples’ social class origins strongly affect the trajectory of their lives and therefore their relationship to government. I wanted everyone to appreciate the profound advantages and disadvantages children accrue simply because of their parents’ socioeconomic status, particularly the strong connection between social class background and success in school.

Just before starting my presentation, I counted 22 students in the class. As I learned later in the hour, two of them were born and raised in East Germany. After introducing myself, I asked how many in the audience were the first in their families to attend college. Given my presentation topic, I thought this was an especially relevant question. West Virginia is the only state lying completely within Appalachia, and it usually ranks at or near the bottom on most national socioeconomic indices, including median household income and percentage of the population with a bachelor’s degree or higher—in which it ranks last, or 51st, which includes Washington, D.C.—and poverty rate, in which it is the 5th highest (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004a, 2004b, 2004c).

In response to my question, only two students indicated they were “first generation college” (hereinafter “first gens”). Both were born and raised in West Virginia. The other 20 said they were from families in which at least one parent had an undergraduate degree or more. Although having a smaller number of first gens in the audience might not have been surprising, the size of the discrepancy (2 versus 20) was, considering the state’s overall population characteristics; given how many of the state’s and region’s residents lacked a college degree, the odds
should have been more favorable toward their offspring being better represented in the course by chance alone.

The imbalance was ironic in one sense, after I thought about it. If you were first gen and a West Virginia native, your odds of being in the capstone class that afternoon were the same as if you were born and raised in East Germany. Small world. While I was also interested in learning what each student’s parents did for a living—how many were blue collar, poverty class, and so forth—there was insufficient time for that discussion.

After finishing my presentation, I went down the hall to the program office to wait for the capstone professor to end his class so we could go to supper. Just after I entered the room, another MPA professor, someone I knew from prior conversations and conference meetings, entered and asked me how my presentation went. I began by noting what I had learned about the educational origins of the capstone students. He explained this was likely a statistical fluke, because most of their MPA students were “probably working class,” since so many were from West Virginia.

I wondered about this and suggested that we consult the files and see how many of their students were the first in their families to attend college. Maybe we could also see what their parents did for a living? He replied that, unfortunately, they did not gather or maintain this background information. Ironically—the second social class-based paradox evolving from that day—I later checked and found that the WVU graduate school’s application form asks potential WVU students to list their sex, age, whether they are a military veteran, their ethnic group, and whether “any members of your family...are WVU students or alumni.” Presumably, if your parents were WVU graduates, this might count in your favor when deciding admissions (West Virginia University, ND), a case of economic affirmative action in reverse.

“Keep[ing] up to Date on Emerging Issues”

I found the WVU situation especially puzzling because of, first, what the discipline of public administration claims are its guiding principles and, second, what is happening in other parts of higher education. On the first point, consider, for example, that the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) Code of Ethics says our field supports various democratic ideals, including “representativeness,” “affirmative action,” “equality,” and “fairness” (ASPA, 2003). The Code also obligates us to “keep up to date on emerging issues.”

On its Web pages, the National Academy of Public Administration’s Standing Panel on Social Equity in Governance says that “[i]ssues of fairness, justice, and equity have always been part of public administration...it is now evident that public administration, in both its practice and in its theory, finds it essential to be forthright about those aspects of our work that turn on issues of fairness,
justice, and equity" (Standing Panel, n.d.). Recently, the *Journal of Public Affairs Education* published a symposium on social equity. While one article noted that “[d]uring the New Public Administration movement, public administration scholars began to consider the field’s position on the redistribution of resources to reduce inequalities” (Svara and Brunet, 2004, 100), another author argued that “the teaching of social equity and diversity must be included in public administration education coursework and curricula” (Rice, 2004, 144).

The front cover of the *Public Administration Review* (PAR) claims it is the field’s “premier journal.” PAR and other public administration periodicals publish papers detailing how women and minorities have been faring in organization life. The National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) (re)accreditation process requires each program to supply information about how many women, minority, and disabled students are currently enrolled (Self, 2005).

The March 2005, *PA Times*, the field’s newspaper, carried an article by George Frederickson titled “The State of Social Equity in American Public Administration.” Frederickson wrote that in virtually all aspects of social, economic and political life, Americans have become less equal. In our literature, in our classrooms and in our administration practices we have learned to talk the social equity talk. But if the data on the growing gap between the haves and have nots in America are any clue, we are not walking the social equity walk.... Public administration should be all about seeing to it that public policies are fair and that the implementation of public policies is fair.

Frederickson also says there is “a desperate need to dramatize social equity issues.”

The writings of Phillips (2004) and Web sites such as the “Center on Budget and Policy Priorities” (Center, n.d.) and “Explorations in Social Inequality” (Kearl, n.d.) detail how the distribution of income and wealth in the United States has gradually shifted upward over the last quarter century. This redistribution of wealth in favor of Frederickson’s “haves” and funding cuts in state and federal aid to students make it harder for poverty and working class individuals to afford college, including studying for an advanced degree.

On the second point—the idea of what is happening in other parts of higher education—in recent works, such as *Equity and Excellence in American Higher Education* (Bowen, Kurzweil, and Tobin, 2005) and *Socioeconomic Status, Race/Ethnicity, and Selective College Admissions* (Carnevale and Rose, 2003), researchers leave no doubt that the most underrepresented group at the country’s leading colleges are stu-
How Can We Democratize Higher Education if We Don’t Count the Votes?

Carnevale and Rose summarize their findings this way:

There is even less socioeconomic diversity than racial or ethnic diversity at the most selective colleges... We find that 74 percent of the students at the top 146 highly selective colleges came from families in the top quarter of the SES scale (as measured by combining family income and the education and occupations of the parents), just 3 percent came from the bottom SES quartile, and roughly 10 percent came from the bottom half of the SES scale...

There are four times as many African American and Hispanic students as there are students from the lowest SES quartile (11).

In response to these growing social class-based discrepancies, the authors of both reports recommend that the educational institutions they studied expand their affirmative action criteria to include socioeconomic origins. Carnevale and Rose (7) argue their case by saying that they “urge the expansion of current affirmative action programs to include lower socioeconomic status students because they can add both economic and racial diversity.” Elsewhere they write, “We endorse a much more vigorous use of economic affirmative action” (57).

The authors of the two reports do not intend to replace current diversity efforts based on race and gender with one using only social class considerations. Instead, they propose expanding existing plans to include social class origins among the mix of diversity ingredients.

Other authors (see, for example, Banks, 2001; Fallon, 1996; Kahlenberg, 1996; Mikulak, 1990; and Taylor, 1993) support the idea of class-based affirmative action for students at schools where the evidence shows it is necessary. Carnevale and Rose (2003) and Bowen, Kurzweil, and Tobin (2005) argue that such integrative efforts are consistent with the American ideal of democracy in tertiary schooling and that they improve the learning environment. They say that, when students from disparate backgrounds assemble, it exposes everyone to a much broader array of opinions and considerations about academic matters. Bowen, Kurzweil, and Tobin mention Pell Grants and the G. I. Bill as notable instances of how America has made college accessible to those who could not otherwise afford it (2005).

Some schools have been gradually adopting class-based affirmative action plans to increase social class diversity among their students (see Schmidt, 2006). The University of Michigan Law School, the defendant in the last major U.S. Supreme Court decision on affirmative action (Grutter v. Bollinger, 2003), asks applicants to provide information about their parents or guardians’ educational achievements and occupations (University of Michigan, n.d.). Students of poverty and
working class origins are granted 20 extra points (of the 100 needed for admission) if they were raised in humble circumstances.

Several leading public administration programs are part of American universities that have proclaimed their commitment to enrolling a more diverse student body. For example, Dr. Larry Faulkner, president of the University of Texas at Austin, says his institution belongs to the people of Texas, and we want all of our fellow citizens to feel a sense of ownership in their university... I believe strongly in the value of a diverse university community, reflecting the society it serves. Its doors must be open to people from all backgrounds to pursue educational opportunities. Moreover, a diverse campus community enhances the learning environment, because it affords a broad range of cultural experiences that few of us encounter in the home neighborhoods of our youth. It can and should be a model of clearer tolerance and higher understanding that influences the way we interact with others throughout our lifetimes (Faulkner, 2006).

The Ohio State University Web site asserts, “Diversity is a cornerstone of community at [this university]…. One of the most important components of your college education is learning to respect and appreciate the lifestyles, values, ideas, cultures, and backgrounds of others you encounter (Diversity Statement, n.d.). Elsewhere, the same site says that the university’s students should learn to respect “differences related to race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender, ability, [and] socioeconomic background.”

Finally, the Association of American Universities, which “consists of 62 leading North American research universities” has “adopted a statement…expressing strong support for continued attention to diversity in university admissions.” This formal declaration says,

We believe that our students benefit significantly from education that takes place within a diverse setting. In the course of their university education, our students encounter and learn from others who have backgrounds and characteristics very different from their own…. A very substantial portion of our curriculum is enhanced by the discourse made possible by the heterogeneous backgrounds of our students. Equally, a significant part of education in our institutions takes place outside the classroom, in extracurricular activities where students learn how to work together, as well as to compete; how to exercise leadership, as well as to build consensus” (AAU, 1997).
Is The WVU MPA Program Unique?

The U.S. Census Web site reports that in 2004, only 16.3 percent of West Virginia residents had completed at least a bachelor's degree (2004b). Meanwhile, 91 percent of the capstone students were at least second-generation college. Evidently, despite WVU being heavily dependent on the taxes its many low-income residents pay, its MPA program does not interpret "representativeness," “affirmative action,” “equality,” and “fairness” to mean an obligation to ensure that each incoming class contains a representative number of students of humble origins. Outwardly, at least in this MPA program, “keep[ing] up to date on emerging issues” (ASPA, 2003) does not mean accepting the recommendations of Carnevale and Rose, or Bowen, Kurzweil, and Tobin, or others that higher learning make “vigorous use of economic affirmative action” (Carnevale and Rose, 57), or at minimum collect the data needed to judge whether such a plan is justified.

I wondered if the WVU MPA program is unique. Or, indeed, do most other MPA schools gather and use information about their students’ socioeconomic origins for recruitment and admissions purposes, much as the University of Michigan Law School defines “diversity”? I was asking if, notwithstanding a steadily growing body of literature showing the need for socioeconomic affirmative action in college recruitment and admissions, most MPA faculty are still reluctant to expand their diversity criteria to include this broader interpretation of difference, clear evidence that they are not “keep[ing] up to date on emerging issues” (ASPA, Code of Ethics, 2003).

In sum, the field's Code of Ethics and other writings and statements about its principles assume a much broader import when viewed in democratic terms. Given our ideals, we should always be asking whether the students enrolled in our programs adequately reflect the major demographic categories of the public we are training them to serve. Have we adopted and maintained policies to ensure that the child of a single mother working as a full-time restaurant server is adequately represented among those striving to fulfill the high calling of public service? Or will we be found wanting when measured against MacKenzie's (95-96) egalitarian question: “Recently I’ve asked: ‘What does the working class mean to the diversity movement? Where does working-class estrangement from higher education come from, and what can college and university faculty do about it? How can we more fully acknowledge working-class students, and make them welcome and at home in the academy?’”

This Study

This project has three goals. First, it tests how many MPA programs require their student applicants to supply social class background data. Second, it measures how programs use this information when deciding admissions; do the schools include socioeconomic origins in their affirmative action and diversity considerations? Finally, if enough programs collect these data and make them
available, the last part of the discussion will portray the socioeconomic origins of the average MPA student. Ultimately, this analysis will establish whether the WVU capstone sample accurately reflects the larger field. If the average MPA student does not fairly represent the socioeconomic characteristics of the public they are in training to serve, it will be proposed that NASPAA start requiring all schools to adopt Carnevale and Rose’s recommendation about using economic affirmative action in deciding admissions.

**Methodology**

Data for this study were collected through a questionnaire mailed to the field’s top 50 schools. The list came from the 2006 edition of the *U.S. News and World Report*’s annual survey of leading academic programs by specialty (66). The top 50 programs were selected from a survey (completed in 2004) of 253 schools based on information “provided by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration and the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management” (66).

The survey was pretested at 10 schools included in the 2001 *U.S. News and World Report* study of the field’s top 100 programs (published in 2004). Because most of the top 50 schools in the 2006 report were the same as those listed in the earlier study, if not in exactly the same order, the pretest sample was randomly drawn from programs numbered 51-100 in the 2001 survey. Because the two lists overlap slightly, had any of the selected pretest schools been among the programs presented in the 2006 top 50, there would have been additional drawings until the sample size reached 10. Because there was no overlap, this step was unnecessary. Respondents returned eight of 10 pretest surveys. The questionnaire and cover letter were judged ready for distribution without change.

The final questionnaire was mailed in three separate waves during fall 2005. By the end of the third cycle, 43 of the 50 schools had replied, an 86 percent response rate. The seven schools not submitting questionnaires were contacted via email and offered a final chance to participate. None replied.

The survey contained a cover letter saying the research project was designed to see which, if any, schools collected information on the social class origins of students enrolling in the respective programs. The verbatim language listed on an enclosed, self-addressed, 8½” by 11” postcard appears under “Findings” below. The bottom half of the postcard allowed each respondent several lines to provide specific observations. Under the heading “Remarks,” each recipient was informed, “If you want to offer a written comment or elaborate on your marked reply, use the remaining spaces for this purpose.” Several people wrote comments in this section. The remarks ranged from “Good luck with your research” to specifics on what background data a school collected about its students’ socioeconomic origins.
Finally, the questionnaire assured each respondent confidentiality and the promise, “No individuals or institutions will be identified in any writings, presentations, or other materials drawn from this questionnaire.”

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

The survey results appear in Table 1.

One school (2.3 percent) said it collected information on the parental occupations of its program applicants and another one (2.3 percent) said it gathered figures on parental education. A qualifying note listed on the second questionnaire explained that the program did not solicit the statistics. Instead, the school’s graduate admissions center “collects the data and sends it to us.”

A follow-up email to these two respondents asked if this background information was considered in deciding individual student admissions; did the respective programs use these data as, say, part of a class-based diversity plan? Both schools said they do not use the information this way and further explained that they do not have immediate access to these files. They noted, too, that they do not keep summary copies of the findings in their offices and that it would take some time to have the records prepared in a format useful for my research question, if the figures could be assembled at all.

In each instance, the schools commented on their use of these facts. In both cases, their description showed that they collected the data for purposes unrelated

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<th>Question</th>
<th>Responses</th>
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<td>YES, we gather information regarding our students’ parental educations.</td>
<td>2.33% (n=1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO, we do not gather information regarding our students’ parental educations.</td>
<td>97.67% (n=42)</td>
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Table 1. Number of MPA Programs Requesting Information about Their Students’ Social Class Origins
to my research questions. Given this paucity of findings, it was impossible to construct a portrait of the average MPA student.

In sum, this study shows that 95 percent (41 of 43) of the participating schools do not gather information about the socioeconomic origins of their students; although two respondents collect these data, neither weighs them for diversity purposes. Incidentally, under “Remarks,” one respondent commented, “This is an interesting issue, and one that fits with past concerns reg. representative bureaucracy, etc.”

“A Desperate Need to Dramatize Social Equity Issues”

Notwithstanding these survey results, it is not hard to imagine, given the exceptionally high response rate and several other encouraging notes posted under “Remarks,” that most if not all these MPA programs would be open to the idea of collecting data on their students’ social class origins and then using this information for diversity purposes, where the numbers showed such efforts were warranted. Given that these are the field’s leading schools, by definition, once they initiate class-based affirmative action plans, surely other, less prominent programs will follow suit (Bowen, Kurzweil, and Tobin, 183). This would be an especially effective way of raising class consciousness throughout the field, a goal readily compatible with ASPA’s Code of Ethics’ charge that we “keep up to date on emerging issues.”

Over the last several years, academic public administration has significantly expanded the percentage of female and minority faculty on staff. Public administration job announcements frequently encourage women, minorities, and people with disabilities to apply. NASPAA accreditation requires applicant programs to list faculty proportions by race, gender and “disabilities” (NASPAA, 2002).

Likewise, MPA programs have been actively recruiting students who are female, minority, and “persons with disabilities” (NASPAA, 2002). As noted, these diversity efforts are now a formal part of the (re)accreditation process. NASPAA standards require that, in their self reports, applicants list the number of students who are “minority female,” “minority male,” “white female,” and “white male” and their standing relative to four criteria: “applicant,” “regular admission,” “probationary adm[iission]”, and “registration.” This is incentive for all would-be MPA programs to have a more representative student body, given that they must collect and report race, gender, and disabilities numbers.

So far, there is no formal incentive for MPA programs to determine how many poverty and working class students they enroll, notwithstanding what Bowen, Kurzweil, and Tobin, Carnevale and Rose, Kahlenberg, the University of Michigan, and others have said about the benefits of social class-based diversity. Seemingly, the field’s guiding principles have not provoked it to move toward “vigorous use of economic affirmative action” (Carnevale and Rose, 2003, 57). Without these background data, it is impossible to test whether “our students are mostly
working class.” Lacking this information also means we cannot comparatively gauge which MPA recruiting policies generally yield higher numbers of students of humble origins.

Although this study did not test why socioeconomic background information considerations are still outside the public affairs diversity movement, it is easy to guess why this is so. Various writers have commented on how America at large and higher education in particular are reluctant to address social class matters (Frank, 2004; hooks, 1994, 2000; Mantsios, 1995; Perrucci and Wysong, 2003; and White, 1998), especially structural inequalities.

Structural inequalities is best understood via this analogy. Assume two people gather to play Monopoly. Both contestants expect to start the game with equal amounts of money. On its face, beginning otherwise would be unfair. The players would never think of allowing either one to inherit money from a previous player. Yet, how often do we ask MPA students to consider whether the offspring of illiterate farm workers really have the same chance of gaining admission to our degree programs as do the children of college graduates? American higher education rarely challenges in real life what is prima facie unacceptable in the abstract world of board games (see, for example, hooks, 2000, 65, for more on higher learning’s reluctance to address socioeconomic inequalities). We omit class from our classrooms.

Perhaps this oversight derives, in large part, from a national mythology that portrays formal education as the “great leveler,” a place where everybody can gain the learning and credentials needed for success, despite how near or far from the starting line he or she began life’s race. The power of this mythology is best demonstrated by its persistence despite countless studies showing the educational benefits derived from being of higher social class origins (see, for example, Bourdieu, 1986; Bowen, Kurzweil, and Tobin, 2006; deLone, 1979; Hart and Risley, 1995; and Kahlenberg, 1996). Much like a state lottery advertisement, we are encouraged to see the exceptions, not the averages, as representing our chances of winning the big prize.

So far, academic public administration’s publicized commitment to social equity and other democratic ideals has not provoked MPA programs to challenge this national folklore by collecting the data needed to judge when and where class-based affirmative action plans are suitable. “Representative” still does not include concern for one of formal education’s strongest predictive factors. By overlooking the literature on socioeconomic origins and educational attainment, we show we are still not living up to the ideals that we say guide our actions.

If Frederickson is right, and the have-nots deserve our attention, MPA programs should meet his challenge by expanding their definition of merit to include both measuring and considering where each student applicant began the socioeconomic race. As Carnevale and Rose explain, “While all striving has merit, striving against physical, social, economic, and cultural barriers is regarded as especially
meritorious. In American culture, merit is measured not only by where one stands, but also by how far one had to go to get there. Americans are still willing to give special breaks to people who show ‘the right stuff’ in overcoming barriers” (2003, 6).

We are all products of a national political culture and an educational process that rarely challenges the legitimacy of a social system that permits such wide variations in social class origins. However, if other disciplines are changing, if ever so gradually, we can too. Certainly, our Code of Ethics and our asserted beliefs about social equity, affirmative action, and diversity are not just hollow rhetoric. With this study’s evidence and justification in place, academic public administration, driven by its commitment to the discipline’s stated ideals, is sure to begin monitoring individual programs to establish which ones should implement economic affirmative action plans for diversity purposes. Our actions on several different fronts support this contention, as we have made steady progress in our integrative efforts directed toward other underrepresented groups. Certainly, we can do the same with social class.

The fastest way forward in this campaign—perhaps with prompting from the National Academy of Public Administration’s Standing Panel on Social Equity in Governance—is for NASPAA to expand its accreditation requirements to include both the collection and consideration of each student’s socioeconomic origins when deciding program admissions. Schools should have to gather and tabulate these data just as they do with race, gender, and disability representation. This would be an especially effective prophylactic against the oligarchical tendencies inherent to all organizations (Michels, 1962). Or, to say it another way, it could help guard against the “old boy and old girl [social class] network.” Politics is as much about questions raised as those not asked. Not counting something serves the interests of those whose well-being might otherwise be threatened were the facts gathered and publicized, as Dr. Stockman, the hero of Ibsen’s (1935) *An Enemy of the People*, clearly shows.

If everything our field’s foremost authors and administrators say about our moral values is true, it should not be long before we are the standard for achieving this broader interpretation of student diversity. Soon, our discipline just might be the first one MacKenzie turns to for answers to his inquiry: “Where does working-class estrangement from higher education come from, and what can college and university faculty do about it? How can we more fully acknowledge working-class students, and make them welcome and at home in the academy?”

**Notes**
1. X, Y, and Z assisted with this project.
2. One of the eight pretest programs that returned surveys said they gathered information about the social class origins of their students. Thus, 96 percent (49 of 51) of all the respondents (pretest and formal survey combined) did not collect these background data.
How Can We Democratize Higher Education if We Don't Count the Votes?

REFERENCES


How Can We Democratize Higher Education if We Don’t Count the Votes?


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The Journal of Public Affairs Education (JPAE) is the flagship journal of the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). Founded in 1970, NASPAA serves as a national and international resource for the promotion of excellence in education for the public service. Its institutional membership includes more than 250 university programs in the United States in public administration, policy, and management. It accomplishes its purposes through direct services to its member institutions and by:

- Developing and administering appropriate standards for educational programs in public affairs through its Executive Council and its Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation;
- Representing to governments and other institutions the objectives and needs of education for public affairs and administration;
- Encouraging curriculum development and innovation and providing a forum for publication and discussion of education scholarship, practices, and issues;
- Undertaking surveys that provide members and the public with information on key educational issues;
- Meeting with employers to promote internship and employment for students and graduates;
- Undertaking joint educational projects with practitioner professional organizations, and
- Collaborating with institutes and schools of public administration in other countries through conferences, consortia, and joint projects.

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