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THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF DIVERSITY AND GENDER EQUITY

NORMS AND VALUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION SETTINGS

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

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DISSERTATION APPROVAL

The abstract and dissertation of Rowanna Lynn Carpenter for the Doctor of Philosophy

in Public Administration and Policy were presented December 4, 2008 and accepted

by the dissertation committee and the doctoral program.

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ABSTRACT

An abstract of the dissertation of Rowanna Lynn Carpenter for the Doctor of
Philosophy in Public Administration and Policy Presented December 4, 2008.

Title: The Institutionalization of Diversity and Gender Equity Norms and Values
in Higher Education Settings

Universities in the United States increasingly experience demographic,
business, and community pressure to hire, retain, and educate women and ethnic
minority faculty, staff, and students. Responses to this pressure have changed over
time from isolated open-door initiatives to comprehensive diversity initiatives
designed to create welcoming campus environments for people of all backgrounds.
Current literature on the assessment of diversity initiatives in higher education
suggests the need to use approaches that include attention to the entire university,
and to institutionalize the norms and values associated with diversity initiatives as
part of the change process. Despite this shift toward a comprehensive
understanding of the university, there has been very little focus on comparing the
staff and faculty experience of diversity in American university settings.

Using a framework developed from structural, institutional, and feminist
and multicultural organizational theories, this research begins to fill that gap.
Through a survey of faculty and staff at three universities, this research measures

levels of institutionalization of diversity and gender equity norms and values, and uses hierarchical block regression to construct models for faculty and staff which predict institutionalization. These models include four blocks of potential contributors to institutionalization representing organizational-, departmental-, and individual-level variables.

The findings suggest the importance of including factors at all three organizational levels when modeling the institutionalization process for staff and faculty. The findings also reveal that in each case, the model constructed for the research describes the faculty experience more accurately than the staff experience, indicating the need to more fully articulate the staff model. Specific contributors for staff and faculty are discussed and compared to determine similarities and differences in the institutionalization processes for each group.

The results of this research are framed using institutional theory and feminist and multicultural theories, and inform current literature on universities as professional bureaucracies. Further, the results help universities better understand the impact of their diversity initiatives and more carefully target those initiatives to their various audiences.

To Michael and Dylan who have given me much needed balance and have been patient and supportive through this process. I love you both.

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My son, Dylan, who has been living with this dissertation for most of his life, has given up weekends and evenings with me so I could write. He has provided me with a clear sense of my priorities and helped provide motivation for me to finish.

Finally, my husband, Michael, has never wavered in his commitment to my degree path. His support, in all forms, has made this possible.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Organizations of all types recognize the need to promote diversity in their

workplaces as well as employ workers that understand problems from a number of

perspectives (Slaughter, 2004; Carnevale, 1999). Business organizations are under

increasing pressure to maintain competitiveness in a global economy. For public

organizations, diversity among employees reflects the diversity among the

communities they are called to serve and is related to agencies' ability to respond

to, offer support to, and provide services to diverse publics (Dolan & Rosenbloom,

2003).

The same demographic and global pressures compel universities and

colleges in the United States to employ diverse workforces, to prepare students to

participate in the global economy, and to address historical inequities in the US

educational system. A diverse faculty and staff contribute to university

effectiveness in a number of ways, bringing multiple perspectives to the campus. A

diverse faculty use different pedagogical and research methods, and include

broader perspectives in the curriculum (Smith & Schonfeld, 2000). Diversity

among faculty and staff at a university is also positively related to the overall

climate for women and ethnic minority students (Hurtado, 1992; Hurtado et. al.,

1999; Fox, 2005).

Diversity on campus also improves the student experience. Students who experience interaction with diverse peers have better critical thinking skills and higher levels of citizen engagement and intellectual engagement than their peers who do not (Gurin et. al., 2002; Nishishiba, Nelson & Shinn, 2005). These outcomes are associated with universities' historical roles of providing an educated citizenry and workforce for the country (Musil et. al., 1999; Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005).

While the benefits of diversity are increasingly recognized and embraced by universities in the U.S., those universities face a challenge of creating environments in which all students, staff and faculty can participate and experience success. In the 1960s and 1970s under pressure from Affirmative Action, Title IX and the Civil Rights and women's movements, universities' first attempts at increasing diversity focused on allowing entry for more women and ethnic minorities with an underlying assumption that providing greater access for women and minorities would be enough to make up for historical experiences of discrimination and segregation (Peterson et. al., 1978; Hanna, 1988; Hyer, 1985). The focus was on access and there were few efforts to create places where interaction among diverse groups was supported.

When "open-door" initiatives, programs to increase the numbers of underrepresented students and faculty, did not result in the expected increases in the numbers of faculty or students from those groups, a broader understanding of the issues encountered by women and ethnic minorities on university campuses

began to emerge. In the 1990s and 2000s, professionals and scholars studying diversity in higher education insisted that organizations must change and could not remain focused on merely admitting or hiring more women and minorities. These scholars argued that diversity must become a part of the way the entire university operates (Smith & Schonfeld, 2000; Musil et al., 1999; Aguirre, 2000). Efforts focused on embedding diversity throughout the organization have initiated the process of changing the character of universities but there are still a number of areas in need of improvement.

Scholars studying diversity in organizations, and more specifically in higher education, have shifted from thinking about isolated diversity initiatives, such as a hiring initiative that is not linked to a curriculum project, to thinking more comprehensively about the ways in which the values, norms and desired behaviors related to diversity are institutionalized across the organization (Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005; Bensimon et. al., 2004). Institutionalization in this sense refers to the "process by which social expectations of appropriate organizational forms and behavior come to take on rule-like status in social thought and action" (Covaleski & Dirsmith, p. 562). There is evidence that when such institutionalization occurs desired outcomes follow. For example, qualified women are selected more often for leadership positions (Lucas, 2003) and faculty are more concerned about the performance of women and ethnic minority students in engineering programs (Colbeck, 2004). A comprehensive approach to diversity aimed at the institutionalization of new norms and values includes attention to all

areas of the university, including the staff functions which have largely been ignored up to this point. Ideally universities will engage in systemic diversity efforts. Morey (2000) notes that, "systemic change calls on current faculty members, students, and administrators to shift, assess their values, have an openness to new ideas, and act in different ways." (p. 27). When institutionalization occurs, faculty and staff understand that diversity and gender equity contribute to their university's success and that the values of the institution align with the values embodied in systemic diversity initiatives.

While a number of models and frameworks have been developed for understanding change related to diversity in higher education (e.g. Peterson et. al., 1977; Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005), that research has not examined how the process of institutionalization may vary across the campus. It is unclear from current literature whether faculty and staff understand their workplace and its values in similar ways. There is very little research on the staff experience in higher education and there is no research comparing faculty and staff perspectives. It is also unclear whether initiatives designed to increase diversity and improve the university climate for diversity are similarly effective for faculty and staff. Further, there is very little research focused on the department and its role in institutionalization although the academic department is identified as a key location for change in higher education. Finally, beyond organizational learning, there is little organizational theory that informs the study of diversity in higher education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the ways in which diversity and gender equity values and norms were institutionalized for faculty and staff in a university setting. This research developed models of the contributors to the institutionalization of diversity and gender equity values and norms for faculty and staff. Specifically, this research examined organizational-, departmental-, and individual-level factors to determine which had the greatest impact on institutionalization. This study used structural, institutional and feminist and multicultural organizational theories to develop the research model and to frame the results.

Contributions of the Study

This study made contributions to both theory and practice. The structural theory used in this research, Mintzberg's (1983) professional bureaucracy, described broad segments of the university organization, but did not include a specification of the department's role in the structure. Because this research included attention to both organizational and departmental factors, it adds to the model of universities as professional bureaucracies.

This study also made a theoretical contribution through its use of institutional theory as a framework for understanding the university setting. This study represented a new approach to understanding diversity in higher education by using that theory as an explanatory framework.

At a practical level, this research informs the ways universities design and implement diversity and gender equity initiatives. Understanding the organizational- and departmental-level contributors to institutionalization for faculty and staff may help universities more intentionally engage the entire university membership in diversity efforts.

Before turning to the specific research model developed for this project, the next chapter describes the literature and the theoretical context for this study. Literature from the 1970s and 1980s that developed change models related to diversity in higher education is reviewed, followed by a review of literature on diversity initiatives in higher education from the 1990s and 2000s, and a brief examination of the literature on faculty and staff climate in higher education. Each of these contributes factors to the research model developed for the current study. In addition, structural, institutional, and feminist and multicultural organizational theories are presented to build a theoretical framework for the model and generate research questions and hypotheses. In later chapters, the research model and methods used in this study are developed. The findings from this study are then reviewed and discussed with particular attention to the implications for practice and research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature examining diversity in universities from an organizational

perspective has evolved over the years since it emerged as topic in the late 1970s.

Studies in the 1970s and 1980s developed models of change for universities as they

began to accommodate more diverse students and employees as a result of

desegregation, the women's and civil rights movements, and government mandates

in the form of Affirmative Action and Title IX. These studies documented the

organizational-level factors that contributed to the successful accommodation of

new members (Peterson et. al., 1977; Hanna, 1988). Organizational-level literature

on diversity in higher education from the 1990s and 2000s was concerned with

transforming universities to create welcoming and supportive environments for

learning and working. This literature included frameworks describing campus

diversity climate for students (Hurtado, 1992; Hurtado & Dey, 1997) as well as

university-wide models of successful diversity initiatives (Musil et. al., 1999;

Bensimon, 2004; Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005). Another strand of

literature related to the current project examines the psychological climate on

campus for various groups including women and students and faculty of color.

While these areas of study contribute rich bodies of literature about diversity on

campus and the experiences of diverse faculty and students, there has been very

little attention paid to the non-instructional employees in the university who perform functions including student affairs, maintenance, and accounting. This omission is problematic given the current emphasis on transformation of the entire university (Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005; Smith et. al., 1997).

This literature review first examines the literature on staff in universities in the United States. It follows with literature on attempts to diversify the academy from the 1970s and 1980s, literature on diversity initiatives from the 1990s and 2000s, and literature on diversity climate, summarizing the major contributions of those literatures to an understanding of the ways in which universities can successfully institutionalize the values and norms associated with work and learning places that are supportive of all members. Following that, the literature review explores structural, institutional and feminist and multicultural organizational theory that provides a framework for understanding how such values and norms are institutionalized in higher education settings. Finally, this chapter presents a model emerging from those theoretical frameworks, which shapes the research.

<center>A Note on Institutionalization</center>

The use of the term institutionalization is common across the literature in higher education concerned with implementing enduring changes. Scholars are concerned with the institutionalization of diversity initiatives (Kezar, 2007, 2008; Hale, 2004), service learning (Bringle, 2000, Butin, 2006), on-line education (Cox, 2005), academic integrity (Gallant & Drinan, 2006), and a more inclusive

definition of scholarship (Braxton, 2002). Some of these scholars take a structural

approach to institutionalization, examining organizations for evidence of new

offices, budget lines, and policies when looking for indicators of institutionalization

(Hale, 2004; Hurtado, 1997; Bringle, 2000).

Others, however, use a definition reflecting normative or cultural-cognitive

institutionalization. Curry (1992) argues that structural definitions are not adequate

for organizations like universities asserting that "routinization works for

organizations concerned solely with production, but it is not descriptive enough to

draw a clear picture of what happens in service organizations like colleges and

universities" (p. 9). Covaleski and Dirsmith (1988) borrow from Meyer and

Rowan when they define institutionalization as "processes by which social

expectations of appropriate organizational forms and behavior come to take on

rule-like status in social thought and action" (p. 562). Braxton (2002) uses Clark's

(1992) definition of institutionalization, "the process whereby specific cultural

elements or objects are adopted by actors in a social system" (p. iii).

Still others include both structures and norms in their definitions. Hanson

(2001) adopts Scott's (1995) definition of institutions as made up of "congnitive,

normative, and regulative structures and activities that provide meaning and

stability to social behavior" (p. 646). Gallant and Drinan (2004) are not using

institutional theory specifically but they use a definition of institutionalization that

addresses three organizational levels, structures, procedures and symbols, and

suggest that a change or value must be embedded at all levels for it to be truly enduring.

For the current research project, the definition of institutionalization is taken from institutional theory and reflects "the processes by which social processes, obligations, or actualities come to take on a rule-like status in social thought and action" (Meyer & Rowan, 1977, p. 341). When practices and values are institutionalized they serve to control and constrain behavior as well as empower activities and actors (Scott, 2001). That is, the new values and norms become embedded in existing structures and become part of the standard operations of an organization.

<div align="center">Staff in Higher Education</div>

For the purposes of this project, staff are defined as employees in universities who are not faculty/instructional (i.e. do not teach primarily) and are not executive or administrative. Staff are the professional and non-professional employees who support the work of the university allowing faculty to engage in the primary activities of teaching and research. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), in 2003, there were 3,108,301 employees in institutions of higher education in the United States (Li, 2006). Of those, 36.3% were faculty, 5.8% were administrative or managerial employees, and 48% were staff members performing a wide array of differentiated support functions from maintenance to accounting to student services to librarianship.

The staff functions in the university are more gender and racially/ethnically segregated than the faculty or administrative functions. According to the NCES report, while women have increased as a percentage of the overall university labor force since 1993 (51.7% to 53.0%), that proportion varied according to occupation (Li, 2006). Women made up approximately half (50.6%) of the administrators, 39% of full-time faculty, and almost all (86.4%) of clerical staff in 2003. Men held 64% of full-time 12-month faculty appointments, 93% of skilled crafts jobs and 62.4% of the service or maintenance jobs. Women still do not earn as much as men do in similar positions. Women's pay for faculty in 2003 was 84% of their male counterparts. For staff, women earned between 82% and 90% of what men earned in comparable positions except for clerical positions where women made 98% of the salary of men in those positions.

The ethnic/racial distribution of staff among jobs is also uneven. White employees occupied 82% of administrative positions, 80% of full-time faculty positions, and 56% of the service/maintenance positions. Black employees were 5.2% of full-time faculty, 9.5% of other professional support staff such as student services and between 11% and 25% of the non-professional staff at universities. Hispanic employees were 3.1% of full-time faculty, 4.4% of other professional support staff and between 6.9% and 11.7% of non-professional employees in the university. The largest proportions of Black and Hispanic employees were found in the service and maintenance jobs. As a percent of White employee salaries, Black employee salaries ranged from 84% in maintenance to 91% in administration and

professional services. Hispanic employee salaries ranged from 92% in executive positions to 102% in clerical positions. (Li, 2006).

Staff make up half of the university work force, and occupy some of the most racially and gender segregated positions in the university (Li, 2006; Kulis, 1997; Rai & Critzer, 2000) while contributing in many ways that are important to the university and its mission of educating students. Simply having a diverse staff contributes to creating a more welcoming campus environment for underrepresented students (Hurtado, 1992; Smith & Schoenfeld, 2000; Fox, 2005). Beyond that, staff, particularly in student affairs, facilitate a student's transition to campus, connection to campus resources (Clegg, Bradley & Smith, 2006) and connections with faculty (Fowler & Simital, 2008). They also coordinate programs specifically designed to support underrepresented or marginalized students (Longerbeam et al., 2005; Fox, 2005).

Despite the evidence that staff are an important group to the functioning of the university, there is very little literature on the staff experience in higher education. Some of the articles that mention staff go on to focus primarily on the faculty experience. For example, Fox (2005) emphasizes the need for Native American faculty and staff and their importance to retention for Native American students, but then goes on to discuss research that features faculty, exclusively. Alvin and Chun (2007) also mention the importance of diversity for faculty and staff and then explain that their monograph will focus only on faculty.

The few studies on staff in universities reveal the non-uniformity of the research into the staff experience in higher education. They also illustrate that the staff experience and the faculty experience have not been considered together to create a complete picture of the university and its diversity efforts. Somers and colleagues (1998) raise the problem of leaving staff out of the picture when considering workplace climate. They describe the diversity of jobs, which range from professional to non-professional, and the variety of educational background of staff members at a university. Staff roles are much more varied than the role of faculty, but they are important "backstage employees." These authors emphasize the need to link the work of staff with the core mission of the institution. If the mission is going to include diversity, then attention needs to be paid to how staff understand the mission of diversity at their institutions.

The few examples of research focused on staff offer a glimpse of the staff experience in university settings, something of concern for this study. Volkwein and Zhou (2003) study administrative non-instructional university employees and the contributors to their job satisfaction. They find that job satisfaction for the administrators and managers who responded to their survey resulted from a "complex balance of many ingredients." (p. 166). State level contributors and individual level contributors had small but significant effects on satisfaction, but the variables with the largest effect were related to work environment such as the quality of relationships and level of conflict in the workplace.

Vander Putten, McLendon, and Peterson (1997) are concerned with whether there are differences between union and non-union employees in their perception of higher education work environment. In their study of non-instructional, non-managerial staff they find that gender, race, age, union status and work unit all contribute to a staff member's perception of their work environment.

Duggan (2008) examines non-instructional staff perception of college climate in a community college setting with a particular aim at understanding gender differences among staff. Duggan was not looking specifically at contributors to perception of climate, but found gender differences within work groups.

Mayhew, Grunwald & Dey (2006) conduct the first empirical study of staff perception of campus climate for diversity. They are interested in what factors will predict a staff person's perception that the campus has achieved a positive climate for diversity. They find that personal demographics, professional characteristics, departmental structural diversity, departmental commitment to diversity, institutional commitment to diversity and personal experience with diversity all contribute to a staff member's perception that a campus has achieved a positive climate for diversity.

While the literature on staff experience and in particular the staff experience related to diversity has been scarce, there is a great deal of literature related more generally to diversity in higher education. The literature on diversity in higher education helps to create a historical framework for the current study. It also

provides a picture of the research on faculty diversity which will also inform this study. An examination of the literature on diversity initiatives and diversity climate in higher education follows.

<center>Diversity in Higher Education</center>

<u>Early Change Models</u>

Following the women's and civil rights movements in the 1960s, the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr. in 1968, and the advent of Affirmative Action and Title IX in the early years of the 1970s, universities were under social and legal pressure to admit and employ a wider representation of the American public. The earliest efforts to understand university responses to these pressures came in the late 1970s and continued into the 1980s (Peterson et. al., 1978; Newcombe & Conrad, 1981; Hyer, 1985; Hanna, 1988). The approach was to compare successful universities with those that were not successful in order to identify components that differentiated the groups. The studies reviewed here represent examples of the kind of multi-institution case studies that were undertaken in the 1970s and 1980s. These studies focused on organizational-level factors that were associated with successful universities.

The models developed out of these early examinations and their emphasis on organizational-level factors inform this study. These studies described the activities successful universities employed to implement change and help identify key organizational-level variables for inclusion in the model used in this research.

The two strongest elements that emerged from these studies are the necessity of strong leadership and faculty involvement.

All four of the studies from the 1970s and 1980s that developed comprehensive organizational level models of change emphasized the importance of leadership (Peterson et. al., 1978; Hyer, 1985; Hanna, 1988; Newcombe & Conrad, 1981). Leaders in these cases had the responsibility to help interpret and communicate the need for change to the institution. Successful institutional change efforts were associated with a committed leader who engaged in consistent communication of the need for change (Newcombe & Conrad, 1981; Hanna, 1988; Hyer, 1985). Peterson et al. (1978) and Newcombe and Conrad found that when leaders did not exhibit a high level of commitment to the change, change efforts were much less successful.

University leaders also had other resources available to them to induce change. They appointed visible campus-wide committees or commissions to address issues of gender and racial equity (Newcombe & Conrad, 1981; Richardson & Skinner, 1990). They also used budgetary incentives to reward units and people who contributed to successful change efforts (Hanna, 1988; Hyer, 1985; Schmitz & Williams, 1983).

The need for faculty involvement in change efforts represented another consistent finding across these studies. Faculty engagement has taken many forms. In some cases, a small group of change agents in key positions across campus was identified as important (Hanna, 1985). In others, appointed liaisons were

instrumental in creating change (Newcombe & Conrad, 1981, Morey, 2000;

Woodard & Sims, 2000). Some faculty were recruited into their supportive

positions (Hanna, 1988; Newcombe & Conrad, 1981). Others inserted themselves

into the change process (Hyer, 1985; Aiken, Anderson, Dinnerstein, Lensink, and

MacCorquodale, 1987; Trent, Rios, Antell, Berube, Bidlostok, Cardona, Paradis,

and Rush, 2003). Regardless of the conditions under which it happened, faculty

support has been identified as instrumental to creating change in higher education.

This literature on change in the 1970s and 1980s largely ignored the staff

contribution or experience of change toward greater diversity. The literature

suggested that staff structures would be one of the first areas targeted for change if

the focus of change was student centered (Woodard & Sims, 2000; Peterson et.al.,

1978; Richardson & Skinner, 1990). In one of the only studies to address the

impact of staff in any way, Richardson and Skinner found that universities whose

changes were confined to student services areas were not as successful in

addressing student achievement as those that had engaged the faculty. Universities

could not expect staff alone to carry out these initiatives, faculty engagement was a

key to success.

These studies suggest that two important organizational-level contributors

to successful change efforts are leadership commitment and faculty involvement.

The literature on diversity initiatives from the 1990s and 2000s also indicates the

importance of leadership and faculty involvement. That literature also provides

additional organization-level elements for consideration.

Diversity Initiatives

In the 1990s many foundations supported university diversity initiatives and the literature that emerged from the evaluation of those initiatives is reviewed here. This literature has primarily been developed for practitioners and is produced in the form of handbooks, tool kits, and other user-friendly formats. Models of successful diversity initiatives were developed from multi-institutional case studies examining successful institutions. These models add other organizational-level factors to leadership and faculty involvement that were discussed above.

This work is relevant to the current study because while its primary emphasis is campus climate and success for students, it represents the most recent attempts to develop an organizational-level approach to change related to diversity in higher education. Also, work by Smith (2004) and Musil and colleagues (1999) and to some extent Williams, Berger and McClendon (2005) included attention to faculty as an element of the institutional change process.

This work examining organizational-level contributors to improved diversity and equity continued to emphasize the importance of a committed leader in the communication and resource allocating roles discussed above (Bensimon et al., 2004; Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005, Smith & Wolf-Wendel, 2005; Green, 2004) and involvement of faculty (Smith & Wolf-Wendel, 2005). In addition, these models identified other organizational-level factors that were important to consider when planning for change in higher education including broader more comprehensive goals for change, assessment or monitoring of

progress, and a framework for understanding the dimensions of diversity efforts on campus.

A new addition to models of change was the emphasis on a goal of comprehensive change. Whereas the goals expressed in efforts from the 1970s and 1980s were to increase the numbers of underrepresented groups on campus, models from the 1990s and 2000s were much broader in their articulation of the type of change that was needed. They identified the goal as institutional change that affects the core functions of the university. Williams, Berger and McClendon (2005) argued that "diversity is a key component of a comprehensive strategy for achieving educational excellence – which includes but is not limited to, the academic excellence of all students in attendance and concerted efforts to educate all students to succeed in a diverse society and equip them with sophisticated intercultural skills." (p. 3).

Accompanying this shift in goals was increased attention to the role of measurement in the change process. The literature was very clear that assessment is a key component of the change process (Smith et. al., 1997; Musil et. al., 1999; Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005; Bensimon, 2004). Bensimon identified assessment as *the* key component, the mechanism through which change will take place.

These models supported the importance of including leadership commitment and faculty involvement as components of the current research project. They also suggested components that needed to be added such as a broad

articulation of the goals of the diversity initiative and mechanisms for assessment and monitoring progress.

Beyond the articulation of additional organizational-level factors to be included in a model of institutionalization, another contribution of this literature on diversity initiatives is a framework for understanding the varied work involved in diversity initiatives. Smith and colleagues' (1997) framework will be reviewed here. Whereas Bensimon (2004) was specifically attending to student climate and success, Smith and colleagues focused on broad institutional change, one aspect of which is student climate and success. Smith et. al. suggested that there were four dimensions of diversity that universities must attend to and that the four should not be isolated. They suggested that an approach that understands that the areas reinforce and support each other was more productive. While individual institutions may have different emphases among the dimensions and may engage in different activities, it was important that all of the areas be represented as part of the diversity initiative. The four dimensions of this model are now elaborated below.

Access and success is the first dimension. These represent efforts to recruit and retain underrepresented students, as well as to monitor progress to determine whether achievement gaps exist. Williams, Berger and McClendon (2005) expand this area to include faculty and staff recruitment, retention and success.

Education and scholarship addresses the teaching and research functions of the university. Institutions can support education and scholarship through

curriculum transformation initiatives, grants to faculty who study topics related to diversity, and professional development to encourage faculty to address diversity in the classroom. Williams, Berger and McClendon (2005) expand this to include educational activities such as lectures, dialogues and other efforts related to the "informal curriculum."

Climate and inter-group relations is a third dimension of diversity discussed by Smith et. al. (1997). This refers to the psychological climate on campus for students, faculty and staff. Institutions can engage in campus climate surveys and other efforts to determine what the climate is like on their campus for different groups.

The fourth dimension is something Smith and colleagues (1997) call institutional viability and vitality. This dimension raises the issue of how central diversity initiatives are to the work of the institution and whether diversity is prominent in planning processes, documents and mission statements. It also includes attention to the resources dedicated to diversity.

Smith et. al.'s (1997) framework is helpful because it provides a way of thinking about how universities can comprehensively engage in diversity work. When this framework is added to leadership, faculty engagement, broad goals, and monitoring, a more complete view of ways in which universities can attempt to institutionalize the values associated with their diversity initiatives emerges.

These two strands of literature on diversity initiatives in higher education provide a framework for understanding organizational-level contributors to the

institutionalization of diversity and gender equity norms and values. However,

there are still areas in need of development to improve the understanding of

diversity initiatives. None of these studies gives specific attention to the staff role

in institutional diversity efforts and there is little attention to departmental-level

distinctions and relationship to institutionalization, so we are still left with a

somewhat incomplete model. The literature on campus climate provides some

information about the ways staff member experience the institution. It also

provides information about the impact of departmental factors on campus climate.

<u>Campus Climate</u>

One way to examine the impact of diversity initiatives in a university is to

examine the climate for faculty and staff. Researchers that study the campus

climate for university employees have primarily focused on faculty. There are very

few studies that examine climate for staff. The studies reviewed here are primarily

based on survey research and quantitative data analysis. Research on climate

provides examples of approaches to studying individual-level understanding of the

organization. Institutionalized values are influenced by organizational-level efforts,

but they are understood by individuals within organizations. The literature on

campus climate, then, provides examples of ways to study the impact of

organizational-level factors on the experience of individual within organizations.

Campus climate has been conceptualized in a number of ways. Researchers

have studied faculty morale and intent to leave (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Rosser,

2004), job satisfaction (Olsen, Maple & Stage, 1995; Laden & Hagedorn, 2000;

August & Waltman, 2004), and general perception of the work environment (Bronstein and Farnsworth, 1998; Riger, Stokes, Raja & Sullivan, 1997). Women and minority faculty have been studied in comparison to White male faculty (Bronstein & Farnsworth, 1998; Rosser, 2004) and have been studied on their own (August & Waltman, 2004; Laden & Hagedorn, 2000). Staff climate has been examined by Vander Putten, McLendon and Peterson (1997) as well as Mayhew, Grunwald and Dey (2006), but has not been studied as extensively as faculty climate.

Out of this research some general findings emerge regarding the different experiences of men and women and ethnic minorities and white employees. There is general support for the idea that men and women experience workplace climate differently, with women generally perceiving the workplace as less supportive (Bronstein & Farnsworth, 1998; Rosser, 2004). The evidence on minority faculty is more mixed. Olsen, Maple and Stage (1995) find that minority faculty do not experience less "organizational fit" than white faculty do. But others (Aguirre, 2000; Astin, Antonio, Cress & Astin, 1997) find that minority faculty report experiencing more discrimination and less satisfaction than white faculty. These findings indicate that women and men and minorities and white faculty experience the academic workplace differently.

While the identification of different work experiences is interesting and indicates the need to continue to monitor climate for different groups, the more relevant part of this literature to this study is how these researchers have

approached understanding the contributors to faculty and staff climate. Almost all include individual-level variables as indicators, while only some include departmental- or organizational level indicators.

Individual-level factors that help predict climate are role identification, attitude toward teaching and research, satisfaction with one's academic department and perceived control over one's career (Olsen, Maple, & Stage, 1995), union status, age, gender, race (Vander Putten, McLendon & Peterson, 1997) education level, administrative rank, length of employment, and family stress (Volkwein & Zhou, 2003).

Organizational-level variables examined in climate studies have included size, age, quality, wealth, autonomy, control, diversity/complexity, unionization, and campus location (Volkwein and Zhou, 2003). Organizational level predictors of climate had mixed results. Volkwein and Zhou find that they don't have much direct impact on employee satisfaction, but rather have an impact on work climate which in turn influences satisfaction. While not directly interested in climate issues, Kulis, Chong & Shaw (1999) found that black faculty are more likely to be employed in public institutions and in institutions with more black students and administrators.

The contribution of the department to faculty and staff climate is fairly clear. Vander Putten, McLendon and Peterson (1997) find that perception of climate varied across work units in the university they studied. This is something that Mayhew, Grunwald and Dey (2006) find as well. Volkwein and Zhou (2003)

find that administrators who perceive their immediate work environment as supportive of teamwork and who had positive interpersonal relationships in their workplace were more satisfied. In their review of factors affecting satisfaction for women faculty, August and Waltman (2004) note a number of departmental variables that have an influence on satisfaction. These include relationships with colleagues, support of department chair and equity and transparency in the tenure process.

Overall, organizational-level variables were less predictive of faculty or staff climate than were departmental and individual level variables. Departmental climate, the perception of supportive relationships, and collegiality in the department were predictive of perception of climate. Also, for non-instructional staff and faculty, differences in climate were found across various work units. Individual-level variables were also predictive of perception of climate. Gender and race were fairly consistently predictive of perception of climate, although Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) found that neither was predictive of morale in their model. Union affiliation was a predictor in one model and various measures of individual-level perception were also predictive of climate.

It is important to note that very few of the studies examined here actually address diversity climate so while they suggest variables for inclusion in the model for this research, the relevance of those variables to diversity must be tested. Further, none of the studies examined the types of organizational-level variables discussed in the sections on diversity initiatives, such as leadership or faculty

involvement. However, this research adds layers to the organizational-level model

developed above. When considering how the values associated with diversity

initiatives are institutionalized and understood by individual faculty and staff, it is

important to add departmental- and individual-level predictors to the

organizational-level factors of leadership, faculty engagement, broad goals, and

monitoring.

These three bodies of literature, studies of diversity in higher education in

the 1970s and 1980s, literature on diversity initiatives from the 1990s and 2000s

and the literature on staff and faculty climate, suggest the need to develop a model

of the university workplace that focuses on diversity, understands the implications

for the individual and at the same time keeps the entire organization in perspective.

While the literature on diversity in higher education is helpful for developing an

overall model of the institutionalization process including key predictors at the

organizational-, departmental-, and individual-levels, it does not explain how

institutionalization might be different for faculty and staff and it does not connect

specific components of diversity initiatives with activity in the larger higher

education arena. Organizational theory can fill that gap and that is where this

literature review now turns.

<div align="center">Organizational Theory</div>

The Professional Bureaucracy

When studying institutionalization in higher education, it is appropriate to

begin by examining the structure of universities with the intention of understanding

how that structure contributes to or stands in the way of institutionalization. In this effort, Henry Mintzberg's (1983) model of professional bureaucracies illustrates the importance of the faculty, the relationship between faculty and administrators, and potential structural mechanisms for change.

Henry Mintzberg describes five key elements of an organization: the strategic apex; the middle line; the operating core; the technical structure; and the support structure. He observes that organizations tend to take one of five dominant structures, the simple structure, the machine bureaucracy, the professional bureaucracy, the divisional form, and the adhocracy, each emphasizing a different key element. Mintzberg characterizes universities as professional bureaucracies. In professional bureaucracies, the operating core, or the group who is responsible for the production of outputs, in this case the faculty, dominates. Professional bureaucracies tend to be decentralized and democratic with power resting in the hands of the operating core. The operating core, or faculty, tend to seek control of decisions that will have an impact on them. The power of the faculty is seen in examples such as the formation of faculty senates, the requisite approval of faculty in the hiring of administrators, and the control of faculty over the curriculum. Testing this theory, Copur (1990) finds that faculty do have specific expectations about decision making. They expect to have control of decisions related to curriculum and research and expect that administrators will make decisions in boundary-spanning arenas, such as external political arenas.

Where power in the academic realm of the university rests with the operating core and is decentralized and democratic, the administrative functions of the university are carried out by a parallel structure characterized by a more hierarchical organization. Functions such as registration, financial management, and facilities maintenance are all performed through an administrative structure somewhat unrelated to the faculty structure.

Mintzberg's (1983) work helps explain the role of leaders as well as the importance of faculty involvement that are emphasized in the change models discussed above. Leaders in a professional bureaucracy have limited influence over the professionals in the bureaucracy. Administrators must often negotiate with faculty to determine the nature of the work administrators require. This means that administrators and leaders are unable to single-handedly set a vision for a university. Rather they must rely on persuasion and consensus building skills to engage the faculty (Kezar, 2007; Walvoord et. al., 2000; Cohen & March, 1986). Faculty socialization, promotion, and reward all happen primarily at the departmental or disciplinary level where the administration has little control. In fact, a university's leadership is only one of several potential competitors for a professional's attention (Leitko & Szczerbacki, 1987). In contrast, leaders can engage in a more hierarchical management approach with members of the support structure. They can set policy and reasonably expect compliance from staff (Mintzberg, 1983).

Mintzberg's model adds important layers to the factors enumerated above. It helps predict that administrative interaction with faculty will be different than administrative interaction with staff and that similar efforts by administrators may not be met with identical results. It also helps explain the importance of faculty to change efforts and the kind of leadership that is necessary to support those efforts.

While the role of the professional in the professional bureaucracy is clearly central, Mintzberg does not articulate the role of departments in the professional bureaucracy. A departmental structure is implied by the 'bureaucracy' label, but that structure and its impact are not well articulated. In institutions of higher education, the professionals, faculty, are associated with academic departments and disciplines and it is a problematic oversight to leave that part of the structure out of the picture when considering change initiatives in higher education (Walvoord et. al., 2000; Edwards, 1999). Once again, while there is a great deal of focus on academic departments in the literature on higher education, there is little attention to departments outside of academic affairs.

Mintzberg does emphasize that professionals in professional bureaucracies are often socialized and trained, not by the organizations that employ them, but by previous organizations. In the case of higher education, the training arenas are specific academic disciplines in other universities where faculty earned their credentials or began their careers. Leitko and Szczerbacki (1987) suggest that the integration of professionals into the organization is problematic because they identify more with their occupations, or in this case academic disciplines. The

discipline is the primary attachment for faculty (Zell, 2003; Silver, 2003; Biglan, 1973a, 1973b). Silver (2003) examines the role of the discipline and academic department when he questions whether a university can have a single culture. He cites the professional's attachment to the discipline and its values as problematic for institutions seeking to create larger communities of belonging. He emphasizes that there is "the constant likelihood of rival or conflicting values and allegiances." (p. 158). In his study, academics did not express "any sense that the university as an organization possessed a culture that rested on a community of interest, shared norms, assumptions and even values that were clearly associated with the institution itself." (p. 162). Beyond consideration of the creation of a single organizational culture that is supportive of diversity, disciplinary differences also play out in curriculum and pedagogical transformation projects (Latucca & Stark, 1994; Damrosch, 1995, Neilsen & Abromeit, 1993).

The discipline is manifested in the university organizational structure through the academic department, which serves multiple roles on campus (Edwards, 1999). The departments represent a discipline's formal representation on a campus. But they are also first-line administrative units of complex organizations. Eckel (1998) calls the academic department the "most fundamental delivery unit of the institution...a central link between the university and the disciplines, and the cornerstone for teaching and research; they hold primary responsibility for graduate education and for the recruitment and promotion of academic staff" (p. 27). Because they represent the disciplines on campus and

because the department is the location for faculty, the academic department must be a key element of any change effort in a university setting.

Lee, Hyman and Luginbuhl (2007) are specifically interested in the academic department and its role in general education reform. They argue that regardless of resistance, academic departments cannot be ignored as a key location for change. Edwards (1999) is concerned that undergraduate education reform initiatives have largely lacked a plan for transforming academic departments. He asks whether is is "possible for reform to be successful if it operates at the institutional and individual levels but leaves the intervening levels unchanged?" (p. 18). He observes that change efforts and literature have focused on the individual and the institution and have largely ignored the need to change the academic department.

Departments in a professional bureaucracy pose unique challenges when considering change. Leitko and Szczerbacki (1987) point out that when professionals are promoted into administrative positions they may lack management training. Currie and Proctor (2005) specifically study middle managers and their role in influencing and implementing strategy in professional bureaucracies and find that a middle manager must serve as a "'diplomat' and only maintains power as long as the professional operating core perceives him or her to be serving their interests effectively." (p. 1330). The middle managers operated under competing goals, the professionals' expectations versus the new directives from the organization and government. Currie and Proctor suggest a key question

for professional bureaucracies is how those organizations can re-socialize middle managers after they have experienced such powerful prior socialization through their professional training. They observe that organizations that build on previous professional roles and values and expand those roles are more successful in this re-socialization process. Similarly, Walvoord and her colleagues (2000) suggest that administrators can build on a department's autonomy by supporting existing initiatives and setting clear mission and goals that are able to be differentiated among departments.

Another difficulty related to the strength of prior socialization is that the academic arena of the university may hold different values and speak a different language than the rest of the university. Kezar (2006) articulates that barriers to collaboration within institutions of higher education include "fragmentation and division of labor; specialization among faculty; lack of common purpose or language between faculty and staff or administration or between areas of administration and faculty; history of separation of units; different priorities and expectations among various employee groups; cultural differences between academic and student affairs…and competing assumptions about what constitutes effective learning." (p. 808). This description illustrates the different areas in which faculty and staff operate and the distance between them in terms of their language and understanding of the organization. It also points out the importance of understanding them as distinct arenas when considering the ways in which values become embedded in the university.

While Kezar begins to hint at the complexity of a large professional bureaucracy that includes both faculty and staff, there is very little actual research about staff departments. In one of the only studies of staff managers, Haga, Graen and Dansereau (1974) examine the role of managers on the staff side of the bureaucracy. They interview mangers in the campus housing and food service functions of a university. They expected that because the support side of a professional bureaucracy is more hierarchical and bureaucratic than the academic side that there would be structured and uniform expectations and performance of the managers. They found that the managers exhibited differing levels of professional orientation and that the level of professional orientation had an impact on the way the manager performed their job and, in turn, the expectations of their supervisors for their job performance. There was not a uniform expectation for performance and there was not uniform performance among the managers studied. This finding, taken with the findings about the influence of the department on staff climate indicate that there may be less uniformity on the staff side than would be suggested by a strictly hierarchical organizational structure. This study also points out the need to account for the idea that there are professionals among staff as well as in academic units.

When considering the institutionalization of values and norms in higher education settings, Mintzberg's (1983) model of professional bureaucracy is a good starting point as it frames the structure of the organization, illuminates the role of the professional within the organization, and helps explain the interaction of

administrators and professionals. Mintzberg's model does not account for the influence of the department for the professional. Academic disciplines, manifested through academic departments have a great deal of influence over all aspects of faculty work. There is almost no research on staff departments in university settings, so it not as easy to draw any conclusions about their influence. While Mintzberg's work and the literature on academic departments helps frame an understanding of university structures that pose challenges for the institutionalization of diversity and gender equity values and norms, structural approaches pay less attention to the values that are already embedded across universities that also pose challenges to the institutionalization of diversity and gender equity. Institutional theory considers organizations along with the values and norms they embody and helps connect universities with their larger normative environments, an important consideration when trying to understand how diversity values come to be embedded in a university setting.

<u>Institutional Theory</u>

An institutional approach to organizations focuses on the ways shared values and meanings become embedded in organizational structures and the ways in which individuals enact and interact with those structures and meanings. As Scott (2001) describes institutions, they are "multifaceted and durable social structures, made up of symbolic elements, social activities and material resources." (p. 49). He suggests that not all organizations are institutions. Institutionalized organizations reflect the deeply embedded values and norms of their fields.

Institutional pressures on universities, pressures to conform to the dominant norms

and values of the field, include academic disciplinary perspectives, national-level

initiatives, and the prescriptive understanding of the role of professor. These norms

are all shaped by local university or college contexts, but exist in the larger US

higher education arena. Meyer and Rowan (1977) suggest that organizations are

more subject to institutional pressure when they have weak technology, such as

teaching and research, and when they are subject to multiple competing goals

which is the case in most public universities (Duryea, 1991; Leitko & Szczerbacki,

1987). Universities are arguably some of the most institutionalized organizations

in existence (Scott, 2001; Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Meyer & Scott, 1983).

Persisting for hundreds of years, they have proven to be extremely durable social

structures, reflecting long-held values about the creation and dissemination of

knowledge.

Using institutional theory as a framework for this research is useful for a

number of reasons. First, it helps understand the kind of change being sought

through current diversity initiatives. Second, its application at the level of

organizational field reveals the ways values and norms are established and enforced

beyond individual universities. Finally, it emphasizes the historical evolution of

values, norms and symbols that help prescribe faculty behavior, identifying

diversity activities that engage faculty's institutionalized roles.

Scott (2001) describes three fundamental pillars, or types of

institutionalization. Those pillars are regulative systems, normative systems, and

cultural-cognitive systems. The emphases in this research project will be normative and cultural-cognitive institutionalization. While regulative systems such as Affirmative Action requirements and local university policies are important mechanisms for change related to diversity, they are not the focus of this examination. This research is concerned with how such policies and other university activities are translated into organizational values and norms.

The most recent literature on transformation in higher education suggests that normative and cultural cognitive institutionalization are necessary in order to achieve dramatic and lasting change. Kezar and Eckel (2002) emphasize the importance of sense-making activities to the transformed institutions they studied. University members needed to be given the opportunity to create new ways of thinking about the issue of concern. Scott (2001) would categorize this as cultural-cognitive institutionalization, which stresses the centrality of shared conceptions that constitute the nature of social reality and the frames through which meaning is made. Compliance occurs because other types of behavior are inconceivable. Institutionalization occurs as people take for granted as fundamental aspects of social life (Colbeck, 2002). In this case, institutionalization occurs when individuals believe that diversity concerns are central to their work and that diversity enhances the work of the institution.

Normative institutionalization will also be considered here. The normative pillar emphasizes the prescriptive, evaluative, and obligatory dimensions of social life (Scott, 2001). "Normative systems consist of both values and norms. Values

are conceptions of the preferred or the desirable, together with the construction of standards to which existing structures or behavior can be compared and assessed." (Scott, 2001, p. 55). Norms specify how things should be done; they define legitimate means to pursue valued ends. Normative systems define goals or objectives but also designate appropriate ways to pursue them. Institutionalization occurs as individuals deem it socially responsible to honor informal obligations (Colbeck, 2002). For the purposes of this study, normative institutionalization occurs when individuals understand that the norms in the workplace support diverse individuals and prohibit discriminatory behavior.

The literature in education related to institutionalization is mixed. The term institutionalization appears frequently in the literature on higher education and is related to structural changes (Hale, 2004; Bringle, 2000; Butin, 2006) as well as normative or cultural changes in the educational organization (Kezar, 2007; 2008), but most of that literature is not grounded in institutional theory. The next section reviews literature representing the varying approaches to studying institutionalization in universities and reviews the way institutionalized faculty roles have been used as mechanisms for change

While the definitions of institutionalization used in the higher education literature primarily refer to the organization and the ways in which values and norms become embedded therein, when institutional *theory* has been tested in educational settings, the focus has primarily been on the organizational environment and its impact on the organization. For example, Hanson (2001) uses

institutional theory in conjunction with organizational learning theory to examine

the change process in educational organizations. He is primarily concerned with

the ways in which organizations maintain legitimacy when responding to external

pressures, not how changes are institutionalized within an organization. Covaleski

and Dirsmith (1988) and Gates (1997) provide similar examples of looking at

external pressures on an organization, using institutional theory to frame an

examination of budget talks and university restructuring, respectively. They use

institutional theory as an explanatory framework and find that when the university

tries to stray too far from accepted budget procedures that coercive pressures are

used to get the university to conform to accepted practices. Morphew and Huisman

(2002) use institutional theory to predict the duplication of programs within

university systems and find that non-flagship schools follow flagship schools.

Morphew and Huisman (2002) stress the importance of broad norms for

universities, arguing that the acquisition of normatively defined programs and

structures of the organizational field is more important for the survival of

institutionalized organizations than practices that enhance efficiency. These studies

indicate the power of institutionalizing forces external to a university including

government, other universities, accreditors, and national disciplinary organizations.

Institutional theory helps understand why it is important for organizations to appear

to have adopted normatively appropriate structures and initiatives, including

diversity initiatives, even if they are not translated for the local context (Meyer et.

al., 2007).

The translation of external institutional forces into organizational values has received little attention in the literature on institutional theory, something that concerns some scholars (Greenwood and Hinings, 1996; Peterson, 2007). Related to institutionalization in higher education, however, there are at least two examples of research that makes such an attempt. Cox (2005) uses institutional theory to examine the "myth" of on-line education and the reality of on-line educational practice at 15 community colleges and generally find gaps between the rhetoric and structure and between administrators and faculty. Colbeck (2005) operationalizes the three pillars from Scott's (1995) theory and finds that normative institutionalization predicts faculty support for diverse students in an engineering program. These two articles offer examples approaches to studying institutionalization within organizations and capturing institutionalization through surveys and interviews.

Beyond the literature focused specifically on institutional theory, literature on faculty engagement in change efforts provides insight into ways to harness the roles traditionally associated with faculty to support the institutionalization of new norms and values. Faculty occupy highly institutionalized roles, representing deeply embedded values related to scholarship and teaching. At the level of the individual, the Ph.D., the hiring process, and the tenure and promotion process all serve as institutional forces for socializing new professionals as well as symbols of achievement and legitimacy. Disciplines as discussed above are powerful arenas for socialization, transmitting values related to knowledge, pedagogy, and research.

Faculty roles related to teaching and research are also institutionalized across the academy. These roles have been the target of diversity and gender equity initiatives. Morey (1997), Aiken et. al. (1987) and Scmitz and Williams (1983) include curriculum revision as an integral strategy for institutional transformation. Curriculum revision involves faculty in discussions about the core approaches in their disciplines, their teaching styles, and the content of their courses. Green (2004) provides an example of the ways in which faculty have been engaged in change efforts through their institutionalized roles as researchers. As the University of Michigan was preparing to defend itself against the lawsuits challenging its affirmative action admission policy, it engaged faculty in research that helped provide "empirical proof" to support Michigan's argument about the contribution of diversity to educational outcomes. Faculty were being asked to use their expertise and, in turn, the evidence gathered served to further engage faculty in discussions of the merits of diversity.

While there is little methodological uniformity in the research addressing institutionalization, there is agreement that deep, lasting change in higher education is characterized by the adoption of new norms and values, something Scott (2001) calls normative or cultural-cognitive institutionalization. That type of institutionalization is the focus of this study. Adding the lens of institutional theory to Mintzberg's structural approach expands the view of the organization to include normative forces beyond the university that it must respond to, including calls for increased attention to diversity. Institutional theory is also helpful in understanding

change in a university setting because it highlights some of the enduring features of institutions of higher education, such as faculty roles and disciplines, and the ways in which those features function to control the academy. More specifically for this project, activities that engage faculty in ways that emphasize their institutional roles as teachers and researchers are expected to be related to the institutionalization of diversity and equity values and norms. While there is little research on the internal mechanisms for translating external institutional norms into organizational values, some scholars are beginning to operationalize normative institutionalization within the organization. This research builds on that foundation and takes up the question of how norms and values become embedded across universities.

Because this research is concerned with norms related to gender equality and the promotion of diversity, it is important to consider whether the dominant values across the academy privilege particular groups. Covaleski and Dirsmith (1988) are concerned that institutional theory gives little attention to power dynamics within organizations. This gap can be filled by feminist and multicultural theory. Feminist and multicultural approaches put bodies in the structures suggested by Mintzberg and call for attention to the power dynamics neglected by institutional theory.

Feminist and Multicultural Approaches to Organizations

Where structural and institutional theories help illuminate the organizational context for the current research, feminist and multicultural organizational theory

offer a critique of those approaches and highlight the transformation being sought.

A number of scholars have articulated feminist and multicultural approaches to

organizational theory (Acker, 1990; Calas and Smircich, 1992; Nkomo & Cox,

1996; Proudfoot & Nkomo, 2006). A feminist approach is characterized by the

central position of women in its research. A multicultural perspective primarily

focuses on race although multiculturalism and diversity are often broadly defined to

include race, gender, sexuality, religion, language and other categories of

difference. Both approaches emphasize the need to transform traditional structures

and norms that have excluded women and ethnic/racial minorities. Speaking

specifically about the academy, Hill (1990) asserts that we "need to reconceive and

restructure the curriculum so that inquiry cannot fairly be conducted without the

contributions or even the presence of the currently marginalized." (p. 472). He is

concerned that "marginalization will be perpetuated if new voices and perspectives

are added while the priorities and the core of the organization remain unchanged."

(p. 472). Acker (1990) argues that transforming a gendered organization will

require a completely new form with new understandings of jobs and work.

Calas and Smircich (1996) point out that "'feminist' theories are *not* only

about 'women's' issues. By using feminist theories as a conceptual lens, we

believe a more inclusive organizational studies can be created, one that brings in

concerns of others, not just women who are directly affected by organizational

pressures and discourses." (p. 218). They point out that while there are many

different schools of feminist thought that influence organizational theory and

analysis, all of those approaches "recognize male dominance in social arrangements and a desire to change that." (p. 219). Women of color have criticized "mainstream feminism" because it has primarily considered white women's experiences leading to the neglect of women of color and their experiences. They argue that in order to fully understand a woman's experience, researchers must account for her multiple identities associated with gender, race, along with the oppression that may result from those identifications (Collins, 1990; Glenn, 2002; Fenstermaker & West, 1999).

While there are numerous approaches to studying gender and race in organizations, this research will focus on approaches that examine structural diversity and the ways values associated with gender and race are embedded in universities. Structural diversity locates people within organizations and documents the gender and racial distribution of employees among occupations. For example, Hurtado (1997) uses a framework she adapts from Stewart (1991, cited in Hurtado, 1997) to assess the degree to which an institution has committed itself to multiculturalism. In a multicultural organization, participants have reached consensus about the need to include previously excluded groups and they see this as a goal throughout the institution rather than something imposed by leaders. This goal of increasing numbers of previously marginalized groups within organizations is a goal of structural diversity.

A focus on structural diversity surfaces the occupational segregation across disciplines and across occupations in the university. Rather than ignoring the staff,

this approach problematizes the phenomena women being concentrated in lower paying clerical positions while men dominate the higher paying trade positions (Rai & Critzer, 2000; Li, 2006). It is also problematic that women and some ethnic and racial minority groups are concentrated in the area of the institution that is most hierarchical in control where as White men dominate the collegial and democratic side of the organization. When faculty of color are present, they tend to be concentrated at ethnic serving institutions and in ethnic studies departments (Harvey, 2002; Astin, Antonio, Cress & Astin, 1997).

The goal of increasing representation across campus is related to the overall goal of transformation. Kanter (1977) suggests that when work units are dominated by one group the members of the non-dominant group can be treated as tokens and subject to stereotypes and discrimination affecting their mobility within the organization as well as the overall climate of the workgroup. "When people of different identity groups disproportionately occupy various classes of jobs, inclusiveness is hard to achieve." (Stockdale & Cao, 2005, p. 308).

As Kanter (1977) suggests, scholars studying higher education have found that departments are more welcoming to women as the number of women in them increase. Collins (1998) describes two stages. Competition occurs when the numbers of minority or women are growing and the minority group is seen as a threat. As the number of women exceeds 40% turnover decreases. Contact describes a situation where social prejudice decreases as cross-group interactions increase. This is closely related to Packer's (1998) stages for academic

departments. She describes a closed door where there aren't any women in a department. A revolving door exists when women's situation is unstable and they are unable to get tenure and experience an uncomfortable environment. The door is ajar when some women are able to make it and receive tenure in a department. An open door represents equitable treatment of men and women in the department. An increase in the number of women and ethnic and racial minority faculty and staff on campus is also related to creating a welcoming climate for students as well as faculty and staff (Hurtado, 1992; Smith, 2002; Fox, 2005).

A second feminist or multicultural approach treats race and gender as socially constructed and as primary methods of signifying power in social relationships (Calas & Smircich, 1996; Nkomo & Cox, 1996). Nkomo and Cox (1996) explore the ways in which diverse identities are enacted in organizations. They suggest that "research emphasis should be placed on how organizations produce and reproduce differences between social groups...attention must be paid to what maintains and sustains patterns of power relationships in organizations." (p. 349).

A rich area of organizational research coming out of this framework has been the examination of organizations as gendered or raced. Acker (1990, 1992) began this discussion when she proposed that "gender is present in the processes, practices, images and ideologies and distribution of power" (1992, p. 567) in organizations. She examines the social systems in which organizations are created and the ways in which gender is conceptualized and reproduced within

organizations, usually valuing masculine traits and devaluing feminine. Proudfoot and Nkomo (2006) are concerned that we acknowledge that culture and power intertwine in ways that breed and sustain inequality. This perspective provides greater insight into the ways gender and race are embedded in organizations and supports adding them to the list of institutional pressures to which a university must respond.

Using this framework it is possible to consider gender and race as part of the institutional context that universities occupy. Social expectations of gender and race may conflict with the values related to the roles of faculty and the larger structure of the academy. Feminist and multicultural scholars have found that the institutionalized social context can create barriers for women and minority faculty. Aguirre (2000) argues that affirmative action programs have not helped change institutional culture and documents that organizational 'fit' for women and minorities is weaker than for white men. He finds that their perceptions of participation in institutional activities, goal alignment, and rewards and opportunities all indicate difficulties fitting in with the academy. Women's traditional role as caregiver can cause conflict with the traditional role of academic (Wolf-Wendel, 2003; Quina, Cotter & Romanesko, 1998). Challenging the institutionalized values of the disciplines, Chessler, Lewis and Proudfoot (2005) argue that "disciplinary commitments to traditional academic content and processes, and efforts to justify them as markers of quality and excellence, help maintain life as it is in these organizations." (p. 289). Feminist and minority

scholarship is often devalued, not recognized and not rewarded (Ropers-Huilman &

Shackelford, 2003; Aguirre, 2000). There are a number of other areas that have

been identified as problematic for faculty of color and women. Women and faculty

of color experience isolation and lack of mentoring (Turner & Meyers, 2000;

Blackwell, 1996), higher stress (Turner & Meyers, 2000; Aguirre, 2000),

institutional racism (Turner & Meyers, 2000; Menges & Exum, 1983), and bias in

the hiring and promotion process (Turner & Meyers, 2000; Blackwell, 1996).

Branch (2001) is concerned that the limited number of African American faculty

members means that they are placed in a position of being expected to teach,

mentor, and serve as the diversity representative on campus committees at a higher

rate than white faculty. Aguirre (2000) finds that women have heavier teaching and

advising loads and are asked to perform more service to the university.

Given these perspectives on organizations that prioritize gender and race

and question existing structures and norms, the goal that emerges from feminist and

multicultural lenses is transformational change (Morey, 1997; Safarik, 2002;

Acker, 1992). Preparing to leverage diversity requires "fundamental change in the

ways of thinking and acting that define the organization's culture." (Cox, 2001, p.

23).

Considering feminist and multicultural organizational theory approaches in

conjunction with the structural and institutional theories discussed brings attention

to the structural diversity of the university as well as the ways in which gender and

race are embedded and enacted through the social fabric of the university. The

importance of structural diversity on campus is emphasized not only for social

justice reasons, but also because increasing the number of women and people of

color across the university contributes to a more welcoming climate for all faculty,

staff and students. Feminist and multicultural perspectives also identify historical

values and structures of the academy that have not supported all groups. Values

and expectations associated with gender and race are surfaced and examined in

light of the existing institutional pressures of disciplines and faculty roles. For this

research, a particular goal is to capture the distance universities have traveled

toward transformation as represented by staff and faculty members' understanding

of organizational commitment to diversity. This research also looks for connections

between that understanding and the achievement of structural diversity across

different parts of the organization.

Summary

As U.S. universities experience pressure to address the increasing diversity

of their student bodies, faculty and staff in ways that are inclusive and supportive,

they recognize the need to engage in initiatives that will institutionalize diversity

and gender equity norms and values. Following the Civil Rights and Women's

movements, the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr., and the advent of

Affirmative Action and Title IX in the late 1960's and early 1970's, universities

opened their doors to a wider array of students and employees than they ever had in

the past. In the late 1970's and into the 1980's, examinations of university

responses to Affirmative Action and Title IX produced models of change that

emphasized the importance of strong leadership and faculty engagement. As open

door initiatives alone proved unable to remedy historical discrimination,

universities and scholars began taking a more comprehensive look at universities

and the structural and cultural mechanisms within them that impeded progress on

diversity. These efforts led to more comprehensive diversity initiatives developed

through the 1980s and 1990s. Change models developed in the late 1990s and

early 2000s based on the examination of successful diversity initiatives echoed the

importance of leadership and faculty engagement and emphasized the importance

of university-wide change as a goal and mechanisms for assessment and monitoring

as key strategies for achieving that goal. These more recent models also offer a

framework for examining the dimensions of diversity activity on a campus. While

the literature on diversity initiatives provides insight into organizational-level

factors found at successful institutions, it does not link those factors directly to the

individual faculty and staff experience on the campus. The literature on campus

climate does a better job of making that link. It suggests the need to add

departmental- and individual-level factors when considering how

institutionalization occurs in university settings.

The organizational theory examined here adds organizational context to the

model being developed. Mintzberg's (1983) work identifying universities as

professional bureaucracies suggests that administrative initiatives will not have the

same impact on faculty as they will on staff. In fact, this work suggests that

administrators can have more of a direct impact on the work of staff and must

engage in a decentralized and democratic process with faculty who are more

identified with their departments. Research in professional bureaucracies supports

the idea that professionals seek to control their own work and have normative

expectations about appropriate roles for administrators. Further, literature on

academic departments and disciplines highlights the strength of the academic

discipline as a socializing force for faculty influencing most aspects of faculty

work, including research and pedagogy. There has been very little research on staff

departments in higher education. What little exists suggests that, for staff

professionals, departments may not act as hierarchically as indicated in Mintzberg's

model, but that proposition is a matter under question here.

Institutional theory places these professional bureaucracies in an

institutional context that is characterized by demographic, business and academy-

wide pressures to engage in diversity activities. It also identifies institutionalized

features of universities such as the teaching and research roles played by individual

faculty that must be engaged if change in the underlying values of the university is

to occur. The higher education literature concerned with institutionalization uses

many different definitions of institutionalization, however, the focus here is on

normative and cultural cognitive institutionalization as defined by Scott (2001).

There has been little research into intra-organizational institutional processes, but

the little that exists provides guidance for the current research study, offering

examples of quantitative approaches to address questions about institutionalization.

Finally, feminist and multicultural theory offers a critique of both structural and institutional frameworks suggesting the need to attend to gender and race within organizational structures and as additional institutional forces on organizations. These lenses suggest that structural diversity will have an impact on the institutionalization of diversity and equity norms and values. They also provide insight into the effect of the dominant academic norms which may conflict with broad social norms associated with gender and race. Feminist and multicultural scholars emphasize the need to attend to power within an organization and to be clear about who has access to power and who is excluded from power.

This combination of higher education literature and organizational theory lead to the following research question and hypotheses regarding the institutionalization of diversity and equity norms and values in university settings.

Research Question

Q1: What factors contribute to the institutionalization of diversity and gender equity norms and values for faculty and staff?

Hypotheses

H1: Overall levels of institutionalization of gender equity and diversity norms and values will be higher in universities that exhibit more organizational-level factors associated with successful diversity initiatives (leadership commitment, faculty involvement, elements of Smtih et. al. (1997) framework).

H2: The contributors to institutionalization will be different for faculty and staff.

H2a: Organizational-level variables will be stronger contributors to institutionalization for staff than departmental-variables.

H2b: Departmental-level variables will be stronger contributors to institutionalization for faculty than for staff.

H2c: Where faculty are influenced by organizational-level efforts, initiatives addressing their roles related to curriculum and research will have a greater impact than other organizational-level efforts.

H3: Institutionalization will be greater in departments where there is more structural diversity.

Research Model

To examine the question and hypotheses proposed above, this research used a model including organizational-, departmental-, and individual-level variables predicting institutionalization. This section briefly describes how the variables at each level were conceptualized for this study.

Dependent Variables

The primary dependent variables in this study were the level of institutionalization of diversity norms and values as measured by the perception of commitment to diversity, the perception that those values have changed over time, and engagement in diversity-related behaviors.

Diversity norms and values. Hays-Thomas (2004), in her examination of the many definitions of diversity notes that there are often two distinct types of approaches to diversity in organizations. There is an approach that defines

diversity according to social justice norms, focusing on groups who have been historically marginalized in the workplace. A second approach, the business case for diversity uses a broader definition of diversity, recognizing that each person in a group brings different backgrounds, experiences and attitudes that contribute to the diversity of the group and organization. These scholars value diversity because of the positive impact it has on the workplace. For the purposes of this research a hybrid definition is being used. The values of concern to this project are the recognition that diversity is essential to the health and success of the institution and that that health cannot be reached unless the institution is a place that supports all of its members. Musil and her colleagues (1999) note "as the operational framework for diversity has broadened and become more complex over the last three decades, it has become an increasingly essential component of institutional mission, expressing an institution's highest obligations to itself and its students, and to a world lived in common with others." (p. 6)

Institutionalization. The definition used for this examination is taken from Meyer and Rowan's (1977) work. Institutionalization "involves the processes by which social processes, obligations, or actualities come to take on a rule-like status in social thought and action." (p. 341). When structures and practices are institutionalized they serve to control and constrain behavior as well as empower activities and actors (Scott, 2001). That is, the new values and norms become embedded in existing structures and become part of the standard operations of an organization.

Independent Variables

Independent variables represented three organizational levels: the organization, the department and the individual.

At the organizational-, or university-level, variables included the perception of leader support for diversity and institutional priorities related to diversity.

At the department-level, the structural diversity of the department, departmental support for diversity and the specific department or work unit were independent variables.

At the individual-level, independent variables were respondent gender and race, personal beliefs about diversity, and faculty or staff status. The model included level of education, union status, length of employment, and rank or job category as covariates.

The research model below reflects the relationships of the variables under consideration in this study.

Figure 1. Model of Contributors to Institutionalization


```
                    ...............................
                ....                               ....
            ..                                         ...
        ..        ┌──────────────┐                        ↓
      .           │   Academic   │              ┌──────────────┐
     .            │  Department  │─────────────→│ Faculty Inst.│
    ┌──────────────┐ └──────────────┘            └──────────────┘
    │Organizational│          ┌──────────────┐        ↑
    │    Level     │          │  Individual  │
    │              │          │   Faculty    │
    │Institutional │   ┌──────────────┐  └──────────────┐
    │  Support     │   │ Department   │  ┌──────────────┐  │ Dependent Vars │
    │Institutional │   │ Level        │  │ Indiv Level  │  │                │
    │  Priorities  │   │              │  │              │  │ Perception of  │
    │              │   │ Departmental │  │Diversity     │  │ commitment     │
    │              │   │ Support      │  │beliefs       │  │ Behavior       │
    │              │   │ Structural   │  │Gender/Race   │  │ Change over time│
    │              │   │ Diversity    │  │Facutly/Staff │  └──────────────┘
    │              │   │ Discipline/  │  └──────────────┘
    │              │   │   area       │
    └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘      ┌──────────────┐
                                             │  Individual  │
                                             │    Staff     │   ┌──────────────┐
                            ┌──────────────┐ └──────────────┘   │  Staff Inst. │
                            │    Staff     │─────────────────→  └──────────────┘
                            │  Department  │
                            └──────────────┘
```
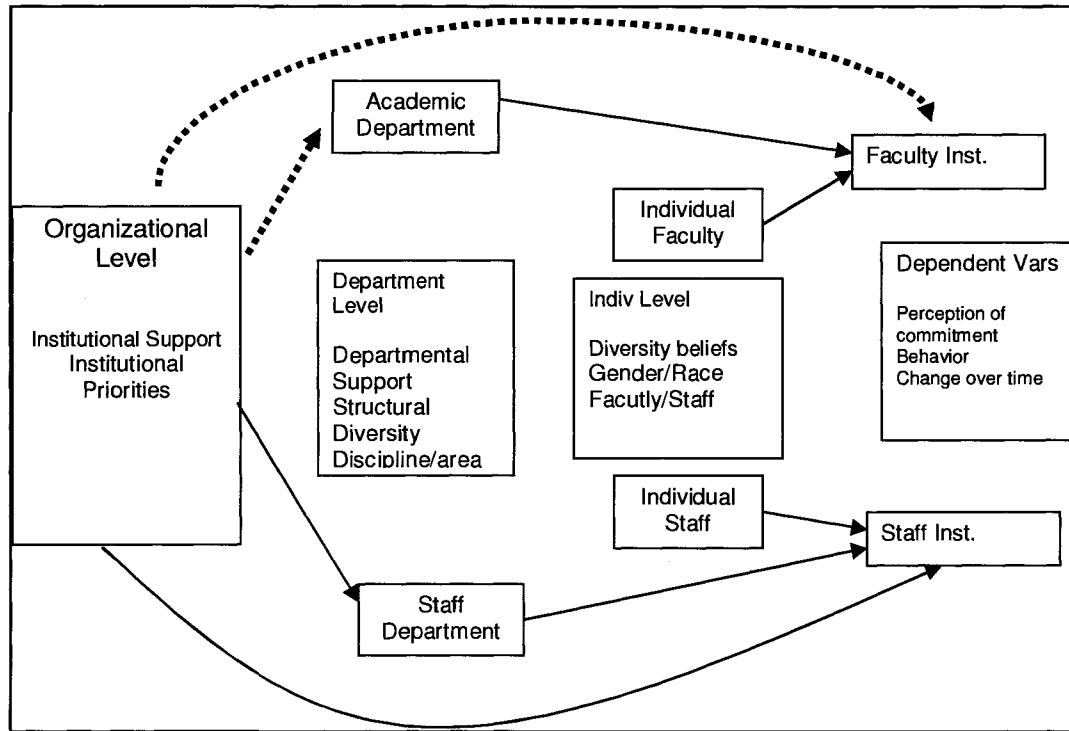
Conclusion

The literature on diversity initiatives in higher education as well as the

organizational theory reviewed here suggest that when considering

institutionalization of diversity values and norms within a university attention

needs to be given to factors at the organizational-, departmental-, and individual-

levels. Transformative change needs to be the goal with an emphasis on

embedding values and norms that support the success of all students, faculty and

staff at the university. Structural, institutional, and feminist and multicultural

organizational theory offer suggestions about how factors at different levels will

affect institutionalization. While faculty models are more well-established and

have been tested more extensively, there are few models of staff climate or institutionalization to inform the current study. However, given the different structural features of faculty and staff areas of the organization and the institutional pressures on faculty that may not be operating for staff, it is important to examine those groups separately to determine which factors influence institutionalization for each group. The current project represents a first step toward creating a more comprehensive model of change toward greater inclusiveness in universities. The next chapter will describe the research methodology used in this study. Following that are chapters that address specific findings and discuss theoretical and practical implications that flow from those findings.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The literature review addressed the gaps in literature about the staff

experience of diversity in higher education in comparison to faculty and developed

a model of intra-organizational institutionalization, another area where there are

gaps to be filled. Because there was very little literature in either area, this study

was exploratory in nature. Three universities were recruited to participate in this

study and a sample of faculty and staff from each university were selected to

participate. Singleton and Straits asserted that, "In the early stages of investigating

a problem, when the objective is to become more informed about the problem

itself, probability sampling simply may be unnecessary. It will suffice to select a

range of cases non-randomly without concern for precise statistical generalization."

(Singleton & Straits, 1999, p. 157).

This research took a quantitative approach in order to explore the research

question and test the hypotheses. Faculty and staff at the participating universities

were surveyed to collect information about the ways in which diversity and equity

norms and values have been institutionalized at their universities. The results of

this study contributed to a more thorough understanding of theory related to

diversity, equity and change in higher education and provided insight into

differences between the staff and faculty experiences in university settings.

Sampling Plan

The universities recruited to participate in this study were all large, public institutions of higher education with diversity efforts that were more than five years old. This population was selected for three reasons. First, public higher education is the primary arena of interest for this researcher. Second, Scott (2001) suggested that large, public organizations are more likely than small or privately held organizations to engage in innovative human resource practices, including those relating to diversity efforts. By selecting institutions that meet this criterion, the analytic model does not need to account for it. Finally, because the research is focused on institutionalization, a process that happens over time, and this study is not longitudinal, it was important that the diversity efforts had been in place and had time to have an impact on the institution. An initial university agreed to participate in the study and a list of other potential sites was developed through a conversation about comparator institutions. Once the list of appropriate universities was identified, each was contacted and invited to participate. Ultimately, a total of three universities agreed.

Rather than conduct a census of employees at each university, a framework for selecting departments within the universities was used, with the aim of broad representation of departments across the entire campus. For academic departments, a modified version of the "knowledge taxonomy" (Gumport & Snydmen, 2002) was used which categorizes departments into five academic areas: Humanities; Social Sciences; Engineering and Computer Science; Sciences; and Professional

and applied fields. From each area, two to three academic departments that were

present at all universities were selected. Mayhew, Grunwald and Dey's (2006)

framework for categorizing staff departments was used to select staff broadly

representing the campus: Academic Affairs, Student Affairs, Athletics, and

Business Affairs. Again, departments that were present at each university were

selected. Within selected departments, all employees were surveyed. Table 1

represents the departments selected for inclusion in the study and the total number

of employees in the sample across the three institutions.

TABLE 1

Number of Employees per Group in Sampling Frame

	Department	Number in Sample
Staff Work Areas		
Academic Affairs		444
	Academic Departments	
	University Library	
Athletics		209
Business Affairs		447
	Accounting	
	Facilities	
	Human Resources	
	Information Technology	
Student Affairs		213
	Admissions and Records	
	Career Center	
	Student Activities	
Faculty Discipline Groups		
Engineering		158
	Civil Engineering	
	Eelctrical Engineering	
	Mechanical Engineering	
Humanities		226
	English	
	History	

Professional		283
	Business-Accounting, Marketing	
	Education - Curriculum and Instruction, Teacher Education	
Science		237
	Chemistry	
	Biology	
	Physics	
Social Sciences		222
	Anthropology	
	Psychology	
	Sociology	

Data Collection

Web-based surveys of faculty and staff at the three participating universities were conducted during Fall 2007. A quantitative survey approach was taken in order to be able to compare responses across organizations. Because the dependent variables of interest are related to individual-level perception of university commitment to diversity, questions were addressed directly to individual staff and faculty (Singleton & Straits, 1999). The risk of social desirability was high because the topic of the survey could be considered sensitive or politically charged. A self-administered survey was used to reduce social desirability effects, allow time for thought, and eliminate error due to interviewer effects (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003).

Beimer and Lyberg (2003) note possible problems with self-administered web surveys including limited access to computer technology and the problem of e-

mail addresses changing. These issues would be concerns if the survey population were students, but the population of interest in this research has ready access to computers through campus computing networks and has stable e-mail addresses through their workplaces. Also, these employees were expected to read their e-mail as part of their routine work day.

The staff and faculty selected from the participating universities were solicited to participate in the survey during Fall 2007. An initial post-card was sent to the faculty and staff informing them that an e-mail inviting them to take an on-line survey would be coming within a week, identifying the subject line and sender of the e-mail, and inviting them to participate when they received the e-mail (See Appendix A for the post card text). One week after the post cards were sent, the initial e-mail with the survey invitation and the link to the on-line survey was sent. Two follow-up e-mails were sent to survey non-respondents (See Appendix B for e-mail text).

The survey sample consisted of 1,311 staff and 971 faculty from the three participating universities (see Table 2). Overall, 606 staff completed surveys for a 46.2% response rate and 333 faculty completed surveys for a 34.3% response rate. Response rates for faculty and staff varied slightly among institutions. Faculty and staff at Institution 3 had the highest response rate and those at Institution 1 had the lowest response rate.

TABLE 2

Response Rate by Institution and Staff/Faculty Affiliation

	Respondents (n)	Sample (N)	Response rate
Overall	939	2283	41.1%
Staff	606	1311	46.2%
Faculty	333	971	34.3%
Institution 1	261	696	37.5%
Staff	149	365	40.8%
Faculty	102	341	29.9%
Institution 2	298	730	40.3%
Staff	213	466	45.7%
Faculty	85	264	32.2%
Institution 3	390	846	46.1%
Staff	244	480	50.8%
Faculty	146	366	39.9%

The demographic distribution of the respondents differed for faculty and staff. Half of the staff respondents were white ($n = 309$, 50.7%) and 60% of staff respondents ($n = 367$) were female. Over two-thirds of the faculty respondents were white ($n = 237$, 71.8%) and 40% of the faculty were male ($n = 133$) (See Table 3). Staff ranged in age from 22 to 75 years, with an average age of 45.4 years. Faculty ranged in age from 29 to 86 years, with an average age of 50.2 years.

TABLE 3

Gender and Race Distribution of Respondents

	n	%
Race		
Staff		
White	309	51.6%
Staff of color	282	45.6%
Other	8	1.3%
Missing	7	1.5%
Faculty		
White	237	71.8%
Faculty of color	53	26.2%
Other	10	3.0%
Missing	3	0.9%
Gender		
Staff		
Female	367	60.6%
Male	232	38.3%
Other/Not reported	7	0.01%
Faculty		
Female	133	39.9%
Male	197	59.2%
Other/Not reported	3	0.01%

Staff had worked at their universities between 6 months and 40 years, with an average length of employment of 11.9 years. Almost all staff who responded to the survey ($n = 601$, 95.8%) were employed full-time. The majority of the staff respondents ($n = 450$, 74.9%) belonged to a union, and most (n = 490, 81.9%) were paid on a salary basis as opposed to an hourly basis. Staff respondents' education level fell into one of three categories; 88 (20%) had not earned a 4-year college

degree, 197 (33%) had earned a 4-year degree, and 255 (46%) had attended graduate school or earned an advanced degree.

On average, faculty had worked at their institution for 13.8 years. The length of time worked ranged from 6 months to 43 years. One hundred twenty-eight (38.4%) faculty held a professor rank, 93 (27.9%) associate professor, 81 (24.3%) assistant professor, and 25 (7.5%) held an instructor rank. The majority of faculty respondents ($n = 208$, 62.5%) were tenured, and most ($n = 289$, 87.3%) belonged to a union. Almost all faculty respondents ($n = 306$, 92.4%) held a doctorate or other terminal degree.

The distribution of departments among respondents was close to representative of the departmental distribution in the sampling frame (see Table 4). For staff, there was little difference between the distribution of departments in the sampling frame and the distribution among the respondents. Academic Affairs was slightly overrepresented among respondents when compared to the sampling frame and Athletics was slightly underrepresented. Among faculty, there were virtually no differences between the respondents and the sampling frame for the sciences and the humanities. In addition, Professional and Engineering faculty were slightly underrepresented and Social Science faculty were slightly overrepresented in comparison to the sampling frame.

TABLE 4

University and Departmental Distribution of Respondents Compared to
Sampling Frame

	Respondents		Sampling Frame	
	n	*%*	N	*%*
University 1				
Faculty	*102*	40.6%	341	48.4%
Staff	*149*	59.4%	365	51.6%
University 2				
Faculty	*85*	28.5%	264	36.2%
Staff	*213*	71.5%	466	63.8%
University 3				
Faculty	*146*	37.4%	366	43.3%
Staff	*244*	62.6%	480	56.7%
Department				
Staff				
Academic Affairs	*224*	37.0%	444	33.9%
Athletics	*73*	12.0%	209	15.9%
Business Affairs	*212*	33.0%	447	34.0%
Student Affairs	*86*	16.5%	213	16.2%
Faculty				
Engineering	*31*	9.3%	158	13.2%
Humanities	*76*	22.8%	226	20.9%
Professional	*73*	21.9%	283	25.1%
Science	*66*	19.8%	237	18.7%
Social Science	*82*	24.9%	222	20.0%

Analytic Design

The survey instrument included questions intended to measure dependent
variables such as perception of commitment to diversity, perception of change over
time, and engagement in diversity-related activities. Other items addressed
independent variables at the organizational-, departmental-, and individual-levels.

The survey data were analyzed in a series of block regressions predicting the

dependent variables for faculty and staff separately.

Measures

The measures were developed using a combination of three approaches. In

some cases items were selected from existing surveys both in verbatim and adapted

form. In other cases new items were written to address topics not covered in

existing instruments. The initial survey was developed and feedback was solicited

from the dissertation committee as well as a campus survey research consultant.

After incorporating this feedback, the survey was piloted with a convenience

sample of faculty, staff and graduate students to solicit suggestions for revision

resulting in further refinement of the items used in the final survey (See

Appendixes C and D for staff and faculty surveys). The operationalization of each

dependent and independent variable is discussed below and summarized in Table 5

at the end of this section.

Dependent Variables. The dependent variables of cultural-cognitive and

normative institutionalization were measured through survey items regarding

perception of commitment to diversity in the university, behaviors supportive of

diversity in the workplace, and perception of change in diversity values over time.

Perception of commitment to diversity was measured through seven survey

items adapted from a scale that examines respondents' beliefs about the effects of

diversity for their university (Kossek & Zonia, 1993), the Higher Education

Research Institute (HERI) faculty survey and one item specifically written for this

research. The questions asked respondents how well a set of statements describe their institution. The statements included items such as "Diversity is a key component of X University's strategy for achieving excellence" and reverse coded items such as "X university permits subtle discrimination to occur." The response format was a five point scale of "Not at all descriptive" to "Very descriptive." To orient the respondents to the purpose of the questions and to help them focus on the institution rather than their own personal beliefs, the instructions for this set of items read "Although your personal values about these issues may differ from those reflected at X University, please focus on the values you see reflected at X UNIVERSITY for this set of questions."

To measure behavior related to diversity for faculty, six items from the HERI faculty survey related to teaching and research were selected. This section included questions about whether faculty have conducted research or writing or taught courses that focused on "women and gender issues" or "ethnic and racial minorities". A two-year timeframe was used for these questions because faculty may teach courses on a rotational basis such that they only teach a course every other year. A two year time frame captures those types of courses without being too far removed from the present. Both faculty and staff both responded to a set of five questions taken from Mayhew and Grunwald's (2006) survey of faculty that asks about whether they have attended events or served on committees in the last two years designed to promote sensitivity toward diversity issues. The two-year timeframe was also used for this set of questions so that faculty were not having to

shift their focus from one set of questions to the next. Finally, both faculty and staff answered questions based on Linnehan et. al.'s (2003) survey of behaviors related to diversity goals. These four questions asked respondents how likely they were to engage in behaviors such as pointing out racially offensive language and questioning comments that promote gender stereotypes.

The third and final set of three questions was written specifically for this project to measure perceptions of change in diversity values and norms over time.

Independent variables. Independent variables in this model represented organizational-, departmental-, and individual-level measures.

Organizational-level. Survey items representing the organizational-level independent variables were addressed administrative leadership and organizational priorities. Administrative leadership was measured by asking respondents whether they agreed or disagreed that "top campus administrators are genuinely committed to promoting respect for and understanding of group differences at this university" (Mayhew, Grunwald & Dey, 2006) and whether administrators' clearly communicate their vision for diversity (Soni, 2000). Perceived organizational priorities were measured with items from two sources. . Five items from the HERI Faculty Survey related to the subject of racial and gender diversity were used and eight new items were written specifically for this survey based on Smith's (2004) framework for understanding institutional diversity. For these items respondents rated what level priority various diversity activities had at their university. For example, respondents rated whether it was a priority "to

recruit more minority students," "to create a diverse multi-cultural campus environment," and "to increase the representation of women in the faculty and administration." Respondents rated the priorities on a 5-point Likert-like scale from "not at all a priority" to "highest priority." Respondents were also given a "don't know" option, which was coded as 0.

Departmental-level. Departmental-level variables included the name of the department in which the respondent worked, departmental structural diversity, and department support for diversity. While structural diversity -- the proportion of ethnic minority and women faculty and staff -- could be measured using institutional data, those data were not available from all participating universities. Therefore, two survey items from Mayhew, Grunwald and Dey (2006) were used to measure structural diversity. The first asked whether the department was predominantly male, predominantly female, or balanced. A second item asked ask a similar question about the racial/ethnic diversity in the department. These questions can only approximate the actual structural diversity in the department and there is a danger that responses may vary across individuals in the same department. However, this variable is important to the research questions under investigation, and the data were not available from other sources, so this set of questions will suffice.

Departmental commitment to diversity was measured using a set of four items for all respondents and an additional two items for faculty. The items were adapted from three sources: Mayhew & Grunwald's (2006) study of factors

influencing faculty inclusion of diversity related content in courses; Mayhew,

Grunwald & Dey's (2006) study of staff perception of diversity climate; and

theAssociation of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) and the

American Association of University Professors (AAUP)'s Faculty Diversity

Practices Questionnaire. Respondents were asked whether they agree with

statements such as, "my department emphasizes the importance of diversity to our

work," "my department is receptive to integrating racial/gender issues in courses,"

and "my department is committed to enhancing the climate for all

faculty/employees." Faculty were asked whether they agree that "my department is

receptive to integrating multicultural issues into courses." A parallel question was

asked about gender. All items included a 5-point Likert-like scale with responses

ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

Individual-level. Individual-level survey items gathered information

about race, gender, age, faculty or staff affiliation, length of employment at the

university, union status, education level, and personal attitude toward diversity.

The demographic and work items were taken from Mayhew and Grunwald (2006)

and Mayhew, Grunwald and Dey's (2006) surveys. To measure personal attitude

toward diversity, questions from the Modern Sexism Scale (Swim et. al., 1995) and

the Modern Racism Scale (McConahay, 1986) were used. These questions asked

respondents how strongly they agreed with statements such as "discrimination

against women is no longer a problem in the United States" and "it is easy to

understand the anger of racial/ethnic minorities in the United States." These

questions were chosen because they measure general attitudes toward gender and

race rather than workplace attitudes about diversity. Also, neither was associated

with social desirability bias (Hogan & Mallott, 2005; Chrobot-Mason, Konrad &

Linnehan, 2006).

TABLE 5

Summary of Variables

Variables	Representation in Survey
Dependent	
Perception of commitment to diversity	7 items
Behaviors related to diversity	Staff – 7 items/Faculty – 11 items
Change over time	3 items
Independent	
Organizational-level	
Organizational leadership	2 items
Institutional priorities	13 items
Department-level	
Structural diversity	2 items
Department support for diversity	Staff – 4 items/Faculty – 7 items
Department/unit	1 item
Individual-level	
Attitude toward diversity	6 items
Gender	1 item
Race	1 item
Faculty/Staff affiliation	1 item
Length of employment	1 item
Union status	1 item
Education level	1 item

Data Analysis Strategy

Before data analysis began, a number of variables were recoded to account

for reverse-worded items and small numbers of respondents in some response

categories. Following data cleaning, the first step was an exploratory factor

analysis to reduce the data and identify and create scales for use in subsequent

analyses. Next, faculty were compared to staff using independent sample t-tests.

Then hypotheses were tested using block regression techniques building separate

regression equations for faculty and staff and comparing the factors that contributed

to each group.

Reverse Coding and Recoding. Two negatively worded items related to

perception of university commitment to diversity and two negatively worded items

related to behaviors were reverse coded. Several additional items were recoded for

other purposes. For example, respondents indicated their actual department

affiliation. These responses were recoded into the broader departmental

frameworks of use in this research. This recoding preserved respondent

confidentiality by masking specific departmental affiliation and it allowed for

enough cases in each category to be able to conduct meaningful statistical analyses.

After examining frequency counts for the other variables, race and staff education

level were recoded in order to create statistically robust groups. While this

researcher would like to be able to examine effects for individual ethnic/racial

groups, there were too few ethnic or racial minority respondents in each ethnic

category to make statistical analysis possible. Therefore, race was recoded into a

dummy variable in order to compare the responses of respondents of color with

white respondents. For similar reasons, staff education level was re-coded. The

categories of "no high school degree", "some college," and "two-year college

degree" were collapsed into a "less than 4-year degree" category and the masters

and Ph.D categories were collapsed into one "masters plus" category. The

remaining categories, "4-year degree" and "some graduate work" remained

unchanged.

For analysis purposes, categorical variables were dummy coded. Staff

departments were coded with Academic Affairs as the reference group. Staff

education level was coded with 4-year degree as the reference category. Faculty

departments were coded with Social Sciences as the reference group. Faculty

tenure status was coded with Tenured as the reference group. Faculty rank was

coded with professor as the reference group. Department structural diversity was

coded so that predominantly white and predominantly male were the reference

categories. University membership was coded with University 2 as the reference

group. Gender was coded so that male was the reference category and race was

coded so that white was the reference category.

Exploratory Factor Analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to

examine the underlying structure of the survey items. "Factor analysis is an

analytic technique that permits the reduction of a large number of interrelated

variables to a smaller number of latent or hidden dimensions." (Fields, 2005, p.

632). Factor analysis is appropriate when the investigator wishes to reduce the

common variance in a test to a smaller number of conceptually meaningful

variables and to understand how each basic unit (i.e., tests or items) is structured.

(Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987). Although some of the items on the survey were

associated with developed scales, others were modified and new items were added so that it could not be assume they would replicate previously identified factor structures.

Prior to conducting factor analysis, the skewness and kurtosis for each item were examined. Skewness, in particular, is a concern when conducting factor analysis (Greer, Dunlap, Hunter & Berman, 2006; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987). Large skewness is problematic and may interfere with identifying the appropriate factor solution. However, sample size must also be taken into account. Field (2005) suggested that for large samples (above 300 cases), such as this project has, a better approach is to examine skewness scores in conjunction with a visual examination of the histogram for the items. As a first step, skewness scores above 2 were used as a first indicator of problematic data in this research. The histograms for those items were examined to determine the nature of the problem. Most of the variables had skewness measures less than 2; however, one attitude item, "Racial discrimination is no longer a problem" had skewness above 2. Skewness was also a concern for several of the questions that asked respondents to indicate the number of times they had participated in diversity-related activities or taught diversity-related courses. Questions related to service on committees, leadership, and the inclusion of readings related to gender all had skewness measures above 2. A closer examination of the histograms for these items revealed that most people disagreed with the statement about racial discrimination, skewing that item

positively when reverse-coded, and most people reported never having participated in a diversity-related activity, skewing that item negatively.

To determine how to handle these items for the factor analysis, a test was run to determine their effect on the factor solution. Outliers were identified for each item with high skewness and removed from the data set and the factor analysis was run. A separate factor analysis was conducted with the outliers included. The solutions were the same. Therefore, the outliers were kept in the analysis. One reason for keeping those cases in the analysis was that the outliers represented all people who strongly agreed that discrimination was no longer a problem in the United States or reported having participated in a large number of diversity events. Eliminating everyone with a particular response raises ethical issues for this researcher. Given the factor solution was the same with or without those cases, this researcher decided to retain those cases for a more complete and representative data set.

A second test was run to determine whether it was more appropriate to conduct factor analysis on the full data set, rather than separately for faculty and staff. The factor analysis was run separately for both groups and the solutions were compared. The solutions were comparable for the staff and faculty, indicating the presence of the same underlying factors for both groups. The final factor analysis included all outliers and staff and faculty in a single data set. The decision to use a single solution made it possible to compare the impact of these factors for faculty and staff.

Principal axis factoring was used as the method of extraction and the oblique rotation method was direct oblimin with Kaiser normalization. The KMO test for sphericity and Kaiser normalization test indicated the data were appropriate for factor analysis. The communalities for each item indicated that there were appropriate levels of shared variance among variables. The analysis revealed a nine factor solution consistent with the survey design and intent. One item, "At X University, there is a widespread sentiment that too much time and money is spent on diversity issues" did not load onto any factor. This item was removed from the analysis and the factor analysis was re-run with the remaining variables. The nine factors identified were: Institutional Priority, Personal Attitude, Departmental Support, Perception of Commitment to Diversity, Change Over Time, Confronting Discriminatory Remarks, Remaining Silent During Discriminatory Comments, Behavior-Involvement in Diversity Activities and Behavior-Course delivery. The course-behavior factor was derived from the factor analysis conducted on the faculty data. Table 6 indicates the item loadings and Cronbach's alpha for each scale.

TABLE 6

Variable Names, Loadings and Reliability of Factors in Full Model

Scale and Individual Item Measures	Loading	α
Dependent Variables		
Institutionalization of Diversity and Equity		
1. Perception of university commitment to diversity		.84
Emphasis on importance of diverse students	-.86	
Respect for diverse values is a part of this university's	-.85	

success		
Respect for people from diverse backgrounds is an important part of our work	-.75	
Diversity is a key strategy	-.71	
Only care about diversity because of legal requirement	-.46	
Subtle discrimination is permitted	-.46	
2. Change over time		.83
More welcoming for ethnic racial/minorities	.88	
Increased emphasis on diversity	.85	
More welcoming place for women	.76	
3. Behavior - general involvement – Participated in:		.81
Committee related to racial/ethnic minority issues	.81	
Leadership role for committee or event related to gender or race	.73	
Committee related to gender issues	.67	
An event related to gender or race	.62	
Diversity conferences, workshops, or training	.57	
4. Behavior – course delivery (Faculty only)		.85
Included readings on ethnic, racial, or cultural diversity in a course	.91	
Included reading on gender or women's issues in a course	.87	
Taught a course specifically focused on ethnicity, race or multicultural issues	.69	
Taught a course specifically focused on gender or women's issues	.47	
Independent Variables		
Organizational-level		
1. University Priorities		.93
Representation of women among faculty	.90	
Racial equality for faculty	.89	
Representation of minorities among faculty	.88	
Gender equity for faculty	.86	
Representation of women among administrators	.61	
Representation of minorities among administrators	.58	
Representation of minorities among staff	.56	
Gender equity for staff	.55	

Recruit more diverse students	.52
Representation of women in the curriculum	.51
Create a diverse multicultural environment	.51
Integrate diversity into overall university operations	.50
Integrate multicultural perspectives into the curriculum	.48

Departmental-level		
1. Departmental commitment		.91
Concerns about racial issues are taken seriously	.91	
Concerns about gender issues are taken seriously	.85	
Committed to enhancing the climate for all employees	.82	
Emphasizes the importance of diversity to our work	.70	
Supportive of multicultural courses (faculty only)	.76	
Supportive of courses about women or gender (faculty only)	.78	
Individual-level		
1. Personal beliefs		.82
Discrimination based on race is no longer a problem	.74	
Discrimination based on gender is no longer a problem	.78	
Husbands and wives are generally treated equally	.73	
It's easy to understand women's groups' concerns	.55	
White and minority people are generally treated equally	.71	
It's easy to understand minority groups' anger	.43	
2. Confront discriminatory remarks		.94
Confront someone for telling a racially offensive joke or story	.97	
Confront someone for telling a joke or story that was offensive to women	.90	
3. Remained silent during discriminatory remarks		.94
Remained silent while others told a racially offensive joke or story	.95	
Remained silent while others told a joke or story that was offensive to women	.91	

While all of the priority items loaded onto one factor, one of the hypotheses

was concerned with priority sub-factors. Based on Smith et. al's (1997)

framework, the items for the priority scale were divided into subscales. The alpha

scores for these subscales were acceptable (See Table 7). Multi-colinearity in the

eventual regression analysis was a concern; however, when that analysis was

conducted (see discussion below), there was no indication of multi-colinearity

among these items.

TABLE 7

Alpha Coeficients for University Priority Sub-scales

Sub-scale		α
Priority-faculty		.92
Representation of women among faculty		
Racial equality for faculty		
Representation of minorities among faculty		
Gender equity for faculty		
Priority - institutional vitality		.80
Representation of women among administrators		
Representation of minorities among administrators		
Integrate diversity into overall university operations		
Priority-staff		.85
Representation of minorities among staff		
Gender equity for staff		
Priority-curriculum		.86
Representation of women in the curriculum		
Integrate multicultural perspectives into the curriculum		

Scores for all scales except the behavior scales were created by taking the

mean of the items in the scale. This method was selected because the mean score

relates directly to the original scale used in the question, thus making interpretation

more meaningful. For the behavior scales, scale scores were created by computing

the sum of the item scores. The behavior items asked respondents to report the

number of times they had engaged in an activity; producing a sum captures the total

number of times a person has engaged in a diversity-related activity which is a

meaningful way to present that data for this analysis. Correlation was used to test

that the calculated scale scores were related to the factor scores produced as part of

the factor analysis (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987). The correlations for all scale scores

and corresponding factor scores were above 0.9, indicating strong relationships

between the scale scores and the factor scores (see Table 8). The scale scores will

be used in the following analyses.

TABLE 8

Intercorrelations between Summative or Mean Scale Scores and SPSS Produced Factor Scores

	Factor Scores					
Scale score	Perception of Commitment to Diversity	Positive Change	Behavior-Involvement	Behavior-Course	Department Support	Personal Attitude
Perception of Commitment to Diversity	.95					
Positive Change		.98				
Behavior-Involvement			.91			
Behavior-Course				.94		
Department Support					.96	
Personal Attitude						.95

Mean Comparisons. Independent sample t-tests were conducted to

determine whether there were differences between faculty and staff on the

dependent variables. To examine differences within faculty and staff groups, a

series of 2 X 2 factorial ANOVAs for faculty and staff were conducted using

gender and race as independent variables and the indicators of institutionalization

as dependent variables. Of particular interest at this point was whether there were interaction effects between gender and race.

Hierarchical Regression. All of the hypotheses and the research question were addressed through the development of regression models. The data were divided into faculty and staff groups and regression analyses were conducted separately for each group. For each group, the hierarchical regression analyses involved entering variables into the equation in four blocks. Hierarchical regression is designed to examine "the influence of several predictor variables in a sequential way, such that the relative importance of a predictor may be judged on the basis of how much it adds to the prediction of a criterion over and above that which can be accounted for by other important predictors" (Petrocelli, 2003, p. 10). Hierarchical block regression is appropriate when variables are grouped theoretically, as they were in this research, and a set of hypotheses guides the inclusion of variables at each step (Petrocelli, 2003; Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003).

The initial step was entering individual-level demographic variables into the equation as a first block because a key question of this research was related to the influence of organizational-level variables beyond the influence of individual- and departmental-level variables. Those were followed by individual professional variables and the personal diversity belief scale as a second block. The department-level variables were entered as a third block. Finally, the organization-level variables were entered as a fourth block. (See Tables 9 and 10 for a list of variable

entered in each block.) At each step, the change in R^2 was examined to determine the percentage of the variance in the dependent variable that was accounted for by the model at that step. With each new block of variables added, a new R^2 was calculated and the difference from the previous model was noted. The R^2 revealed the additional portion of the variance accounted for by the added variables.

TABLE 9

Independent Variables Entered in Each Block for Staff Regression Analyses

Block 1 - Demographics
Gender (male)
Race (white)
Age
Less than 4 yrs college (Bachelors)
Some Grad (Bachelors)
Masters or more (Bachelors)
Block 2 - Professional/Attitudinal Characteristics
Length of employment
Union status (member)
Hourly pay (salary)
Personal attitude toward diversity
Block 3 - Department
More women (More men)
Equal men and women (More men)
More minority (more White)
Equal White and Minority (more White)
Departmental support
Athletics (Academic Affairs)
Business Affairs (Academic Affairs)
Student Affairs (Academic Affairs)
Block 4 - Organizational
Administrator communicate respect for diverse people and viewpoints
Administrator communicates a clear vision
University priority - staff hiring and climate
University priority - faculty hiring and climate
University priority – creating an inclusive environment
University priority – recruiting diverse students
University priority - diversity in the curriculum
University priority – institutional vitality – administrator diversity and overall operations

University 1 (Univ 2)
Univerity 3 (Univ 2)

TABLE 10

Independent Variables Entered in Each Block for Faculty Regression Analyses

Variable Name

Block 1 - Demographics
Gender (male)
Race (white)
Age
Block 2 - Professional/Attitudinal Characteristics
Length of employment
Union status (member)
Personal Attitude
Not on tenure track (Tenured)
Tenure track (Tenured)
Assistant Prof (Prof)
Associate Prof (Prof)
Block 3 - Department
More women (More men)
Equal men and women (More men)
More minority (more White)
Equal White and Minority (more White)
Departmental support
Engineering (Social Sciences)
Humanities (Social Sciences)
Professional (Social Sciences)
Science (Social Sciences)
Block 4 - Organizational
Administrator communicate respect for diverse people and viewpoints
Administrator communicates a clear vision
University priority - staff hiring and climate
University priority - faculty hiring and climate
University priority – creating an inclusive environment
University priority – recruiting diverse students
University priority - diversity in the curriculum
University priority – institutional vitality – administrator diversity and overall operations
University 1 (Univ 2)
Univerity 3 (Univ 2)

To test H1 (i.e. that organizational activities related to successful diversity initiatives would be associated with greater institutionalization), the contribution of the leadership commitment variables, and the institutional vitality, curriculum, student recruitment and environment priority scores were examined. The hypothesis would be confirmed if these factors were statistically significant positive contributors to the models for both faculty and staff.

To examine the hypotheses (H2a, H2b, and H2c) related to the organizational- and department-level contributors to faculty and staff measures of institutionalization, the regression models for each group were examined. If the organizational-level variables contributed to the measures of institutionalization for staff to a greater extent than departmental-level variables, H2a would be supported. If departmental-level variables were larger contributors to the faculty model than the organizational-level variables, H2b would be supported. If the Faculty Priority and Course Priority scales were significant positive predictors of the measures of institutionalization for faculty, H2c would be supported

To test H3 (i.e. that increased structural diversity would contribute to greater levels of institutionalization), the contribution of the structural diversity variables in the overall equation was examined. If the structural diversity variables were significantly and positively related to the dependent variables, then the hypothesis would be supported.

Beyond the specific hypotheses, the overall models were examined to determine which factors contributed to the institutionalization of diversity norms

and values for faculty and staff. The significant factors for each model were compared and differences between the faculty and staff models were determined.

Summary

The current research project was designed to compare faculty and staff experiences with diversity in university settings and examine the institutionalization process within organizations, areas representing gaps in current literature. A quantitative approach was developed to examine the relationship of organizational-, departmental-, and individual-level factors to institutionalization of diversity and gender equity values and norms for faculty and staff. The data for analysis were gathered through an on-line survey of faculty and staff about their perceptions of their university administrators' commitment to diversity and gender equity, the priority their institution places on diversity, their department's support for diversity and their own attitudes related to diversity and gender equity. The research question and hypotheses were addressed through a series of block regression analyses, constructing models for staff and faculty that were compared to each other to determine which factors were the most important contributors for each group. The next chapter presents the findings from this project, paying particular attention to the ways in which faculty and staff models are similar and different. The final chapters discuss the implications of those findings for theory and practice and suggest potential contributions of this study to theory, practice and research.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Statistical analyses were conducted which explored the research questions
and tested the hypotheses that guided this study. First, t-tests and chi-square tests
were conducted to examine differences between faculty and staff on the three
dependent variables. Then, hierarchical regression was conducted to test the
hypotheses for this research.

Mean Comparisons

To test whether there were differences between faculty and staff on the
three measures of institutionalization (i.e., perception of commitment to diversity,
change over time and behavior) t-tests were conducted (see Table 11). Faculty
perceived less university commitment to diversity, ($t(605) = -2.81, p = .005$, two-
tailed) and lower levels of positive change than staff ($t(594) = -4.44, p < .001$, two-
tailed). Faculty reported engaging in more diversity related activities over the last
two years than did staff ($t (470) = 7.64, p < .001$, two-tailed).

TABLE 11

Staff and Faculty Mean Scores on Measures of Institutionalization

Dependent variable	Staff		Faculty	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Perception of commitment*	3.57	.78	3.40	.90
	3.34	.75	3.09	.89

Positive change over time*				
Behavior – involvement*	1.57	2.02	3.05	3.13

* $p < .05$

To test whether there were interactions between gender and race on the dependent variables a series of two-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted. Three ANOVAs were conducted for staff and four for faculty to test whether there were significant interactions within each group (see Tables 12-18). There were two conditions for gender (male, female) and two conditions for race (white, person of color). There were significant main effects for race on Perception of Commitment to Diversity for both faculty, $F(1, 327)=5.59$, $p = .019$, and staff, $F(1, 593) = 8.89$, $p = .003$, and for faculty on Behavior-Involvement, $F(1, 321)=8.58$, $p = .004$. There were significant main effects for gender on faculty Behavior-Involvement, $F(1, 321) = 18.07$, $p < .001$, and on faculty Behavior-Course, $F(1, 324) = 33.3$, $p < .001$. There were no significant interaction effects for either group on any of the variables of interest. Given this finding, the race X gender interaction term was not entered into the regression equation.

TABLE 12

Analysis of Variance for Measures of Staff Perception of University Commitment to Diversity

Factor	df	F	η	p
Gender	1	.034	.000	ns
Race	1	22.767	.037	*
Gender X Race	1	.479	.001	ns

* $p < .05$, ns = no significant difference

TABLE 13

Analysis of Variance for Measures of Staff Perception of Positive Change Over Time

Factor	df	F	η	p
Gender	1	.134	.000	ns
Race	1	.050	.000	ns
Gender X Race	1	.134	.000	ns

*$p < .05$, ns = no significant difference

TABLE 14

Analysis of Variance for Measures of Staff Behavior – Involvement in Diversity Activities

Factor	df	F	η	p
Gender	1	2.904	.005	ns
Race	1	2.493	.004	ns
Gender X Race	1	.251	.000	ns

*$p < .05$, ns = no significant difference

TABLE 15

Analysis of Variance for Measures of Faculty Perception of University Commitment to Diversity

Factor	df	F	η	p
Gender	1	3.59	.011	ns
Race	1	35.65	.098	*
Gender X Race	1	.011	.000	ns

*$p < .05$, ns = no significant difference

TABLE 16

Analysis of Variance for Measures of Faculty Perception of Positive Change Over Time

Factor	df	F	η	p
Gender	1	3.16	.010	ns
Race	1	13.77	.040	*
Gender X Race	1	.053	.000	ns

$* p < .05$, ns = no significant difference

TABLE 17

Analysis of Variance for Measures of Faculty Behavior – Involvement in Diversity Activities

Factor	df	F	η	p
Gender	1	18.07	.054	*
Race	1	8.58	.026	*
Gender X Race	1	.004	.000	ns

$* p < .05$, ns = no significant difference

TABLE 18

Analysis of Variance for Measures of Faculty Behavior – Diversity in Courses

Factor	df	F	η	p
Gender	1	3.30	.094	*
Race	1	2.05	.006	ns
Gender X Race	1	3.53	.011	ns

$* p < .05$, ns = no significant difference

Hierarchical Block Regression

The hierarchical block regression analyses for staff and faculty consisted of four blocks of variables. First, demographic variables were entered, then individual

professional and attitudinal variables, followed by departmental variables and

finally, organizational variables. These regression analyses were conducted for all

measures of institutionalization, perception of commitment to diversity, change

over time and behavior variables for both groups. Tables representing the complete

block regression equations for staff and faculty can be found in Appendix E.

Hypothesis 1

To test the hypothesis that organizational activities associated with

successful diversity initiatives would be positively related to staff and faculty

institutionalization, the effect of the two leadership variables as well as the priority

variables for institutional viability and vitality, faculty, and campus environment on

the dependent variables were examined. The contributions of the leadership items

were clear and consistent for staff perception of commitment to diversity

(leadership respect $\beta = .261$, $t(555) = 5.531$, $p < .001$; clear vision $\beta = .264$, $t(555)$

$= 5.607$, $p < .001$) and perception of positive change over time (leadership respect

$\beta = .159$, $t(553) = 2.734$, $p = .006$; clear vision $\beta = .201$, $t(553) = 3.443$, $p = .001$)

and for faculty perception of commitment to diversity (leadership respect $\beta = .169$,

$t(305) = 2.882$, $p = .004$; clear vision $\beta = .378$, $t(305) = 6.489$, $p < .001$). When

staff and faculty felt that their administrators communicated a clear vision for

diversity, they perceived more commitment to diversity from the university and

perceived more positive change over time. Similarly, when administrators were

perceived to respect diverse people and perspectives, faculty and staff perceived

greater commitment to diversity, and staff saw greater change over time. Neither

leadership variable had an influence on behavior for faculty or staff. The perception that leaders were committed to inclusion of diverse voices and articulated a clear vision for diversity did not translate into participation in diversity-related activities or into inclusion of diversity-related materials in courses.

The effects of the university priority variables were mixed. For staff, a belief that the university had made faculty diversity a priority was negatively related to perception of commitment (β = -.122, $t(555)$ = -2.775, p = .006) and positively related to engagement in diversity related activities (β = .117, $t(548)$ = 2.014, p = .044). Perception that the university had made creating a welcoming environment a priority was positively related to staff perception of commitment to diversity (β = .154, $t(555)$ = 3.503, p < 001). Institutional vitality was not a significant predictor in any staff model. Perception that the university had made faculty diversity and gender equity a priority was related to faculty perception of positive change over time (β = .164, $t(305)$ = .939, p = .054). Feeling that the university had made creating a welcoming environment a priority was positively related to faculty perception of commitment (β = .252, $t(305)$ = 4.286, p < .001) and negatively related to faculty perception of change over time (β = -.206, $t(305)$ = -2.642, p = .009). For faculty, institutional vitality was a negative predictor of perception of commitment to diversity (β = -.137, $t(305)$ = -2.187, p = .030).

H1 is partially supported. The effect of leadership gained the strongest support in this study. While it was not related to behavior for either group, leadership was a strong positive predictor for the other measures of

institutionalization for both staff and faculty. Prioritizing faculty issues was positively related to staff involvement in diversity activities and faculty perception of change over time, but negatively related to staff perception of commitment to diversity. Prioritizing a welcoming environment was positively related to perception of commitment for both groups, but negatively related to perception of change for faculty. Prioritizing institutional vitality was not related to any measure of institutionalization for staff and was negatively related to faculty perception of commitment to diversity. With one exception, none of the priority items were related to behavior. Although the finding for leadership was clear, the effect of prioritization of different diversity activities was varied with each group influenced by different priorities and sometimes in opposite ways.

Hypothesis 2

To test H2a (i.e., for staff, organizational-level factors would have a larger impact on staff institutionalization than would departmental factors) and H2b (i.e., for faculty, departmental-level indicators would be larger contributors to institutionalization than would organizational-level indicators), the changes in R^2 for the blocks of departmental variables and the blocks of organizational variables in the regression analyses were compared. The R^2 change indicates the contribution of each of those blocks to the overall explanation of variance for the equation (Field, 2005). If H2a was supported, the change in R^2 for the block of organizational variables would be greater than the change in R^2 for departmental

variables and for faculty the departmental block will have a larger R^2 value than the organizational block.

For all staff regression equations, the departmental and organizational blocks of variables contributed similarly to the explanation of variance (see Table 18). For perception of commitment to diversity, the two blocks each accounted for approximately 22% of the variance. For the departmental block R^2 change (8, 536) = .22, $p < .001$ and the organizational block, R^2 change (10, 526) = .23, $p < .001$. For change over time, the departmental block contributed slightly more to the explanation of variance, R^2 change (8, 534) = .14, $p < .001$ than the organizational block, R^2 change (10, 524) = .11, $p < .001$. For behavior, the departmental block, R^2 change (8, 529) = .067, $p < .001$ and the organizational block, R^2 change (10, 519) = .066, $p = .002$ each explained approximately 7% of the variance. H2a was not supported. However, the finding was not that organizational variables were unimportant influences on measures of institutionalization for staff; rather, departmental variables were equally as important.

For faculty perception of commitment to diversity, the departmental block contributed significantly to the variance explained in the model, R^2 change (9, 285) = .23, $p < .001$, but less than the organizational block, R^2 change (10, 275) = .30, $p < .001$. For change over time, the departmental block also contributed significantly, R^2 change (9, 287) = .16, $p < .001$, as did the organizational block, R^2 change (10, 219) = .17, $p < .001$. However, when the model was predicting involvement in diversity activities and course-related diversity behavior, the

department contributed to a larger proportion of explained variance (R^2 change (9, 277) = .080, p = .001 and R^2 change (9, 281) = .253, p < .001, respectively) than the organizational block (R^2 change (10, 267) = .048, p = .047 and R^2 change (10, 271) = .026, p = .067, respectively). For faculty, the contribution of the department was not greater than the contribution of the organization to the perception of commitment to diversity and the perception of change over time. Departmental factors were, however, larger contributors to the explanation of faculty behavior than organizational factors. H2b was partially supported.

Taken together, this examination of the contribution of each block of variables to the respective equations for faculty and staff reveals that for staff, the organization and the department were equally important contributors to the measures of institutionalization used here. For faculty the contribution of each block is less even. The organization was a larger contributor to perception of commitment; whereas, the department and organization contributed almost equally to faculty perception of change over time. Further, faculty behavior was better predicted by departmental variables.

To test H2c (i.e., at the organizational-level, activities associated with faculty institutionalized roles would be positively related to measures of diversity institutionalization for faculty), the contribution of variables in the organizational block in the faculty regressions were examined. The two indicators associated with faculty roles were the scales related to institutional priorities for faculty equity and

hiring and institutional priorities for a diverse curriculum. The impact of these two variables was examined to test this hypothesis.

In the models predicting perception of commitment to diversity, participation in diversity activities, and course-related behavior, neither was a significant contributor (see Table 24). In the model predicting change over time, the prioritization of faculty hiring and climate was a positive predictor, $\beta = .164$, $t(277) = 1.94$, $p = .05$, revealing that faculty who believed the institution placed a high priority on faculty recruitment and climate issues perceived more positive change in diversity climate over time compared to those who did not. There was no significant effect for the prioritization of diversity in the curriculum on perception of change over time. Hypothesis 2c is marginally supported. The prioritization of faculty institutionalized roles had little impact on the measures of institutionalization used here.

Hypothesis 3

H3 was intended to test Kanter's (1977) proposition that as workplaces become more representative they become more inclusive and that stereotypes for underrepresented groups are reduced. This hypothesis predicted that greater structural diversity in the department would be associated with greater institutionalization of diversity values for both staff and faculty. Structural diversity was measured through questions about the racial and gender representation in the respondents' departments. Faculty and staff reported whether there were more whites/men than minorities/women, equal number of both or more

women/minorities than whites/men. Departments with equal gender distribution and those with more women than men were compared to departments that were predominantly men. Similarly, departments with equal numbers of faculty and staff of color and white faculty and staff, as well as those with more faculty and staff of color than white faculty and staff, were compared with departments that were predominantly white.

For staff, none of the departmental structural diversity items was significantly related to perception of commitment to diversity or behavior; however there was an effect for change over time. Compared to staff working in departments that were predominantly male, staff who worked in departments with equal numbers of men and women perceived more change in the institution over time, $\beta = .107$, $t(553) = 2.564$, $p = .011$. Structural diversity was a significant predictor in more models for faculty than for staff. Compared to faculty working in predominantly white departments, faculty working in departments where there were more employees of color participated in significantly more diversity-related activities, $\beta = .113$, $t(297) = 1.92$, $p = .05$. Gender structural diversity did not have an effect on diversity participation, but did have an effect on course-related behavior. Course related behavior was lower for faculty who worked in departments with equal gender representation when compared with departments that were predominantly male, $\beta = -.127$, $t(301) = -2.136$, $p = .034$. However, faculty who worked in departments with equal gender representation perceived greater university commitment to diversity than faculty who worked in departments

that were predominantly male, $\beta = .107$, $t(306) = 2.025$, $p = .044$. For faculty, there were no structural diversity effects on perception of change over time.

There is marginal support for H3. Gender representation in the department seems to be a more powerful predictor of the measures of institutionalization used here given its significance in more of the models. However, for faculty its contribution to behavior is the opposite of the hypothesized effect. Racial or ethnic representation in the department was only predictive of faculty behavior.

Overall Models

To examine the broader question guiding this research, "what factors will contribute to the institutionalization of diversity and gender equity norms and values for faculty and staff?", a more in-depth look at the regression models was taken. First, the overall R^2 and R^2 changes for each model were examined to determine how well the model predicted institutionalization for each group. Then each block of variables was examined more closely to determine which factors contributed to institutionalization for each group. Particular attention was paid to the variables at the departmental and organizational levels.

An examination of the fit of the regression models created for this research revealed that in each case, the faculty model was a better fit than the staff model (See Table 19). For staff, the overall model explained a large proportion of variance in perception of commitment to diversity, R^2 (10, 526) = .53, $p<= .001$, indicating that 53% of the variance in that dependent variable for staff was explained by the model being tested. For faculty, the model explained 68% of the

variance in perception of commitment to diversity, R^2 (10, 275) = .68, p < .001.

For staff, the model explained 28% of the variance in perceived change over time,
R^2 (10, 524) = .28, p < .001, while for faculty the model explained 46% of the

variance in perception of change over time, R^2 (10, 277) = .46, p < .001. Finally,

the model explained a much smaller proportion of the variance in general diversity-

related behavior for both groups. For staff it explained 19% of behavior related to

general involvement R^2 (10, 367) = .19, p = .002, in contrast, it explained 32% of

the variance in general diversity behavior for faculty, R^2 (10, 267) = .320, p = .047.

The model explained more (61%) of faculty course-related diversity behavior, R^2

(10, 271) = .606, p = .067. In each case, the faculty model explained at least 14%

more variance than the staff model and in the case of change, the difference was

close to 20%.

TABLE 19

R^2 Change for All Blocks of Regression Models for Staff and Faculty

Dependent variable	Perception of commitment		Change		Behavior - Involvement		Behavior-Course
	Staff	Faculty	Staff	Faculty	Staff	Faculty	Faculty
Block							
1) Demographic	4.6	10.7	1.1	7.3	3.9	9.7	17.5
2) Professional	2.4	4.8	2.0	6.2	1.7	9.5	15.2
3) Departmental	22.4	22.5	13.7	15.8	6.7	8.0	25.3
4) Organizational	23.2	29.8	11.4	16.6	6.6	4.8	2.6
Total	52.6	67.8	28.3	45.8	18.8	32.0	60.6

An examination of each block of variables revealed that the block of

individual demographic variables contributed more to the overall explanation of

variance for faculty than for staff. For staff, the individual demographic block of

variables contributed the most to the explanation of perception of commitment to diversity (R^2 change (6,548) = .046, $p < .001$) and the least to perception of change over time (R^2 change (6, 546) = .011, $p = .396$). For faculty, as a block, individual demographic characteristics explained the most variance in the model predicting course related behavior (R^2 change (3, 297) = .175). Those variables contributed the least to the explanation of faculty perception of change over time (R^2 change (3, 303) = .073).

When the specific variables from the individual demographic block were examined, minority status was a significant predictor for all measures of institutionalization of diversity values for staff (See Table 20). Staff of color perceived less commitment to diversity than did white staff ($\beta = -.103$, $t(555) = -2.75$, $p = .006$). They perceived more change over time ($\beta = .098$, $t(553) = 2.109$, $p = .035$) and were more likely to be involved in diversity related activities ($\beta = .100$, $t(548) = 2.02$, $p = .044$). For staff, gender was not predictive in any model, indicating that when all other variables were taken into account, there were no differences between male and female staff in their perception university commitment to diversity, change over time or behavior. Staff education level was a significant factor predicting behavior. Compared to staff with 4-year degrees, staff with some graduate education ($\beta = .136$, $t(548) = 3.015$, $p = .003$) and those with master's degrees or higher ($\beta = .190$, $t(548) = 3.780$, $p < .001$) were more likely to engage in diversity-related activities.

For faculty, minority status also predicted more participation in diversity related events (β = .180, $t(297)$ = 3.169, p = .002), more participation in diversity-related course behaviors (β = .115, $t(301)$ = 2.703, p = .007) and lower perceived levels of commitment to diversity (β = -.101, $t(305)$ = -2.652, p = .008) (See Table 21). Gender was a significant predictor of faculty behavior. Compared to male faculty, female faculty participated in more diversity related events and committees (β = .182, $t(297)$ = 3.042, p = .003) and taught more diversity related courses or included readings in courses (β = .220, $t(4.841)$, p < .001). Age was only a significant predictor for faculty perception of commitment. Older faculty perceived less commitment to diversity from the university (β = -.167, $t(307)$ = -2.959, p = .003) than younger faculty.

TABLE 20

Significant Demographic Contributors to Staff Measures of Institutionalization

Block	Perception of Commitment	Change	Behavior – Involvement
Demographic			
Minority v. white	neg***	pos*	pos*
Grad school v. 4 yr			pos***

pos. indicates a positive relationship, neg indicates a negative relationship
*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

TABLE 21

Significant Demographic Contributors to Faculty Measures of Institutionalization

Block	Perception of Commitment	Change	Behavior – Involvement	Behavior- Course
Demographic				
Minority v. white	neg***		pos**	pos***
Women v. Men			pos***	pos***
Age	neg**			

pos. indicates a positive relationship, neg. indicates a negative relationship
*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

The second block of variables entered into the regression models included

individual-level professional and attitudinal variables. For staff this set of variables

explained approximately 2% of the variance for each model (Perception of

commitment R^2 change (4, 544) = .024, p = .007; Change R^2 change (4, 542) = .020,

p = .025; Behavior R^2 change (4, 537) = .017, p = .043). For faculty this block

explained the most variance in the behavior models (Behavior-involvement R^2

change (7, 286) = .095, p < .001; Behavior- course R^2 change (7, 290) = .152, p <

.001). Individual professional variables were less helpful in explaining faculty

perception of commitment to diversity (R^2 change (7, 294) = .048, p = .022) and

faculty perception of change over time (R^2 change (7, 296) = .062, p = .005).

None of the individual professional variables were significant predictors of

staff behavior or perception of commitment. Only length of university employment

was a significant predictor for perception of change over time for staff (β = .114,

t(553) = 2.330, p = .020). The longer the staff person had been employed at a

university, the more change they perceived (See Table 22).

For faculty, none of the professional or attitudinal variables were significant

predictors of perception of commitment or change over time (See Table 23). For

both behavior models, personal attitude was a significant predictor. People who

perceive less discrimination in society were less likely to include diversity in their

courses (β = -.143, t(301) = -3.135, p = .002) and were less likely to participate in

diversity activities (β = -.180, t(297) = -2.97, p = .003). For involvement in

diversity activities, tenure status was also a predictor. Faculty not on tenure track

were less likely to participate in diversity activities (β = -.139, $t(297)$ = -2.115, p = .035) than faculty who were tenure-related. For course behavior, union membership was a predictor. Faculty who did not belong to a union were less likely to include diversity in courses (β = -.104, $t(301)$ = -2.347, p = .020) than faculty who belonged to a union.

TABLE 22

Significant Professional Contributors to Staff Measures of Institutionalization

Block	Perception of Commitment	Change	Behavior – Involvement
Professional			
Length of employment		pos*	

pos. indicates a positive relationship, neg. indicates a negative relationship
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

TABLE 23

Significant Professional Contributors to Faculty Measures of Institutionalization

Block	Perception of Commitment	Change	Behavior – Involvement	Behavior- Course
Professional				
Diversity attitude			neg***	neg***
Non-union v. Union				neg***
Not on track v. Tenured			neg*	

pos. indicates a positive relationship, neg. indicates a negative relationship
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

The third block of variables included in these analyses included factors related to the respondent's department. For staff, departmental variables explained more variance in the model predicting perception of commitment to diversity (R^2 change (8, 536) = .224, p < .001) than in either of the other models (Change R^2 change (8, 534) = .137, p < .001; Behavior R^2 change (8, 529) = .067, p < .001).

For faculty, the departmental block explained more variance in course behavior (R^2 change = .253, $p < .001$) and perception of commitment to diversity (R^2 change = .225, $p < .001$) than perception of change (R^2 change = .158, $p < .001$) or diversity involvement (R^2 change = .080, $p < .001$).

For staff, departmental support for diversity was a significant predictor for perception of commitment to diversity (β = .230, $t(555)$ = 6.393, $p < .001$) and perception of change over time (β = .148, $t(553)$ = 3.351, $p = .001$) (see Table 24). Departmental support was not a significant predictor of behavior. Departmental structural diversity was not predictive for staff behavior or perception of commitment to diversity. It was, however, predictive of perception of change. Staff who worked in departments with equal gender representation perceived higher levels of positive change than staff who worked in departments that were predominantly male (β = .107, $t(553)$ = 2.564, $p = .011$). The department a staff person belonged to predicted behavior and perception of change but not perception of commitment to diversity. Staff in student affairs perceive more positive change over time than staff employed in academic affairs (β = .112, $t(2.546)$ = 2.546, $p = .011$). Compared with staff in academic affairs, staff in student affairs (β = .184, $t(548)$ = 3.915, $p < .001$) and athletics (β =.163, $t(548)$ = 3.265, $p = .001$) were more likely to engage in diversity related behaviors.

For faculty, departmental support for diversity was a significant predictor of perception of commitment to diversity and perception of change over time (see Table 25). Greater departmental support was associated with more perceived

commitment (β = .235, $t(305)$ = 5.522, p < .001) and more change (β = .244, $t(307)$

= 4.464, p < .001). Departmental support was not a significant predictor of

engagement in diversity-related activities or diversity-related course behavior.

Departmental structural diversity was not predictive of change; however, it was

related to perception of commitment such that faculty who worked in gender-

balanced departments perceived more commitment to diversity than those in

predominantly male departments (β = .107, $t(305)$ = 2.025, p = .044). Faculty in

gender-balanced departments were less likely than those who worked in

predominantly male departments to include diversity materials in courses or to

teach diversity related courses (β = -.127, $t(301)$ = -2.136, p = .034). Faculty who

worked in departments with more employees of color participated in more diversity

activities than faculty who worked in departments that were predominantly white (β

= .113, $t(297)$ = 1.921, p = .05). Although a faculty member's discipline was not

predictive of perception of commitment or change it was predictive of behavior.

Faculty in engineering (β = -.205, $t(297)$ = .003, p = .003) and the sciences (β = -

.185, $t(297)$ = -2.747, p = .006) were less likely to be involved in diversity

activities than faculty in the social sciences. Faculty in engineering (β = -.373,

$t(301)$ = -7.238, p < .001), sciences (β = -.208, $t(301)$ = -4.102, p < .001) and

professional disciplines (β = -.457, $t(301)$ = -8.998, p < .001) were less likely than

faculty in social science disciplines to teach diversity courses or include diversity

materials in courses. Faculty in humanities disciplines were more likely than

faculty in social sciences to include diversity related readings in courses or to teach

diversity courses (β = .130, t(301) = 2.625, p = .009).

TABLE 24

Significant Departmental Contributors to Staff Measures of Institutionalization

Block	Perception of Commitment	Change	Behavior – Involvement
Department			
Support	pos***	pos***	
=Gender v. More Men		pos*	
Student Affairs v. Ac Affairs		pos***	pos***
Athletics v. Ac Affairs			pos***

pos. indicates a positive relationship, neg. indicates a negative relationship
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

TABLE 25

Significant Departmental Contributors to Faculty Measures of Institutionalization

Block	Perception of Commitment	Change	Behavior – Involvement	Behavior- Course
Department				
Support	pos***	pos***		
=Gender v. More Men	pos*			neg*
Engineering v. Social Science			neg**	neg***
Professional v. Social Science				neg***
Science v. Social Science			neg**	neg***
Humanities v. Social Science				pos**

pos. indicates a positive relationship, neg. indicates a negative relationship
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

The final block of variables entered into the regression equations

represented organizational-level variables. For staff, organizational level variables

accounted for 23% of the variance in perception of commitment to diversity (R^2

change (10, 526) = .232, p < .001), 11% in perception of change over time (R^2

change (10, 524) = .114, p < .001) and 7% for diversity related behavior (R^2 change

$(10, 519) = .066, p < .001)$. For faculty, these variables explained 30% of the variance associated with perception of commitment to diversity (R^2 change (10, 275) = .298, $p < .001$), 17% of the variance associated with perception of change over time (R^2 change (10, 277) = .166, $p < .001$) and only 3% to 4% of the variance associated with either of the faculty behavioral measures (Involvement R^2 change (10, 267) = .048, $p = .047$; Course R^2 change (10, 271) = .026, $p = .026$).

Compared to staff at University 2, staff at Universities 1 ($\beta = .138$, $t(555) = 3.375, p = .001$) and 3 ($\beta = .164$, $t(555) = 2.608, p = .009$) perceived more commitment to diversity at their university and staff at University 3 were less likely to engage in diversity related activities ($\beta = -.365$, $t(555) = -4.436, p < .001$) (see Table 26). Administrator respect for diverse perspectives and administrator communication of a clear vision for diversity were positively related to both perception of commitment to diversity (Adm. commitment $\beta = .261$, $t(555) = 5.531, p < .001$, Clear vision $\beta = .264$, $t(555) = 5.607, p < .001$) and perception of change over time (Adm. commitment $\beta = .159$, $t(555) = 2.734, p = .006$, Clear vision $\beta = .201$, $t(555) = 3.443, p = .001$) for staff. Related to perception of change over time, none of the university priority variables were significant. An institutional priority of creating an inclusive environment was a positive predictor of staff perception of commitment to diversity ($\beta = .154$, $t(555) = 3.503, p < .001$). Prioritizing faulty recruitment was negatively associated with staff perception of university commitment to diversity ($\beta = -.122$, $t(555) = -2.775, p = .006$) and

positively associated with staff participation in diversity activities (β = .117, t(555) = 2.014, p = .044).

Administrator communication of a clear vision for diversity was a significant predictor for faculty perception of commitment to diversity (β = .378, t(305) = 6.489, p < .001) and perception of change (β = .250, t(307) = 3.316, p = .001) (see Table 27). For perception of commitment, administration commitment to respect for all was also a significant predictor (β = .169, t(305) = 2.882, p = .004). Neither of these variables associated with administrative commitment and vision was related to behavior variables. Of the variables related to university priorities, prioritizing an inclusive environment was positively related to faculty perception of commitment to diversity (β=.252, t(305)=4.286, p < .001) and negatively related to perception of change over time (β = -.206, t(307) = -2.642, p = .009). Prioritizing diversity in student recruitment was positively related to faculty perception of change over time (β = .143, t(307) = 2.045, p = .042). The institutional vitality priority was negatively related to perception of commitment to diversity (β = -.137, t(305) = -2.187, p = .030). For faculty behavior measures, only one of the organizational variables was a significant predictor. Faculty at University 3 taught fewer diversity related courses than faculty at University 2 (β = -.144, t(301) = -2.52, p = .012). Otherwise, there were no differences between the three universities in any of the models and there were no other organizational-level predictors of faculty behavior.

TABLE 26

Significant Organizational Contributors to Staff Measures of Institutionalization

Block	Perception of Commitment	Change	Behavior – Involvement
Organization			
Univ 1 v. Univ 2	pos***		
Univ 3 v. Univ 2	pos***		neg***
Adm Respect	pos***	pos***	
Adm Clear	pos***	pos***	
Prior Fac	neg***		pos*
Prior Envt	pos***		

pos. indicates a positive relationship, neg. indicates a negative relationship
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

TABLE 27

Significant Organizational Contributors to Faculty Measures of Institutionalization

Block	Perception of Commitment	Change	Behavior – Involvement	Course
Organization				
Univ 3 v. Univ 2				neg**
Adm Respect	pos***			
Adm Clear	pos***	pos**		
Prior Institutional Vitality	neg*			
Prior Fac		pos*		
Prior Student Recruitment		pos*		
Prior Envt	pos***	neg**		

pos. indicates a positive relationship, neg. indicates a negative relationship
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

Conclusion

Of the hypotheses tested in this project, two receive mixed support. A clear

vision from university leadership was related to perception of commitment to

diversity and perception of positive change over time, while other organizational-

factors were less consistent predictors of institutionalization. For faculty,

departmental variables were a stronger predictor of behavior than organizational-

level variables, however those departmental variables were not strong predictors for other measures of institutionalization. For staff, the department turned out to be a stronger influence than hypothesized, equally as strong in influence as the organizational variables included in the model. Departmental structural diversity was a mixed predictor of institutionalization.

When the regression models for faculty and staff were compared, in every case, the model for faculty accounted for more variance than the associated staff model. The models accounted for between 32% and 68% of the variance for faculty and between 18% and 53% of the variance for staff. The model was best at predicting perception of commitment to diversity for both groups and predicted involvement in diversity activities with the least accuracy for both groups.

These findings shed light on the theoretical framework developed for this research and suggest areas in need of modification. The finding about strong leadership is consistent with the literature reviewed earlier but the strength of the organizational and departmental blocks for faculty and staff was not predicted. The model of professional bureaucracy used to derive the hypotheses tested here needs to be expanded to include attention to departments for both faculty and staff. Institutional forces related to faculty, as measured through a university's prioritization of faculty hiring and curriculum, had little impact on measures of diversity institutionalization for faculty. However, the academic department where disciplinary institutional forces are arguably at work had a strong influence on faculty behavior. This suggests that there are multiple institutional pressures that

must be accounted for when considering change in higher education. Finally,

departmental structural diversity was only marginally predictive of

institutionalization, encouraging a re-examination of the hypothesis based on

Kanter's (1977) work. The next chapter discusses the findings of this research

within the context of the theoretical frameworks that have guided this study. The

final chapter outlines the implications for practice and research that flow from this

study.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This research has examined the institutionalization of diversity and gender

equity norms and values in higher education settings with particular emphasis on

comparisons between faculty and staff. The findings elaborated in the last chapter

support the hypothesis that leadership would be an important predictor of

institutionalization, but were mixed with relationship to the importance of specific

components of campus initiatives. The hypothesis that organizational variables

would have a stronger influence than other blocks of variables on the measures of

institutionalization for staff was not supported and there was limited support for the

hypothesis that faculty would be influenced most by departmental variables. There

was little support for the hypotheses concerning faculty institutionalized roles and

only partial support for the hypothesis that increased structural diversity at the

department-level would be related to increased institutionalization. Finally,

comparison of faculty and staff models of institutionalization revealed that the

models were a better fit for faculty. Findings from this research have theoretical as

well as practical implications. This chapter will review the findings of this research

related to professional bureaucracies, institutional theory, structural diversity and

the overall faculty and staff models. In each area, the questions and critiques raised

by feminist and multicultural organizational theory will be identified. The next

chapter addresses the implications for research and practice that flow from the findings of this project.

Professional Bureaucracy

Henry Mintzberg (1993) suggests that in professional bureaucracies, professionals, in this case faculty, perform the primary functions of the organization and work mostly independently of administrative oversight. Mintzberg argues that administrators have persuasive power, but little direct influence over the professionals in the organization. For faculty, literature on academic disciplines and departments suggests that the disciplines provide identity for faculty members and have a great deal of influence over faculty attitudes and behaviors, influence that may compete with organizational objectives (Zell, 2003; Silver, 2003; Biglan, 1973a, 1973b). Administrators have more influence in the area of the support staff, which is more hierarchical and traditionally bureaucratic in nature.

The model of professional bureaucracy was tested by examining the influence of the organizational and departmental blocks of variables on the dependent variables for faculty and staff. One hypothesis predicted that, given the hierarchical structure of staff areas, organizational-level variables would make a larger contribution to the measures of institutionalization for staff than department variables. This hypothesis was not supported. For all models, the two blocks contributed similarly to measures of institutionalization for staff. It should be emphasized that the hypothesis was not rejected because the organization-level

variables were unimportant, but because departmental variables were equally as important in understanding staff members' perception of commitment to diversity, perception of positive organizational change and diversity-related behavior.

A second hypothesis predicted that departmental variables would be better predictors of the measures of institutionalization for faculty than organizational-level variables. This hypothesis was partially supported. Departmental variables were more predictive of both measures of faculty behavior, participation in diversity activities and inclusion of diversity and gender related topics in courses, than were organizational-level variables; however the two blocks of variables were equally important when predicting change over time, and organizational-level variables contributed more to the faculty perception of commitment to diversity. For both faculty and staff, administrative vision was predictive of perception of university commitment to diversity and perception of change. Respect for diverse viewpoints and people was predictive of perception of commitment. Neither was predictive of behavior.

These findings together indicate that administrators have an influence over how much diversity commitment staff and faculty perceive from their university and whether staff and faculty perceive that there has been a change in diversity climate over time, but little influence over behavior. This is consistent with findings about the importance of leaders in universities establishing an agenda for the entire organization. The importance of the communication of a clear leadership vision supports previous findings about the role of leadership in higher educational

change initiatives (Newcombe & Conrad, 1981; Hanna, 1988; Hyer, 1985; Bensimon et al., 2004; Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005; Smith & Wolf-Wendel, 2005; Green, 2004). While this finding is consistent with previous research, its strong relationship to both staff and faculty is important to emphasize. When leaders articulate a clear vision for diversity, its impact is not only on staff, but also on faculty in the organization. In this study, the articulation of a leadership vision and organization members' sense that top administrators were committed to inclusion of diverse people had more influence than any specific institutional priority related to diversity.

For staff and faculty in a university, administrators can set the agenda, but have less direct influence over individual behavior. This is consistent with Mintzberg's description of professionals (faculty), but not staff. This suggests that for both faculty and staff, administrators serve the function of articulating a leadership vision, but not dictating how that vision is translated into action. Administrators need to employ mechanisms that allow the overall vision to be translated at the academic as well as staff department level, where there is more influence over behavior. This suggests the need for a multi-layered, multi-leveled leadership approach to transformation.

The importance of the department for both staff and faculty found in this research is something not included in Mintzberg's (1983) model. Mintzberg does note that "the standards of the professional bureaucracy originate largely outside its own structure, in the self-governing associations its operators join with their

colleagues from other professional bureaucracies" (p. 192) and briefly mentions

functional units, such as departments, but does not indicate their importance or

interaction with other parts of the organization. In the case of higher education,

adding the department helps elucidate the model of professional bureaucracies.

Further research is needed to understand the interaction of organizational initiatives

and departments so that a clearer picture of the institutionalization process can

emerge.

The finding about the influence of the department over faculty behavior is

not surprising. As predicted, administrators in organizations of higher education

have little influence over faculty behavior. Faculty attendance at conferences or

events related to diversity, service on committees related to diversity and teaching

courses or including readings in courses related to diversity were all influenced by

departmental variables more than administrative variables, and in the case of

teaching-related behavior, the departmental block had more influence than any

other group of variables. In particular, it is in the behavioral measures where

disciplinary differences are revealed. This is consistent with the wide literature on

academic disciplines (Damrosch, 1995; Latucca & Stark, 1994; Zell, 2003; Biglan,

1973a, 1973b), but it is not clearly specified by Mintzberg's model. Differences

among academic departments need to be taken into account when considering how

an administrative initiative is going to be interpreted and whether it will be

translated into action. Mintzberg suggests the need for administrators to negotiate

with the professionals in the organization, but does not account for differences

among the professionals. In the case of a university, when administrative vision

aligns with disciplinary norms, as appears to be the case in the humanities and

social sciences, then behavior follows. But in other disciplinary arenas, the values

may not align as closely and the administrative initiative is weakened. The

professionals in a professional bureaucracy are not homogeneous, and beyond

adding departments to the structure, differences among departments need to be

factored in to an understanding of how professional bureaucracies operate.

While the findings related to faculty departments are consistent with

literature on academia, the findings relating to staff departments are relatively new.

Mintzberg suggests that "the only other part of a professional bureaucracy that is

fully elaborated is the support staff, but that is focused very much on serving the

operating core" (p. 194). He does not, however, fully elaborate the staff area of the

professional bureaucracy except to say that it operates like a typical hierarchical

bureaucracy. The current research suggests that, similar to faculty, staff

departments play an important role in influencing their members' perception of the

organization and their behavior and is consistent with Mayhew and Grunwald's

(2006) finding that the department was an important contributor to staff climate for

diversity. Mintzberg downplays the role of middle managers in professional

bureaucracies, but the finding about the importance of staff departments raises the

question of the influence of managers in the department particularly in fostering the

perception of departmental support for diversity. It also suggests that just as

faculty departments need to be added to the model of professional bureaucracies,

staff departments must also be added. The finding that the department has an influence over and above that of the organization indicates the need to question whether the staff arena of the university operates as hierarchically as Mintzberg suggests.

Another finding regarding staff departments that parallels the findings for faculty is that staff in different areas of the university behaved differently. Staff in athletics and student affairs were more likely to participate in diversity-related activities than staff in academic affairs. The effect of affiliation was present after accounting for departmental support and other departmental variables. It should not be assumed that department affiliation for staff operates like disciplinary affiliation for faculty; rather that is a question for investigation. There may be uneven access for staff to diversity-related activities across the different areas considered here. There also may be differing norms related to diversity present across the staff areas. Even without the answers to these questions, this finding suggests the need to consider the differences among staff work areas just as differences among academic disciplines must be considered.

These findings taken together suggest that staff and faculty areas of the university are more similar than Mintzberg's initial model of professional bureaucracies suggested. Administrators have indirect influence in both areas, for both faculty and staff the department is an equally important contributor to the perception of university commitment to diversity, and change over time. Finally, for both groups there are differences across departments, so that adding a

departmental layer to the model is not enough. It must be differentiated by academic arena and by staff work area.

This research supports Mintzberg's (1983) emphasis on leadership as important for setting a vision but with little formal power to direct behavior for either staff or faculty. The influence of the administration is to help develop a consistent understanding across the organization of the commitment to diversity, but that commitment is also understood through the departmental lens and behavior is primarily influenced by the department, something Mintzberg hints at for faculty, but does not specify at all for staff. Department support as well as disciplinary or departmental affiliation were influential, particularly for behavior.

<u>Staff Professionals</u>

The finding that staff education level was predictive of behavior points to another area in need of expansion in Mintzberg's model. Staff with a graduate education were more likely than those with a four-year degree to participate in diversity activities. Mintzberg does not distinguish among staff roles or theorize about professionals on the staff side of the organization. He discusses the roles of professional administrators, but indicates that these are deans and vice presidents and managers in the professional (i.e. academic) areas. He does not discuss professionals in the support structure, people Rhoades (2007) calls managerial professionals.

These occupations have many characteristics of professions:

they require advanced education and technical bodies of

knowledge; they have associations and annual conferences,

journals with advanced research in their areas of practice and

codes of ethics. Yet they lack many essential features of the

professional autonomy enjoyed by tenure track faculty

members; their members have neither academic freedom nor

intellectual property rights, for example, as their employment

falls under the category of "work for hire." As a result they are

much more connected to management, and their patterns of

employment are more tied to the patterns of managers than to

those of faculty. (p. 129)

This group has increased in size and importance over the last few decades

of US higher education history (Rhoades, 2007; Duryea, 1991) but has received

little attention (Rhoades, 2007; Somers et. al., 1998). It is important to understand

whether these well-educated staff operate like faculty, seeking autonomy and self-

regulation and finding identity beyond the institution. It is possible that these

professionals are a hybrid group, with characteristics of both faculty and staff.

Student affairs, in particular, is an interesting case because staff in this area are

often professionals and work in parallel to the faculty. They support faculty work

by taking on the outside-of-class needs of students; they also contribute directly to

the goals of student learning in the organization. Mintzberg's model needs to

provide a broader definition for staff employees, including professionals and non-

professionals. Further research needs to identify ways in which staff professionals are like faculty and the key areas in which they differ.

While professionals among staff need further examination, given the diversity goal of being inclusive and creating welcoming environments for all employees, staff members with fewer years of formal education should not be neglected as an area of research. A full understanding of staff will include a broader description of staff professionals and the ways in which they interact with faculty and support the diversity efforts of the organization. It will also include an examination of staff occupying the non-professional roles in the university. Understanding whether these staff have opportunities to participate in diversity activities and how to increase those opportunities is an area for future research. Also, understanding interactions among administrators and staff, both professional and non-professional, will provide a more complete picture for diversity practitioners interested in implementing reforms across the entire organization.

As noted earlier, staff make up half of the employees at most universities and represent more women and ethnic racial minorities than faculty (Li, 2006). Feminist and multicultural lenses point out the need to elevate the staff experience as an important area of inquiry and to question power dynamics within the institution. The link between staff education-level and engagement in diversity activities underscores the power differential between staff and faculty. The more well-educated staff members were able to participate in committees, conferences, trainings and other events. The staff members who most closely resembled faculty

had an advantage that was not available to staff with lower levels of formal

education. This finding points out the importance of paying attention to who has

access to power in the organization. If the goal of the diversity initiative is truly

transformative, then the hierarchical nature of the academy based on years of

formal education must be challenged. Creating avenues for participation for all

university members and facilitating interaction across faculty and staff groups as

well as across education levels would support the end goal of the diversity

initiative.

This research supports the role of the leader and the professionals in a

professional bureaucracy, but also suggests additions to Mintzberg's model.

Administrators have similar types of influence for both staff and faculty, something

contrary to Mintzberg's theory. Departments need to be added to the

organizational diagram for both groups and need further investigation to determine

how they help or hinder the translation of organizational goals as set by

administrators. Further, professionals cannot be treated as a single group. Staff

professionals need to be added to the model and their role specified more clearly.

Staff with lower educational levels need to be examined on their own and in

comparison to staff professionals in order to create a more comprehensive

understanding of their roles in the university.

Competing Institutions

Most literature in education fields that uses institutional theory as a

framework occurs at the level of organization or system and neglects internal

organizational dynamics (Meyer, Ramirez, Frank & Schofer, 2007; Greewood &

Hining, 1996). The current research project helps illuminate and problematize the

institutionalization process within the organization. This research investigated

whether organizational efforts that engaged faculty members' institutionalized roles

would be related to increased levels of institutionalization. Specifically, the

hypothesis predicted that when universities prioritized faculty hiring and equity and

prioritized curriculum issues, institutionalization for faculty members would be

higher. This hypothesis was only marginally supported. When universities

prioritized faculty recruitment and climate, faculty perceived more commitment to

diversity from the university. Prioritization of faculty hiring and climate did not

predict faculty perception of change nor did it predict a faculty members' behavior.

Administrative prioritization of diversity in the curriculum was not a significant

predictor in any of the models developed for this research.

While this hypothesis was not fully supported, it is not appropriate to

conclude that institutionalization processes are not at work. It indicates that

organizational-level emphasis on faculty institutionalized roles did not have much

of an effect on faculty, but there are several reasons that finding may have

occurred.

First, it is possible that the universities under examination here have not

prioritized faculty hiring or curricular issues as part of their diversity efforts or that

the emphasis on these initiatives was long enough ago that it is not currently

perceived as an administrative priority. If this is the case, there would be little

variation on the independent variable and thus little opportunity to observe an effect.

A second explanation is derived from the lens of institutional theory. It is possible that the organization engages in a number of diversity activities which do not translate into institutionalized values among organization members. This would be the case of an organization that is perceived as not "walking the talk." While it is not possible to test this explanation with the current data, it is appropriate to consider it. Public universities exist in complex environments that include pressures to address issues of diversity (Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005; Kezar, 2008; Smith & Schoenfeld, 2005). Institutional theory predicts that organizations will respond to such pressure in ways that maintain their legitimacy (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Scott, 2001). In this case, universities may engage in diversity initiatives that include faculty hiring and curricular initiatives because those are normatively accepted activities associated with diversity initiatives in the larger higher education arena. These organizational efforts may not be effective at influencing the values of the organization for a number of reasons. Meyer and colleagues (2007) point out that institutional pressures on organizations can lead to the adoption of legitimized routines without enough attention to local conditions. They note, "it is often more important to embody exogenously legitimated proprieties than it is to adapt these forms to local possibilities and demands" (p. 142). A curricular or hiring initiative may be undertaken by administrators without

enough attention to the way such decisions are usually made by the actual institution in which the initiative resides.

Still another explanation, for which there is initial support here, is that there are competing institutional processes at work. Universities' complex environments contain overlapping institutions. Universities in the United States feel pressure to address diversity from national organizations (Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005), from industry groups (Slaughter, 2004; Carnevale, 1999) and through government regulation (Rai & Critzer, 2000; Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005). Further, as some universities are rewarded for their adoption and implementation of diversity initiatives, other universities will seek to replicate that legitimized behavior (Morphew & Huisman, 2002). These are the exogenous pressures on administrators to engage in diversity initiatives. Administrators then translate this pressure into organizational goals and initiatives. Within the institution, administrators may put pressure on academic departments to hire a more diverse faculty, adopt a more inclusive curriculum or to engage in research that accounts for a wider range of perspectives.

These, however, are not the only institutional pressures being felt by faculty. The disciplinary influence on behavior found in this research supports an interpretation of a second set of institutional pressures on faculty. Academic disciplines also represent institutional pressures, influencing faculty norms and values around their core functions of teaching and research (Silver, 2003;

Walvoord, 2002). The findings from this research indicate that the influence of the

discipline is the stronger institutionalizing force for individual faculty.

The different institutional arenas in which an organization operates can and

do provide conflicting values and norms and make it difficult to operate (Scott,

2001; Meyer & Rowan, 1977). The organizational-level initiative that attempts to

embed the values and norms for diversity in the university bumps up against the

disciplinary norms that in some disciplines may run counter to the organizational

initiative. Neilsen and Abromeit (1993) specifically address this when they

research the integration of a women's studies curriculum across disciplines. They

find that disciplinary effects were strong even after controlling for other variables,

with positivist disciplines, such as the sciences, less likely to have adopted feminist

approaches in their courses, a finding echoed in the current research. They argue

that an understanding of curriculum transformation is not complete unless

disciplinary differences are taken into account. The findings from this research

suggest that an understanding of the institutionalization of diversity and gender

equity values is not complete without taking disciplinary differences into account.

Beyond these findings regarding competing institutions in the academic

arena of the university, feminist and multicultural approaches raise questions about

how gender and race may act as institutional forces on the university. Nkomo

(1992) suggests the need for organizational theory to "focus attention on

understanding how organizations have become racially constructed, the power

dynamics that sustain racial divisions and racial domination" (p. 427). And Acker

(1990, 1992) encourages an analysis of organizations as gendered. These perspectives prompt the addition of race and gender to the other institutions under consideration for this research and to consider their influence throughout the organizational structure. For example, all of the staff roles examined here function to support faculty and many fall into traditionally feminine arenas. Care for students, clerical work and cleaning are all examples of jobs that are associated with female roles. These support roles have less attention paid to them and as suggested in the other theoretical frameworks used in this research, the people who inhabit these roles have less power in the organization than do faculty and administrators. It is particularly problematic that these are the roles that women and people of color predominantly occupy. The societal values and expectations associated with gender and race are also institutional pressures at work on university organizations and add a third set of values to consider when engaging in diversity work.

The hypothesis derived from institutional theory was not supported, however, the findings from this research point to the complicated process of institutionalization that occurs within an organization and the existence and conflicting influences of multiple institutions. For universities, institutional pressures include those on administrators, those at work on faculty through the discipline, and those associated with dominant expectations related to gender and race. An appreciation of these overlapping institutional pressures can help

illuminate the multiple value systems in play when considering change in a higher education context.

Structural Diversity

Kanter (1977) observed that the more women that were employed in an organization, the less often the women were subjected to stereotypes and discrimination. Scholars studying racial and ethnic diversity in higher education have also emphasized the importance of structural diversity for faculy (Smith & Schoenfeld, 2000; Aguirre, 2000) and students (Hurtado, 1992; Smith & Wolf-Wendel, 2005). This research predicted that greater gender and ethnic/racial minority representation in a staff or faculty member's department would be associated with higher levels of all measures of institutionalization. This hypothesis was only marginally supported. A department's racial make up was not a significant predictor in any of the models developed for this research and the gender representation of a department was only associated with institutionalization in two faculty models and one staff model.

The finding that racial representation in the department was not related to institutionalization may have occurred because for the faculty and staff in the universities under study here, the racial/ethnic composition of the immediate workplace does not have an influence on their perception of the university or on their behavior. This finding is consistent with Grunwald and Dey's (2006) findings regarding influence of departmental structural diversity on staff climate for diversity.

Another explanation relates to the prevalence of structural diversity in this data set, particularly for faculty. In the case of faculty, most of the departments were predominantly white. It may be that there was not enough variation among departments to detect an effect for this variable.

A third explanation is that the structural diversity of the university, something not captured here, is more important than the structural diversity of a given department. Hurtado (1992) and Fox (2005) note the support that members of minority groups can receive from each other across complex organizations. It may be important that a "critical mass" of employees of color or women exist across the organization and not in a specific department. Adding a measure of the overall structural diversity of the faculty and staff at a university to the model would address this issue in the future.

The gender distribution of the department was significant in three of the models developed here, but only performed in predicted ways for two of the three models. Specifically, faculty who worked in gender-balanced departments perceived greater commitment to diversity from the university than faculty who worked in predominantly male departments. Also, staff who worked in gender-balanced departments perceived greater change over time when compared to staff who worked in male dominated departments.

The finding that does not follow predicted patterns is that faculty who work in gender-balanced departments were less likely than those in male-dominated departments to teach diversity-related courses or include diversity-related readings

in courses. This may be a result of departmental differences not captured in the model as it was developed. In the model, social sciences are used as the comparison group for all other disciplines. This does not allow for comparisons among the other disciplines. It may also be the case that faculty who work in gender-balanced departments perceive less urgency to address gender-related issues in their courses because their own workplace has reached numerical parity.

The different effects of the racial/ethnic and gender distributions in the department suggest that it is important to treat the racial and gender make up of a department as different phenomena. In this study, gender distribution was a more salient characteristic of the department than racial or ethnic distribution. It may be that few departments under examination here have enough faculty or staff of color to have moved past the 'token' phase (Kanter, 1977) and so the effect is not evident whereas more departments have greater gender representation and thus that has an influence on perception of commitment and change.

These results should be interpreted with caution because the gender-diversity of a department had different effects for faculty and staff, not contributing to the same models in the same ways and because it had a negative effect on faculty behavior. While other aspects of the department seem relevant and important to a model predicting institutionalization, the structural diversity of a department may need more careful examination. An alternative measure of departmental structural diversity might make a difference. The current research project asked respondents to report whether their department was predominantly white, equal white and

minority, or predominantly minority and asked a similar set of questions for gender. The actual gender and racial representation in the departments under study was not collected. In the future, an actual measure of structural diversity would allow for a more confident interpretation of these results. Finally, adding a measure of overall university structural diversity would help tease out the effects of structural diversity.

Comparison of Overall Models for Faculty and Staff

A key question this research addressed was how well the hypothesized models represented the process of institutionalization for faculty and staff. Given the dearth of literature on diversity climate and experience for staff, the model used in this research was developed based on general research related to change in university settings and on the literature related to faculty. The variance accounted for in each model revealed how well the models predicted institutionalization. For each dependent variable, the faculty model accounted for a greater proportion of variance than the staff models. In the case of perception of university commitment to diversity, the difference was 15%; for change it was 17%; and for behavior it was 14%. This indicates that the model developed using literature related to faculty does not fit staff as well. There are contributors to staff measures of institutionalization that these models are not capturing.

Something this research did not capture fully was the variety of functions performed by staff at a university. Faculty engage in similar behaviors across departments and these behaviors, teaching and research, can be included in the

model. Staff work is much more varied. This research included accountants, librarians, academic advisors, and athletic coaches, among others. It is difficult to identify common elements of staff members' work activities to include in the model. Including other variables that capture staff members' job experience would be valuable in future research efforts. Adding job categories, such as those used by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), would capture broad job duties, such as clerical, maintenance, or professional jobs and allow researchers to look for similarities that may exist for staff holding particular types of jobs. Also, capturing some measure of professionalism would help expand and improve the model. Understanding which staff identify with their professions in ways similar to faculty would help expand the understanding of staff and have implications for the implementation of diversity initiatives.

Before turning to a discussion of the specific significant variables in each model, it is helpful to revisit the contribution of each block of independent variables to the models developed for this research. Figure 2 presents the contributors to perception of commitment to diversity for faculty and staff. For each group, the block of individual-level was the least helpful in explaining perception of commitment to diversity. For staff, the departmental and organizational blocks were equal contributors to the model, whereas for faculty, the organizational block was the largest contributor to the model.

Figure 2. Influence of Blocks of Independent Variables on Perception of
Commitment to Diversity for Faculty and Staff

*Note: This figure is a visual representation of the contribution of each block of independent
variables to the explanation of the dependent variable. The solidity of the line indicates the level of
contribution as reflected in the R^2 change for that block of variables. The solidity of the line shows
which block made a greater contribution and does not reflect the precise contribution of the specific
blocks.*

The contribution of each block of variables to perception of positive change

over time was similar to their contributions in the model predicting perception of

commitment to diversity. Again, individual-level variables were the least helpful in

predicting perception of positive change over time. For both faculty and staff,

organizational-level variables and departmental-level variables were equal

contributors to predicting perception of change over time.

As discussed in relationship to Mintzberg's (1983) model of professional

bureaucracies, these findings underscore the importance of both organizational and

departmental influences when trying to understand how faculty and staff come to

understand that their university is committed to diversity and that is has become

more welcoming over time. While the significant variables in each block differ

somewhat for faculty and staff (see discussion below), these findings suggest that

there are similar mechanisms for institutionalization at work for staff and faculty

and that the department needs to be considered as an integral part of any diversity

effort.

Figure 3. Influence of Blocks of Independent Variables on Perception of Positive
Change Over Time for Faculty and Staff

*Note: This figure is a visual representation of the contribution of each block of independent
variables to the explanation of the dependent variable. The solidity of the line indicates the level of
contribution as reflected in the R^2 change for that block of variables. The solidity of the line shows
which block made a greater contribution and does not reflect the precise contribution of the specific
blocks.*

Figures 4 and 5 reflect the contribution of the blocks of independent

variables to the prediction of the behavior measures used in this research. For

faculty, these are the areas where the influence of the department and individual-

level characteristics are the strongest. For both measures of faculty behavior,

individual and departmental blocks of variables were larger contributors to the

models than were organizational variables. For staff, none of the blocks of

variables in the model were strong contributors to the explanation of behavior.

Figure 4. Influence of Blocks of Independent Variables on Behavior – Involvement
in Diversity Activities for Faculty and Staff
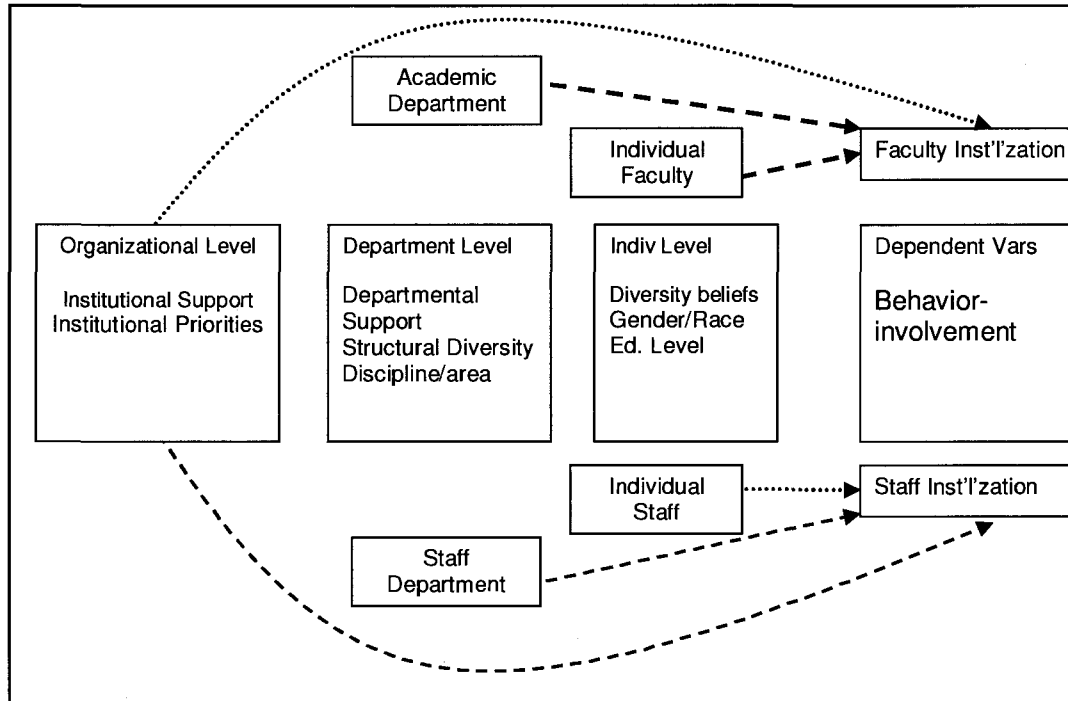
Note: This figure is a visual representation of the contribution of each block of independent
variables to the explanation of the dependent variable. The solidity of the line indicates the level of
contribution as reflected in the R^2 change for that block of variables. The solidity of the line shows
which block made a greater contribution and does not reflect the precise contribution of the specific
blocks.

Figure 5. Influence of Blocks of Independent Variables on Behavior – Inclusion of Diversity in Courses for Faculty
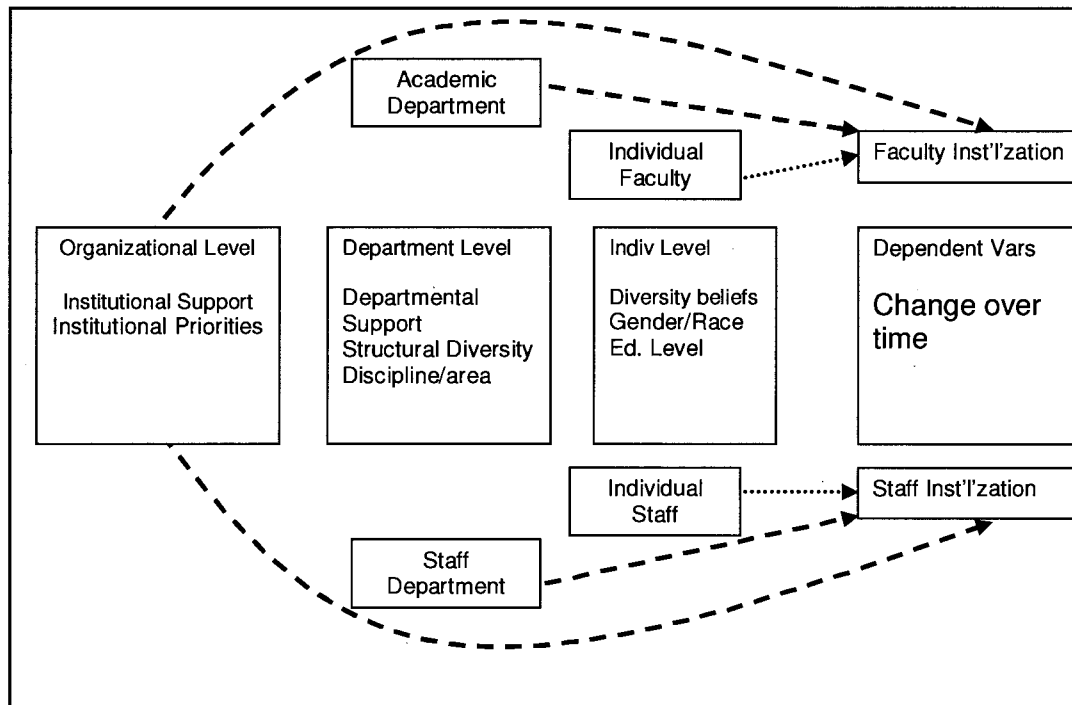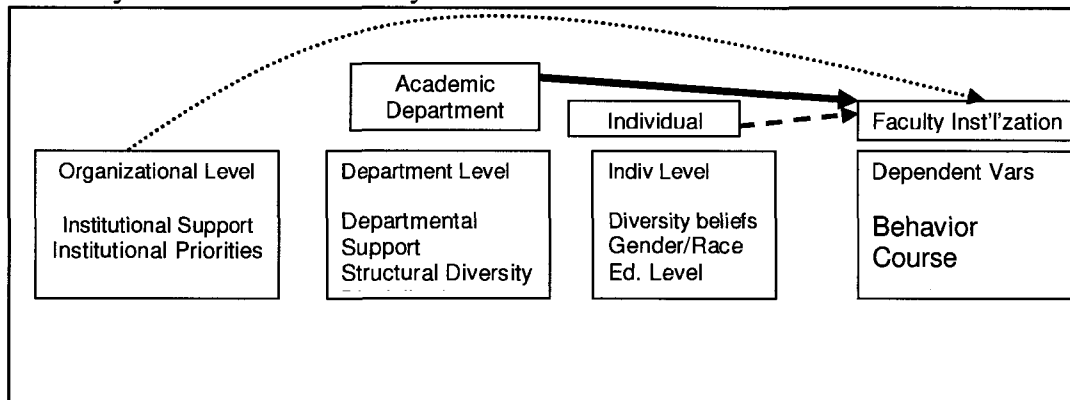

Note: This figure is a visual representation of the contribution of each block of independent variables to the explanation of the dependent variable. The solidity of the line indicates the level of contribution as reflected in the R^2 change for that block of variables. The solidity of the line shows which block made a greater contribution and does not reflect the precise contribution of the specific blocks.

For faculty, the block of department-level variables was a strong contributor to the explanation of all of the dependent variables and was particularly useful in predicting behavior. The next section will discuss the specific departmental variables that contributed to each model, but examining the overall model highlights the importance of the department for faculty regardless of the measure of institutionalization under consideration. For faculty, the department cannot be neglected as a mechanism through which change can occur.

In none of the models for staff was the block of individual-level variables a strong contributor. Even for behavior, where that block was a stronger predictor for faculty, individual characteristics did not make a strong contribution to the explanation of staff behavior. Where faculty have the flexibility to engage in

behaviors and activities that may reflect the expression of their individual

characteristics, it appears that staff do not enjoy the same luxury.

Organizational-level factors

One of the propositions that this research tested was that activities

associated with change models and successful diversity initiatives would have a

positive relationship with institutionalization for both faculty and staff. This

hypothesis was tested by examining the impact of leadership commitment and

priorities related to Smith et. al.'s (1997) framework for diversity initiatives

including the prioritization of faculty, overall operations related to diversity,

creating a welcoming environment, and recruiting diverse students on the measures

of institutionalization used here.

The strongest finding associated with this prediction was that leadership, as

measured by support for diverse views and people and the communication of a

clear vision, is positively related to perception of commitment to diversity and

perception of change over time for both staff and faculty. This is consistent with

findings in previous literature on diversity initiatives. Strong leadership was

evident in all of the case studies of change reviewed for this project (Peterson et.

al., 1978; Newcombe & Conrad, 1981; Hyer, 1985; Hanna, 1988) and leadership is

consistently cited as an important for diversity initiatives and for change in

institutions of higher education (Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005; Smith &

Wolf-Wendel, 2005). This finding indicates that campus leaders' consistent vision

can have a broad impact on staff and faculty understanding of the university's

commitment to diversity, an effect present even after other influences have been taken into account.

Leadership measures had no direct influence on behavior for staff or faculty. A leader's support for diversity did not translate into participation in diversity related activities for staff or faculty and did not have an impact on whether faculty included diversity topics in courses. It may be the case that a leader's influence on behavior is indirect. The influence of a leader's vision on behavior may be mediated by the staff or faculty member's understanding that the institution is committed to diversity. That is, when a leader communicates commitment, the staff or faculty person may perceive more acceptance of diversity at the institution and then engage in diversity-related activities.

Another possibility is that the perception of commitment to diversity and behavior are not related and that other factors affect a person's behavior. For staff, opportunities to participate in diversity activities may be limited, so that regardless of a leader's vision, they do not engage in diversity-related activities. For example, staff respondents in this study were more likely than faculty to indicate that they had not had an opportunity to participate in the behaviors under question. Perhaps staff would participate more if they had more opportunity, something not specifically affected by a leader's vision. Longerbeam and her colleagues (2005) found that staff were frustrated with the lack of opportunities for training and to participate in diversity activities. Sommers et. al. (1998) echo that when they argue that staff have fewer professional development opportunities than faculty.

For faculty, behavior is an area in which disciplinary norms play out most prominently. The department was a particularly strong predictor of behavior for faculty. Despite the leader's public expression of commitment to diversity, the faculty members were influenced by their respective disciplines. This is consistent with the literature on academic disciplines and the assertion that the discipline is a strong influence related to pedagogy and other behavior (Damrosch, 1995; Walvoord et al., 2000).

The findings about the influence of specific components of diversity initiatives, such as faculty hiring initiatives, campus climate initiatives and efforts to integrate diversity concerns into the overall planning processes of the university were less straightforward. Using Smith et. al's (1997) framework as a guide, variables were developed relating to four dimensions of diversity initiatives. The dimension of access and success was represented by a variable measuring the prioritization of recruiting diverse students. The dimension of education and scholarship was captured by a variable related to the prioritization of curricular initiatives. Neither of those dimensions were significant in any model. The campus climate dimension was related to the prioritization of creating an inclusive environment. When a university prioritized creating a welcoming environment, that translated into an understanding for both staff and faculty that the university was committed to diversity. However, it was negatively related to a faculty member's perception that the institution has changed to become more welcoming over time. Smith et. al.'s dimension called institutional viability and vitality was

related to the prioritization of diversity among administrators and the incorporation of diversity into overall campus operations. That dimension was negatively related to faculty perception of university commitment to diversity. Because the items making up the institutional vitality scale were, in part, related to increasing diversity among administrators, faculty may interpret that negatively and that may translate into a negative perception of university commitment to diversity.

This research also included university priorities related to faculty hiring and climate and staff hiring and climate. The prioritization of staff hiring and climate was not related to any measure of institutionalization. However, the prioritization of faculty hiring and equity was positively related to staff behavior, negatively related to staff perception of commitment to diversity and positively related to faculty perception of change over time. An emphasis on faculty might make staff members perceive that the institution is less committed to their well being and that could translate into negative evaluation of the university's commitment to diversity. On the other hand, a focus on faculty diversity might be accompanied by additional diversity events on campus and translate into increased staff participation in diversity initiatives. Faculty perceived commitment to diversity when the university prioritized faculty hiring and climate.

The overall interpretation of these findings regarding organizational initiatives is that they have different impacts on faculty and staff. Organizational initiatives were interpreted differently by different groups on campus and resulted in negative feelings by one and positive feelings by another. Williams, Berger and

McClendon (2005) note that on university campuses, an event and its meaning may be somewhat loosely connected and different groups may interpret the same event, policy, or initiative differently. They point out that this is a particular area of concern for diversity initiatives because of the multiple definitions of diversity and the deeply held values that people may have that are connected to diverse identities such as race, gender or religious affiliation. While this may be unavoidable, it is important to understand that the initiatives are not being interpreted the same way by faculty and staff.

The findings about specific components of diversity initiatives need to be interpreted with care. The respondents were asked about their perception of campus priorities and those perceptions were used to predict institutionalization. While it is important to study how the campus community understands the university's priorities, this study did not measure those priorities directly. It is not possible to say whether actual initiatives were related to institutionalization. Rather the argument here is that staff and faculty perception of various campus initiatives has an influence on their understanding of the university's commitment to diversity, the extent of positive change over time and behavior. Further research should undertake to measure the actual activity on campus and relate it to levels of institutionalization.

At the organizational level, the important factors related to faculty and staff institutionalization were very similar. For both faculty and staff it was important that the administration was committed to diversity and communicated a clear vision

for diversity. This finding mirrors other research on change (Bensimon et al., 2004; Smith & Wolf-Wendel, 2005; Green, 2004). Leadership was extremely important. It was not enough that leaders were committed, they must communicate that commitment through a vision for diversity. When administrators were clear and supportive, both faculty and staff understood that the norms of the institution support diversity. Leaders, however, were limited in their direct influence on individual behavior. Organizational-level variables had less influence on behavior than other variables and in the case of faculty course-related behavior, they had no influence. Beyond leadership, the specific initiatives undertaken at the universities did not have a consistent impact in this research. Some, such as curricular initiatives, had no impact, some were perceived differently by the two groups, some had differing affects within groups.

Department-level factors

As highlighted in the discussion on professional bureaucracy, at the department-level, departmental support for diversity was critical to both faculty and staff perception of commitment to diversity and perception of change. This finding indicates that even after accounting for the influence of committed university leadership, a staff or faculty member's department had a significant influence on their perception of university commitment to diversity and change. When a person's immediate work environment was supportive of diversity, the person perceived the workplace to be supportive of norms related to diversity.

Departmental affiliation for staff and academic discipline for faculty were not predictors of perception of commitment to diversity or change for either group, with one exception. Staff in student affairs perceived more change than staff in academic affairs. This lack of differences among academic departments is somewhat surprising given the literature that emphasizes the differences among academic disciplines (Gumport & Snydman 2002). It may be that by capturing and controlling for departmental support for diversity the differences among departments are minimized.

The influence of specific departments was seen in the behavior models for both staff and faculty. Belonging to an academic discipline or a specific staff area made a difference when predicting a person's behavior. The literature on disciplinary differences helps explain this finding for faculty (Gumport & Snydman 2002; Damrosch, 1995; Silver, 2003). There is little literature about differences in work area on the staff side of the university. Mayhew and Grunwald (2006) found similar differences for staff in their study, but there is little theoretical work that helps explain this finding. Staff in student affairs may perceive more change over time and participate in more diversity activities because they are key agents in carrying out the university's diversity efforts. Student affairs practitioners are involved in recruiting diverse students to campus and supporting multicultural centers and student clubs (Fox, 2005; Longerbeam et. al., 2005). With this emphasis it makes sense that they would perceive more change and participate in more diversity activities. Also, staff in this area had higher levels of education than

staff in academic affairs, with whom they were compared. The finding that staff

who work in athletics participate in more diversity activities than staff employed in

academic affairs is more difficult to explain, but staff in student affairs and athletics

may have more flexibility in their schedules to participate in diversity committees

and events. Many staff members in academic affairs, with whom other groups

were compared, provide administrative support to academic departments and may

not have the job flexibility to leave their work to attend meetings and events.

Future research should take up the question of what the relevant differences are

among staff areas in the university that result in the differences in participation.

For both faculty and staff, departmental support for diversity was positively

related to perception of commitment to diversity on campus and the department had

a strong relationship with behavior for both groups, beyond the influence of

leadership or other organizational-level initiatives. While the literature on diversity

initiatives often focuses on organizational-level efforts, the findings from the

current research suggest the need to include strategies for encouraging support

among departments as well. The findings also point out that there are differences

across organizational units in the university for both faculty and staff that need to

be accommodated in both theory and practice.

Individual-level factors

At the level of the individual faculty or staff member, considering both

demographic and professional variables, there were more significant indicators for

faculty than for staff. A faculty member's age, race, gender, diversity attitude, and

union and tenure status were all significant in at least one of the models. For faculty, individual-level variables accounted for more variance in the behavior models than in the other models, but in all models accounted for more variance than in the comparable staff models. For staff, race, educational-level, and length of employment were the only significant predictors in any of the models. At the individual level, it appears that faculty had more room for personal expression than staff. More individual-level variables were significant for faculty and those individual-level factors explained more of the variance in each model for faculty than for staff. In particular, individual-level factors had an impact on faculty behavior. Given that faculty have control of their courses and have the flexibility to participate in diversity activities, it makes sense that individual differences among faculty would be more easily detected than among staff. Rather than assuming that there are not differences among staff based on individual-level variables, researchers should look at the structure of staff jobs and examine the level of flexibility available for participation in diversity activities.

Because this research is specifically concerned with diversity, it is important to examine whether individuals experience the university differently based on their gender or race/ethnicity. Gender and race were included as variables in all models developed for this research and one of the first steps in this research was to test for interaction effects between race and gender. After discussing the results of the test for a gender X race interaction, this section will examine the effects of gender and race in the regression models.

Prior to conducting the regression analyses for this research, a series of ANOVAs were conducted to determine whether or not to enter a gender X race interaction term into the overall model. A series of 2 X 2 ANOVAs were conducted for faculty and staff for each dependent variable (See Tables 12-18). The findings revealed that the gender X race interaction was not significant for any of the dependent variables. This finding does not mean that white women and women of color have the same experiences at these universities. It indicates that for the set of measures under examination here, there were not additional statistical differences that were accounted for by combining race and gender.

The main finding of the ANOVA analyses was confirmed by the regression analyses. For this set of analyses, race was a more important predictor of the dependent variables than gender. Gender was significant predictor for faculty behavior such that women were more likely to engage in general diversity activities than men and were more likely to include diversity related topics in courses. Gender was not a significant predictor in any of the staff models, which stands in contrast to other literature reviewed for this project (Bronstein & Farnsworth, 1998; Rosser, 2004). For faculty, the finding about course behavior was consistent with other literature in this area (Mayhew & Grunwald, 2006). Even after accounting for other individual-level variables and organizational and departmental variables, women were more likely than men to participate in diversity activities and to include topics related to diversity and gender in courses.

The lack of influence of gender for staff and for faculty perception of commitment and change has several possible explanations. First, it is possible that in these universities, there has been enough progress for women that gender is a less salient identity when considering diversity issues. Rai and Critzer (2000) suggest that white women have been the primary beneficiaries of affirmative action in the academy. Perhaps there has been enough benefit at these institutions that perceptions for women and men don't differ appreciably. Another explanation is that there are few overt examples of discrimination based on gender at these institutions which would contribute to this finding. Still another possibility suggested by Acker's (1990) theory of gendered organizations is that the experience of racial discrimination or differences based on race is more broadly understood at these universities whereas the effects of gender are less evident because they are embedded as part of the organizational structure of the university. Acker suggests that gender expectations are a part of particular job categories and that feminized jobs are often undervalued or expected to support jobs that are seen as masculine. It may be that women occupy such feminized roles in the university but do not perceive the roles as gendered.

In contrast to the limited effect of gender, race was a significant predictor in all of the staff models and all but one faculty model. Staff of color were less likely to perceive that their institutions were committed to diversity and were more likely to perceive positive change over time and to participate in diversity related activities than their white colleagues. Faculty of color were less likely to perceive

that the institution was committed to diversity, less likely to perceive positive change over time and more likely to engage in diversity activities and to include diversity and gender-related topics in courses than white faculty. These findings are also consistent with research regarding race in organizations (Aguirre, 2000). Given the research that documents minority faculty lack of fit (Aguirre, 2000), institutional racism (Turner & Meyers, 2000; Menges & Exum, 1983), and bias in hiring and promotion processes (Turner & Meyers, 2000; Blackwell, 1996), it is not surprising that faculty of color would perceive less university commitment to diversity. Staff of color may experience a similar lack of fit with the university. While faculty of color perceived less change over time, minority staff perceived more change over time than white staff. The questions dealing with change on the survey asked about change over the last five years. It may be that efforts focusing on faculty have been in place longer than five years so that the change for faculty is less noticeable than for staff.

These findings about individual differences, even after accounting for departmental and organizational commitment, reveal that there is still work to do to create environments that are welcoming for all groups. This serves as a reminder to diversity administrators that even if there is a consistent vision from campus leadership and departments are supportive, that individuals in the university will interpret those efforts differently. It also reminds diversity practitioners of the particular salience of race and the need to continue to attend to race and the racial climate on campus.

TABLE 28

Significant Contributors to Staff Measures of Institutionalization – Overall Summary

Block	Perception of Commitment	Change	Behavior
Demographic (1)			
Minority v. white	neg***	pos*	pos*
Grad school v. 4 yr			pos***
Professional (2)			
Length of employment		pos*	
Department (3)			
Support	pos***	pos***	
=Gender v. More Men		pos*	
Student Affairs v. Ac Affairs		pos***	pos***
Athletics v. Ac Affairs			pos***
Organization (4)			
Univ 1 v. Univ 2	pos***		
Univ 3 v. Univ 2	pos***		neg***
Adm Respect	pos***	pos***	
Adm Clear	pos***	pos***	
Prior Fac	neg***		pos*
Prior Envt	pos***		

pos. indicates a positive relationship, neg. indicates a negative relationship
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

TABLE 29

Significant Contributors to Faculty Measures of Institutionalization – Overall Summary

	Perception of Commitment	Change	Behavior	Course
Demographic (1)				
Minority v. white	neg***		pos**	pos***
Women v. Men			neg***	pos***
Age	neg**			
Professional (2)				
Diversity attitude			neg***	neg***
Non-union v. Union				neg***
Not on track v. Tenured			neg*	
Department (3)				
Support	pos***	pos***		
=Gender v. More Men	pos*			neg*
Engineering v. Social Science			neg**	neg***
Professional v. Social Science				neg***

Science v. Social Science			neg**	neg***
Humanities v. Social Science				pos**
Organization (4)				
Univ 3 v. Univ 2				neg**
Adm Respect	pos***			
Adm Clear	pos***	pos**		
Prior Institutional Vitality	neg*			
Prior Fac		pos*		
Prior Student Recruitment		pos*		
Prior Envt	pos***	neg**		

pos. indicates a positive relationship, neg. indicates a negative relationship
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

While some older models related to change in a university focused on

indicators at the organizational level (Newcombe & Conrad, 1981; Hanna, 1988;

Hyer, 1985) and some diversity climate studies have added individual level

variables to the mix (Mayhew, Grunwald & Dey, 2006; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002),

few researchers have developed models that include variables at all three levels. In

the current study not all variables at each level were significant predictors in the

models but it is evident that it is important to include variables at each level when

considering measures of faculty and staff institutionalization. This is an important

reminder of the complexity of people's understanding and enactment of diversity.

While diversity efforts may primarily take place at the organizational level, and

commitment and prioritization from the administration is important, departmental

support is also a crucial factor and there are individual-level characteristics that

have an influence as well. When attempting to create strong norms and encourage

behavior in support of diversity, it important for administrators to communicate

clear commitment to diversity, but they must also engage both faculty and staff

departments and then understand that these efforts will still be interpreted differently by different individuals. It is clear from this research that the current model fit faculty better than staff. A more complete examination of staff institutionalization would include additional factors such as job category and measures of professionalism.

Measurement

In this research institutionalization was operationalized through measures of perception of university commitment to diversity, perception of change over time, and behavior. The three measures taken together reveal some interesting things. First, the measure of perception of university commitment to diversity seems to capture organization members' understanding of normative institutionalization. While this study was not attempting to create a new measure, the strength of the relationships among the items for this scale indicates that the instrument will be useful in further research. It would be important to test it at different types of institutions and with broad groups of faculty and staff, but its performance here indicates that it may be a useful addition to the literature on institutionalization within organizations.

A second observation about this research is that the relationships among the three dependent variables were not tested as part of this project. They were taken to represent three important but separate components of institutionalization. The predictors for the three variables were not the same. In particular, predictors for behavior variables were very different than for the other two measures. There were

more individual and professional predictors of behavior than the other two measures, particularly for faculty. There may be mediating effects among the dependent variables that were not tested here or there may just be different influences on behavior and perception. Further research should specify the relationship among the dependent variables in order to more fully describe the institutionalization process.

This research also has implications for the definitions of institutionalization that are used in higher education research. Although most articles reviewed here that were examining institutionalization were not specifically using institutional theory as a framework, the differences among definitions is somewhat problematic. Rather than using institutionalization as a generic term, it is important that researchers specify normative, structural or cognitive institutionalization as a focus of their research so that more specific models and a more complete understanding of intra-organizational institutionalization can be developed.

Limitations

The study design presented here will add depth and breadth to the current understanding of university organizations and the ways in which diversity and equity norms and values are institutionalized. It is not, however, without limitations. Because universities were not sampled randomly, it is not possible to generalize broadly from these findings. Rather, these findings resulted from testing the hypotheses developed based on the theoretical framework and generalize to theory (Firestone, 1993; Yin, 1994).

Another limitation is that because these data were nested, people within departments within universities, they violated the assumption of independence of observation (Snijders & Bosker, 1999). The individuals under investigation were not randomly selected for participation; they were members of pre-existing groups. The theoretically developed block regression model provided a way to capture the multiple levels of the organization in a manageable way and served the purposes of this research which is in an exploratory stage. In the future, creating a hierarchical linear model would account for variability at each level of nesting and allow for the examination of group-level effects while controlling for individual-level variance (Snijders & Bosker, 1999). The data requirements for conducting hierarchical linear modeling were prohibitive for the current project, but could be undertaken in a future iteration of this research.

This research treated faculty and staff as separate groups for the purposes of building statistical models. These models were not tested to determine whether they were significantly different. However, because this part of the study is somewhat exploratory, determining that the models were different was a first step toward more rigorous investigation in the future.

The use of perception of university commitment to diversity as a dependent variable is useful in that it captures university members' understanding of the normative organizational environment related to diversity. This research did not address whether those norms translated into behavior at the organizational or individual level. This research took a key first step in determining that perception

of commitment to diversity as an aspect of normative institutionalization could be measured. However, connecting that perception to actual organizational behavior would be important in the future.

A related issue is that the individual behavior captured in this research was participation in diversity committees or attendance at diversity events, behaviors that may not fully capture the way in which institutionalized diversity values are expressed. On the survey for this research, respondents were asked whether they had interrupted language or jokes that included gender or racial stereotypes or stayed silent while they heard such stereotypes. When those data were analyzed, they did not form a single scale; rather, they formed two scales. This was problematic given the number of other analyses already being conducted. Also, this type of individual behavior is something that may result from organizational norms around diversity, but is also related to a complex literature on individual motivation that was outside the scope of the current project. A decision was made to focus on behaviors directly related to university diversity initiatives.

A final limitation of this research is that it was not longitudinal. This research design was cross-sectional (Singleton & Straits, 1999). That is "data on a sample or 'cross section' of respondents chosen to represent a particular target population are gathered at essentially one point in time" (p. 247) The independent variables were not examined in relationship to change in the dependent variable over time. Konrad and Linnehan (1995) note this as a weakness of their research comparing institutional initiatives to gender and racial representation within the

institution. While it did not completely substitute for a longitudinal investigation, the question about the change in institutional values over time served as a proxy measure.

Conclusion

This research reveals findings that are important theoretically as well as for administrators and others involved in diversity initiatives who are interested in moving diversity initiatives toward the point of normative institutionalization. A clear, strong message about the importance of diversity is important for both faculty and staff. While this may seem like common sense, it bears repeating. It is not enough to engage in activity, it is important to communicate a clear consistent vision. Other diversity activities, however, are likely to be interpreted differently by faculty and staff. Additionally, departments must be enlisted in diversity efforts. While this has consistently been shown for faculty, the importance of the department to staff has not been fully examined and the department has not been an important component of the professional bureaucracy model. Adding departments for both faculty and staff will expand and enrich an understanding of professional bureaucracies. Another important addition to the model of professional bureaucracy is the role of the staff professional, staff members with advanced education who may have the flexibility to behave like faculty. That finding also raises the question about who is encouraged and allowed to participate in diversity activities and suggests the need to pay specific attention to staff members who do not have advanced levels of education. Specific university initiatives, even those

related to institutionalized roles for faculty, had a mixed influence on the measures

of institutionalization for faculty. A framework that attends to multiple

institutional forces affecting diversity institutionalization helps reveal the

challenges to such institutionalization and the multiple value systems at work

within universities. Including gender and race among the institutional forces

allows for an examination of existing power structures and embedded values. The

comparison of staff and faculty models for diversity institutionalization revealed

that there were differences among the models and that the faculty models are better

at predicting institutionalization than staff models. Additional investigation of the

factors related to staff institutionalization is needed. The explication and

operationalization of additional work factors for staff may contribute to the overall

understanding of the important distinctions among staff and between faculty and

staff. Also, given the importance of department commitment to diversity, an

understanding of the factors that lead a department to commitment is important.

This research contributes to a broader discussion of diversity efforts, including

attention to staff, which will move universities further toward the ideal of creating

inclusive work and learning environments. The findings from this research have

implications for both research and practice. Those implications are explored in the

next chapter.

CHAPTER VI

IMPLICATIONS

As administrators and those involved in diversity initiatives continue to

work toward transforming the universities in which they are located, it is critical to

recognize the complexity of the institutionalization process and the multiple levels

of the organization that are involved. For all but one of the statistical models

created here, there were influential factors at the organizational, departmental and

individual levels. The findings from this research have implications for the

implementation of diversity initiatives on university campuses and for future

research into diversity initiatives.

Practice

One of the most consistent findings across the models of change in higher

education is the impact of clear leadership (Peterson, et. al., 1979; Williams, Berger

& McClendon, 2005; Kezar, 2005). While a leader has little direct influence over

behavior, communicating a clear vision for diversity and consistently upholding the

inclusion of diverse voices and perspectives influences both staff and faculty across

disciplines and departments of the university. Commitment to diversity must be

accompanied by visible, consistent messages about the importance of diversity.

This research did not specifically identify which leaders need to be creating these

messages, but the questions asked about top administrators. For diversity

practitioners, this implies that if the diversity initiatives are not initiated by campus

leadership, it is important to enlist support from top administrators in the form of an

articulated vision for diversity on campus. It also implies the need to communicate

this vision widely across the university as it has a similar impact for staff and

faculty.

Beyond a clear, consistent vision for diversity, the specific components of

diversity initiatives examined in this research had different impacts for faculty and

staff. For example, perceived prioritization of faculty issues was associated with

higher levels of perceived commitment to diversity for faculty and lower levels of

perceived commitment for staff. Different groups on campus interpret diversity

priorities differently and there are opportunities for diversity practitioners to clarify

the intent of each priority. Kezar and Eckel (2002), and Bensimon and colleagues

(2004) argue that opportunities for sensemaking are extremely important to a

transformational change process in higher education. While not specifically

studying transformation related to diversity, Kezar and Eckel point out that the

universities in their study that had undergone transformative change were all

effective because they provided "opportunities for key participants to create new

sense of the direction and priorities of the institution, of their roles in the

transforming institution, and of the ways that common notions – such as teaching,

service, participation – are evolving and what they now mean" (p. 314). They also

argue that sensemaking happens at multiple levels of the institution. In their study,

individuals were given opportunities to discuss and consider their own roles,

departments were allowed to create their own initiatives within the new goals, and

organization-wide meetings were convened as well. Bensimon and colleagues

emphasize that the process of organizing working groups to create meaningful

institutional measures for the Diversity Scorecard was just as important as what the

measures actually revealed. These sensemaking processes allow people to connect

diversity initiatives to their local context (Greenwood & Hining, 2007; Scott,

2003). Campus conversations could provide sensemaking opportunities which

help surface the multiple interpretations of university initiatives and allow a more

consistent interpretation to develop. Staff may benefit from sensemaking because

their roles are not always clearly connected to the core missions of the university

(Duggan, 2008; Somers et. al., 1998). Having administrators articulate those

connections and then providing opportunities for staff members to work through

those connections are ways to increase staff understanding of diversity initiatives.

If the aim of the initiative is truly transformative, then opportunities to

challenge the deeply institutionalized values that uphold the exclusive structure of

the academy should be a part of the vision for diversity and should be part of the

university sensemaking process. Employing existing institutional symbols and

using them in support of diversity efforts is one way to begin that challenge.

Williams, Berger and McClendon (2005) provide an example when they discuss

the importance of Inclusive Excellence. By combining the terms "inclusive" and

"excellence," they challenge the idea that diversity and excellence are mutually

exclusive and work to create a new vision of the academy where inclusion serves to foster excellence. Another example of harnessing institutional symbols is to use disciplinary pressure on academic departments to encourage departments to create inclusive environments and curriculum. Some national disciplinary bodies emphasize the importance of diversity in their fields, and diversity practitioners can align with those pressures to achieve university goals. While existing institutional messages and pressures may be readily identifiable for faculty, for staff professionals, similar pressures, images and messages may exist. There may be institutional symbols from staff professions that could also support the diversity work of the institution.

Another way to challenge established power structures in the academy is to include staff and faculty in the same discussions, fostering dialogue across the deeply embedded divisions of academic and non-academic arenas of the university. Including staff with fewer years of formal education in conversations about the diversity efforts of the university will be a step toward a broader range of perspectives and communicates a message about the contribution of each member of the university organization.

The finding about the importance of departments means that when considering change, departments cannot be ignored, something echoed by many others (Walvoord et. al., 2002; Lee, Hyman & Luginbuhl, 2007; Leitko & Szczerbacki, 1987). Developing work environments supportive of diversity is an important component of diversity work. For academic departments, Mintzberg

(1977) suggests that, "change seeps in by the slow process of changing the professionals – changing who can enter the profession, what they learn in its professional schools (norms as well as skills and knowledge), and thereafter how willing they are to upgrade their skills" (p. 213). Related to upgrading skills, universities can provide opportunities for training for department chairs. The department chair of an academic department is put in what can be a very difficult situation balancing their roles as members of the professional workforce of the organization and administrative tasks for which they may not have been trained (Walvoord et. al., 2002). Currie and Proctor (2007) suggest that training for professionals-turned-administrators be approached as re-socialization. "This is a process in which middle managers' characteristics prior to enacting a more strategic role should be valued and their expertise leveraged to contribute towards a more context sensitive strategy. To deny and strip away these characteristics is likely to encourage a dysfunctional response from middle managers" (p. 1371). Training for department chairs must acknowledge their existing expertise and encourage the adaptation of that expertise in the service of university goals for diversity.

Training for chairs and engagement of academic departments in diversity efforts must be flexible enough to allow for disciplinary differences. If administrators wish to engage academic departments to support diversity initiatives and create welcoming environments, they must allow flexibility and range of possible diversity activities (Walvoord et. al., 2002). The university vision for

diversity must be broad enough to allow for disciplinary variation in expression (Currie & Proctor, 2007). Leitko and Szczerbacki (1987) emphasize the need for shared perspectives and values with flexible structures allowing for expression of those values in multiple ways. For academic departments, it also helps to consider the ways in which particular disciplines are likely to approach diversity scholarship and pedagogy. In their examination of factors that contributed to departmental curricular and pedagogical change, Lee, Hyman and Luginbuhl (2007), list departmental vision, departmental leadership and discipline as key factors in supporting the curricular change they observed.

Beyond training, other types of support are helpful for engaging academic departments in change initiatives. Walvoord et. al. (2002) suggest that support may take the form of providing data or other information not readily available to the department such as information about diversity among its majors. They also suggest budgetary incentives and training for chairs.

Finally, Smith (2004) and others (Bensimon, 2004; Bensimon et.al., 2004) emphasize the importance of accountability for diversity outcomes. With flexibility that allows for multiple types of outcomes, accountability could be translated at the department level and could be an important strategy toward institutionalizing diversity norms and values.

There is much less literature on change for non-academic departments in higher education. Nevertheless, given the findings of this study, it is important for administrators and diversity professionals to consider how to engage staff managers

in their efforts. While staff managers occupy more traditional managerial roles,

staff department heads probably still benefit from a socialization process that

acknowledges their strengths and expertise and links those to the key diversity

strategies and goals of the university. Diversity practitioners can expect a wider

range of experiences among staff mangers whose path to leadership is less

prescribed than the department chairs. Also, there is no common socialization

process for staff managers as opposed to faculty who experience some

commonalities related to their doctoral training and well-understood roles in the

university. Emphasizing the importance of diversity in all departments and

focusing on how the managers' role connects with the overall vision for diversity

would be important.

Key to the structure of diversity initiatives, a central vision and commitment

is important. However, diversity administrators need ways to connect with

departments and need to be intentional about engaging a wide cross section of

departments in the university. It is clear that faculty in the sciences and

engineering fields participate in fewer diversity activities than their colleagues in

the humanities and social sciences. Similarly, staff from student affairs and

athletics are more likely to participate in diversity activities. In order to foster

support for diversity across the entire organization, diversity administrators need to

set up intentional structures that encourage participation by all areas of the

university and allow for conversations across parts of the university.

At the individual level of the organization, this research reveals there are differing opportunities for participation in diversity activities among staff and between faculty and staff. Staff in this study reported more often than faculty that they had no opportunity to participate in diversity activities. Administrators need to examine the opportunities available to staff and look for ways to make training and opportunities for committee service available to them. The finding that staff with higher levels of education participated in more diversity activities suggests the need to determine whether all staff members have opportunities to contribute to the diversity efforts of the institution. Promoting diversity means including all perspectives, even those of university employees with fewer years of formal education. If administrators promote sensemaking activities as suggested above, all members of the university's workforce must feel invited to attend. With institutional pressure to focus on faculty issues, it will be important to keep the full organization in view and continually engage all parts of it. A closer examination of the staff that do participate in diversity efforts and activities may reveal that the staff who regularly participate are professionals. Diversity practitioners need to think about the role of staff professional. There may be opportunities to engage these professionals as leaders for staff initiatives or as liaisons with faculty, while creating opportunities for other staff to participate and take on leadership roles as well.

A final reminder for diversity practitioners is that even if university leadership and departments are engaged, individuals will still experience the

university's commitment to diversity differently (Hurtado, 1992; Hurtado et. al., 1999; Aguirre, 2000). Length of employment, professional status, race, gender and attitude all influence perceptions of the diversity work of the institution. Diversity means different things to different people and will touch people in different ways. Continuing to collect information about campus climate and understanding of diversity commitment by different sub-groups will help diversity practitioners understand how their efforts are being understood by individual members of the organization.

Research

In addition to implications for practice, several implications for research emerge from this study. First, it is important to consider institutionalization as a process. Chessler, Lewis and Crowfoot (2005) suggest that organizations may move toward embedding values and visions, but that behavior may not follow until another stage. Testing the relationships among the dependent variables considered here would help to tease out those stages. Then it would be possible to tell if perception of commitment mediates the effect of administrative vision on behavior.

Using institutional theory as a lens for this research raises several questions that were not addressed in this research, but deserve attention in the future such as: How do competing institutional norms and demands get translated and embedded within an institution? Are there structural mechanisms that interact with the institutional pressures to privilege some values and suppress others? How are professional roles for staff institutionalized on campus? Are there competing

institutionalization processes for professional staff? While major institutional forces for faculty are readily identifiable, those for staff need to be surfaced. Considering staff and faculty institutional pressures together would lead to a more complete understanding of the change process in a university setting. Also, viewing gender and race as institutions suggests the need to include values and norms related to gender and race in future analyses of institutionalization in higher education settings.

The mixed findings related to structural diversity have implications for further research. The structural diversity of the overall university workforce and university administrators were not included as factors in this research. Adding these factors in future research would allow for a clarification of the effects of structural diversity on staff and faculty institutionalization.

The perception of commitment to diversity scale developed for this research proved a good measure of the concept. If its usefulness is confirmed across universities and college contexts, it will provide a way to measure and study intra-organizational institutionalization specifically related to diversity efforts.

The theoretical and operational models developed for this research focused exclusively on university employees, leaving students out of the examination. A question for further research is how staff and faculty understanding of commitment to diversity is related to the student experience of diversity on campus. A truly comprehensive understanding of the university setting will include students.

For this project, it was not possible to measure actual university activity related to diversity. Rather, perception of university priorities was related to institutionalization for this project. To gain a richer understanding of the impact of actual initiatives on college campuses, an approach similar to Konrad and Linnehan (1995) could be taken. Those researchers surveyed human resources professionals in organizations to inventory actual human resource practices. The results from that inventory were then related to measures of progress for affirmative action. A similar inventory of diversity activities could be developed and administered with diversity practitioners on campus in conjunction with a staff and faculty survey like the one developed for this research. That type of research design would provide a measure of actual diversity activity and would provide additional information regarding the impact of diversity initiatives.

Although every attempt was made to encourage survey participation, there were not enough staff and faculty from individual ethnic minority groups to consider separate groups for analysis. In the future oversampling from among minority groups would help to ensure that the differences among groups can be examined.

As noted in the discussion, the models developed here do not have the explanatory power for staff that they do for faculty. Researchers who are interested in understanding the staff experience and understanding of diversity in universities must consider what other factors might be important for staff. There are many

possibilities around job category and professionalization. Also, there may be better ways to more fully capture the department's role in staff institutionalization.

Because of the lack of literature on the staff experience in higher education, this area is rich with possibilities for future research. Looking specifically at staff professionals through interviews or surveys would help describe their roles and location within the university, their connection to their professions, and their understanding of their role in the university's diversity efforts. Including staff that are not professionals would help to understand the important distinctions within the staff arena of the university. These distinctions could center around education level, professional membership and identification, job function, and centrality to the university mission. Further investigation of opportunities for participation in diversity activities would help practitioners understand how to increase access to those activities for the entire campus.

Another area missing from the literature on diversity initiatives is the role of the department. The current research project emphasizes the importance of department support to diversity initiatives, further research needs to be undertaken to more fully understand the role of the department in diversity efforts. Interviews with academic department chairs and staff department managers would bring their experience to the surface revealing whether they understand university diversity initiatives and whether they feel that those initiatives are an important part of their work. This would also give insight into how organizational initiatives are translated at the department level. Chairs and managers can be asked what would

help them in their efforts to implement diversity initiatives at the department level. This would be an opportunity to identify the multiple competing pressures that are at work on the departments.

Conclusion

Universities in the United States have become increasingly sophisticated in their efforts to create inclusive learning and work environments. After opening doors to more diverse groups of students and employees in the 1960s and 1970s, universities have moved beyond issues of access and now take a more comprehensive approach, emphasizing a broad vision for inclusiveness, attention to the curriculum, engagement of faculty, and mechanisms for accountability and recognizing the need to change existing structures and values that act as barriers to diversity goals (Smith & Schoenfeld, 2005; Williams, Berger & McClendon, 2005).

Although universities have made a great deal of progress in their employment practices over the last three decades, inequalities continue to exist. There are gaps in pay and representation by gender and race for both faculty and staff (Li, 2006). Some female faculty and faculty of color experience a lack of fit with the embedded values of American academia (Aguirre, 2000). Recent literature on diversity initiatives in higher education emphasizes the need to address embedded values and norms and the need to create new ones that support diversity across the entire university. The process of institutionalization through which those become embedded across universities has received little attention. In particular,

institutionalization processes focusing on staff members are missing from the diversity discourse. Given an understanding of universities as professional bureaucracies with distinct structures for faculty and staff, it is problematic to assume that staff and faculty have similar experiences in higher education, that a single initiative will have a uniform impact across the university, or that all staff have an equal opportunity to respond to socialization.

The present study began the process of comparing staff and faculty in their perceptions and experiences of diversity on university campuses and makes the following contributions. First, the findings suggest ways in which the institutionalization processes are similar and different for staff and faculty, something not previously captured in literature on higher education. For example strong leadership and departmental support were important for both. In contrast, the impact of specific components of diversity initiatives differed for staff and faculty and the multiple institutional pressures identified for faculty were not all present for staff. Second, the findings contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of universities as professional bureaucracies operating in arenas with many institutional forces at play. Mintzberg's (1983) model of professional bureaucracy should be elaborated to specify departments and acknowledge their importance for both faculty and staff. The results reveal that intra-organizational institutionalization is a complicated process of adaptation to multiple institutional pressures; a process more readily examined for faculty who belong to well established and easily identifiable disciplinary groups. Finally, this study revealed

differences among staff members according to education level; staff with higher levels of formal education participated in more diversity related activities. Models of the university that include staff need to account for staff professionals and diversity practitioners need to be deliberately inclusive of a broad range of staff regardless of education level.

Transforming American universities to embody the values of diversity and gender equity is an ongoing and complicated process. The present study moves our understanding of that transformation process another step forward. This research demonstrates the importance of considering the entire university when moving a diversity agenda forward. Furthermore, the present study underscores the need to acknowledge differences among departments and among individuals in their response to diversity initiatives. This research supports the effectiveness of a strong vision for diversity and the need to address departments specifically as mechanisms for change. Pursuing a line of research that elaborates each part of the university will enrich the discussion of the impact of diversity on college campuses and inform a more inclusive and effective practice, helping to create institutions where all employees and students feel supported and experience success.

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APPENDIX A

Invitation Postcard Text

PLEASE PARTICIPATE IN AN IMPORTANT SURVEY

A few days from now you will receive an e-mail asking you to fill out a brief on-line questionnaire about the **work environment and diversity at the X University**. This survey will provide important information to the Partner Office about your experience working at X University. It is also part of doctoral dissertation research on three universities.

The subject line of the **e-mail** will be **WORKPLACE SURVEY** and the e-mail will come from **Rowanna Carpenter.** Please take 10 minutes to fill out the survey when you see it in your e-mail.

Thank you in advance for your time.

Rowanna Carpenter
Public Administration and Policy
Portland State University

APPENDIX B

Invitation E-mail Text

Dear :

I am writing to ask for your help with a study of university work environments and diversity initiatives that I am conducting. This study is the primary component of my doctoral research. In addition to X University, there are two public, doctoral-granting institutions from the Western United States participating in the study. The survey asks about your perception of support for diversity at X University and the importance of diversity to your work and should take about 10 minutes to complete. Your response is very important to me. The information you provide will help us understand the work environment at X University as well as contribute to a broader understanding of universities as workplaces. Please take the survey now by following this link.

Your responses are confidential. Only summaries of total responses will be reported. No one will ever be able to identify you in any reports that are created from the data and no one who is not involved with this research will ever see your answers.

Participating in this survey is voluntary. Your willingness or unwillingness to participate will not affect your relationship with X University. If you have any questions about this survey, or wish to be removed from the mailing list, please contact Rowanna Carpenter, Portland State University (503-725-3445, carpenterr@pdx.edu).

Thank you for taking the time to help with this important study.

Sincerely,

Rowanna Carpenter
Doctoral Candidate, Public Administration and Policy
Portland State University

If you have concerns or questions about this study, please contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Research and Review Committee at Portland State University (Office of Research and Sponsored Projects, Portland State University, 600 Unitus Building, Portland OR, 97207, 1-800-480-4400, hsrrc@lists.pdx.edu)

APPENDIX C

Staff Survey

X UNIVERSITY Employee Work Environment and Diversity

Thank you in advance for completing this survey about your work environment and the diversity initiatives at X University. Your response will provide valuable information to the Office of the President's Diversity Initiatives and will serve as an integral component of the research for my dissertation. Diversity is a multi-faceted and complex concept. The focus of this survey is race and gender, however as my research agenda expands, I will incorporate other aspects of diversity.

Please remember that your responses are confidential and that participating in this survey is voluntary. If you have questions about this survey, please contact Rowanna Carpenter at 503-725-3445 or carpenterr@pdx.edu or the Chair of the Human Subjects Research Review Committee, Office of Research and Sponsored Projects, 600 Unitus Building, Portland State University, 503-725-4288/1-800-480-4400, hsrrc@lists.pdx.edu.

1) **First, please answer these questions about your employment at X University.**

What is the name of your current department or work unit?

If you selected other, please specify

_____

2) **How long have you been employed AT X UNIVERSITY? Please indicate the total length of time you have been employed including all positions you have held.**

Please round to the nearest year. If you have been employed for more than 6 months but less than one year, please type "1" in the box below. If you have been employed for 6 months or less, please type "0.5" in the box below.

_____years

3) How long have you been employed IN THIS DEPARTMENT?

Please round to the nearest year. If you have been employed for more than 6 months but less than one year, please type "1" in the box below. If you have been employed for 6 months or less, please type "0.5" in the box below.

_____years

4) Are you a part-time or full-time employee in this department?

☐ Full time employee (40 or more hours per week)
☐ Half-time (more than 19 but fewer than 40 hours per week)
☐ Part-time (fewer than 20 hours per week)
☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

5) Are you a member of a union or collective bargaining unit?

☐ Yes
☐ No

6) Are you....

☐ paid a salary?
☐ paid on an hourly basis?
☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

In this section, please tell me about your perception of X University's priorities related to diversity.

7)

Do you believe the following are high or low priorities for X University?

	Low priority	Moderately low priority	Mid-level priority	Moderately high priority	Highest priority	Don't know
To recruit more minority students	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To create a diverse multi-cultural environment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To promote gender equity among faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To promote racial/ethnic equity among faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To increase the representation of minorities among faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To increase the representation of women among faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To increase the representation of minorities among administrators	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To increase the representation of women among administrators	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To promote gender equity among staff members	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To increase the representation of minorities among staff members.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To integrate attention to diversity into the overall operations of the university	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To integrate multicultural perspectives into the curriculum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To integrate women's perspectives into the curriculum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

These questions ask you about your perception of the X University administration and X University diversity initiatives.

8)
How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your university administration?

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
Top campus administrators are genuinely committed to promoting respect for and	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

understanding of group differences in this university.					
This university's top administrators communicate a clear vision for diversity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9)

How descriptive are the following statements of X University?

Although, your personal values about these issues may differ from those reflected at X UNIVERSITY, please focus on the values you see reflected AT X for this set of questions.

	Not at all descriptive	A little descriptive	Somewhat descriptive	Mostly descriptive	Very descriptive
X UNIVERSITY emphasizes the value of a diverse student body because it enhances the quality of education for all students.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
X UNIVERSITY emphasizes that respect for diverse values and beliefs is an integral part of its success.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
X UNIVERSITY permits subtle discrimination (racism, sexism) to occur.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Diversity is a key component of X UNIVERSITY's strategy for achieving excellence.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
At X UNIVERSITY, there is a widespread sentiment that too much time and money is spent on diversity issues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
At X UNIVERSITY, people believe that we emphasize diversity only because we are legally required to.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Respect for people from diverse backgrounds is part of how we do our work at X UNIVERSITY.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10)

How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about changes in X University over the last five years?

If you have worked here for fewer than five years, please consider the change in the institution over the time you have worked here.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
X UNIVERSITY has increased its emphasis on diversity over the last five years.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
X UNIVERSITY is a more welcoming place for women than it was five years ago.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
X UNIVERSITY is a more welcoming place for racial/ethnic minorities than it was five years ago.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The next set of questions refers to your current department or work unit and asks for information regarding the demographics of your work place and your department's commitment to diversity.

11) **In your current department, among faculty, staff and administrators, are there...**

☐ More men than women?
☐ Approximately the same number of men and women?
☐ More women than men?

12) **In your current department, among faculty, staff and administrators, are there...**

☐ More racial/ethnic minorities than white?
☐ Approximately the same number of racial or ethnic minorities and whites?
☐ More whites than ethnic or racial minorities?

13)
How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your current department or work unit?

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
My department's actions are evidence of its emphasis on the importance of diversity to our work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My department is committed to enhancing the climate for all employees in this department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In my department, concerns about gender issues are taken seriously.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

In my department, concerns about racial issues are taken seriously.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

This final set of questions asks for information regarding your personal behaviors, beliefs, and demographic information.

14) **These questions ask about your behavior related to work.**

During the past TWO YEARS, how many times have you...

	0 (I had an opportunity, but did not do it)	0 (I had no opportunity to do it)	1 or 2 times	3 or 4 times	5 or more times
Participated in conferences, workshops, or training designed to promote sensitivity toward diversity issues?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Served on a committee related to gender issues?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Served on a committee related to racial/ethnic minority issues?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Attended an event (speaker, cultural awareness event, art exhibit, etc.) related to gender or race?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Served in a leadership role for a committee or event related to gender or race?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

15) **In your workplace, over the last TWO YEARS, how likely were you to have done each of the following?**

	Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Not Sure	Likely	Extremely likely	Not applicable
Confronted someone for telling a racially offensive joke or story?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Confronted someone for telling a joke or story that was	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

offensive to women?					
Remained silent while others told a racially offensive joke or story?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Remained silent while others told a joke or story that was offensive to women?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

16) How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding the status of women and racial/ethnic minorities in the United States?

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
Discrimination against women is no longer a problem in the United States.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On average, people in our society treat husbands and wives equally.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is easy to understand why women's groups are still concerned about societal limitations of women's opportunities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Discrimination against racial/ethnic minorities is no longer a problem in the United States.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On average, people in our society treat White people and racial/ethnic minorities equally.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is easy to understand the anger of racial/ethnic minority groups in the United States.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please continue to the last page of the survey to answer a few questions about your demographic characteristics.

17) What is your racial/ethnic group?

☐ African American/Black
☐ Asian American/Asian
☐ Caucasian/White

☐ Hispanic/Latino
☐ Native American/Alaskan Native
☐ Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander
☐ Multiracial
☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

18) What is your gender?

☐ Male
☐ Female
☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

19) What is your age?

_____years

20) What is the highest level of education you have completed?

☐ Did not complete high school
☐ High school diploma or GED
☐ Some college, but no degree
☐ A 2-year college degree
☐ A 4-year college degree
☐ Some graduate work, no degree
☐ Master's degree
☐ Doctorate or professional degree
☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

21) Please use the following space to add any additional comments you would like to share about X University's commitment to diversity or your own experience related to diversity at X.

_____
_____
_____

You are finished with the survey. Thank you again for your participation.

If you have concerns or questions about this study, please contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Research Review Committee, Office of Research and Sponsored Projects, 600 Unitus Building, Portland State University, 503-725-4288/1-800-480-4400, hsrrc@lists.pdx.edu.

APPENDIX D

Faculty Survey

X UNIVERSITY Faculty Work Environment and Diversity

Thank you in advance for completing this survey about your work environment and the diversity initiatives at X University. Your response will provide valuable information to the Office of the President's Diversity Initiatives and will serve as an integral component of my dissertation research. Diversity is a multi-faceted and complex concept. The focus of this survey is race and gender, however as my research agenda expands, I will incorporate other aspects of diversity.

Please remember that your responses are confidential and that participating in this survey is voluntary. If you have questions about this survey, please contact Rowanna Carpenter at 503-725-3445 or carpenterr@pdx.edu or the Chair of the Human Subjects Research Review Committee, Office of Research and Sponsored Projects, 600 Unitus Building, Portland State University, 503-725-4288/1-800-480-4400, hsrrc@lists.pdx.edu.

1)

First, please answer these questions about your employment at X University.

What is the name of your current academic department or work unit?

2) How long have you been employed AT X UNIVERSITY? Please indicate the total length of time you have been employed including all positions you have held.

Please round to the nearest year. If you have been employed for more than 6 months but less than one year, please type "1" in the box below. If you have been employed for 6 months or less, please type "0.5" in the box below.

_____years

3) How long have you been employed IN THIS DEPARTMENT?

Please round to the nearest year. If you have been employed for more than 6 months but less than one year, please type "1" in the box below. If you have been employed for 6 months or less, please type "0.5" in the box below.

_____years

4) Are you a part-time or full-time employee in this department?

□ Full time employee (40 or more hours per week)
□ Half-time (more than 19 but fewer than 40 hours per week)
□ Part-time (fewer than 20 hours per week)
□ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

5)
What is your faculty rank?

□ Instructor
□ Assistant Professor
□ Associate Professor
□ Professor
□ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

6)
What is your tenure status at X University?

□ Tenured
□ On tenure track, but not tenured
□ Not on tenure track
□ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

7) Are you a member of a union or collective bargaining unit?

□ Yes
□ No

8) Are you....

☐ paid a salary?
☐ paid on an hourly basis?
☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

In this section, please tell me about your perception of X University's priorities related to diversity.

9)

Do you believe the following are high or low priorities for X University?

	Low priority	Moderately low priority	Mid-level priority	Moderately high priority	Highest priority	Don't know
To recruit more minority students	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To create a diverse multi-cultural environment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To promote gender equity among faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To promote racial/ethnic equity among faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To increase the representation of minorities among faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐*	☐	☐
To increase the representation of women among faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To increase the representation of minorities among administrators	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To increase the representation of women among administrators	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To promote gender equity among staff members	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To increase the	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

representation of minorities among staff members.						
To integrate attention to diversity into the overall operations of the university	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To integrate multicultural perspectives into the curriculum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To integrate women's perspectives into the curriculum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

These questions ask you about your perception of the X University administration and X University diversity initiatives.

10)
How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your university administration?

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
Top campus administrators are genuinely committed to promoting respect for and understanding of group differences in this university.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
This university's top administrators communicate a clear vision for diversity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11)
How descriptive are the following statements of X University?

Although, your personal values about these issues may differ from those reflected at X UNIVERSITY, please focus on the values you see reflected AT X for this set of questions.

	Not at all descriptive	A little descriptive	Somewhat descriptive	Mostly descriptive	Very descriptive

X UNIVERSITY emphasizes the value of a diverse student body because it enhances the quality of education for all students.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
X UNIVERSITY emphasizes that respect for diverse values and beliefs is an integral part of its success.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
X UNIVERSITY permits subtle discrimination (racism, sexism) to occur.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Diversity is a key component of X UNIVERSITY's strategy for achieving excellence.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
At X UNIVERSITY, there is a widespread sentiment that too much time and money is spent on diversity issues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
At X UNIVERSITY, people believe that we emphasize diversity only because we are legally required to.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Respect for people from diverse backgrounds is part of how we do our work at X UNIVERSITY.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12)

How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about changes in X University over the last five years?

If you have worked here for fewer than five years, please consider the change in the institution over the time you have worked here.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
X UNIVERSITY has increased its emphasis on diversity over the last five years.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
X UNIVERSITY is a more welcoming place for women than it was five years ago.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

X UNIVERSITY is a more welcoming place for racial/ethnic minorities than it was five years ago.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The next set of questions refers to your current department or work unit and asks for information regarding the demographics of your work place and your department's commitment to diversity.

13) **In your current department, among faculty, staff and administrators, are there...**

    ☐ More men than women?
    ☐ Approximately the same number of men and women?
    ☐ More women than men?

14) **In your current department, among faculty, staff and administrators, are there...**

    ☐ More racial/ethnic minorities than white?
    ☐ Approximately the same number of racial or ethnic minorities and whites?
    ☐ More whites than ethnic or racial minorities?

15)
How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your current department or work unit?

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
My department's actions are evidence of its emphasis on the importance of diversity to our discipline.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My department is committed to enhancing the climate for all employees in this department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In my department, concerns about gender issues are taken seriously.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In my department, concerns about racial issues are taken seriously.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My department is receptive to integrating multicultural issues in courses.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My department is receptive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

to integrating gender issues in courses.					

This final set of questions asks for information regarding your personal behaviors, beliefs, and demographic information.

16) **These questions ask about your behavior related to work.**

During the past TWO YEARS, how many times have you...

	0 (I had an opportunity, but did not do it)	0 (I had no opportunity to do it)	1 or 2 times	3 or 4 times	5 or more times
Participated in conferences, workshops, or training designed to promote sensitivity toward diversity issues?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Served on a committee related to gender issues?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Served on a committee related to racial/ethnic minority issues?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Attended an event (speaker, cultural awareness event, art exhibit, etc.) related to gender or race?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Served in a leadership role for a committee or event related to gender or race?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Taught a course specifically focused on ethnicity, race, or multicultural issues?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Taught a course specifically focused on gender or women's issues?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Included readings on ethnic, racial, or cultural diversity in a course?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Included readings on gender or women's issues in a course?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

17)
During the last TWO YEARS have you...

	Yes	No	Not applicable
Conducted research or writing related to racial or ethnic minorities?	☐	☐	☐
Conducted research or writing related to gender or women's issues?	☐	☐	☐

18) In your workplace, over the last TWO YEARS, how likely were you to have done each of the following?

	Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Not Sure	Likely	Extremely likely	Not applicable
Confronted someone for telling a racially offensive joke or story?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Confronted someone for telling a joke or story that was offensive to women?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Remained silent while others told a racially offensive joke or story?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Remained silent while others told a joke or story that was offensive to women?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

19) How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding the status of women and racial/ethnic minorities in the United States?

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
Discrimination against women is no longer a problem in the United States.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On average, people in our society treat husbands and wives equally.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is easy to understand why women's groups are still concerned about societal limitations of women's opportunities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Discrimination against racial/ethnic minorities is no longer a problem in the United States.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On average, people in our society	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

treat White people and racial/ethnic minorities equally.					
It is easy to understand the anger of racial/ethnic minority groups in the United States.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please continue to the last page of the survey to answer a few questions about your demographic characteristics.

20) What is your racial/ethnic group?

☐ African American/Black
☐ Asian American/Asian
☐ Caucasian/White
☐ Hispanic/Latino
☐ Native American/Alaskan Native
☐ Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander
☐ Multiracial
☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

21) What is your gender?

☐ Male
☐ Female
☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

22) What is your age?

_____years

23) What is the highest level of education you have completed?

☐ A 4-year college degree
☐ Some graduate work, no degree
☐ Master's degree
☐ Doctorate or professional degree
☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

_____

24) Please use the following space to add any additional comments you would like to share about X University's commitment to diversity or your own experience related to diversity at X .

_____
_____
_____

_____

You are finished with the survey. Thank you again for your participation.

If you have concerns or questions about this study, please contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Research Review Committee, Office of Research and Sponsored Projects, 600 Unitus Building, Portland State University, 503-725-4288/1-800-480-4400, hsrrc@lists.pdx.edu.

APPENDIX E

Block Regression Tables

TABLE 30

Staff Standardized Regression Coefficients for Blocked Entry Regression on Perception of Commitment to Diversity

Variable Name	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3			Block 4		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Demographics												
Gender (male)	.02	.07	.01	.05	.07	.03	.06	.06	.04	.01	.05	.01
Race (white)	-.32	.07	-.21*	-.27	.07	-.17*	-.24	.07	-.15*	-.16	.06	-.10*
Age	.00	.00	.02	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01
Less than 4 yrs college (Bachelors)	-.09	.09	-.05	-.08	.09	-.04	-.14	.08	-.07	-.09	.07	-.04
Some Grad (Bachelors)	.01	.11	.01	.04	.11	.02	-.01	.09	-.01	.00	.08	.00
Masters or more (Bachelors)	.01	.08	.01	.04	.08	.02	.04	.08	.02	.00	.06	.00
Professional/Attitudinal Characteristics												
Length of employment				.00	.00	.03	.00	.00	.05	.06	.04	.06
Union status (member)				.21	.08	.11*	.07	.08	.04	.00	.06	.00
Pay type (salary)				.03	.09	.02	.07	.08	.04	.10	.07	.05
Personal Attitude				.12	.05	.11*	.10	.04	.10*	.06	.04	.06
Department												
More women (More men)							-.04	.08	-.02	.00	.06	.00
Equal men and women (More men)							-.07	.08	-.03	-.03	.07	-.02
More minority (more White)							-.01	.08	-.02	-.09	.09	-.05
Equal White and Minority (more White)							.06	.08	.03	-.08	.08	-.04

Departmental support			.36	.03	.47***	.18	.03	.23***
Athletics (Academic Affairs)			..20	.11	.08	.04	.09	.02
Business Affairs (Academic Affairs)			.10	.08	.06	-.03	.07	-.02
Student Affairs (Academic Affairs)			.14	.10	.06	.05	.08	.02
Organizational								
Administrator communicate priority						.19	.03	.26***
Admin clear vision						.19	.03	.26***
Priority staff						-.20	.03	-.03
Priority faculty						-.07	.02	-.12
Priority environment						.09	.03	.15***
Priority students						.02	.02	.03
Priority curriculum						.00	.02	.01
Priority overall						.04	.06	.06
University 1 (Univ 2)						.25	.07	.14**
Univerity 3 (Univ 2)						.26	.10	.16**
Model statistics								
R squared	.046		.070		.294		.526	
Change in R squared	.05***		.02***		.22***		.23***	

Category in parentheses represents the reference category
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

TABLE 31

Staff Standardized Regression Coefficients for Blocked Entry Regression on Improved Diversity Climate Over the Last Five Years

Variable Name	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3			Block 4		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Demographics												
Gender (male)	.00	.00	.03	-.00	.00	-.03	.00	.00	-.02	.00	.00	-.00
Race (white)	-.04	.06	-.03	-.01	.07	-.01	.05	.07	.04	.15	.07	.10*
Age	.00	.00	.03	-.00	.00	-.03	.00	.00	-.02	.0	.00	-.00
Less than 4 yrs college (Bachelors)	-.02	.09	-.01	-.01	.09	-.00	-.07	.09	-.04	-.03	.08	-.02
Some Grad (Bachelors)	-.09	.08	-.12	-.07	.10	-.03	-.10	.10	-.05	-.11	.09	-.05
Masters or more (Bachelors)	-.17	.08	-.11*	-.12	.07	-.08	-.11	.08	-.07	-.13	.07	-.08
Professional/Attitudinal Characteristics												
Length of employment				.01	.00	.12*	.01	.00	.13*	.01	.00	.11*
Union status (member)				.14	.08	.08	.02	.08	.02	-.08	.00	.11
Pay type (salary)				.19	.09	.10*	.18	.09	.09*	.09	.09	.05
Personal Attitude				.03	.04	.03	.01	.04	.01	.01	.04	.01
Department												
More women (More men)							-.03	.08	-.02	-.01	.08	-.04
Equal men and women (More men)							.19	.09	.10	.21	.08	.11*
More minority (more White)							-.13	.08	-.08	-.05	.10	-.03
Equal White and Minority (more White)							.03	.08	.02	.05	.10	.03
Departmental support							.23	.03	.32***	.11	.03	.15**
Athletics (Academic Affairs)							.17	.11	.07	.11	.11	.05
Business Affairs (Academic Affairs)							.21	.08	.13*	.15	.09	.09
Student Affairs (Academic Affairs)							.31	.09	.15**	.24	.09	.11**
Organizational												
Administrator communicate priority										.11	.04	.16**
Admin clear vision										.14	.04	.20**
Priority staff										.01	.03	.02
Priority faculty										.04	.03	.08

Variable	B	SE	β
Priority environment	.04	.03	.08
Priority students	.04	.03	.09
Priority curriculum	-.00	.02	-.00
Priority overall	-.06	.04	-.11
University 1 (Univ 2)	-.11	.09	-.07
Univerity 3 (Univ 2)	-.13	.12	-.08

Model statistics

R squared	.01	.03	.17	.28
Change in R squared	.01	.02*	.14***	.12***

Category in parentheses represents the reference category
p<.05
**p<.01*
***p<.001*

TABLE 32

Staff Standardized Regression Coefficients for Blocked Entry Regression on Staff Engagement in Diversity Activities

Variable Name	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3			Block 4		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Demographics												
Gender (male)	.29	.18	.07	.20	.18	.05	.26	.18	.06	.22	.18	.05
Race (white)	-.18	.17	-.04	-.10	.18	-.02	.03	.19	.01	.40	.20	.10*
Age	.00	.01	.01	-.00	.01	-.02	.01	.01	.04	.01	.01	.06
Less than 4 yrs college (Bachelors)	.38	.24	.08	.44	.24	.09	.39	.24	.08	.35`	.24	.07
Some Grad (Bachelors)	.93	.28	.16**	.91	.28	.15**	.84	.27	.14**	.80	.27	.14**
Masters or more (Bachelors)	.74	.22	.17**	.69	.22	.16**	.79	.22	.18**	.82	.22	.19**
Professional/Attitudinal Characteristics												
Length of employment				.01	.01	.03	.04	.01	.02	.00	.01	.01
Union status (member)				.53	.21	.11*	.25	.22	.06	.07	.22	.02
Pay type (salary)				-.02	.24	-.00	-.17	.24	-.03	-.43	.25	-.08
Personal Attitude				-.23	.12	-.08	-.20	.12	-.08	-.17	.12	-.06
Department												
More women (More							-	.22	-.05	-.20	.2	-

men)							.22				.2	.05
Equal men and women (More men)							-.17	.24	-.03	-.17	.24	-.03
More minority (more White)							-.47	.22	-.11*	.47	.29	.11
Equal White and Minority (more White)							-.17	.24	-.03	.32	.25	.06
Departmental support							.21	.08	.11*	.17	.09	.09
Athletics (Academic Affairs)							.91	.32	.14**	1.03	.32	.16**
Business Affairs (Academic Affairs)							.62	.24	.15**	.40	.25	.09
Student Affairs (Academic Affairs)							1.33	.27	.23***	1.06	.27	.18***
Organizational												
Administrator communicate priority										-.17	.2	-.09
Admin clear vision										.11	.12	.06
Priority staff										-.04	.10	-.03
Priority faculty										.16	.08	.12*
Priority environment										.10	.09	.07
Priority students										.06	.07	.04
Priority curriculum										-.10	.07	-.08
Priority overall										.06	.12	.04
University 1 (Univ 2)										-.30	.25	-.07
Univerity 3 (Univ 2)										-1.51	.34	-.37***
Model statistics												
R squared	.039			.056			.1			.188		

							2 3					
Change in R squared							.0 6 7 * * *				.066 ***	
	.039**				.017 *							

Category in parentheses represents the reference category
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

TABLE 33

Faculty Standardized Regression Coefficients for Blocked Entry Regression on Perception of Commitment to Diversity

Variable Name	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3			Block 4		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Demographics												
Gender (male)	-.19	.10	-.10	-.09	.11	-.05	.08	.10	.04	.00	.07	.00
Race (white)	-.64	-.11	-.31***	-.66	.11	-.32***	-.48	.10	-.24***	-.21	.08	-.10**
Age	-.00	.00	-.05	-.01	.01	-.14	-.01	.01	-.14	-.01	.01	-.17**
Professional/Attitudinal Characteristics												
Length of employment				.02	.01	.21**	.01	.01	.11	.01	.01	.08
Union status (member)				-.10	.16	.04	-.08	.14	-.03	-.20	.11	-.07
Personal Attitude				.22	.08	.17**	.15	.07	.12*	.09	.05	.07
Not on tenure track (Tenured)				.23	.17	.09	.15	.15	.06	-.10	.12	-.04
Tenure track (Tenured)				.09	.23	.04	.04	.20	.02	-.18	.15	-.09
Assistant Prof (Prof)				.08	.22	.04	.11	.15	.05	.11	.15	.05
Associate Prof (Prof)				.12	.13	.06	-.01	.12	.01	-.04	.09	-.02
Department												

More women (More men)							.12	.13	.07	.05	.10	.03
Equal men and women (More men)							.19	.14	.10	.21	.10	.11*
More minority (more White)							-.20	.15	-.07	-.21	.11	-.07
Equal White and Minority (more White)							.10	.14	.04	-.05	.11	-.02
Departmental support							.39	.04	.49***	.19	.03	.24***
Engineering (Social Sciences)							.3	.18	.11	.15	.14	.05
Humanities (Social Sciences)							.14	.13	.06	.02	.09	.01
Professional (Social Sciences)							.32	.13	.14*	.14	.10	.07
Science (Social Sciences)							.28	.13	.13*	.4	.10	.07
Organizational												
Administrator communicate priority										.2	.04	.07**
Admin clear vision										.28	.07	.38****
Priority staff										.03	.03	.06
Priority faculty										.02	.05	.03
Priority environment										.19	.04	.25****
Priority students										-.01	.04	-.02
Priority curriculum										.0	.04	.05
Priority overall										-.10	.04	-.14*
University 1 (Univ 2)										.13	.09	.07
Univerity 3 (Univ 2)										-.03	.09	-.02

Model statistics												
R squared	.11			.155			.38			.678		
Change in R squared	.107 ***			.048 *			.225 ***			.298 ***		

Category in parentheses represents the reference category
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

TABLE 34

Faculty Standardized Regression Coefficients for Blocked Entry Regression on Change Toward Greater Diversity and Gender Equity over the Past Five Years

Variable Name	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3			Block 4		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Demographics												
Gender (male)	-.20	.10	-.11*	-.14	.11	-.08	-.05	.10	-.03	-.07	.09	-.04
Race (white)	-.36	.11	-.18**	-.37	.11	-.18**	-.23	.11	-.12*	-.07	.10	-.04
Age	.01	.00	.14*	-.00	.01	-.02	-.00	.01	-.04	-.00	.01	-.01
Professional/Attitudinal Characteristics												
Length of employment				.01	.01	.14	.00	.01	.06	.00	.01	.01
Union status (member)				.17	.15	.06	.02	.15	.01	.01	.14	.00
Personal Attitude				..13	.07	.10	.12	.07	.10	.06	.07	.05
Not on tenure track (Tenured)				.36	.07	.14*	.38	.16	.15*	.22	.15	.09
Tenure track (Tenured)				.01	.23	.00	.00	.21	.00	-.13	20	-.06
Assistant Prof (Prof)				-.26	.22	-.13	-.39	.21	-.19	-.24	.19	-12
Associate Prof (Prof)				.02	.13	.01	-.09	.12	-.05	-.13	.11	-.07
Department												
More women (More men)							-.10	.14	-.06	-.04	.13	-.02
Equal men and women (More men)							-.18	.14	-.09	-.06	.13	-.03
More minority (more White)							-.23	.15	-.08	-.22	.15	-.08
Equal White and Minority (more White)							.08	.14	.03	-.12	.14	.08
Departmental support							.32	.04	.42**	.19	.04	.24***
Engineering (Social							.11	.18	.04	.07	.17	.02

Variable	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Sciences)												
Humanities (Social Sciences)							.09	.13	.05	.09	.12	.05
Professional (Social Sciences)							.13	.14	.06	.05	.13	.03
Science (Social Sciences)							-.08	.14	-.04	-.10	.13	-.04
Organizational												
Administrator communicate priority										.10	.05	.15
Admin clear vision										.18	.06	.25**
Priority staff										-.03	.04	-.05
Priority faculty										.12	.06	.16
Priority environment										-.15	.06	-.21**
Priority students										.10	.05	.14
Priority curriculum										.05	.05	.08
Priority overall										.04	.06	.07
University 1 (Univ 2)										-.12	.11	-.06
Univerity 3 (Univ 2)										.03	.12	.02
Model statistics												
R squared	.073			.135			.292			.458		
Change in R squared	.073 ***			.062 **			.158 ***			.166 ***		

Category in parentheses represents the reference category
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

TABLE 35

Faculty Standardized Regression Coefficients for Blocked Entry Regression on Involvement in Diversity-Related Activities

Variable Name	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3			Block 4		
	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β
Demographics												
Gender (male)	1.17	.36	.17***	.127	.37	.20**	1.08	.38	.17*	1.17	.39	.18**
Race (white)	1.17	.40	.15*	1.29	.39	.18**	1.27	.39	.18*	1.30	.41	.18**
Age	.01	.02	.04	-.00	.02	-.01	-.00	.02	-.01	.00	.02	.00
Professional/At titudinal												

Characteristics									
Length of employment	.01	.02	.02	-.03	.03	-.09	-.0	.03	-.11
Union status (member)	.07	.54	.01	.24	.54	.03	.08	.57	.01
Personal Attitude	-.12	.26	-.27***	-.91	.27	-.20**	-.81	.27	-.18**
Not on tenure track (Tenured)	-1.32	.60	-.12	-1.32	.50	-.14*	-1.28	.61	-.14*
Tenure track (Tenured)	.69	.80	.09	.31	.79	.04	.27	.79	.04
Assistant Prof (Prof)	-.89	.78	-.12	-1.08	.76	-.15	-.88	.77	-.12
Associate Prof (Prof)	.27	.46	.04	.02	.45	.00	-.04	.45	-.01
Department									
More women (More men)				-.70	.52	-.11	-.38	.53	-.06
Equal men and women (More men)				-.71	.52	-.10	-.59	.53	-.09
More minority (more White)				.84	.57	.08	1.13	.59	.11*
Equal White and Minority (more White)				-.22	.54	-.02	-.06	.57	-.01
Departmental support				.43	.16	.15**	.33	.18	.11
Engineering (Social Sciences)				-1.70	.70	-.16**	-2.14	.72	-.21**
Humanities (Social Sciences)				.24	.49	.03	.51	.49	.07
Professional (Social Sciences)				-.75	.52	-.10	-.72	52	-.09
Science (Social Sciences)				-1.51	.52	-.19**	-1.45	.53	-.19
Organizational									
Administrator communicate priority							.29	.22	.12
Admin clear vision							-.33	.22	-.13
Priority staff							.05	.17	.03
Priority faculty							.21	.24	.08
Priority environment							-.17	.23	-.07
Priority students							.35	.19	.15
Priority curriculum							-.25	.18	-.11
Priority overall							.25	.23	.10
University 1							-.63	.47	-.09

	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
(Univ 2)												
Univerity 3 (Univ 2)										-.50	.48	-.08
Model statistics												
R squared	.097			.192			.272			.320		
Change in R squared	.097 ***			.095 ***			.080 **			.048 *		

Category in parentheses represents the reference category
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001

TABLE 36

Faculty Standardized Regression Coefficients for Blocked Entry Regression on Diversity Course Behavior

Variable Name	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3			Block 4		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Demographics												
Gender (male)	3.27	.42	.41***	2.31	.42.	.29***	1.70	.36	.21***	1.76	.36	.22**
Race (white)	.90	.48	.10	1.28	.45	.15**	1.10	.38	.12**	1.05	.39	.12**
Age	.02	.02	.05	-.00	.02	-.01	-.00	.02	-.01	-.00	.02	-.01
Professional/Attitudinal Characteristics												
Length of employment				.05	.03	.15*	-.02	.02	-.05	-.01	.02	-.02
Union status (member)				-1.98	.62	-.16**	-.91	.51	-.08	-1.27	.54	-.10*
Personal Attitude				-1.63	.30	-.29**	-.80	.26	-.16**	-.80	.26	-.14**
Not on tenure track (Tenured)				-.51	.68	-.05	-.93	.56	-.08	-.68	.57	-.06
Tenure track (Tenured)				-1.27	.74	-.14	-1.27	.74	-.14	-1.06	.75	-.12
Assistant Prof (Prof)				1.61	.88	.18	1.09	.72	.12	.10	.73	.11
Associate Prof (Prof)				.77	.52	.09	.20	.43	.02	.27	.43	.03
Department												
More women (More men)							-.40	.49	-.05	-.32	.49	-.04
Equal men and women (More men)							-.88	.50	-.10	-1.08	.50	-.13*
More minority (more White)							.43	.54	.04	.64	.56	.05

							B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Equal White and Minority (more White)							-.11	.50	-.01	.64	.56	.05
Departmental support							.17	.15	.05	.28	.17	.08
Engineering (Social Sciences)							-4.79	.64	-.37***	-4.81	.67	-.37***
Humanities (Social Sciences)							1.20	.46	.12**	1.2	.46	.13**
Professional (Social Sciences)							-2.23	.49	-.23**	-2.00	.9	-.21***
Science (Social Sciences)							-4.59	.49	-.47***	-4.49	.50	-.46***
Organizational												
Administrator communicate priority										-.24	.20	-.08
Admin clear vision										-.21	.21	-.06
Priority staff										-.06	.16	-.02
Priority faculty										.36	.23	.11
Priority environment										.00	.22	.00
Priority students										-.20	.18	-.07
Priority curriculum										-.15	.17	-.05
Priority overall										.02	.21	.01
University 1 (Univ 2)										-.85	.44	-.10
Univerity 3 (Univ 2)										-1.14	.45	-.14*
Model statistics												
R squared	.175			.327			.580			.606		
Change in R squared	.175***			.152***			.253***			.026		

Category in parentheses represents the reference category
*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001