Measuring the Effectiveness of Affirmative Action

in Federal Agencies: 1979 -2002

by

Romona Saunders

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Approved April 2011 by the
Graduate Supervisory Committee:

N. Joseph Cayer, Co-Chair
Nicholas Alozie, Co-Chair
G. Zhiyong Lan

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

May 2011

ABSTRACT

This dissertation examines the performance of various federal departments on the success of their integration of personnel based on race and gender. It determines if there are variations in the success rate and explores the reasons for the variations based on the literature review and data analysis. The data used are federal employee data compiled by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management, Merit System Protection Board, and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission through use of personnel surveys from 1979 through 2002 and annual reports. The study uses a cross-sectional model to test whether women and minorities in General Schedule grades 13 -15 have benefited from the implementation of Affirmative Action policy in their prospective agency over time. The effect of department size and affirmative action on the success rate of women and minorities was observed. The data shows that women at the GS 13 -15 grades have made significant gains in their participation rates at all of the departments within the study from 1979 - 2002. The gains made by minorities at the GS 13 -15 grades were not at the same rate as women. In several departments, the participation rates were either flat or decreased. The regression model showed that there is a linear relationship between the success of women and the success of minorities at the GS 13 -15 grade levels within federal departments.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my mother, Mary L. Williams and grandmother, Lillie Mae Duvall. Without their love, guidance, and faith, I would not have been able to accomplish any of this. To my husband, Javier Saunders for his love, patience and encouragement for me to climb new heights and make new trails for our lives. To my beautiful daughters, Kamaria, Kanisha, and Kamille, who are my inspiration and my hope for better world, I did this for them because I know that they will accomplish more than I could ever dream. To my precious granddaughters, Khyana and Khiyah, they are my future. To my sisters, Allene and Karen and my extended family, I thank you for your love and support throughout this process. To my many sisterfriends that I've met along the way thank you for being there for me, especially Paulette, Audrey, and Deborah. A special thanks to all of my sisters of Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority, Delta Beta Omega chapter, for their encouragement, prayers, and example.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation could not have been written if not for the help of the following

people:

Dr. N. Joseph Cayer, Dr. Nicholas Alozie, and Dr. G. Zhiyong Lan, my dissertation

committee, who provided their invaluable assistance, encouragement, and support.

Dr. Colleen Bryon, I truly could not have gotten this done without the mentoring

and encouraging words over many a breakfast at Harlow's Restaurant. She kept

reminding me to keep at, not to give up and take all of the baby steps, I needed.

Thank you forever, Colleen.

Dr. Lottie Lecian and Dr. Audrey Guydon, who took on the role of mentor with

their phone calls, queries about my progress and their encouraging words.

Last, but certainly not least, Dr. Traci Williams, who voluntarily spent several long

evenings with me, running my regression analysis, and helping me figure out what it

all meant.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This study examines the performance of various federal agencies on the success of their integration of personnel based on race and gender. The Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 (CSRA) was passed into law to "improve the federal personnel system in general and the performance of public employees in particular" (Cayer, 1996, p. 30). The Equal Employment Opportunities (EEO) and Affirmative Action (AA) policies implemented as a result of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the CSRA passage were to increase recruitment; retention; and promotion opportunities for minorities and women while maintaining merit system principles. EEO policies and programs were the mechanism to address discrimination that took place in the workplace and AA programs were designed to overcome the effects of past discriminatory practices. Minority employees have a larger representation in the federal workforce than they do in the civilian workforce, at least for Blacks, Asian/Pacific Islanders, and Native Americans; however, these groups tend to be concentrated in the clerical and technical fields and are limited in their representation in the management and professional positions and the senior executive positions. Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB) found in 1996 that the average grade of minorities in administrative and profession positions was lower than white males, and minority women had an even higher rate of grade disparity than their male counterparts even when differences in education, experience, and other advancement factors are controlled for statistically (U.S. Merit System Protection Board, 1996, p. xiii). Minorities overall held 29% of total jobs in the federal workforce, but only 10% of the senior executive positions; in comparison, white women held 12% of

1

senior executive positions (U.S. Merit System Protection Board, 1996).   In 2006,

minorities were 32.1% of the total federal workforce, a three percent increase while

still only 10% of the senior pay level; women comprised 43.9% of the total

workforce and white women held 21.1% of the senior pay level positions (U.S. Equal

Employment Opportunity Commission, 2009). and The General Accounting Office

report (1992) to Congressional Committees called *Federal Employment: How Federal*

Employees View the Government as a Place to work, found that all but one comment on

equity and fairness were negative (U.S. General Accounting Office, 1992, p. 42). The

questions to be answered then were why has federal EEO management and AA

policies and procedures failed to advance minorities and women to senior executive

positions commensurate with their proportions in the federal employee population?

Is this lack of advancement applicable across the entire federal government or is it

agency specific dependent on how well the agency has implemented EEO and AA

policies?

      This study focuses on the General Schedule employees in grades GS 13 -15,

who are in the feeder pipeline to the Senior Executive Service (SES).   Using data

from OPM and MSPB, the study provides a statistical look at the minority and

female population in the specified grades. It also reviews and analyzes how

successful the specific agencies have been in integrating minorities and women

through implementation of EEO and AA programs and policies and lastly discuss

what must be done in the future to help those agencies that may be lagging in

progress of integrating minorities and women. The variations in the agencies success

in incorporating minorities and women at the higher grade levels and the reasons for

the variations are explored based on current literature and research.

There will also be a review of presidential directives, legislative statutes, and judicial decisions relative to equal employment opportunity, affirmative action and diversity policies. It will also use employee data from the Office of Personnel Management, Merit Systems Protection Board and Equal Employment Opportunity to identify specific organizational characteristics.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

What factors affect the successful incorporation of women and minorities within the federal sector? Do agencies that embrace the policies referenced above have greater success than those that do not? Whether and how some federal agencies organizations have embraced and implemented the changes in public policy specifically regarding the employment, promotion, and integration of women and minorities within the agency is an especially relevant question today when the presidential office is held by an African American male. The question of whether we are in a post-racial America because of the historic 2008 election can be partially answered by looking at various federal agencies and their employees. As the role model for both public and private human resource practices, the status of women and minority federal employees would be a good indicator that race and gender are no longer relevant factors for promotion and hiring.

Previous efforts to ascertain the success of women and minorities reaching the highest positions within government agencies have separated the agencies with respect to the nature of the organization's mission and the traditional roles held by women and minorities within the different types of agencies (Cornwell & Kellough, 1994; Lewis, 1994; Cayer & Siegelman, 1980; Kellough, 1992; Kerr, Miller, & Reid, 2002) . There are organizations that we would stereotypically expect these groups to

penetrate easily to the highest levels, such as the Office of Personnel Management and Department of Education. We would also expect that there are other organizations where minorities and women would have a more difficult time achieving executive levels, for example the Department of Defense and Federal Bureau of Investigations, due to their being predominantly staffed by males.

What are the factors that indicate that a federal agency has actively and successfully implemented policies that ensure the successful incorporation of women and minorities within the federal government? Can policy implementation be quantified and used to create a scale that identifies which agencies have incorporated diversity as part of their mission. There are federal agencies in which it is expected that women and minorities are able to penetrate to senior levels of management easily, while in other agencies these groups are rarely found in the senior management. Why have some agencies been able to successfully accomplish the goals of the affirmative action and equal employment policies while other agencies struggle to diversify their employee ranks when compared to the civilian labor force? The level of success will vary between agencies dependent on variety of factors, such as agency function, availability of qualified candidates, gender and race of supervisors, educational and training opportunities and mentorship.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review begins with a discussion of representative bureaucracy, a review of public policy implementation of the equal employment opportunity, affirmative action and diversity programs. It is followed by a discussion of public management theory, public personnel policy, and the impact of occupational

segregation. The literature review also looks at the research on feminism and gendered organizations for a discussion on how the influx of women has impacted their representation within federal agencies. The chapter concludes with a discussion of significant legislation, recent court rulings, and important presidential executive orders that impact federal personnel policy.

The United States government has had a policy of achieving a workforce that is representative of the diversity of its citizens. The passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and then Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 changed federal personnel policy from not only eliminating discriminatory practices within federal agencies to requiring the federal workplace to reflect the demographics of the nation. The theory of representative bureaucracy became a merit principle of federal personnel policy. Kingsley (1944) wrote about the British civil service system and its "superficial democracy" (p. 141) due to the lack of opportunity for ordinary citizens to serve or be promoted to the administrative ranks because of educational inequalities. Krislov (1974) applied Kingsley work to American society and developed the representative bureaucracy theory which focused on the demographics of civil servants and how their presence could impact policy and implementation decisions on the communities that they represent. Meier (1993) argues that representative bureaucracy carried out the democratic ideal of the nation. Kellough (1992, 2006), Naff & Thomas(1994), Naff & Crum (2000), Naff (2003), Lewis (1986, 1988, 1994) have researched extensively the policy implementation impacts of bringing women and minorities into the federal service.

Mosher (1982) expanded the concepts of active and passive representation. He defined active or functional representativeness as the expectation that individuals

would actively press for the interests of the group they represent while passive representation means the mere presence of the individual serves as symbolic representation for their group regardless of the action or policy position taken by the individual.

Rosenbloom and Featherstonhough (1977) further examined the concepts of active and passive representation and concluded that passive representation could be the prerequisite for greater active representation. They found that there is a significant difference between black and white federal employee political participation. Even though passive in terms of representation due to their concentration in the lower levels of federal bureaucracy, black employees were more likely to reflect the political outlook of their community and were more likely to voice the perspectives and values of their group when given an opportunity. They conclude that a service workforce that reflects the greater society can be more representative in an active sense than a workforce that is lacking participation from some members of society.

As the literature review in Chapter 2 demonstrates, scholars have extensively examined the degree to which women and minorities have achieved representation in the federal service. (Riccucci N. , 1986; Riccucci N. M., 2009; Reskin & Roos, 1990; Naff & Crum, 2000; Naff K. , 1994; Schneider, 1993) explored women's career progression and drawbacks within federal, state and municipal agencies. Other scholars have examined the link between passive and active representation, such as Krislov (1974; Meier, 1975; Rosenbloom & Festherstonhough, 1977; Sowa & Selden, 2003). Still others have examined the policy implications of gender and minority status in high level administrative and leadership positions such as (Crosby &

VanDeVeer, 2000; Crosby, Iyer, Clayton, & Downing, 2003; Crosby F. J., 2004) who have done extensive research on affirmative action and equal employment opportunity policy. Diversity policy and its implementation has been extensively researched by (Thomas, 1990; Selden & Selden, 2001; Wise & Tschirhart, 2000).

There have been significant legislative actions, most recently the passage of Lilly Ledbetter Fair Pay Act of 2009; but the beginning of change in personnel policy really begins with the passage of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and for women the passage of the Equal Pay of 1963 and for federal agencies, the passage of the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978. The literature review will provide the foundational theories that will be used to identify the critical elements that can help predict how successful agencies are at incorporating women and minorities into their organizational structure.

METHODOLOGY

The study uses quantitative analysis. The primary objective of the quantitative analysis is to determine in which federal agency, female or minority employees are more successfully being trained, promoted, and reaching the senior executive service level within the agency. Several data sources will be used to achieve this objective. The data on the federal employees will come from the U.S. Office of Personnel Management (OPM) Government Employee Survey from 1979-80, 1991-2, the National Partnership for Reinvention Government Surveys from 1998, 1999, 2000, and the Federal Human Capital Survey for 2002. These datasets will be used to develop a scale based on several variables by whether the dataset agency has been successfully at incorporating women and minorities into the agency.

Quantitative analysis using employee survey data as well as "hard data" from the Office of Personnel Management's Demographic Profile of the Federal Workforce which uses data compiled from OPM's Central Personnel Data File and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission annual reports will be performed. Each of these offices is required to conduct surveys and collect employment data on a regular basis. They report their findings to Congress and the President. For example, the Merit Principle Surveys conducted in 2005 and 2007 were designed to explore the performance of the Federal workforce. In particular, the survey was designed to find out how successful federal agencies were at achieving their mission, particularly in terms of preparing for success by assembling a well-qualified workforce, overcoming barriers to successful mission accomplishment, and preserving success through rewards, recognition, and retention. The 2007 Career Advancement Survey was conducted as part of a study examining Federal employees' career advancement strategies and work experiences. The study also reviewed whether career advancement opportunities vary for different groups of employees.

STUDY ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Several assumptions have been made regarding the behavior of the survey respondents in this study. It is assumed that each person willingly and without pressure answered the survey questions. It is also assumed that the respondents answered the survey questions honestly. It is also assumed that the survey results are representative of the federal employees within their respective agencies.

Some of the study limitations concern the reliability and quality of the historical federal civilian workforce statistics, data and analysis. For federal workforce statistics, the data used was from OPM's 2002, 2000, 1998, 1996 and 1992 Fact Books, OPM's

webpage for federal statistics, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's Annual Report on the Federal Work Force FY 2003, and the 1979 and 1980 Federal Civilian Workforce Statistics. Historical data on federal employment for the 1980's was difficult to obtain.

OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

The objective of the first chapter is to provide a brief overview of the study, to provide a theoretical foundation, to describe the rationale and significance of the study and to indentify the assumptions of the study. This will be a discussion of the significance of identifying the organizational characteristics that affect how successfully women and minorities are integrated within a federal organization. The objective of chapter 2 will be a literature review of the research relevant to the study. Chapter 3 discusses the research design, research questions, data collection methodology and analytical framework for the study. Chapter 4 will be a presentation of the findings of the study. Chapter 5 will present discussion and implications of the findings and suggestions for future study.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter examines the research and literature on the effect of implementation of affirmative action policies on the careers of women and minorities employed in federal agencies.

REPRESENTATIVE BUREAUCRACY

Representative bureaucracy is the public policy theory that contends that a bureaucracy to be effective in serving its constituents, it must be composed of members who are representative of the population. Scholars have long suggested representative bureaucracy as the paradigm for the American dream of coping effectively with diversity in its society by assuring that diverse communities have access to and participate in the public policymaking process (Krislov 1974; Naff and Crum 2000). Since the introduction of the theory of representative bureaucracy by Kingsley, researchers have studied and debated the impact of hiring staffers with differing ethnic and social backgrounds in order for government agencies to make equitable policy decisions. Kingsley studied the British civil service, finding that it was a reflection of the British stratified social structure. The social structure was a result according to Kingsley of the lack of educational opportunity for the general populace. Only a limited number of working class students were able to acquire higher education needed to be hired into the Administrative class of British civil service system. This left the Administrative class largely in the hands of the ruling class, who could afford to send their children to universities and colleges. The members of the working class of British society were relegated to the Service Class positions which were difficult to move up from because of the competitive exams

required.   Because of these conditions, Kingsley noted that the British middle class agitated for greater access to employment in the public sector. Other critics of the system, complained about the narrow selection process and increasing scope of the governmental tasks and the lack of imaginative problem solvers coming from the narrow slice of the British society. The British Civil Service system as Kingsley saw it was largely undemocratic system within a democratic society.

Krislov (1974) studied representative bureaucracy and its applicability to the American civil service system. Krislov agreed that social status was a significant factor in employment in the American civil service, but also recognized that government service can symbolically used be as the mechanism for social change. The employment of the minorities would have significant impact on policy outcomes and the cumulative influence on policy. Krislov suggests that active representative bureaucracy leads to increased access by diverse communities into the policy-making processes of federal organizations. A diverse workforce theoretically leads to greater inclusion of those traditionally outside the process.

Representative bureaucracy has two foundational concepts, active and passive representation. Active representation is the concept that members of a group within organizations will use their position and influence to promote the interests of the group they represent. Passive representation assumes that the employment of minorities within an organization will lead to active representation or influences on policies that affect the group (Mosher 1982; Selden 1997). Krislov (1974), Meier (1975), Krislov and Rosenbloom (1981) and other proponents of the representative bureaucracy framework argue that the demographics of the public sector affects the nature and substance of governmental output. The expectation is

that governmental decisions will be more responsive to the citizens if the government decision makers look more like the citizens.

Dolan (2000) found that female SES members were more supportive of women's issues than their male counterparts. She also found that the greater the representation of a group, the more likely that the executive will advocate for their issues of concern. As the percentage of female SES staff members increase within an agency, so does the agency's support for women's issues. Naff (2001) questions whether women and minorities will be able to affect the policy outcomes if they have less influence and discretion than their white male counterparts. The Civil Service Reform Act was enacted to provide male and female executives who were indistinguishable from each other, but research studies have found that it has been difficult for women and minorities to reach the policy making levels of federal agencies where they can influence decisions (Lewis, 1994; Kellough, 1990). Bradbury and Kellough (2010) found that public administration literature showed ample evidence that the presence of minority group members were positively associated with policy outcomes that were consistent with the interest of the group members.

Researchers Milward and Swanson (1979) suggest that the lack of agency support for a representative workforce is due to organizational behavior which is resistant to externally-imposed demands, i.e., Congress and consent decrees from the Judiciary. They suggest that in fact agencies will attempt to meet these demands while minimizing the impact on the organization by placing women and minorities in positions outside of the core business of the organization (Milward & Swanson, 1979).

Equal employment opportunities were one of the major focus areas of U.S. civil rights movement. The 1940s and 1950s civil rights activists sought to have blacks hired into white collar and high skilled jobs that had traditionally been held by whites in the belief that racism was the root cause of employment discrimination and that it could be solved at the individual level through "reasoned debate and education" (Sugrue, 1998, p. 888). Equal employment policy has been heavily studied and researched by scholars and practitioners. The federal government with more than three million employees is considered the largest affirmative action employer in the United States. The Hudson Institute's Workforce 2000 (1987)argued that the changing demographics of the United States workforce required changes in the human resource hiring practices. They suggested that organizations would need to change their recruiting, and employee motivation methods in order to hire and retain the best workers regardless of demographic background. Konrad (2003) outlines three arguments for racial and gender diversity for businesses, that with a more diverse workforce, U.S. business can attract the highest quality talent; the global marketplace means a more diverse customer base; demographically diverse groups perform better than homogeneous groups in problem-solving and creativity because they have a greater variety of information, experience, and perspectives (Konrad, 2003, p. 5). Other researchers also found that racially heterogeneous groups produced higher quality ideas, outperformed homogenous groups, had increased creativity and implementation ability, and added to their organization's competitive edge (Richard, 2000; Watson, Kumar, & Michaelson, 1993; O'Reilly, Williams, & Barsade, 1997; Cox, Lobel, & Mcleod, 1991).

The implementation of affirmative action policies traces its origins back to the Reconstruction era when the first Civil Rights Acts were enacted in 1875 which attempted to give former slaves the full of rights of citizenship. These laws sought to enforce equality in public facilities, education, conveyances, theater and entertainment, cemeteries, and jury duty at all levels. They were later ruled unconstitutional in 1883 by the Supreme Court (Wyatt-Brown, 1965). The Supreme Court would rule in 1896 in *Plessy v. Ferguson* that blacks had no rights that whites were obligated to honor. This led to the Jim Crow era of separate but usually unequal accommodations for blacks and whites. It was in response to the formal and informal segregationist policies of the United States that the civil rights movement was born. The movement originally sought fair and equal public accommodations, but the leaders soon realized that separate was inherently unequal and its purpose became its fight to integrate black citizens fully into American society.

In 1938, social scientist Dr. Gunnar Myrdal of Stockholm, Sweden was asked by the Carnegie Corporation to come to the United States to study the "American Negro Problem." What resulted was a seminal study of race relations in America entitled *An American Dilemma: The Negro Problem and Modern Democracy* first published in 1944. He questioned the cognitive dissonance of the "American Creed" and the reality of racial discrimination. He wondered how America could claim to respect the dignity of all persons, equality and the inalienable right to freedom and justice abroad while tolerating the violation of the dignity of black Americans and denial of their right to freedom and justice at home (Myrdal, 1996, p. xxii). During World War II, America's international prestige suffered as it fought against a racist regime with a segregated military and a racial caste system at home (Dudziak, 2000). Researchers

14

commented on America's conflict between the practice of white male dominance and racial discrimination while advocating for racial equality. They believe this contradiction can be explained by the conflict between the Liberal Paradigm and the American Creed that exists in American thought. The American Creed is described by Myrdal as the common "social ethos, a political creed" that is shared by everyone in American society (Myrdal, 1996, pp. 3-4). The American creed is seen as being race neutral and therefore traditional American values of individualism, meritocracy, and work ethics are race neutral values; however history has shown these values to be consistent with maintaining the status quo domination by majority white and male population and subordination of the minority and female population. In contrast, the liberal paradigm assumes that people are basically good and that antisocial behavior is the result of external environmental influence. It also argues that social problems can be fixed by social engineering, repairing the external environment or the institutions. (Capaldi, 1997-1998; Stokes, Lawson, & Smitherman, 2003; Harris-Lacewell, 2003; Smith, 1997).

Sugrue (1998) argues that affirmative action is the product of five major public issues. Those issues include the newly awakened human rights consciousness coming out of the New Deal and World War II; the racial liberalism of the 1940s; the militant civil rights activism that targeted employment discrimination; faith in the government to be the agent to solve social problems and the resistance of whites who saw their racial privileges threatened by antidiscrimination efforts. As a result of the New Deal and President Roosevelt's Second bill of Rights in 1944, government came to be viewed as the guarantor of jobs, food, home and economic security for old age, health, and unemployment (Sugrue, 1998, pp. 886-887). Stokes et al. (2003)

believe that it was the political elite of both races who envisioned affirmative action not only as the public policy needed for the US to reach racial equality, but also as a means to redress black oppression; i.e., as a form of reparations (Stokes, Lawson, & Smitherman, 2003, p. 15). Even though President Roosevelt's New Deal programs, while providing some economic relief for blacks, were not designed as an aid for victims of racial discrimination. In response to the demands of the burgeoning civil rights movement, public policies needed to be developed to address some of the concerns of the movement adherents. One of the first policies developed was the concept of the federal contractors taking affirmative action in order to reach racial equality within their employee's ranks. President Roosevelt is credited with being the first US president to affirm the pursuit of racial equality when he issued Executive Order 8802 in 1941 to prohibit national defense contractors from discriminating on the basis of race, creed, color, or national origin. The effort was limited in its effectiveness according to Fleming et al (1978) because there was no mechanism for enforcement, the Committee on Fair Employment (FEPC) could only investigate complaints and make recommendations. It faced stiff opposition from both Congress and the industrial groups and ceased functioning in 1946 due to failure to be funded. Yet, by then more than sixteen states had implemented non-discriminatory employment laws and created commissions modeled after the FEPC (Ruchames, 1953).

President Johnson followed with Executive Order 11246 in 1965 which added enforcement to the affirmative action by requiring government contractors to comply by hiring and promoting all qualified applicants regardless of their race, color, or national origin or else face legal and financial sanctions (Stokes, Lawson, &

Smitherman, 2003). President Johnson's Labor Secretary Willard Wirtz created the Office of Federal Contract Compliance (OFCC) responsible for enforcing Executive Order 11246. Its founding head, Edward Sylvester decided to take on the construction industry and the skilled craft unions who excluded minorities from their apprenticeship programs and membership thereby excluding African-Americans from high paying construction jobs. Sylvester created a contract compliance model based on an existing plan used by the city of Philadelphia which required building contractors to submit their minority hiring plans pre-award. As a result of complaints, court appeals and a lame duck administration, the federal Philadelphia plan appeared to be dead in the water. Newly elected President Nixon who had run on a platform disavowing racial quotas and in support of a constitutional amendment banning school busing along with his Secretary of Labor, George Schulz, revived the Philadelphia plan in a political effort to break the grip of the craft unions and to split the Democrat's black-labor alliance. In 1970, Nixon's Labor department required all federal contractors to submit written affirmative action plans with numerical goals and timetables to achieve proportional minority representation in the area work force (Swain, 2001; Graham, 1992).

Affirmative action was defined by the United States Commission on Civil Rights as "any measure, beyond simple termination of a discriminatory practice, adopted to correct or compensate for past or present discrimination or to prevent discrimination from recurring in the future" (USCCR 1977 p.2). Brest and Oshige (1995) define it as a program that "seeks to remedy the significant underrepresentation of members of certain racial, ethnic, or other groups through measures that take group membership or identity into account" (Brest & Oshige,

17

1995, p. 856). Mullen (1988) states that affirmative action "attempts to make progress toward substantive rather than merely formal, equality of opportunity for those groups…which are currently underrepresented in significant positions in society" (p.244). Fleming et al. (1978) defined it as "a preventative procedure designed to minimized probability of discrimination. It is the deliberative undertaking of positive steps to design and implement employment procedures so as to ensure that the employment system provides equal opportunity to all" (Fleming, Gill, & Swinton, 1978, p. 5). Kellough (2006) states that affirmative action is primarily a policy intended to promote the redistribution of opportunity (p.3).

Crosby (2004) offers that the nontechnical definition of affirmative action is the "expenditure of energy or resources by an organization in the quest for equality among individuals from different, discernible groups" She states that it is this definition that has acceptance from both proponents and opponents as well as both Republican and Democratic administrations (Crosby F. J., 2004, p. 5). Skrentny (1998) asserts that there cannot be one definitive definition for affirmative action because the policy continues to evolve and is different within each area of concern. He also states that while there is opposition, there is also support for some versions of affirmative action (Skrentny, 2001, p. 877). Public opinion has been mostly supportive or unopposed to affirmative action programs that provide special education or training programs for the protective groups to enhance their qualifications, but there is strong opposition to programs that establish quotas or that favor "less" qualified minorities or women (Klugel & Smith, 1983).

All of these definitions still leave unanswered the question of whether affirmative action is the fair and efficient policy to provide educational and economic

opportunities for minorities. Despite this, affirmative action has been implemented in a concerted effort to "end the unfair treatment of minorities and women in the job market" (USCCR 1977 p.1). Tierney (1997) calls affirmative action an active policy, designed to change the status quo. This is in contrast to equal opportunity policy, which required no action on the part of the organization, just an acknowledgement that all are entitled to a fair chance, relying on the good faith efforts of the organization (Tierney, 1997, p. 172). Robinson et al. (1998) defined equal opportunity, in the strictest sense being that all individuals are to be treated equally regardless of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (Robinson, Paolillo, & Reithel, 1998, pp. 349-350). Kellough (2006) called equal opportunity programs "little more than expressions of sentiment" (Kellough, 2006, p. 9).

Affirmative action falls into four categories. Those categories are: recruitment of underrepresented groups, changing management attitudes, removing discriminatory obstacles, or preferential treatment (Ledvinka & Scarpello, 1990). With the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, employers, particularly those in the South began an effort of cosmetic changes in personnel practices, resulting in a flurry of educational requirements and testing that supposedly were race neutral, but which were in fact designed to continue to relegate black applicants and employees to the lowest levels of employment (Ledvinka & Scarpello, 1990, p. 62). It has been the efforts of employers, schools, and universities to implement the goals of affirmative action particularly in the preferential treatment category that has resulted in numerous lawsuits and contentious political debate.

Public support of affirmative action policy has been dependent on the perception of the fairness of the policy. Generally those that oppose affirmative

action perceive it to be unfair and that it is a violation of procedural justice principles. Procedural justice is the perception of fairness and consistency of procedures associated with decision-making. If the members of the protected class are perceived as receiving benefits while others are disadvantaged as a result, then a violation of consistency is perceived. The greater the weight given to group membership as opposed to individual merit, the greater the opposition (Aberson & Haag, 2003; Kravitz, Klineberg, Avery, Nguyen, Lund, & Fu, 2000).

Increased diversity and the benefits of a diverse population became the foundational argument for affirmative action programs (Crosby, Iyer, Clayton, & Downing, 2003). Diversity management has been adopted and applied to most major public policy issues, with employment and education being the most visible of the policy issues.   The Hudson Institute's study, Workforce 2000: Work and Workers in the 21st Century (1987) was one of the first major studies to warn that demographics of the U.S. labor force are undergoing a major transformation that would impact the type of people being hired and how these people need to be managed within organizations. They hypothesized that organizations would have to rethink how they recruited future employees, how to motivate the new and existing employees and how to retain current employees. Organizations would have to review their current human resource policies and practices to remove any barriers that may impede the successful incorporation of the new workforce population (Johnston & Packer, 1987).

Civil Service 2000 released in 1988 by the Hudson Institute was the federal workforce forecast of future employment trends. It also predicted a crisis in the government's ability to attract a quality workforce unless steps were taken to address

its recruitment and retention issues. The report predicted the need for college trained and technically skilled employees would continue on an upward trend; that the pool of new entrants in the US workforce would be smaller and more diverse; and that the government would not be able to compete for the newly trained college graduates or retain seasoned white collar professionals. Cameron et al. (1993) reviewed the U.S. Office of Personnel Management report, "Revisiting Civil Service 2000: New Policy Direction Needed" published in 1993 and found that new report recommended that federal human resource managers change their focus from recruitment and retention to effective management of the existing workforce. The 1993 report agreed that highly skilled employees would continue to trend upward, but that the rise in professional and administrative jobs would plateau due to the downsizing by the Department of Defense. It disagreed with the 1988 report's forecast that incoming workforce would be smaller because the original report didn't take into account the level of immigration and increased labor force participation it failed to recognize because minorities and women having made gains in educational attainment, thereby creating a larger pool of qualified applicants. The report also disputed that the new entrants would be more diverse and cites the Bureau of Labor Statistics that projects that men and women would enter the workforce at an equal rate. The 1993 report disagrees with the 1988 report citing that the government had been successful in competing for new college graduates and that turnover rates were at historic low levels.

Cayer and Sigelman (1980) explored the impact on state and local governments both quantitatively and qualitatively for the years 1973 through 1975. This will also provide some idea as to whether or not forward progress has been

made in the arena of diversity public policy or has the term become just a euphemism for everything that is slightly different from the societal norm. They measured the quantity of minority employed in state and local governments and the level of representation by use of the "representativeness ratios" which is the group's percentage of government jobs divided by its percent in the general population. They also compared minority and female distribution of state and local employees in 15 functional areas and lastly they compared minority and female median salary by function. Their results indicated that women and minorities had made gains since the implementation of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, in total numbers, while white males had lost ground during the study time period. They found that state and local government workforce grew by more than 90,000 positions between 1973 and 1975 and the number of white males in the workforce dropped by more than 91,000. This resulted in over 95,000 positions opening up for women and minorities and a 51% gain in new opportunities. They found that there was a pattern of gender stereotyping of jobs in such areas as police and fire, health, and social work. Minorities were overrepresented in areas such as sanitation and sewage and housing and least represented in police and fire positions. Lastly, they found that women's salaries were significantly lower than those of men and fell below the median salary for white males in the study period. This was attributed to the longer job tenure of white males, the low entry level positions that women took and the segregation of women in lower paying, menial positions.

Subsequent researchers have built upon the work of Cayer and Sigelman (1980) by exploring various methods of measuring representativeness of women and minority employees in the state, local, and federal organizations. The levels of

representativeness of minority and women employees in the federal sector have been significantly studied by researchers. The level of integration of the workforce from 1982-1988 and the impact of ethnic and racial groups on policy within a federal agency has been studied. As expected, women are found to be employed in higher percentage at federal agencies in a large proportion of clerical jobs, but unexpectedly they found that agencies with high level of technical jobs also had positive proportions of women employed. African Americans had lower levels of employment in agencies with high proportions of professionals while showing greater representation in agencies with high percentages of clerical and blue-collar jobs. The same can be said for Hispanic employees who were more highly represented in agencies with high percentages of blue-collar jobs. Blacks and Hispanics were found to be overrepresented in Equal Employment Opportunity Commission District offices while whites were under-represented at the agency (Cornwell & Kellough, 1994; Hindera, 1993). Other researchers have compared the level of representativeness of the public sector versus the private sector. They found that state and local governments have successfully incorporated blacks into their workforce with representativeness the ratio (defined as the group percentage in the workforce divided by its percentage in the population) exceeding 1.0 in several states. They also surpassed the private sector in the level of salary paid and number of positions held. Women are also better represented in the public sector than in the private sector. However, Hispanics still lag behind in state and local government representation compared to how they do in the private sector (Dometrius & Siegelman, 1984). Other studies have used the educational levels to compare the representativeness of women and minorities in the senior pay levels.

They found women were well represented in the federal workforce but only had achieved segmented equality, which is equality within the group or category but no equality between groups. White males dominate in the senior pay levels regardless of the credentials of women, holding 24% of the senior level positions in 2000 (Hsieh & Winslow, 2006). The representativeness in federal employment in relationship to the political affiliation of the President was studied and it was found that there was little to no relationship between the party in power and the demographics of the federal workforce. There has been a steady increase in the numbers of minorities and women represented, but this is attributed the affirmative action programs put in place in the 1970s. These programs continue to work regardless of the support or lack of support that the president provides for increasing workforce diversity (Naff & Crum, 2000; Kim, 2003).

At the state level researchers studied the representativeness of women and minority career and political appointed employees in policy-making positions in state governments. They found that women lagged behind men in the percentage of political appointments regardless of race. For example there were only 7 female city managers in 1971 which has risen to slightly more than 100 in 1986. Whites held 87% of all political appointed jobs in 1996. They found that while women had achieved a greater degree of representation in political appointment, they were still only appointed to those department and state agencies that were traditionally held by women. As for minorities, their numbers have increased in some areas such as police and fire, there are still too few appointments made to draw any meaningful conclusions (Bowling, Kelleher, Jones, & Wright, 2006; Slack, 1987; Riccucci & Saidel, 1997). Reid, Miller and Kerr (2004) like Cayer and Sigelman (1980) studied

agency function for comparison purposes, i.e., regulatory versus redistributive at the

state level to compare the level of representativeness of women within the agency.

They found that in agencies with redistributive function, women were better

represented especially at the higher levels than in agencies which had distributive or

regulatory functions and that they weren't well represented in higher paying

positions in agency regardless of function.

In a survey of municipalities with populations greater than 50,000, women

comprise only 10% of the law enforcement officers. Court ordered affirmative

action programs have helped increase the number of women hired but they have not

helped increase the number of women promoted. A study of police departments

with court-ordered affirmative action programs and departments with a volunteer

affirmative action program, found no real difference in results between court

ordered or voluntary programs. The real impact on the selection process was the

increase in pool applicants and the level of women and minorities already employed

by the department, due to the perception of real career opportunities (Martin 1991).

In a study of 314 large municipal police departments, court ordered racial hiring

quotas were imposed on a number of municipal police departments including

Boston and Cambridge, MA which were still in place as of 2007. An estimated 14%

increase gain in the number of black police officers is the result of the new hires

under the various court orders. These court cases were brought in the 1970s to

remedy the employment gap between the municipality's black population and black

representation on the police force. The study found that by the late 1990s there was

little difference in the employment gap between the court-ordered cities and those

using voluntary affirmative action programs (McCrary, 2007).

Researchers have studied the effect that supervisor support has had on diversity within the federal bureaucracy in relationship to the role that supervisors have in the hiring and advancement decisions on a day-to-day basis. Konrad and Linnehan (1995) found that management support was critical for organizations to be successful in increasing the diversity of their employees. They found that there was preference for identity-blind human resource activities over identity-conscious activities. Identity blind activities were those practices where individuals are judged based on their achievements without any group identification. Ideally decisions are made based on merit, but human resources decisions are open to bias because of its human decision makers and secondly, most organizations' reward systems have some cultural biases, meaning they tend to reward those qualities held by the majority group, frequently failing to recognize the qualities brought by minority groups. As a result identity-blind programs are not as effective in increasing the diversity of an organization. Those organizations that use identity-conscious or race conscious in their human resource practices have had better success at improving the diversity of their employees. The use of identity-conscious practices requires monitoring of personnel decisions of the protected classes, comparing the numbers, experiences and outcomes of the protected class and instituting special efforts to reach and promote members of the protected class (Konrad & Linnehan, Race and Sex Differences in Line Managers' Reaction to Equal Employment Opportunity and Affirmative Action Intervention, 1995).

According to OPM data from 2001, women comprised 45% of the total federal workforce. Minorities represent 30.6% with African-Americans being the

largest minority group at 17.1 % and American Indians being the smallest group at 2.2% (OPM 2002). The Bureau of Labor Statistics reports that between the years 1998 - 2008, white non-Hispanic males will make up only 30% of new entrants to the workforce (Fullerton 1999). In the meanwhile African-Americans, Hispanics and Asian Americans will represent 16.5%, 16.2% and 8.8% of the new workforce entrants (Selden & Selden, 2001).

PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND PERSONNEL POLICY

Public management theory has continually evolved since Woodrow Wilson (1887) first argues that public managers can and must operate their organization without undue influence from politics. Public management according to Wilson is "detailed and systematic execution of public law" (Wilson, 1887, p. 212). As public laws increased in numbers and became more complex and the tasks of government have grown exponentially, it has become increasingly more difficult for public managers to operate their organizations in a detailed and systematic manner, if ever they did so. The evolving attempts by public managers to serve two masters (that of the current political external environment and their organizational bureaucracy) is the subject of much theoretical study. Early scholars such as (Gulick, 1933; White, 1948; Willoughby, 1927; Taylor, 1998) focused on the need for organizations to operate as efficiently as possible. They posit that public management requires strong executives, bureaucratic organizations, and hierarchical authority that foster a strict division of labor.

Larry Terry (1998) broadly classified public management into three categories: quantitative/analytic, political, and liberation/market-driven.

Quantitative/analytic is based on policy analysis and economics. Its roots are found in the work such as Max Weber and Frederick Taylor who saw bureaucracies as machines that could be operated efficiently, rationally, and productively (Taylor, 1998). Weber's theory on organizations according to Thompson (1977) related to the authority and control held by organizations with bureaucracies having rationalized, legalistic authority and structure (Thompson, Modern Organization, 1977). Taylor also saw management as science with defined principles, rules, and laws. He argued that managers should be able to break down tasks into their components, develop the most efficient method of executing the task and be able to train any worker to carry out the task productively. Nigro (1986) argues that Taylor's scientific management theories correlated well with the idea of the merit principle, both of which required that workers trust that the rules and laws made by an "objective" third party, i.e., management or the a civil service commission, had the best interest of the workers in mind in developing the workplace rules and regulations (Nigro, 1986). Thompson (1976) refers to the normative unity of organization wherein organizations are viewed as a tool to be used for a purpose upon which there is consensus. This gives organizational legitimacy and allows for control without the use of force (Thompson, 1976).

The political category refers the political impacts of public management. It refutes the politics/administration dichotomy by assuming that public managers are affected by and use politics in their decision making. The tension between the Presidential political appointees and the permanent bureaucracy and the battle for power is cited by Ingraham (1995) as the source of numerous attempts by the

Presidents and their appointees to wrest power from the permanent bureaucracy to carry out their policies and electoral mandates (Ingraham, 1995).

The liberation/market driven public management is also known as New Public Management which uses business and the private sector techniques and strategies as it model for operation. Vice-President Al Gore ushered in this new way of doing business with his National Performance Review that argued it could make government operate better for less (Denhardt, 2003).

Public management theory evolved in part due to the changing demographics of the workforce. The influx of women during after World War II and the elimination of Jim Crow laws and the passage of Equal Employment legislation created a need for personnel management to address the needs and issues of these new employees. Diversity management is defined by Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000) as the systemic and planned commitment by organizations to recruit, retain, reward, and promote a heterogeneous workforce (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000).

The policy of giving government jobs to political party workers who have supported a particular victorious candidate is called the spoils system. The practice began during the presidency of Thomas Jefferson because he followed a policy of not selecting Federalists for appointments. During the administration of President Andrew Jackson, government employees of the rival party were dismissed from their positions and replaced by members of the Democratic Party. Jackson is remembered for introducing the spoils system, or patronage, to American politics. Upon his election as President, many people holding federal offices found that they had been replaced by supporters of Jackson who had worked on his election campaign. Jackson saw this system as promoting the growth of democracy, as more

people were involved in politics. This practice has endured in political circles in the United States ever since.

The term spoils system was used as early as 1812, but came into general use after Senator William Marcy declared in 1832, "To the victor belong the spoils of the enemy" (Nelson, 1982). The system gradually became associated with corruption, and it was modified when Congress passed the Pendleton Act in 1883 establishing the Civil Service Commission. The Pendleton Act of 1883 classified certain jobs and removed them from the patronage ranks. The Civil Service Commission was created to manage the federal government's personnel hiring system using merit rather than political connections. It developed a classified list of jobs that was expanded over time; it idealistically provides a more competent and permanent government bureaucracy. In 1883 fewer than 15,000 jobs were classified; by the time McKinley became president in 1897, 86,000 -- almost half of all federal employees -- were in classified positions. Today, with the exception of a few thousand policy-level appointments, nearly all federal jobs are handled within the civil service system. Although education, experience, and examinations have become important as a basis for appointment to public office, the practice of patronage continues at all levels of government.

The current federal personnel system is a product of fallout from the spoils systems of President Andrew Jackson's administration where rampant nepotism and cronyism made a mockery of the government bureaucracy. There was an urgent need to protect the rights of government employees while assuring that tax payers supported services were being performed effectively and efficiently. One of the methods required that qualified candidates are selected for positions through the use

of merit system. President Jimmy Carter got Congress to pass the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 which was the most sweeping government reform legislation since 1883. It abolished the Civil Service Commission and split its functions among an Office of Personnel Management (OPM), a Federal Labor Relations Authority (FLRA) to oversee labor-management relations, and an independent quasi-judicial Merit System Protection Board (MSPB). The MSPB interacts with OPM in order to ensure that they each interpret regulations and civil service laws correctly (West W. F., 2000).

The use of merit in the federal government as a principle for hiring decisions rather than the patronage system that was in place was established by the Pendleton Act of 1883 at least, initially for only a few positions. The Act required competitive testing for positions, selection made from the top test takers, protection from firing for religious or political purposes (Hoogenboom, 1959). The incorporation of merit into the federal hiring system opened the door for qualified applicants to have a fair shot of being employed by the federal government regardless of their political affiliation. However, some scholars wonder whether merit conflicts with the concept of equity. Kranz (1974) argues that a socially just bureaucracy is a more efficient use of resources, while merit is actually a misnomer since most federal employees were not selected using merit principles, i.e., tests and selection of the brightest (Kranz, 1974). McGregor (1974) also argues that merit as envisioned under Pendleton only sought to determine minimum competence for hiring purposes while policies such as Veteran preference insured that veteran status was also a determining factor for hiring eligibility. That type of policies eliminates the prejudgment of characteristics such as race and sex which have no proven relationship with job qualification and

31

performance (McGregor, 1974). Woodward (2005) calls merit as practiced today simply pay-for-performance with little to do with the original concept under Pendleton. The concept of merit began to decline because of agencies need for personnel processes that met their particular needs. The need for quicker hires and skilled labor limited the usefulness of open competition while equity and fairness became the language used only in human resource management program and policies (Woodward, 2005).

Title 5 of the U.S. Code is entitled "Government Organization and Employees." It was enacted in 1966 (P.L. 89-554, 80 Stat. 378) to codify the laws relating to the agencies of the Government of the United States and to its civilian employees (Introduction to Title 5, United States Code Annotated). It is a consolidation of hundreds of laws that apply to the federal workplace. Part III provides for the implementation of the Merit System Principles and the rules that affecting employment, retention, performance, training, pay and allowances, attendance and leave, labor-management and employee relations, insurance and annuities, and access to criminal history record information. Title 5 is complex in language and structure which leaves lots of room for interpretation and decision discretion. Title 5 is designed to integrate the legislation resulting from the passage of the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 which was the first full restructuring of the federal merit system since it was incorporated by the Pendleton Act of 1883. It added greater protection from political abuse. It also opened the door for greater emphasis on employee rights and equal employment opportunity through the legal challenges to agencies' merit practices. In addition to protection from patronage, it forced agencies to focus on equity and fairness in their personnel practices.

However, Woodward warns that merit has become "a symbol of an entitlement mentality" (Woodward, 2005, p. 112). Brewer (2005) also found that federal agencies had difficulties with fairness and equity issues in relationship to agency performance. His study found that first line supervisors were proficient in technical skills but lack human resource management skills, resulting in their staff having a negative viewpoint of their agency management (Brewer, 2005). This point is also argued by Feagin and Feagin (1978) that discriminatory behavior within organizations that appear to practice impartiality, i.e., the federal government, occurs because the merit principles defined in the policies are based solely on the cultural perspectives of the white male and may not have incorporated the meritorious performance criterion as defined by the minority populations (Feagin & Feagin, 1978). Mainzer (1973) reports that use of merit principles has resulted in the merit criterion being manipulated by state governments and local civil service agencies through the maintenance of separate registers of eligible candidates by race. Merit principles are seen by its opponents as detrimental to disadvantaged groups because of its emphasis on formal education and competitive exams (Mainzer, 1973).

The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights in their 1968 Report on Equal Opportunity in State and Local Government Employment found that while most states had implemented merit system principles as required in order to participate in federally aided programs, the system was frequently used to institutionalize discrimination and inhibited the opportunities of minority candidates. The use of "unvalidated written tests as a mandatory requirement for job selection, rigid education and experience requirements, and automatic disqualification for an arrest or conviction record" (US Commission on Civil Righs, 1969, p. 65).

Diversity and its management has evolved from the concepts of equal employment opportunity (EEO) and affirmative action (AA) programs of the 1970's and 1980s, and is considered by some scholars to be a shift in paradigm. EEO and AA programs were the result of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. They were mandated by Congress to address results of segregationist policies that had prevailed in the United States since the civil war. EEO was designed as the mechanism to address discrimination that took place in the workplace and AA was designed to overcome the past discriminatory practices. Diversity is seen as the next step in the evolution of the public personnel policy where programs and policies are developed to manage and accommodate the changing diversity in the workplace (Riccucci 2002).

This new paradigm requires approaching diversity at the individual, interpersonal, and organizational levels. The traditional focus of diversity has been on just the individual and interpersonal aspects. Diversity is now viewed as an issue for the entire organization and involves the manner in which organizations are structured. Research has identified that diversity within organizations or work groups can create performance obstacles. Increased diversity may reduce communication effectiveness and increase conflict among the personnel. Golembiewski (1995) points out that the traditional bureaucratic infrastructures of federal organizations can provide major impediments to newly implemented diversity programs. These organizations have been and generally continue to be mostly male, white and Eurocentric in orientation which is reflected in the culture of the organization (Golembiewski 1995). Changing the root culture is at the heart of the managing diversity approach. This changing of the organizational culture requires a considerably longer time frame than implementing an affirmative action initiative.

Roosevelt Thomas (1990) defines what is needed for organizations and their management to overcome their resistance and suggest that their managers develop a vision of diversity within the organization. He warns many of the popular diversity visions created by organizations failed to address the deep seated problems associated with under-representation and generally just provided superficial diversity policies. A frequent diversity vision features minorities and women who are clustered at a relatively low level positions, with a few filtering up the organizational ladder as they received training, i.e., become assimilated into the organization's culture. While those lucky enough to be one of the few who filter through the process and achieve good salaries and benefits, the organization's diversity vision really fails to address the issue of diversity because it is based on the expectation that financial rewards will make up for lack of upward mobility or that assimilation is the only means for advancement.

Another type of organization's vision for diversity is called the "heightened sensitivity" by Roosevelt. Organizations with this type of diversity vision have managers who are sensitive to the demands of minorities and women, and understand the advantages of helping them fulfill their potential. Minorities and women who advance within the organization are perceived as being recipients of the generosity of the manager and are very aware of having to rely on the generosity of the manager. This result in high turnover rates and remaining employees frequently not working at their productive best (Thomas, 1990).

Researchers have found that after the barriers that kept women and minorities from accessing public sector employment were diminished, the problem then became employment distribution within the organizational hierarchy. A 1994

MSPB study found that minorities were concentrated in lower paying positions or in the lower grades of the higher paying positions. In 1993, women composed 55.8% of the GS1-12 and 13.8% of the Senior Executive grades, while white males were 33.5% of the GS1-12 and 75.5% of the Senior Executive grades in the federal government (MSPB 1994). Women and minorities are significantly underrepresented in senior level positions. The question to be asked is why such a disparity exists, is it due to the lack of qualified candidates or were there other barriers to women rising to the top levels of employment (Naff 1997)?

The federal government has continuously given itself low marks in its attempt to reduce the under-representation of women and minorities within its workforce. The lack of progress was blamed on neglect by the Reagan and the first Bush administration to address the problem of under-representation, lack of agency leadership and failure to hold managers accountable for achieving the representative workforces (Naff K. C., 1998). Milward and Swanson's (1979) research suggests that the lack of agency support for a representative workforce is mostly due to organizational behavior which is resistant to externally-imposed demands, i.e., Congress and consent decrees from the Judiciary. They suggest that agencies will attempt to meet these demands while minimizing the impact on the organization by placing women and minorities in positions outside of the core business of the organization (Milward & Swanson, 1979).

FEMINIST THEORY AND OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION

Occupational or functional segregation by race and gender in federal organizations is on the decline in general but has not been completely eliminated, i.e., engineering and other high technology functional areas are still male-dominated

while administrative functions such as human resources are either female dominated or gender-balanced. Minorities have been concentrated in service organizations such as Health and Human Services and Housing and Urban Development, traditional lower-level and lower-paying organizations rather than the high technology agencies such as NASA and the Department of Energy (Riccucci N. M., 2002).

Other researchers have found support for the idea of organizational segregation based on gender or race (Dolan, 2004; Newman, 1994; England, Farkas, Kilbourne, & Dou, 1988; Cornwell & Kellough, 1994). Dolan and Newman used Lowi (1985) typology of agency: Distributive, Regulatory, Redistributive and Constituent to aggregate agencies. They found women were more likely to be concentrated in redistributive agencies and least like in constituent agencies. Kerr, et al found also found that women were well represented in redistributive agencies.Cornwell and Kellough (1994) found minorities and women in greater percentages in agencies that spent large portions of their budgets redressing social and economic inequalities, typically redistributive agencies (Cornwell & Kellough, 1994). England et al (1988) research found that institutional practices perpetuated segregations that hinder the opportunities of women even in the absence of overt discriminatory practices (England, Farkas, Kilbourne, & Dou, 1988).

Table 1 Percentage of GS 13 -15 by Agency types, 2002			
Department/Agency	Female	Minority Female	Minority Male
Distributive policy agencies Agriculture, Energy, and Interior	36.92	7.53	9.76
Redistributive policy agencies Education, HHS, HUD, and VA	57.24	13.73	12.44
Regulatory policy agencies Justice, Transportation and Treasury	42.71	10.02	12.07
Constituent policy agencies Commerce, Defense, GSA, Labor, NASA, OPM, and State	31.53	5.86	11.03

With the implementation of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of

1972, which amended and strengthened Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, it

became illegal for employers to discriminate against any individual because of race,

color, religion, sex, or national origin. Women and people of color were given a

vehicle in which to measure the progress they have made in increasing their presence

within public and private organizations. It also provided the means to address and

redress the issues that arose as a result of their participation in the workforce. Thus

the workforce, both public and private, was forced to change to make room for the

influx of women and people of color. Frederickson (1990) argues that the Civil

Rights law of 1964 and the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 were

written to guarantee equal access to employment, in both the public and private

arenas using the idea of block equality. "This was done by a combination of block

equalities (whereby persons in different racial categories could be compared and, if

found subject to different treatment, a finding of violation of law would be made)

and a means-equal opportunities logic (whereby fair measurements of talent, skill,

and ability would determine who gets jobs)" (Frederikson, 1990, p. 231). These laws

and other related Court rulings have significantly affected the equality of

employment opportunities for minorities and women.

Since 1972, the number of women employed in the public sector has steadily

increased. The U.S. Department of Labor's May 2005 report *Women in the Labor

Force: a Data book* reported women composed 46% of those employed in the public

sector. This reflects an increase from the 27% reported in 1970. The educational

attainment of women changed dramatically from 1970 through 2004, with

approximately 30% of women in the labor force having college degrees as compared to 1970. Although women have significant inroads into the workforce, their inroad into upper management has not been as significant. Arfken et al. (2004) and Donovan (2001) report that women made up 11 percent of Fortune 500 corporate board seats in 1999; in 2002 the number was up to 12.5 percent. For small companies, women make up only 5 percent of the company boards. For the year 2006, which is the latest data available for federal government employment, 48.3 percent of federal white-collar jobs are filled by women, but they are only 27 percent of the Senior Executive Service positions (Neal, 2007). Within the overall organization, the diversity of the organization can vary from highly homogeneous to highly heterogeneous. Other functional areas such as sanitation, groundskeeping or housekeeping also tend to be predominately filled by minorities.

Researchers have identified two forms of discrimination or barriers that women and minorities encounter as they advance into the upper ranks of employment (Naff 1995). Objective and subjective discrimination appear to continue to hinder the progress of women and minorities in their careers. Subjective discrimination is the perception by the person that a work-irrelevant criterion, either sex or race, influences how that person is treated or evaluated by their organization. (Hopkins 1980). Researchers suggest that women and minorities who view their opportunities as limited are not likely to try for promotional opportunities and secondly that simple perception of limited opportunities and lack of respect within their organization results in a lack of advancement opportunities (Kanter 1977; Naff 1995). This perception regardless of its validity may result in the subject not fully using their skills and ability in their current position which creates a self-fulfilling

prophesy of lack of advancement. This view is supported by research that suggests that women and minorities are subject to discrimination due to negative stereotyping that causes their managers doubt or have concerns about their competence regardless of actual performance (Rosen and Jerdee 1974; Ruble, Cohen et al. 1984).

Researchers have found that discrimination results in the so-called glass ceiling, glass wall and gender stratification. The literature is replete with documentation of evidence that women have encountered these phenomena. The glass-wall metaphor refers to occupations segregation attributed to barriers that restrict women's access to certain type jobs or to factors that concentrate women within certain types of jobs (Kerr, Miller, & Reid, 2002, p. 412). The glass ceiling is a concept that refers to the "the unseen, yet unbreachable barriers that keep minorities and women from rising to the upper rungs of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualification or achievements" (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995, p. 4).

Lastly, gender occupational stratification refers to distribution of women within the workforce of an organization and whether that distribution reflects the denial of women to certain types of jobs. Kerr et al (1999) and other researchers (Tomaskovic-Devey, Kallebers, & Cook, Oraganziational Patterns of Gender Segregation, 1996; Miller, Kerr, & Reid, 1999; Tomaskovic-Devey, Gender and Racial Inequality at Work: The Sources and Consequences oj Job Segregation, 1993) refer to a 30% cutoff threshold that is used to determine if gender balance has been achieved within an organization. The achievement of the 30% threshold means two things, 1) women managers will be retained and promoted and 2) women will have greater policy influence. Less than 30% is indicative of the presence of a gender imbalance.

Ridgeway (2001) suggests that when women assert their authority outside of traditionally female realms as they must when they serve in high-status leadership roles, expectation status beliefs create reactions that impose negative sanctions on them. They are viewed as having violated the status quo beliefs which creates multiple nearly invisible nets of comparative devaluation that catches them as they attempt to achieve positions of leadership and authority and slows them down as compared to men. Ridgeway believes that it is "this unacknowledged network of constraining expectation and interpersonal reaction that is the principle cause of the glass ceiling effect" (Ridgeway, 2001, p. 652). Miller et al. (1999) defines the glass-wall metaphor "as describing occupations segregation attributed to barriers that restrict women's access to certain type jobs or to factors that concentrate women within certain types of jobs" (Miller, Kerr, & Reid, 1999, p. 218). Lastly, gender occupational stratification refers to distribution of women within the workforce of an organization and whether that distribution reflects the denial of women to certain types of jobs.

Naff and Thomas (1994) uses the U.S. Department of Labor's definition for the term glass ceiling. It states that the glass ceiling is most clearly defined as those artificial barriers based on attitudinal or organizational bias that prevent qualified individuals from advancing upward in their organization into management level positions (Naff & Thomas, 1994, p. 266). They advance the theory that women do not advance as far as men in the federal bureaucracy because of the glass ceiling because of personal characteristics such as marital status or having young children in the home. Kelly et al. (1991) found that within state governments, unmarried women were more likely to be successful than married women. They also found that

women without children had greater opportunities to advance than women with children (Hale & Kelly, 1989; Duerst-Lahti & Kelly, 1995; Kelly, et al., 1991). Naff and Thomas (1994) found evidence of the glass ceiling in the federal bureaucracy for women who have worked in the government for 20 or more years and for women who have worked in the government for less than 10 years. They conclude that family status has been seen by some as preventing women from concentrating on their jobs while men with families are seen as having motivation to do better work. They found that managers questioned their female employee's abilities to manage work and family life and their commitment to their career when making decisions about career advancement (p.265).

Hseih and Winslow (2006) found, using the 2000 Demographic profile from the Office of Personnel Management, that there was segmented equality or equality within groups and categories but not between groups and that inequality existed between gender and racial groups at both low-level and high level positions. Black and American Indian/Alaska Native women were over represented in total federal jobs, while all males were underrepresented in lower-level jobs. They cite educational attainment as one of the socioeconomic factors rather than the glass ceiling that may affect the level of gender representation within the federal government. Their research found that Asians had generally higher education and were more likely to have similar grade distribution as whites compared to women and other minorities. Culturally, Hispanic and Asian/Pacific Islander husbands were more likely to take on the economic role for the family while black wives were more likely to take on this responsibility, which may explain why black women were overly represented in the federal workforce (Hsieh & Winslow, 2006).

Cotter et al. (2001) used four criteria to measure the existence of the glass ceiling effect for women and minorities. They found that the glass ceiling was strictly a gender phenomenon. The four criteria used in their study were: gender or racial differences that cannot be explained by other job-relevant characteristics of the employee; gender or racial differences that are greater at the high levels of the organization than at the lower levels; gender or racial differences in the chances for advancement to higher levels within the organization, not just the proportion of the gender or race at the high levels; and gender or racial differences that increase over the course of a career. Using earning data from the civilian labor force for the years 1976 through 1993, they tested their criteria at the 25th, 50th and 75th income percentiles and found that minority men did not experience the glass ceiling effect, but that minority and white women did encounter the glass ceiling (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia, & Vanneman, 2001).

Occupational segregation as defined by Sneed (2007) as what occurs when men and women are separated from each into different departments or occupations. Historically, occupational segregation has occurred naturally because women have been tasked with jobs that were compatible with child care, that is, the jobs were close to home, not dangerous and could easily be interrupted and restarted (p.880) (Sneed, 2007). Reskin and Roos (1990) found that men were overrepresented in managerial and craft occupations, which are normally the best paid positions, while women are the majority in service occupations and administrative-support as well as in the lower-paid professions of nursing, library, social work and teaching. Their study showed that occupational sex segregation has been more resistant to affirmative and diversity policy initiatives than race segregation (p.5 -6) (Reskin &

Roos, Job Queues, Gender Queues: Explaining Women's Inroads into Male

Occupations, 1990). Reskin and Hartmann (1986) argue that the society pays a cost

for continued occupational segregation. Those costs include the loss to society, the

economy and the individuals when workers' jobs are assigned based on physical

characteristics rather than based on their job skills and capabilities. It restricts

opportunities for self-fulfillment, employment opportunities and depresses the

national economy (p.9) (Reskin & Hartmann, 1986).

Kelly (1992) classifies the theories of the causes of gender occupational

segregation into three groups. One group of theories is based on the biological

differences between men and women, their reproductive roles, socialization and

differences in education, training and work experiences. These theories argue that

occupational segregation is caused through the personal choices made by men and

women. A second group of theories argue that institutions and the executive

management are responsible for occupational segregation because they seek to create

an organization where the employees are compatible with each other and their

clients. This causes them to only hire and promote those who are similar to current

employees and customers. Women are disparately impacted by their personnel

practices and promotional opportunity. The last group of theories focused on

systemic barriers. There are structural patterns that enhance discriminatory practices.

Barriers such as a dual labor market in which primary and secondary jobs are created

become obstacles for women attempting to enter the workforce (Kelly, The

gendered economy: work, careers, and success, 1992).

Meier (1975), Naff (2001), Rizzo (1978) and Cornwell & Kellough (1994)

found that for occupational segregation in government employment, women have

44

been able to get hired into civil service positions, but these jobs have been concentrated in the lower levels of the bureaucracy. In Meier's study, more than 75% of the lower echelon government positions were filled by women, while only 3% of the upper level positions were held by women in 1971 (p.540). Naff found that in 1997, more than 25 years later, women still filled 70% of the lower level positions, although their share had increased to 21% of the executive positions (p.31).

Kerr, Miller and Reid (2002) used the glass wall metaphor to describe occupational segregation that forces women into certain types of jobs (or agencies) or that restrict women from certain types of jobs (or agencies). These obstacles keep women in less desirable departments and jobs within agencies. They suggest that glass walls occur when women are walled out of agencies because the agency's clients and organizational cultural work together to sustain barriers to change or when the skills needed to perform the job at the agency are generally held by women, but those skills are not valued outside of the agency (Kerr, Miller, & Reid, 2002, p. 23).

Social equity theory was developed in response to the use of efficiency and economy as the cornerstone for decision makers within federal bureaucracies (Frederickson 1990). Frederickson argues against the presumed neutrality of public managers and suggests that their decisions impact both policy and politics and argues that they must address the issues of inequality within their organization. Frederickson describes two types of social equity, segmented equality and block equality. Segmented equality is the hierarchy of labor within the organization where it is assumes that all within each level are equal. Blocked equality is the assumed equality between groups within the organization (p.230). Researchers argue that

block equality for women and minorities has been attained, but not segmented equality (Miller, et al. 1999, Newman 1994, Sneed 2007).

Miller et al. (1999) used Lowi's (1985) and Newman's (1994) framework to study municipal-level gender occupational segregation. They argue that it is important to study the distribution of women and minorities within municipal bureaucracies because increased employment representation is beneficial symbolically and brings changes to the leadership process as well as policy outputs. They found that males are overly represented in distributive function agencies because these organizations tend to operate with fewer formal legal and administrative procedures; they also have wider fields of discretion and policy decentralization than do redistributive or regulatory agencies. Miller et al. agree with other researchers, (Cayer and Sigelman 1980 and Riccucci 1986) that agencies such as police, fire and corrections are bastions of male dominance, but that it is not caused by the regulatory nature of the agencies, but by the their lack of commitment to affirmative action, the role of the union, the resistance to change and the paramilitary culture. The Miller et al study found that women had made progress at the municipal level, but were not fully represented at the highest level of government. They found glass wall barriers in agencies such as streets and highways, sanitation and sewage, utilities and transportation, police, fire and other traditionally male-dominated agencies. Gender balance was only reached by cities in their redistributive agencies.

Fiorentine (1993) provides a thorough study of the three major categories of gender stratification theories, Structural Theory, Cognitive Theory, and Cultural Theory. Structural theory suggests that the cause of gender stratification is in the formal and informal organization of society. Cognitive theories argue that it is the

46

action of the individual and cultural theories say the source of gender stratification is in the attitude, values, and norms learned from society. Structural theories employ either utility or power frameworks and were popular in the 1950s and 1960s. It defined group members as either "task" specialists or "emotional" specialists. Because of the demands of reproduction, husband-fathers were viewed as being directed toward the economic, political, and extra-familial activities while the wife-mother was responsible for the domestic-nurturing activities. The roles segregation leads to significant gender differences in occupational attainment. Men hold high-status, high-authority occupations while women were not employed or employed in occupations with expressive components and which did not interfere with domestic responsibilities.

The power approach asserts that structural barriers block the opportunities of women. They included the theory that employers devalue the abilities of women or are reluctant to hire women into occupations or positions that do not maintain appropriate role relationships between the sexes (Blau and Ferber, 1986). Organizational trust approach puts emphasis on the uncertainty within organizations and the subsequent need for trust among organizational actors, particularly those in position of authority. Under this approach women are viewed as being untrustworthy and are less likely to be promoted into high-status, high trust, discretionary positions. In response to this approach, women depress their occupational aspirations, stress the expressive aspects of jobs and seek satisfaction in activities outside of work (Kanter 1976). The statistical discrimination approach believes that women have higher rates of turnover and lower levels of performance, thereby justifying employers hiring women to do the less desirable jobs in which

turnover rates are unimportant, or where wages are sufficiently low to compensate for the lower performance and higher turnover rates (Aigner & Cain, 1977). The Capitalist-patriarchy model contends that capitalism was formed from a patriarchal society and therefore preserves patriarchy as the system of control. When women are denied access to the more desirable, higher paying occupations, male workers gain a privileged position in the wage-based economy. The Capitalist-patriarchy's privileged position assures the economic dependence of women, bolsters male dominance in interpersonal relationships, and means that a greater share of household services will fall to women. Capitalist-patriarchy feminists expand Marx's theory of value to include both waged and unwaged labor, refusing to accept a separation of public and private spheres, arguing that there is no private sphere (Shelton & Agger, p. 33).

Wharton (1991) cites that the structural approach to occupation stratification has become an important paradigm for quantitative researchers. The research has focused on the effects of economic, technical, and organizational arrangements of organizations on barriers between "men's" and "women's" jobs. While the researchers have been looking at the pervasiveness of gender stratification, structuralists have tried to account for variation in stratification across jobs, firms, and industries (Wharton, 1991, p. 377).

Fiorentine (1993) explains that cognitive theories of gender stratification have two approaches, cognitive and biological. Cognitive theories assume that cognitive processes lead to gendered actions that ultimately lead to differences in occupational outcomes. Cognitive theories stress mental processes rather than the formal and informal hierarchy of society. This approach assumes that women and

men make consistently different attribution to the causes of their successes and failures in achievement. Women are more like to have lower confidence in their ability to perform successfully in a variety of achievement situations, probably due to societal and family cultural stereotyping of women. Women are more likely to attribute their successes to external or unstable causes such as luck or effort, and their failures to 'internal' or stables causes, such as low ability or task difficulty.

Feminism and Gendered Organizations

There are a number of feminist theories that attempt to explain the role that gender plays in employment. It has been argued by Sprague and Zimmerman (1993) that feminism has often been seen as a mirror image alternative of positivism which has limited feminist research methodology. They define feminist methodology as giving priority to the actor's own subjective experience and emphasize the emotional aspects of social life grounded in concrete, daily experiences. Data must be qualitative in order to understand these experiences (Sprague & Zimmerman, 1993, p. 255).

Camilla Stivers argues that as a result of foundational positivism in the study of public administration; there are gender dilemmas that are ongoing within public administration theory. Stivers argues that modern public administration theory often reflects a "gendered or masculine orientation toward expertise, leadership and virtue and that this viewpoint has limited the field both practically and conceptually (Stivers, 1993, pg. 54). Stivers also note that public administration theory has been insensitive to gender dimensions that affect public bureaucratic practices. She argues that public administration theory believes that it is important to take the real world into account, but finds that gender is insignificant in their field of observation. Even

though women have served in public service capacity since 1854, their experiences have remained fairly unexplored. She argues that as long as public service is viewed as being genderless women will have to make a Hobson's choice of either adopting a masculine administrative identity or accept marginalization within the bureaucratic hierarchy (p.12).

Cecilia Ridgeway (2001) sees gender as being more than an individual trait rather that it is an institutionalized system of social practices. Expectation theory argues that the social hierarchy and leadership of organizations are tied to the status beliefs of gender stereotypes and that these stereotypes associate greater competence with men rather than women (Ridgeway, 2001, p. 637).

Morton and Lindquist (1997) have reviewed the work of Mary Parker Follett, who until recently was the underappreciated figure from the early development stages of public administration. They believe that Mary Parker Follett provided a feminine and feminist viewpoint to democratic and organizational theory. Morton and Lindquist agree that there is no one definition of feminism, they agree with West (1991) who identifies three general strands of feminisms: liberal, cultural, and radical feminism. Morton and Lindquist defined the three strands as: liberal feminists typically disfavor any view of women as having different sensibilities or different approaches to learning then men. They are fearful that any differences will further provide the dominant social and legal order with reason to subordinate and discriminate against women; cultural feminism celebrates women's differences and suggests that women's more nurturing, intuitive, and flexible approach has been undervalued by society, but should be acknowledged for the contribution that it makes to society; and radical feminism adopts many of the premises of cultural

feminism but moves on beyond cultural feminism by advocating for a more radical transformation of society based on feminist values (Morton & Lindquist, 1997, p. 354).

Feminist scholars such as (Stivers, 2002; Duerst-Lahti & Kelly, 1995; Newman, 1994) King (1995), argue that bureaucracies are masculine organizations, not gender-neutral which often places women in female stereotypical areas, which are the less powerful positions than their male counterparts, where they have fewer chances to shape policy and have less discretion.

LEGISLATION, COURT RULINGS AND PRESIDENTIAL EXECUTIVE ORDERS

In 1954, the Supreme Court weighed in on the issue of racial segregation. It held that *de jure* segregation was unconstitutional in *Brown v. Kansas Board of Education* and that separate educational facilities were inherently unequal, but no timetable was given. The ruling was seen as letting integrated or desegregated education take precedence over equal education. By having black students attend school with white students, it was presumed that this would translate into equal education for black students (Yosso, Parker, Solorzano, & Lynn, 2004, p. 9). Many civil rights activists argued for equal education opportunities for minority students rather than the proposed integration effort. They would rather the court ordered quality schools, teachers and funding than creating mixed schools with "unsympathetic teachers" without addressing all components of the problems (Yosso, Parker, Solorzano, & Lynn, 2004, p. 11) and hostile public opinion (Bell, 2004; Carter, 1980; Yosso, Parker, Solorzano, & Lynn, 2004).

In *Brown II* decided in 1955, the court ordered the dismantling of segregated school system's "with all deliberate speed" but by 1964 only one percent of the Southern children attended desegregated schools. This situation helped determine the language of Civil Rights Act of 1964 which included empowering the Department of Justice to litigate segregation cases and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare to withhold federal funds from segregated schools (McAndrews, 2001). The decision inspired the creation of the Southern Manifesto in 1956 which declared its opposition to the decision and support for resistance to "forced integration" (Lieberman, 2005).

President Kennedy in 1961 issued Executive Order 10925 establishing the Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity and making the first use of "affirmative action." It charged the Committee with affirmatively ensuring that government contractors employed and treated employees without regard to race, color, or creed. President Kennedy sought to create a national policy of nondiscrimination within the executive branch of the federal government.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 initiated by President Kennedy and signed into law by President Johnson was comprehensive legislation that banned discrimination in public accommodation, education, and facilities. Title VI of the law related to discrimination of federally assisted programs and Title VII covered employment discrimination in the private sector and prohibited discrimination based on race, sex, color, religion, or national origin and created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission to enforce the law.

The importance of President Johnson's policies of affirmative action and War on Poverty as spurring increased career opportunities for women and minorities within local, state, and federal government and that having both women and minority races interacting in public service was an added benefit of affirmative action (DuPont-Morales, 1997). The opportunity to work for full wages and to work in public organizations was denied to both women and blacks. Women were appointed US Postmistresses in the late 1700s, mainly because the wages were so low, not many men wanted the position (*Women Postmasters: Serving America for over Two Centuries*, *1999*). Blacks on the other hand, were legally prohibited by Congressional legislation passed in 1810 from working in the Post Office (Krislov, The Negro in Federal Employment: The Quest for Equal Opportunity, 1967; Litwack, 1958).

Increased diversity has been the policy of the federal government since the early 1800's when President Jackson sought to expand the concept of representation by having the federal service reflect of the social composition of the nation, it wasn't until the late 1970's with the passage of the Civil Service Reform Act in 1978 that significant research was done to determine how the federal organizations and their employees were affected by diversity. There is evidence that gains have been made by women and minorities within the federal service to eliminate occupational under-representation, but there is still some ground to be gained with regard to higher graded and executive level positions in the federal workforce (Naff K. C., 1998).

The Civil Service Reform Act of 1978, called for a federal service that reflected the social composition of the nation and imposed requirements on agencies to use affirmative employment recruitment techniques for those occupations with under-representation of women and minorities. It recognized that the federal government has two obligations, first to have a representative workforce and secondly, to have a workforce free from discrimination and preferential treatment. With the implementation of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, which amended and strengthened Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, it became illegal for public employers to discriminate against any individual because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. Women and people of color were given a vehicle in which to measure the progress they have made in increasing their presence within public and private organizations. It also provided the means to address and redress the issues that arose as a result of their participation in the workforce. Thus the workforce, both public and private, was forced to change to make room for the influx of women and people of color. Frederickson (1990) argues that the Civil

54

Rights law of 1964 and the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 were written to guarantee equal access to employment, both public and private using the idea of block equality. These laws and the related Court rulings have significantly affected the equality of employment opportunities for minorities and women (Frederikson, 1990, pp. 231-232).

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 was passed to eliminate gender discrimination within the workplace. It suggested that the pay of women should be equal to the pay of men when occupying equal positions. The wages of women have increased since the enactment of the law. In 1960, for weekly full-time wage and salary workers, women earned 61 percent of men's salaries; in 2008 women earned 80% of men's salary after a peak of 81% in 2005 and 2006. Women over the age of 35 earned 75% of men and women between the ages of 25-34 earned 89% of men salaries (US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009). Although it has been more than 40 years since the Equal Pay Act was passed, Crampton et al. (1997) found that despite the gains made by women, there are still disparities that appear to be gender related regardless of the education, experience or skills. Males in their late forties and early fifties have the highest level of earnings relative to their career while women in the same age category earn much less. Women with bachelor or greater degrees earn 87% of the salary of men with bachelor or greater degree (Crampton, Hodge, & Mishra, 1997).

Gibelman (2003) makes the argument that salary defines the value and worth of a profession in this society. She argues that the low salaries associated with traditional female dominated professions are because of discrimination. She also finds that despite the level of educational attainment, women still earn less than men (Gibelman, 2003). Bernstein (1996) reported that female lawyers face inequities of

pay, promotion, and opportunities. The American Association of University

Professor's (AAUP) reports that women faculty members earned 80% of male

faculty members for 2003 – 2004 (Bernstein, 1996). The earning gap was the largest

for full professors and the least for instructors. The earnings ratios haven't change in

25 years of data collecting by AAUP (West & Curtis, 2006). Although women have

been appointed to the Supreme Court, appointed to head the Department of Justice

and elected president of the national bar association, Bernstein (1996) reports that

female attorneys face pay disparities at every level of experience and in all types of

practices. Women haven't made significant gains in the area of partnerships, faculty,

or bench appointments despite having surpassed men in law school enrollment. The

culture of private law practices are such that although there are family friendly

policies in place, even male attorneys are fearful of using them for fear of

repercussions and career stagnation.

     Affirmative action has several different frameworks which are applicable to

organizations, i.e., required to be used by federal contractors, regulations of the

government as an employer, court-ordered programs, and voluntary programs

(Reskin, 1998). Federal contractors were required to use affirmative action programs

as of 1965 with the issuance of Executive Order 11246 which made it a condition of

all private organizations doing business with the federal government, with 50 or

more employees, and a contract worth at least $50,000. They must monitor their

workforce statistics and determine if qualified women or minorities are being under-

utilized, if so then they must take steps to eliminate any discriminatory practices and

become proactive in reducing the underutilization. Quotas aren't allowed, but they

may use aggressive recruiting or training strategies to find qualified hires. The Office

of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP) is responsible for auditing the contractors and taking punitive action as needed; however OFCCP has traditionally been a small agency and lacks the resources to provide comprehensive monitoring (Crosby, Iyer, Clayton, & Downing, 2003).

Federal courts are empowered to include affirmative action in the list of remedies when organizations are found to have discriminated through the 1972 Equal Employment Opportunity Act which amended Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The courts can order recruitment, job training, targets, or quotas. Many organizations implemented affirmative action programs even when not required to do so because of their awareness that a court could order a program should there be litigation.

Under Executive Order 11458 signed by President Nixon in 1969, minority owned businesses can be identified as a socially and economically disadvantaged business for the purpose of receiving government contracts. The Public Works Employment Act of 1977 and Public Law No. 95-507 authorized set-aside programs so that some of the federal procurement contracts would go to minority businesses. State and municipalities have similar set-aside programs to ensure that local minority businesses receive a share of the project funding. The constitutionality of these set-aside programs has been challenged in court. The federal minority set-aside program suffered a major setback when the Supreme Court issued its ruling in *Adarand Constructors v. Pena* in 1995. The court ruled that the federal affirmative action preference program must pass the strict scrutiny test of judicial review, meaning that there must be a compelling government interest in its objective and that the program is narrowly tailored to meet those objectives in order to meet the equal protection

clause of the Constitution. As a result of this ruling, President Clinton ordered a review of all affirmative action programs and eliminated the set-aside procurement program in the military. Several states have also limited or banned preferential programs (Rice & Mongkuo, 1998; Crosby, Iyer, Clayton, & Downing, 2003; Naylor & Rosenbloom, 2004).

The courts have been increasingly uncomfortable with the conflict between affirmative action and the Civil Rights Act and the equal protection clause of the 14th amendment (Robinson, Paolillo, & Reithel, 1998, p. 351). The resulting lawsuits have charged reverse discrimination, preferential treatment, and/or quota systems being imposed upon those not protected under the Civil Rights Act of 1964. These lawsuits have resulted in several important Supreme Court rulings that have redefined how affirmative action programs are to be implemented. The courts have frequently ruled in favor of remedies to violations of victim's civil rights. In the landmark 1971 *Griggs v. Duke Power Company* decision, according to Blumrosen (1972), the court redefines discrimination in terms of consequences rather than motive, effect rather than purpose and outlawed hiring practices based primarily on testing and education. McGregor calls this "a classic example of social inequity under the 1964 Civil Rights Act." Although there was no evidence of discriminatory motivation, the net effect of the company's merit system was the concentration of black employees in low wage jobs because of the invalidity of their employment practice (McGregor, 1974, p. 19). This case established discrimination in two forms, either disparate treatment or disparate impact. Disparate treatment was defined as an employer intentionally discriminating, while disparate impact is neutral employment practices that adversely affect a protected employee class (Blanchard

and Crosby 1989 p.42). The burden of proof shifted to the employer to prove that there is a demonstrable relationship between successful job performance and imposed employment requirements (Welch, 1981). The *McDonnell Douglas Corporation v. Green* was decided in 1973 by U.S. Supreme Court. It defined the components needed for an employment discrimination case to shift the burden of proof from the employee to the employer. The complainant must present evidence and arguments to support their claims, the arguments must be defended by additional evidence from the federal government, otherwise the claim is likely to be supported by the court. Additionally, the lack of statistical parity is the employment of the minorities is also sufficient for the court to make a finding of discrimination (Kogut & Short, 2007).

Under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, colleges and universities were authorized to consider affirmative action in setting goals and timetables to rectify past discrimination in hiring and admission practices.

In another landmark decision in 1978 *Bakke v. Regents of the University of California*, the plaintiff Allen Bakke was refused admission to the UC-Davis medical school. He asserts that he was denied because of the 100 slots allotted for annual admission, 16 were set aside for minority students. He further argued that his 14th amendment right to equal protection was violated by having those slots set aside. The Court ruled 5-4 in favor of Bakke that preferential treatment in the form of racial quotas through the use of admission spaces violated the Civil Rights Act which prohibited discriminations based on race. There was a second opinion, now called the Powell Compromise again, 5-4 that allowed schools to treat characteristics acquired at birth (race, ethnicity, etc.) to be used as a one factor in setting up affirmative action admission programs (Yosso, Parker, Solorzano, & Lynn, 2004, p.

9). Justice Brennan added a footnote to the decision regarding the attached Harvard affirmative action admission plan stating…" is constitutional under our approach, at least so long as the use of race to achieve an integrated student body is necessitated by the lingering effects of past discrimination (Bakke, 438 U.S. at 326)." Justice Powell also wrote that the Free speech Clause of the first amendment as a "countervailing constitutional interest…of paramount importance" in support of affirmative action—at least in the academic world. The interest in racial and ethnic diversity is compelling in the context of a university's admission program provided that the "diversity that furthers the compelling state interest encompasses a far broader array of qualifications and characteristics of which racial or ethnic origin is but a single though important element" (Gray, 2001, p. 35).

With the court's Bakke decision approving the use of diversity as a compelling state interest, educational institutions as well as state and local employers began to use diversity policy and programs rather than affirmative action in the hope that their women and minority employment programs will pass legal scrutiny (Downing, et al., 2002).

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodologies used in this study. The intent of

this study is to examine and measure the relationship between and among specific

variables based on the responses from federal employees surveyed by the Office of

Personnel Management (OPM) in 1979. The data and tabulations utilized in this

study were made available in part by the Inter-university Consortium for Political

Social Research. The data for the Federal Employee Attitudes Survey, 1979-1980,

were originally collected by OPM. Neither the collector of the original data nor the

Consortium bear any responsibility for the analysis or interpretation presented here.

The Merit System Protection Board also conducted federal employee surveys

in 2000 and 2002. However, I chose not to combine both set of surveys for the

following reasons, first, the purpose of the MSPB surveys and the questions were not

the same as OPM and secondly, the reputations of the two organizations conducting

the surveys and the reasons for the surveys were different. OPM has the dual role of

advocate for the President's personnel policies and programs as well as advocate for

strategic and merit-based Federal human resources management, while MSPB is an

independent agency responsible for oversight of the civil service and the merit

system with reporting responsibilities to Congress and the President (U.S. Merit

System Protection Board, 2001). The difference in the agencies' missions may cause

the respondents to answer differently to the respective surveys to similar questions.

Although OPM conducted a survey in 1983, data for women and minority

employees in the GS 13 -15 grades for that year are not available. Thus, that year

was specifically excluded from the analysis. The final dataset includes the years 1979, 1980, 1992, 1998, 1999, 2000, and 2002.

Twenty federal agencies were used for this study. These agencies were chosen for the dataset because they have been used historically by OPM in their reports as selective agencies. These agencies are either Cabinet-level agency or are large independent agencies with 1000 or more employees. With exception of the Department of Education, all of the agencies were in existence in 1979. The Department of Education did not exist as a separate agency until 1980. Prior to 1980, Education was part of the Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) agency. For the purpose of this study, HEW data was used for the 1979 Health and Human Services data, as it was not possible to separate the education data out of the HEW data.

The agencies included in the dataset are: Agriculture, Commerce, Defense, which includes all defense agencies, Army, Navy, Air Force, Education, Energy, General Services Administration, Health and Human Services, Housing and Urban Development, Interior, Justice, Labor, National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Office of Personnel Management, State, Transportation, Treasury, and Veterans Administration.

For the study, statistical analyses (correlation, linear regression, and logistic regression) were used to explore the relationship between and among certain demographic variables and the respondents' perception of agency acceptance of the EEO and AA policies and procedures. The independent variables are the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the dependent variables are their responses to the survey questions regarding affirmative action. OPM and NPR

conducted surveys of federal employees on an irregular basis from 1979 through

2002. The survey was part of an ongoing study of how Federal employees felt about

their jobs, place of work and opportunities for training and advancement. The

surveys were conducted nation-wide and used a scientific sampling of Federal

employees. The surveys collected data on the attitude and perception of federal

employees on the topics of work experiences, training, work schedules, dependent-

care responsibilities, promotional opportunities, and demographics. The surveys

were conducted via postal mail and included all executive branch employees, but not

all executive branch agencies were surveyed. The studies used stratified random

samples based on agency and pay category. The 1979 survey was distributed to a

stratified random sample of 20,000 federal civilian employees from over 20 federal

departments and agencies, and the 1980 survey was conducted with a sample of

senior federal employees (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 1982).

The departments chosen for analysis represent a cross section of four agency

models using the typology developed by Lowi (1985) within the Executive Branch.

Lowi (1985) based his administrative structure framework on four models, the

regulatory agency model, the distributive agency model, the redistributive model, and

the constituent agency model. Regulatory agencies are "responsible for

implementing government control policies, formulating or implementing rules that

impose obligations and instituting punishment for nonconformance" (Lowi, 1985, p.

85). The Departments of Justice, Treasury, and Transportation are the regulatory

agencies included in the study. These agencies according to Lowi (1985) have

distinctive organizational characteristics. They are rule bound; tend to recruit their

upper-management personnel from outside rather than from within; and the

recruited personnel will generally be attorneys. Their agency structure will tend to have a flatter hierarchy with a large proportion of high ranking managers (Lowi, 1985). Newman's (1994) study found women were equally represented with men in the regulatory agencies.

Lowi (1985) identifies distributive agencies also as being responsible for implementing government control policies, but "that the relationship between the agency and the individuals is more of a patron and client rather than that of the controller and controlled" (Lowi, 1985, p. 87). These agencies work directly with individuals. They administer distributive policies that allow for the concentration of benefits and the collectivization of costs. These agencies are the frequent recipients of "pork barrel" programs which are defined as "economically inefficient distributive programs" (Baron, 1991, p. 57). These agencies have strong mutually supportive relationships with their clientele and are resistant to change in their power or authority. They are generally decentralized operations with their employees being highly specialized. As a result of this specialization, they are more likely to hire from within rather than from outside of the agency. The staff will tend to have long term agency experience and will have long-established relationships with their clientele. These tendencies would make it difficult for minorities and women to move up the hierarchy because of the requirement for specialization and long-term established relationships. The agencies in the study that fall under the distributive classification are the departments of Agriculture, Energy, Interior, and NASA. Newman (1994) found that men generally dominated in distributive agencies.

Redistributive agencies administer policies and programs that reallocate the wealth, property or rights among social classes or racial groups. They implement

social welfare programs, public health initiatives, and social remedy programs such as affirmative action and at the state and local levels tend to hire those they were designed to help. Redistributive agencies operate on a centralized and rule bound basis. These agencies don't have many subject matter specialists, frequently recruit at the entry-level, and promote internally for top management positions (Lowi, 1985; Newman, 1994; Miller, Kerr, & Reid, 1999). Redistributive agencies in this study include: Education, Health and Human Services, Housing and Urban Development, and Veterans Administration.

Constituent agencies are identified as those agencies that are responsible "for making or implementing rules that pertain directly to citizen conduct or status" (Lowi, 1985, p. 94). These agencies include Commerce, Defense, GSA, Labor, OPM, and State departments.

Duerst-Lahti and Kelly (1995), Stivers (2002) and Dolan (2004) all support the argument that bureaucracy is a masculine orientated term, which by its masculine nature causes difficulties for women to advance to managerial positions. Ripley & Franklin (1991) research supports Lowi's (1985) agency typology on agency mission. They found women tended to be found in upper level positions of public agencies that stereotypically are considered more female dominated, i.e., education, health and human services agencies. Agencies that are regulatory or distributive are viewed to have more power and authority than agencies that have redistributive policies, with the former being seen as masculine orientated agencies while the latter are female orientated (Ripley & Franklin, 1991).

In 1991, the General Accounting Office (GAO) issued a report that included testimony from the Director of OPM which stated "…the percentage of women and

minorities in the SES and the pipeline to the SES are unacceptable" (United States General Accounting Office, 1991, p. 3). This supported GAO contention that there was a strong need to continue federal affirmative action programs. They found that women and minorities were underrepresented in the middle management grades GS 13 -15 and in key jobs which would lead to their being in the pipeline to Senior Executive Service positions. The GS 13 -15 key positions were dominated by white males. They cited the cause was due to barriers to promotional opportunities for women and minorities within the agencies, that the affirmative employment planning process was a low priority for most agencies and that the discrimination complaint process was broken (United States General Accounting Office, 1991). In 1990, women comprised 18% of the GS 13 -15 grades, in 2002 women were at 32%, an increase of 14% in twelve years (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2002).

Hypotheses

The Federal Employee Attitude Survey, 1979-1980 was a study of how Federal employees felt about their jobs and workplace. In the survey, question 18 stated: *Affirmative action policies have helped advance employment opportunities for women and minorities in this organization.* The available responses were: strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree and strongly agree. The responses of agree and strongly agree were used to determine the extent of the role of affirmative action played within the department, if the department had adopted and implemented affirmative action policies and that it had a strong role within the department. The responses: undecided, disagree and strongly disagree were indicators that the department had not adopted and implemented affirmative action policies or that it played a strong role within the department in 1979.

Researchers studying occupational segregation in the workplace have used the 30 percent threshold point for determining whether an occupation has achieved gender balance. Occupations with 30 -70 percent participation rates of women are defined as demographically sex-balanced. The 30 percent threshold is viewed as a rational evaluation standard for employment performance when measuring representation. It assumes that by reaching the 30 percent threshold of women, a critical mass of women managers has been reached, which increases the probability that women managers will be retained and promoted and that women will have greater influence on policy implementation and staffing decisions. An 11 percent threshold point is used for determining whether racial balance has been achieved. Demographically racially balance departments have minority participation rates ranging between 11 and 33 percent. The threshold and range is lower than for women because of the smaller minority population available in the labor force. As with women, it assumes that 11% is indicative of having reached critical mass of minority managers, who can greater input on staffing decision and policy implementation. (Tomaskovic-Devey, Kallebers, & Cook, 1996; Miller, Kerr, & Reid, 1999; Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993; Kerr, Miller, & Reid, 2002).

> H_1: *Federal departments that are more successful with their affirmative policies will also be more successful in recruiting women and minorities in upper-level positions, defined as GS 13 -15.*

The primary determinant of the organizational structure of redistributive departments is its responsibility for making and implementing the rules that distribute wealth, property, and rights. These departments place emphasis on recruitment from the bottom, and they do not employ many subject specialists.

The organizational culture of redistributive departments is supportive of women's employment and advancement (Miller, Kerr, & Reid, 1999; Newman, 1994).

Redistributive departments are also more likely to have female or minority personnel directors and a greater commitment to affirmative action policies. This commitment is due in part to their clients being children, the aged, women, and minorities (Miller et al. 1999). Cornwell and Kellough (1994) state that "Agencies that spend large percentages of their budgets in areas related to the redress of social and economic inequality tend to have more female and minority representation in their workforces, and in general, also exhibit greater progress toward further integration." (Cornwell & Kellough, 1994, p. 269).

H$_2$: *Women and minorities will have a greater rate of success in redistributive agencies in grades GS 13 -15.*

The Model

This study uses a cross-sectional model. The model's equation is:

$$Y_i = \alpha + \Sigma X_i + e_i,$$

Where Y_i, the dependent variable is the percent of women holding GS 13 -15 positions, in the ith department

X_i= sum of independent variables predicting the percent of women holding GS 13 - 15 positions, including success of affirmative action, in the ith department.

e = error component

The model is based on the use of cross sectional data for 1979. The department is the unit of analysis. The percentage rate of women, minority women and minority men are observed for each of the twenty departments in tables 2 and 3

for the years, 1979, 1980, 1992, 1998, 1999, 2000 and 2002 for a total of 140

observations.

Chapter 4

FINDINGS

The results from the regression models for the success of women and the

success of minorities at the GS 13 -15 levels are shown in the tables below.

Table 2 OLS Regression of the Success of Women in Achieving GS 13 -15 Positions (1979)		
Variable	Effect	t-value
Perception of impact of Affirmative Action	0.25	0.20
	(.03)	
Department Size (GS 13 -15)	-0.00	0.55
	(.00)	
Success of Minority Males	1.46**	5.23
	(0.92)	
Intercept	-6.45	-0.69
F-ratio	11.19*	
R-squared	78.9	
Adj. R-squared	71.8	
N	20	

Note: Dependent variable is percent of women holding GS 13 -15 positions. Figures in parentheses are standardized regression coefficients
*p<.01; **p<.001

Table 3 OLS Regression of the Success of Minorities in Achieving GS 13 -15 Positions (1979)		
Variable	Effect	t-value
Perception of impact of Affirmative Action	-0.72	-0.88
	(.11)	
Department Size (GS 13 -15)	-0.00	-0.97
	(.00)	
Success of Women	0.75**	6.47
	(0.85)	
Intercept	9.01	1.55
F-ratio	19.25*	
R-squared	86.5	
Adj. R-squared	82.0	
N	20	

Note: Dependent variable is percent of minorities holding GS 13 -15 positions. Figures in parentheses are standardized regression coefficients
*p<.01; **p<.001

Two regression models were run, for successful women and for successful minorities. Affirmative Action, size of the department (GS 13 -15), and success of minority males, as a group, were considered as factors in explaining the inter-department variations in the distribution of women. The results were significant, F-ratio = 11.195, p<.01. In looking at the model summary, use of Affirmative Action, size, and success of minority males accounted for 79% of the variation in success of women (R-squared = .789). Looking at the individual variables, it is clear that Affirmative Action is of little or no consequence. Also, agency size (size of GS 13 - 15) does not appear to be a factor. However, the standardized regression coefficient suggests that if we change the success rate of minorities by 1 standard deviation unit, the success rate for women changes by.92 of one standard deviation unit. This reflects an almost a 1 to 1 relationship.

Affirmative Action, size of the department (GS 13 -15), and success of women were used as factors contributing to the success of minorities. The regression model results were significant, F-ratio = 19.25, p<.001. In looking at the model summary, use of Affirmative Action, size, and success of women accounted for 86% of the variation in success of minorities (R-squared = .865). There is a linear relationship between the success of minorities and the success of women, size and use of affirmative action. But looking at the individual factors, only the success rate of women produces a significant effect. One standard deviation unit change in the success rate of women increases minority success rate by .85 of one standard deviation unit.

The study found that in all cases, women in general have made significant gains in their representation rates within the departments being studied in the GS 13 -15 grades levels. Women have apparently benefitted greatly from the opportunities made available in their departments and have reached 30% threshold which indicates gender balance in more than half of the study departments. Although women represent more than 50% of the general population, their actual representation rates in the workforce varies dependent on the occupation and grade level. Kerr, Miller and Reid (2002) suggest that the 30% threshold may be too conservative and that it overestimates the incidence of gender balance in the subject agencies, but using operationalized definitions of parity based on an equal share of jobs would produce much worse snapshot of the gender representation of the department.

The picture is not as rosy for minority women and males, although gains have been made in their representation rates. Minority women saw much smaller rates of increase while minority men had slight gains, flat rates or in some cases lost ground. Selden (2006) and Page (1994) noted that progress was slowed in the 1980s during the Reagan administration after making gains during the 1970s.

Grabosky and Rosenbloom (1975) early on found that representation rates for minorities had a negative relation to agency size, so that even though the numbers of minority employee may increase, the impact on the agency minority representation rates does not have the same impact as on smaller agencies. Most of the dataset departments increased in size from 1979 to 2002 with only the departments of Transportation, Labor and, OPM experiencing a loss of staffing during the time period. The departments of Defense, Justice, State, and Treasury all experienced a doubling or tripling of their workforce in the time period.

Kellough's (1989) study found that immediately following the enactment of the 1978 civil service reform there was an increase in the annual rate of gain for minority employees in mid-level and senior-level grades, but that the rate of increase was either flat or declined thereafter. Women's rate of representation increased significantly following the 1978 enactment of the CSRA. Kellough also cites the Reagan administration with lack of enforcement of affirmative action policy, but budget reductions and hiring ceilings may have also contributed to the lack of opportunities. Page (1994) also cites budget reforms that resulted in employment cuts under the Clinton administration as slowing the progress of minorities. Naff and Crum (2000) found that it didn't matter whether the administration initiated changes to the equal employment opportunity or affirmative action policies for there to be an expectation of either support or opposition these policies by the workforce. They also found that due to early retirement incentives, buyouts, and the 1991 pay increase that was used by the Clinton administration to reduce the size of government resulted in a high turnover of white males and more opportunities for women and minorities from 1994 onward. They attributed the decrease in rate of gains for minorities during the Reagan and Bush administration to the efforts to reduce the federal budget and lower personnel ceilings.

The **Department of Agriculture** provides programs that expand markets for agricultural products, develop alternative markets for agricultural products, and provide financing for developing rural infrastructure. As a distributive agency, it uses patron/client relationships to implement programs, making it difficult for women and minorities to make inroads into existing relationships. Tables 5 & 6 reflect the fact that women have made significant inroads increasing their employment rate in

73

the GS 13 -15 grades. Within the department of Agriculture the participation rate of women increased more than 25% and reached the gender balance threshold of 30% participation rate for women. Minority women and males had much smaller gains in their rate of employment in the agency, increasing 7% and 5% respectively. The flat progress of minority women and males is reflected in the graph in Appendix B.

The **Department of Commerce's** mission is to promote job creation and economic development. Women in general and minority women in the GS 13 -15 grades have increased their participation within the agency by more than 20% and nearly 8% since 1979. It also has reached gender balance with a 30% participation rate of women in the GS 13 -15 grades. Minority males are at 10% in the agency but have only increased their percentage rate since 1979 by less than 2%. See Appendix B for the graph of the progress of minority women and mostly flat progress of minority males.

The **Department of Defense** is responsible for national security. Within the department, there are Army, Navy, and the Air Force agencies, which are commanded by secretaries who report to the Secretary of Defense. GS 13 -15 graded women have a 24% representation rate in the department in 2002, an increase of 20% from 1979, but Defense has not reached gender balance. Minority women and men posted modest gains of only about 5% since 1979.

The **Department of the Army** has the highest participation rate within the Department of Defense with GS 13 -15 graded women participating at a rate of 29% in 2002. It also had the highest participation rate for minority women and males for 2002 with rates of 6% and 13.6%, respectively. **The Departments of the Navy and Air Force** participation rates for 2002 for GS 13 -15 grades were basically the same

74

for all groups with the women at a rate of 21%, minority women 4% and minority men at slightly more than 10%. These graphs are shown in Appendix B.

The **Department of Education** policy mission is to promote student achievement through fostering educational excellence and ensuring equal access. It increased the representation rate of women more than 32% since its inception in 1980, reflecting an overrepresentation of women within the department at 54%. Minority women have also made significant gains along with minority males.

The **Department of Energy** policy mission is to address energy needs of the country while addressing the environmental and nuclear challenges through science and technology. The department saw a significant increase of 22% in the participation rate of women within the agency at GS 13 -15 grade levels over the time period. It also reached gender balance within the GS 13 -15 ranks. Minority males doubled their participation rate and minority women increased their rated from less than 1% to 8%. A data table and graphic representation of the data are in Appendix B.

The **General Services Administration's** policy mission is to supply products and communications to government offices, provide transportation and office space for federal employees and develop government-wide cost-minimizing policies. It is an independent agency founded in 1949 to help improve the administrative functions of the government. GSA has been successful in incorporation women and minority within its organization at the GS 13 -15 grade levels. It is overrepresented by women with nearly 50% representation rate for all women and 18% representation rate for minority women. Minority males have also improved in their representation rate but at a much slower pace. White males'

representation rates within the organization decreased by nearly 50% since 1979 (see Appendix B).

The **Health and Human Services** policy mission is to protect the health of the citizens administered through state and local agencies. Health and Human Services has also reached gender balance within the GS 13 -15 ranks, increasing the representation rate from 35% to more than 50%. Minority women increased their representation rates more than 10%, but minority males lost ground, seeing a relatively flat rate with a downward trend in their representation rates. White males also saw a steady reduction in their representation by nearly 33% (see Appendix B).

The **Housing and Urban Development** policy mission is to create sustainable, inclusive communities and quality affordable housing. Housing and Urban Development has also reached and surpassed the gender balance ratio with women being represented in the GS 13 -15 grade by more than 47%. Minority women are also well represented at a rate of nearly 24%. Minority males are well represented at 16% while this is another agency that has seen a significant drop in the level of white male representation from 74% to 36%, a nearly 40% change in rate (see Appendix B).

The **Department of the Interior** policy mission is to manage and conserve federal land, natural resources, and to administer programs relating to Native Americans, Alaska Natives, Native Hawaiians, territorial affairs, and insular areas of the United States. This department has made some gains and has nearly reached gender balance at 27%, but most of its gains came in the 1990s under President Clinton. Minority women made some gains, but started with less than a 1% percent representation rate in 1979, but has only seen a 5% increase in the rate to only 6%.

Minority males saw a 1% increase in their participation in 22 years. White males within Interior saw a 24% drop in their participation rates (see Appendix B).

The **Department of Justice** policy mission is to enforce United States laws and administer justice as required. The department has reached gender balance with a 30% rate of participation of women in the GS 13 -15 grades. Once again, there was a dramatic increase in the participation rates of women and minorities in the 1990s under the Clinton administration, which slowed down under the Bush II administration. Minority males increased their participation rate by nearly 10% while minority women increased their rates by almost 8%. The representation rate of white males dropped more than 30% (see Appendix B).

The **Department of Labor** policy mission is monitoring occupational safety, wage and hour standards, unemployment insurance benefits, providing re-employment services, and economic statistics. The rate of white male participation at the GS 13 -15 grades dropped 20% to less than 50% within the department. The female participation rate increased 25% to 39%. The minority women rate also increased but at half the rate of women in general. Minority males' rate of participation dropped more than 5%. The drop in participation rate began under the Bush II administration, although they had seen a slight increase under the Clinton administration (see Appendix B).

The **National Aeronautics and Space Administration** policy mission is to implement the national civilian space program and to conduct aeronautic and aerospace research. NASA as a science based organization, hires highly skilled and specialized employees. Even so, they have been successful in increasing the participation rate of women within the organization at the GS 13 -15 grade levels.

Women have gone from a 2% participation rate to 24%. Minority women have increased to 5% participation rate and minority males increased to 13% participation rate, an increase of nearly 10 percentage points. NASA has gone from a 94% white male representation rate in 1979 to a 62% participation rate, a drop of 30 percentage points in 2002 (see Appendix B).

The **Office of Personnel Management** policy mission is to manage the civilian employment services of the federal government. The Office of Personnel Management is one of the departments that have seen a drop in the number of GS 13 -15 employees within the organization. However, even with the drop-off in total employees, women nearly tripled their rate of participation in the department. They have reached gender balance and are now overrepresented with a 49% participation rate. Minority women are at nearly 20% in their participation rate while minority males are at a 10% rate. White males have dropped from more than 72% to just over 40% in their participation rate at the GS 13 -15 grade levels (see Appendix B).

The **Department of State** policy mission is to manage the international relationships of the United States. The number of GS 13 -15 employees in the department more than doubled in size during the study years. Women at the GS 13 -15 grade levels tripled their participation rate from 10% to just over 31%. It has reached gender balance. Minority women are make up only 5% of the GS 13 -15 grades and while minority males doubled their participation rate from 5% to 11%. White males reduced their rates by more than 28 percentage points, they are at 57% participation rate with a downward trend since 1980(see Appendix B).

The **Department of Transportation** policy mission is to provide a safe, efficient, accessible transportation system that enhances the quality of life in the

United States. This agency has seen a 50% drop in GS 13 -15 personnel during the study years. This drop has affected white males the most with their participation rate dropping from 92% to 62%.Women have increased their participation rate to 23% from 2%, minority women have also increased their rate from less than 0.5% in 1979 to 7% in 2002. Minority males also saw their participation rate double from 6% to 13% (see Appendix B).

The **Department of the Treasury** policy mission is to manage the revenue of the United States government. This number of GS 13 -15 employees has doubled since 1979. Women have exceeded the gender balance rate of 30% and are over-represented in the GS 13 -15 grades at 37%. Minority women' participation rate increased to 12% and minority males doubled their participation rate to nearly 12% as well. White males' participation rate dropped to 50% with a significant portion of the drop occurring during the Reagan and Bush administration in the 1980's.

The **Veterans Administration** policy mission is to provide health, education, loans, rehabilitation, pension and other benefits to United States military veterans. The Veterans Administration increased the GS 13 -15 employees by 40% between 1979 and 2002. Women were the recipient of most of the new positions, tripling their participation rate to 33%. Minority women also increased the number of positions they held to almost 10%. Minority males also increased their participation rate to nearly 14% and doubled their total number in the GS 13 -15 ranks (see Appendix B).

To measure the level of affirmative action success by the department, a descriptive analysis was run on the dataset from the 1979 Federal Employees Attitude Survey using responses to question 18: *Affirmative Action helps minorities*. The

resulting group mean score was 66.54 reflecting the mean response rate for the

agencies participating in the survey (see Figure 1). Given that CSRA had only been

passed and implemented the year prior, a mean of 66.54 is respectable, given that not

many agencies had completely developed their programs and policies required for

compliance with the law. However, the group mean can be used as a measure to see

how the departments ranked among their peers. As Figure 1 shows, the department

of Agriculture, Commerce, Justice, Transportation, and Treasure scored well above

the group mean, while Defense, Navy, and Interior are right around the mean.

Other departments scored below the group mean, this is an interesting outcome

which should be pursued further. However the dataset is not designed for such an

exploration.

Affirmative Action Support (1979)

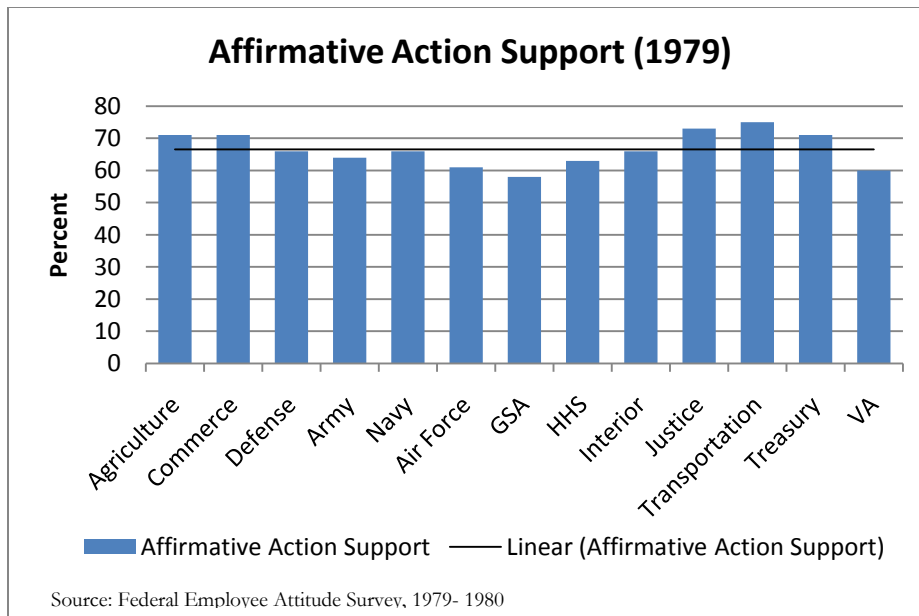Source: Federal Employee Attitude Survey, 1979- 1980

Figure 1. Agency Affirmative Action Support

Kogut and Short (2007) raise the concern that with more than 40 years of

affirmative action and equal employment opportunities has resulted in some

disparities within minority employment. As evidenced in Table 4, Kogut and Short

would suggest that there is over-employment of women and minority women in some departments. They suggest that implementation of affirmative action policies may have resulted in preferential hiring. Women in general and white women in particular seem to have benefitted the most from these policies, although the regression analysis shows that that it did not benefit of the employment of minority males.

Table 4. Percent Department Representation, 2002			
Female, Minority Female & Minority Male GS 13 -15			
Agency	Female	Minority Female	Minority Male
Agriculture	30.44	7.98	10.56
Commerce	30.26	9.59	10.39
Defense	24.11	5.11	10.18
Army	29.06	6.16	13.60
Navy	21.09	4.39	10.31
Air Force	21.36	4.20	10.81
Education	53.99	22.71	14.02
Energy	30.28	7.95	11.45
GSA	49.34	18.05	13.78
HHS	50.56	14.18	10.48
HUD	47.23	23.74	15.96
Interior	27.36	6.24	9.52
Justice	30.30	8.49	13.22
Labor	39.41	13.52	11.14
NASA	24.49	5.81	13.23
OPM	48.67	18.67	10.44
State	31.87	5.01	11.20
Transportation	23.96	7.33	13.39
Treasury	37.65	12.21	11.64
VA	33.20	9.51	13.58
Source: U.S. Office of Personnel Management, Demographic Profile of the Federal Civilian Workforce			

Table 5. Percent Change in Employment Rate			
Female, Minority Female, & Minority Male GS 13 -15, 1979 -2002			
Agency	Female	Minority Female	Minority Male
Agriculture	26.28	7.45	5.82
Commerce	22.64	7.87	1.66
Defense	20.61	4.73	5.15
Army	25.41	5.73	8.30
Navy	17.96	4.13	5.67
Air Force	18.77	3.90	5.94
Education*	32.63	16.40	-3.60
Energy	22.58	6.96	5.12
GSA	57.94	21.68	8.53
HHS	34.63	10.76	-1.27
HUD	34.56	20.34	2.27
Interior	22.70	5.34	1.16
Justice	25.62	7.77	7.63
Labor	24.92	11.02	-4.76
NASA	22.38	5.64	9.24
OPM	31.46	15.63	0.50
State	21.72	3.65	5.67
Transportation	21.93	6.97	7.46
Treasury	31.99	11.35	5.55
VA	22.60	7.47	3.33
Source: U.S. Office of Personnel Management, Demographic Profile of the Federal Civilian Workforce			

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research adds to the literature on affirmative action and diversity

programs within the federal service. With the department being the unit of analysis,

it is tempting to draw some inference of the behavior of the individual staffers. At

the organizational level, we cannot determine whether outcomes are the product of

individuals or the result of other factors. Per Bradbury and Kellough (2010), the only

inference that can be applied at the organizational level of analysis is that there is

evidence of active representation. All targeted groups in the dataset agencies have

made some gains since 1979 at the GS 13 -15 grade levels which puts them in the

pipeline for selection and promotion to the Senior Executive Service (see Table 5).

There were three agencies, Education, HHS, and Labor that saw a decrease in the

participation rate of minority males within their agency at the GS 13 -15 grade levels.

The data showed that in 1979, after the passage of CSRA, most agencies had begun

to adopt the effort to incorporate the affirmative action programs within their

organizations policies. Interestingly enough, the Department of Transportation led

the way with a 75% response rate even though in 1979, it had a 92% employment

rate of white males in the GS 13 -15 grades. The military also performed near or just

at the baseline affirmative action support rate. This may be due in part to the history

that the Defense department had of resisting integration of the armed forces until

forced into integration.

This study used the department as the unit of analysis, which is important to

understanding each department's organization culture and control. Agency policy

and mission help develop the formal and informal structures that are designed by

statures and rules, and that may help or prevent women and minorities in their career advancement. Studies of this kind will give federal policy makers more information regarding the success of their affirmative action and diversity programs.

Table 6.	Group Mean Representation Rates 1979 – 2002		
Department	Female	Minority Female	Minority Male
Agriculture	20.9	5.4	9.5
Commerce	21.2	5.7	10
Defense	16.2	3	8.1
Army	16	3.1	9
Navy	14.4	2.65	8.14
Air Force	14.1	2.39	7.68
Education	47.11	18	12.8
Energy	21.11	4.8	9.58
GSA	34.52	10.91	11.27
HHS	37.64	9.7	10.64
HUD	34.77	15.47	15.48
Interior	18.21	4.02	9.17
Justice	20.5	5.02	10.81
Labor	28.99	9.04	12.59
NASA	15.84	3.3	9.8
OPM	37.41	11.58	9.83
State	24.5	4.8	7.6
Transportation	14.43	3.85	10.78
Treasury	25.33	7.2	9.3
VA	24.13	6.5	12.8

It is evident that women and minorities have made great strides in the GS 13 -15 grade levels within the federal government. Table 6 lists the mean representation rates of the departments over time. The Redistributive policy agencies, Education, HHS and HUD all have means well over 30% the gender balance rate. These results

support my hypothesis that redistributive agencies will have higher participation rates of women and minorities than non-redistributive agencies. These agencies also experienced a point of intersection between the rising rates of women participation and the declining rate of white male participation at the GS 13 -15 grade levels. For the Department of Education, this intersection point occurred in 1990 at the 45% rate point. The rate of white male participation rates continued while the participation rates of women continued to increase. For Health and Human Services, this intersection occurred in 1998 at the 45% rate point and for HUD, the intersection occurred in 1997 at the 42% rate point. GSA and OPM, constituent policy agencies, also have mean rates over the 30% threshold for gender balance. GSA experienced a intersecting of the rates for women and white men in 2000 at the 45% rate point and OPM in 1999 at the 45% rate point. More study is required to explain why departments that had reached gender balance were also experiencing significant rates of decrease in their white male participation rates at or about the 45% rate.

This progress is due to many factors, including perhaps the successful implementation of affirmative action policies and programs, increased job satisfaction, pay, and promotional opportunities. However, more attention needs to be paid to this pipe-line group and to those attempting to reach the pipeline in order to join the mid-level and senior level positions in the federal government. It is also evident that women, particularly white women, have been the beneficiary of these programs, increasing their numbers at the expense of white males. The evidence is unclear as to the effect that their success has had on minority women, minority males, and white males. In some cases, there was a dramatic decrease in the

participation rates of white males in contrast to the dramatic increase of the participation rates of women at the GS 13 -15 grade levels. A portion of the decrease of white males in the department may be due to promotions to the Senior Executive positions and normal attrition (retirement, illness and death), but they do not explain the bulk of the decrease in participation rate. More study is needed to understand how the rise of women and minority participation rates has impacted the employment rates of white males in the mid-level management positions.

Even within the agency types, women have exceeded advancement expectations and are waiting in the wings for opportunities to join the Senior Executive Service, hold policy-making positions, and to make policy decisions. The presence of minority women and men in these middle management positions also served to improve the representativeness of bureaucracy within the federal government.

Although more than half of the departments have reached gender balance in the GS 13-15 grade levels by 2002, the question of whether minority women and men are encountering glass ceilings or glass walls is still unclear. Future research should look at the experiences of minority women and minority males and whether the increase in participation rates continued. This study used the global minority women and minority males for analysis, which does not allow for consideration of the specific groups of African Americans, Asian/Pacific Islanders, and Native Americans employees and the barriers that they may face within the agency. More research in the area of these specific groups will make a contribution to the field of Public Administration. The success of women within the federal government while significant has not necessarily translated into success for other minority groups. Of

particular concern is the loss of minority males at several agencies. Researchers

should investigate the cause for these losses as this study found that minority males

were successful when women were successful, so there was no causal relationship to

explain the drop in participation rate of minority males. More research on the

advancement opportunities of minorities in the public sector is important to help

understand what barriers remain and how they can be removed.

REFERENCES

Aberson, C. L., & Haag, S. C. (2003). Beliefs About Affirmative Action and Diversity and their Relationship to Support for Hiring Practices. *Analysis of Social Issues and Public Policy , 3* (1), 121-138.

Aigner, D. J., & Cain, G. G. (1977). Statistical Theories of Discrimination in Labor Markets . *Industrial and Labor Relations Review , 30* (2), 175-187.

Arfken, D. E., Bellar, S. L., & Helms, M. M. (2004). The Ultimate Glass Ceiling Revisited:The Presence of Women on Corporate Boards. *Journal of Business Ethics , 50* (2), 177-186.

Baron, D. P. (1991). Majoritan Incentives, Pork Barrel Programs, and Program Control. *American Journal of Political Science , 35* (1), 57-90.

Bell, D. (2004). *Silent Covenants: Brown v. Board of Education and the Unfulfilled Hopes for Racial Reform.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Bernstein, N. (1996, January 8). Study Says Equality Eludes Most Women in Law Firms. *New York Times* , A9.

Bowling, C., Kelleher, C. A., Jones, J., & Wright, D. S. (2006). Cracked Ceilings, Firmer Floors, and Weakening Walls: Trends and Patterns in Gender Representation among Executives leading American State Agencies, 1970-2000. *Public Administration Review* , 823-836.

Brest, P., & Oshige, M. (1995). Affirmative Action for Whom? *Stanford Law Review , 47* (5), 855-900.

Brewer, G. A. (2005). In the Eye of the Storm: Frontline Supervisors and Federal Agency Performance. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory , 15*, 505-527. Cameron, K., Jorgensen, J., & Kawecki, C. (1993). Civil Service 2000 Revisited: Old Assumptions - New Facts and Forecasts. *Public Personnel Management , 22* (4), 669-674.

Capaldi, N. (1997-1998). The Liberal Paradigm of Affirmative Action Law. *Loyola Law Review , 43*, 525-568.

Carter, R. (1980). A Reassessment of Brown v. Board. In D. Bell, *Shades of Brown: New Perspectives on School Desegregation* (pp. 21-28). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Cayer, N. J. (1996). *Public Personnel Administration in the United States* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Wadsworth.

Cayer, N. J., & Siegelman, L. (1980). Minorities and Women in State and Local Government: 1873-1975. *Public Administration Review , 40* (5), 443-450.

Collins, S. M. (1989). The Marginalization of Black Executives. *Social Problems , 36* (4), 317 - 331.

Combs, G. M. (2003). The Duality of Race and Gender for Managerial African American Women: Implication of Informal Social Networks on Career Advancement. *Human Resource Development Review , 2* (4), 385-405.

Cornwell, C., & Kellough, J. E. (1994). Women and Minorities in Federal Government Agencies: Examining New Evidence from Panel Data. *Public Administration Review , 54* (3), 265-270.

Cotter, D. A., Hermsen, J. M., Ovadia, S., & Vanneman, R. (2001). The Glass Ceiling Effect. *Social Forces , 80* (2), 655-681.

Cox, T. H., Lobel, S. A., & Mcleod, P. L. (1991). Effects of Ethnic Group Cultural Differences on Cooperative and Competitive Behavior on a Group Task. *The Academy of Management Journal , 34* (4), 827-847.

Cox, T. N. (1990). Invisible Men and Women: A Status Report on Race as a Variable in Organization Behavior Research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior , 11* (6), 419-431.

Crampton, S. M., Hodge, J. W., & Mishra, J. M. (1997). The Equal Pay Act: The First 30 Years. *Public Personnel Management , 26* (3), 335-344.

Crosby, F. J. (2004). *Affirmative Action is Dead; Long live Affirmative Action.* New Haven, CN: Yale University Press.

Crosby, F. J., & VanDeVeer, C. (2000). *Sex, Race, and Merit: Debating Affirmative Action in Education and Employment.* Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Crosby, F. J., Iyer, A., Clayton, S., & Downing, R. A. (2003). Affirmative Action: Psychological Data and the Policy Debates. *American Psychologist , 58* (2), 93-115.

DeHart-Davis, L. (2009). Can Bureaucracy Benefit Organizational Women? An Exploratory Study. *Adminstration & Society , 41* (3), 340-363.

DeHart-Davis, L., Marlowe, J., & Pandey, S. K. (2006). Gender Dimensions of Public Service Motivation. *Public Administration Review , 66* (6), 873-887.

Denhardt, J. V. (2003). *The New Public Service.* Armonk, New York: M.E. Sharpe.

Dolan, J. (2004). Gender Equity: Illusion or Reality for Women in the Federal Executive Service. *Public Administration Review , 64* (3), 299-308.

Dometrius, N. C., & Siegelman, L. (1984). Assessing Progress toward Affirmative Action Goals in State and Local Government: A New Benchmark. *Public Administration Review , 44* (3), 241-246.

Donovan, A. (2001, June 24). No Gains for Women on Corporate Boards. *The New York Times* , 4.

Downing, R., Lubensky, M. E., Sincharoen, S., Gurin, P., Crosby, F. J., Queirolo, S., et al. (2002). Affirmative Action in Higher Education. *Affirmative Action in Employment and Higher Education , 10* (2), 13-18.

Dudziak, M. L. (2000). *Cold War Civil Rights: Race and the Image of American Democracy.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Duerst-Lahti, G., & Kelly, R. M. (1995). *Gender Power,Leadership and Governance.* Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

England, P., Farkas, G., Kilbourne, B. S., & Dou, T. (1988). Explaining Occupational Sex Segregation and Waes: Findings from a Model with Fixed Effects. *American Sociological Review , 53* (4), 544-558.

Feagin, J. R., & Feagin, C. B. (1978). *Discrimination American style: Institutional racism and sexism.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Federal Glass Ceiling Commission. (1995). *God for Business: Making Full Use of the Nationa's Human Capital.* Washington, D.C.: US Department of Labor.

Fleming, J. E., Gill, G. R., & Swinton, D. H. (1978). *The Case for Affirmative Action for Blacks in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: Howard University Press.

Frederikson, H. G. (1990). Public Administration and Social Equity. *Public Administration Review , 50* (2), 228-237.

Gibelman, M. (2003). So How Far have we come? Pestilent and Persistent Gender Gap in Pay. *Social Work , 48* (1), 22-32.

Grabosky, P. N., & Rosenbloom, D. H. (1975). Racial and Ethnic Integration in the Federal Service. *Social Science Quarterly , 56*, 71-84.

Graham, H. D. (1992). The Origins of Affirmative Actions: Civil Rights and the Regulatory State. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science , 523* (Affirmative Action Revisited), 50-62.

Gray, W. R. (2001). *The Four Faces of Affirmative Action: fundamental Answers adn Actions.* Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Gulick, L. (1933). Politics, Administration, and the New Deal. *Annals of the Academy of Policitical and Social Science , 169*, 545-566.

Harris-Lacewell, M. V. (2003). The Heart of the Politics of Race: Centering Black People in the Study of White Racial. *Journal of Black Studies , 34* (2), 222-249.

Hindera, J. (1993). Representative Bureaucracy: Further Evidence of Active Representation in the EEOC Offices. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory , 3* (4), 415-429.

Hoogenboom, A. (1959). The Pendleton Act and the Civil Service. *The American Historical Review , 64* (2), 301-318.

Hsieh, C.-w., & Winslow, E. (2006). Gender Representation in the Federal Workforce: A Comparison among Groups. *Review of Public Personnel Administration , 26* (3), 276-294.

Ingraham, P. W. (1995). Political Management Strategies and Politica/Career Relationships: Where Are We Now in the Federal Government? *Public Administration Review , 55* (3), 263-272.

Ivancevich, J. M., & Gilbert, J. A. (2000). Diversity Management. *Public Personnel Mangement , 29* (1), 75-92.

Johnston, W. B., & Packer, A. E. (1987). *Workforce 2000: Work and Workers for the Twenty-first Century.* Indianapolis: Hudson Institute.

Kellough, J. E. (1992). Affirmative Action in Government Employment. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science , 523*, 117-130.

Kellough, J. E. (1990). Integration in the Public Workplace: Determinants of Minority and Female Employment in Federal Agencies. *Public Adminstration Review , 50* (5), 557-566.

Kellough, J. E. (1989). The 1978 Civil Service Reform and Federal Equal Employment Opportunity. *The American Review of Public Administration , 19* (4), 313-324.

Kellough, J. E. (2006). *Understanding Affirmative Action: Politics, Discrimination and the Search for Justice.* Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Kelly, R. M. (1992). *The gendered economy: work, careers, and success* (2 ed.). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Kelly, R. M., & Newman, M. A. (2001). The Gendered Bureaucracy: Agency Mission, Equality of Opportunity, and Representative Bureacucracy. *Women and Politics , 22* (3), 1-33.

Kerr, B., Miller, W., & Reid, M. (2002). Sex-Based Occupational Segregation in U.S. State Bureaucracies, 1987-97. *Public Administration Review , 62* (4), 412-423.

Kim, C. K. (2003). The Effects of a President's Party on Federal Senior Executive Employment: An Empirical Analysis on Represertive Bureaucracy. *Adminsitration & Society , 35* (2), 160-183.

Klugel, J. R., & Smith, E. R. (1983). Affirmative Action Attitudes: Effects of Self-Interest, Racial Affect, and Stratification. *Social Forces , 61* (3), 797-824.

Konrad, A. M. (2003). Defining the Domain of Workplace Diversity Scholarship. *Group & Organization Management , 28* (1), 4-17.

Konrad, A. M., & Linnehan, F. (1995). Race and Sex Differences in Line Managers' Reaction to Equal Employment Opportunity and Affirmative Action Intervention. *Group & Organization Management , 20* (4), 409-439.

Kranz, H. (1974). Are Merit and Equity Compatible? *Public Administration Review , 34* (5), 434-440.

Kravitz, D. A., Klineberg, S. L., Avery, D. R., Nguyen, A. K., Lund, C., & Fu, E. J. (2000). Attitudes towards Affirmative Action: Correlation with Demographic Variables and with Beliefs about Targets, Actions, and Economic Effects. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology , 30* (6), 1109-1136.

Krislov, S. (1974). *Representative Bureaucracy.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Krislov, S. (1967). *The Negro in Federal Employment: The Quest for Equal Opportunity.* Minneapolis, MN: The University of Minnesota Press.

Landau, J. (1995). The Relationship of Race and Gender to Managers' Ratings of Promotion Potential. *Journal of Organizational Behavior , 16* (4), 491-500.

Ledvinka, J., & Scarpello, V. G. (1990). *Federal regulation of personnel and human resource management* . Boston, MA: PWS-Kent.

Lewis, G. B. (1994). Women, Occupations, and Federal Agencies: Occupational Mix and Interagency Differences in Sexual Inequality in Federal White-Collar Employment. *Public Administration Review , 54* (3), 271-276.

Lieberman, R. C. (2005). *Shaping Race Police: The United States in Comparative Perspective.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Litwack, L. F. (1958). The Federal Government and the Free Negro, 1790-1860. *The Journal of Negro History , 43* (4), 261-278.

Lowi, T. J. (1985). The State of Politics: The Relation between POlicy and Administration. In R. Noll, *Regulatory POlicy and the Social Science* (pp. 67-105). Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Mainzer, L. C. (1973). *Political Bureaucracy.* Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company.

McAndrews, L. J. (2001, Fall). Beyond Busing: George H.W. Bush and school desegregation. *Educational Foundations* , 1-14.

McCrary, J. (2007). The Effect of Court-Ordered Hiring Quotas on the Composition and Quality of Police. *The American Economic Review , 97* (1), 318-353.

McGregor, E. B. (1974). Social Equity and the Public Service. *Public Administration Review , 34* (1), 18-29.

Meier, K. J. (1975). Representative Bureaucracy: An Empirical Analysis. *The American Political Science Review , 69* (2), 526-542.

Miller, W., Kerr, B., & Reid, M. (1999). A National Study of Gender-Based Occupational Segregation in Municipal Bureaucracies: Persistence of Glass Walls? *Public Administration Review , 59* (3), 218-230.

Milward, H. B., & Swanson, C. (1979). Organizational Response to Environmental Pressures: The Policy of Affirmative Action. *Administration & Society , 11* (2), 123-143.

Morton, N. O., & Lindquist, S. A. (1997). Revealing the feminist in Mary Parker Follett. *Administration & Society , 29* (3), 348-371.

Mosher, F. C. (1982). *Democracy and the Public Service* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Myrdal, G. (1996). *An American Dilemma:The Negro Problem and American Democracy* (Vol. 1). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers.

Naff, K. C. (1998). Progress toward achieving a representative Federal Bureaucracy: The impact of Supervisors and their Beliefs. *Public Personnel Management , 27* (2), 135-150.

Naff, K. C. (2001). *To Look Like America.* Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
Naff, K. C., & Crum, J. (2000). The President and Representative Bureaucracy:

Rhetoric and Reality. *Public Administration Review , 60* (2), 98-110.

Naff, K. C., & Thomas, S. (1994). The Glass Ceiling Revisited: Determinants of Federal Job Advancement. *Policy Studies Review , 13* (3/4), 249-272.

Naff, K. (1994). Through the Glass Ceiling:Prospects for the Advancement of Women in the Federal Civil Service. *Public Administration Review , 54* (6), 507-514.

Naylor, L. A., & Rosenbloom, D. H. (2004). Adarand, Grutter, and Gratz: Does Affirmative Action in Federal Employment Matter? *Review of Public Personnel Administration , 24* (2), 150-174.

Neal, T. E. (2007). *The Fact Book 2007 Edition: The Federal Civilian Workforce Statistics.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Personnel Management.

Newman, M. A. (1994). Gender and Lowi's Thesis: Implications for Career Advancement. *Public Administration Review , 54* (3), 277-284.

Nigro, L. G. (1986). Scientific Management: Seniority and Productivity in the Public Sector. *Public Productivity Review , 10* (1), 73-80.

O'Reilly, C., Williams, K., & Barsade, S. (1997). Group demography and innovation: does diversity help? In G. Huber, & W. Glick. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Page, P. (1994). African-Americans in Executive Branch Agencies. *Review of Public Personnel Administration , 14* (1), 24-51.

Perry, J. A., & Miller, T. K. (1991). The Senior Executive Service: Is it Improving Managerial Performance? *Public Administration Review , 51* (6), 554-563.

Reid, M., & Miller, W. (2004). Sex-Based Glass Ceilings in U.S. State-Level Bureaucracies, 1987-1997. *Administration & Society , 36* (4), 377-405.

Reskin, B. F. (1998). *The Realities of Affirmative Action in Employment.* Washington , D.C.: The American Sociological Association.

Reskin, B. F., & Hartmann, H. I. (1986). *Women's work, Men's work: Sex Segregation on the Job.* Washington, D.C.: National Academies Press.

Reskin, B. F., & Roos, P. A. (1990). *Job Queues, Gender Queues: Explaining Women's Inroads into Male Occupations.* Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

Reynolds-Dobbs, W. T. (2008). From Mammy to Superwoman : Images That Hinder Black Women's Career Development. *Journal of Career Development , 35* (2), 129-150.

Riccucci, N. (1986). Female and Minority Employment in City Government: The Role of Unions. *Policy Studies Journal , 15* (1), 3 -15.

Riccucci, N. M. (2002). *Managing Diversity in public sector workforces.* Boulder: Westview Press.

Riccucci, N. M. (2009). The Pursuit of Social Equity in the Federal Government: A Road Less Traveled? *Public Administration Review , 69* (3), 373-382.

Riccucci, N. M., & Saidel, J. R. (1997). The Representativeness of State-Level Bureaucratic Leaders: A missing piece of the Representative Bureaucracy. *Public Administration Review , 57* (5), 423-430.

Rice, M. F., & Mongkuo, M. (1998). Did Adarand Kill Minority Set-Asides? *Public Administration Review , 58* (1), 82-86.

Richard, O. (2000). Racial Diversity, business Strategy, and firm performance: A resources-based view. *Academy of Management Journal , 43* (2), 164-177.

Ridgeway, C. (2001). Gender, Status, and Leadership. *Journal of Social Issues , 57* (4), 637-655.

Ripley, R. B., & Franklin, G. A. (1991). *Congress, the Bureaucracy and Public Policy* (5th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.

Robinson, R. K., Paolillo, J. G., & Reithel, B. J. (1998). Race-Based Preferential Treatment Programs: Raising the Bar for Establishing Compelling Government Interests. *Public Personnel Management , 27* (3), 349-360.

Rosenbloom, D. H., & Festherstonhough, ,. J. (1977). Passive and active representation in the federal service: A comparison of blacks and whites. *Social Science Quarterly , 57* (4), 873-882.

Ruchames, L. (1953). *Race, Jobs and Politics.* New York, NY: Columbia University Press.

Schneider, P. (1993). Search for a Glass Ceiling. *The Public Manager , 22*, 38.

Selden, S. C. (2006). A Solution in Search of a Problem? Discrimination, Affirmative Action, and the New Public Service. *Public Administration Revierw* , 911-923.

Selden, S., & Selden, F. (2001). Rethinking Diveristy in Public Organizaitons for the 21st Century: A Socila Identity Perspective. *Administration & Society , 52* (11), 1445-1467.

Shelton, B. A., & Agger, B. Shotgun Wedding, Unhappy Marriage, No Fault Divorce? Rethinking the Feminism-Marxism Relationship. In P. England, *Theory on Gender/Feminism on Theory:Social Institutions and Social Change* (pp. 25-42). New York, NY: Aldine Du Gruyter.

Skrentny, J. D. (2001). *Color Lines: Affirmative Action, immigration, and civil rights options for America.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Slack, J. D. (1987). Affirmative Action and City Managers: Attitudes towards Recruitment of Women. *Public Administration Review , 47* (2), 199-206.

Smith, R. M. (1997). *Civic Ideals: Conflicting Visions of Citizenship in U.S. History*. New Haven, CN: Yale University Press.

Sneed, B. A. (2007). Glass Walls in State Bureaucracies: Examining the Difference Departmental Function Make. *Public Administration Review , 67* (5), 880 - 891.

Sowa, J. E., & Selden, S. C. (2003). Adminstrative Discretion and Active Representation:An Expansion of the Theory of Representative Bureaucracy. *Public Administration Review , 63* (6), 700-710.

Sprague, J., & Zimmerman, M. K. (1993). Ovecoming Dualism: A feminist agenda for Sociological Methodology. In P. England, *Theory on Gender/Feminism on Theory: Social Institutions and Social Change* (pp. 255-280). New York: Aldine De Gruyter .

Stivers, C. (2002). *Gender Images in Public Administration: Legitmacy and the Administrative State* (2 ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Stokes, C., Lawson, B. E., & Smitherman, G. (2003). The Language of Affirmative Action: History, Public Policy and Liberalism. *The Black Scholar , 33* (3-4), 14-17.

Sugrue, T. J. (1998). The Tangled Roots of Affirmative Action. *American Behavioral Scientist , 41* (7), 886-897.

Swain, C. M. (2001). Affirmative Action: Legislative History,Judicial Interpretation, Public Consensus. In N. R. Council, *America Becoming: Racial Trends and Consequences* (Vol. 1, p. 530). Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.

Taylor, F. W. (1998). *Scientific Management*. Norcross, GA: Engineering and Management Press.

Terry, L. D. (1998). Administrative Leadership, Neo-Managerlism, and the Public Managment Movement. *Public Administration Review , 58* (3), 194-200.

Thomas, R. R. (1990, March-April). From Affirmative Action to Affirming Diversity. *Harvard Business Review* , 107-117.

Thompson, V. A. (1976). *Bureaucracy and the Modern World*. Morristown, New Jersey: General Learning Press.

Thompson, V. A. (1977). *Modern Organization* (2nd ed.). University: The University of Alabama Press.

Tierney, W. G. (1997). The Parameters of Affirmative Action: Equity and Excellence within the Academy. *Review of Educational Research , 67* (2), 165-196.

Tomaskovic-Devey, D. (1993). *Gender and Racial Inequality at Work: The Sources and Consequences oj Job Segregation*. Ithaca: ILR Press.

Tomaskovi-Devey, D., Kallebers, A. L., & Cook, C. R. (1996). Oraganziational Patterns of Gender Segregation. In A. L. Kalleberg, *Organizaitons in America.* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. (2009). *Annual Report on the Federal Workforce: Fiscal Year 2008.* Washington: EEOC.

U.S. General Accounting Office. (1992). *Federal Employment: How Federal Employees View the Government as a Place to Work.* Washington, DC: General Accounting Office.

U.S. Merit System Protection Board. (1996). *Fair & Equitable Treatment: A Progress Report on Minority Employment in the Federal Government.* Washington DC: U.s. Merit System Protection Board.

U.S. Merit System Protection Board. (2001). *The U.S. Office of Personnel Management in Retrospect: Achievements and Challenges After Two Decades.* Washington, DC: US Merit System Protection Board.

U.S. Office of Personnel Management. (2002). *2002 Federal Human Capital Survey [Computer file].* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Personnel Management.

U.S. Office of Personnel Management. (2002, September 30). *Demographic Profile of the Federal Workforce.* Retrieved April 4, 2011, from U.S. Office of Personnel Management: www.opm.gov/demograp/2002/

U.S. Office of Personnel Management. (1982). *Federal Employee Attitudes Survey, 1979-1980.* U.S. Office of Personnel Management. Ann Arbor: Inter-University of Consortium for Political and Social Research.

U.S. Office of Personnel Management. (1999). *National Partnership for Reinventing Government Employee Survey, 1999 [Computer file].* U.s. Office of Personnel Management. Ann Arbor: Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research.

U.S. Office of Personnel Management. (1992). *Survey of Federal Government Employees, November 1991-February 1992 [Computer file].* Research Applications, Inc. Ann Arbor: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Reseach.

United States General Accounting Office. (1991). *Federal Workforce: Continuing Need for Federal Affirmative Action.* Washington, D.C.: United States General Accounting Office.

United States Office of Personnel Management. (2000). *National Partnership for Reinventing Government Survey, 2000 [Computer file].* Office of Personnel Management. Ann Arbor: Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research.

US Commission on Civil Righs. (1969). *For All the People, By All the People: A Report on Equal Opportunity in State and Local Government Employment.* Washington DC: Governmetn Printing Office.

Watson, W., Kumar, K., & Michaelson, L. (1993). Cultural Diversity's Impact on interaction process and performance: Comparingh homogenous and diverse task groups. *Academy of Management Journal , 36* (4), 590-602.

Welch, F. (1981). Affirmative Action and its Enforcement. *The American Economic Review , 71* (2), 127-133.

West, M. S., & Curtis, J. W. (2006). *AAUP Faculty Gender Equity Indicators 2006.* Retrieved August 18, 2009, from American Association of University Professors: http://www.aaup.org/AAUP/pubsres/research/2003-04factsheet.htm

West, W. F. (2000). Merit, Management and Neutral Competence: Lessons from the

U.S. Merit System Protrection Board, FY 1988-FY 1997. *Public Administration Review , 60* (2), 111-122.

Wharton, A. S. (1991). Structure and Agency in Socialist-Feminist Theory. *Gender and Society , 5* (3), 373-389.

White, L. D. (1948). *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration* (3rd ed.). New York, New York: Macmillan.

Willoughby, W. F. (1927). *Principles of Public Adminstration.* Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.

Wilson, W. (1887). The Study of Administration. *Political Science Quarterly , 2* (2), 197-222.

Winship, C., & Mare, R. D. (1992). Models for Sample Selection Bias. *Annual Review of Sociology , 18*, 327-350.

Wise, L., & Tschirhart, M. (2000). Examing Empirical Evidence on Diversity Effects: How Useful is Diversity Research for Public-Sector Managers? *Public Adminstration Review , 60* (5), 386-394.

Woodward, C. a. (2005). Merit by Any Other Name: Reframing the Civil Service First Principle. *Public Administration Review , 65* (1), 109-116.

Wyatt-Brown, B. (1965). The Civil Rights Act of 1875. *The Western Political Quarterly , 18* (4), 763-775.

Yosso, T. J., Parker, L., Solorzano, D. G., & Lynn, M. (2004). From Jim Crow to Affirmative Action and Back Again: A Critical Race Discussion of Racialized Rationales and Access to Higher Education. *Review of Research in Education , 28*, 1-25.

APPENDIX A

1979 SURVEY QUESTIONS

May 17, 1979

Dear Survey Participant:

The Office of Personnel Management is studying how Federal employees view their jobs and places of work. You have been selected as part of a scientific sample of Federal employees to help us improve personnel management practices and working conditions in your agency.

The work experiences of every Federal employee are important, but there are too many for us to contact everyone. In order to get a wide range of views and experiences, we have randomly selected a sample of Federal employees to take part in this study. If our results are to represent the views and opinions of Federal workers, it is important that each survey be completed and returned.

We need frank and honest answers. We have taken steps to assure you of complete confidentiality. Your answers will be combined with others so that no individual responses will be reported or made available to anyone. Westinghouse Learning Corporation is collecting and automating the surveys for us. The survey is numbered on the back to allow Westinghouse to check your name off of the mailing list when your survey is received. A stamped envelope addressed to Westinghouse is enclosed.

Please complete the survey as soon as possible at your workplace during your regular work hours. The survey should take about 50 minutes to fill out. The analysis of the survey results would be assisted greatly if you could mail your completed survey within 5 days.

The overall findings of this study will be made available through publications received by your agency. If you would like to receive an individual copy of these findings, please send a request to The Office of Personnel Management, Workforce Effectiveness and Development Group, Room 3526, 1900 E. Street N. W. Washington, D. C., 20415.

This is the first time that the views and opinions of employees have been collected throughout the entire Federal Government. Although your participation in this study is voluntary, we urge you to take advantage of this opportunity to express **your** views.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Alan K. Campbell
Director

1

DIRECTIONS: Your responses will be read by an optical mark reader. It is important that you follow a few simple rules:

- Use **only** a number 2 lead pencil (not ballpoint or ink pen).
- Make heavy black marks that fill the oval.
- Erase cleanly any response you wish to change.
- Make no stray markings of any kind.

EXAMPLE: Will marks made with ballpoint or felt tip pens be properly read?

① Yes
● No

THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION IS NEEDED TO HELP US WITH THE STATISTICAL ANALYSES OF THE DATA. ALL OF YOUR RESPONSES ARE STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL; INDIVIDUAL RESPONSES WILL NOT BE SEEN BY ANYONE WITHIN YOUR ORGANIZATION. WE APPRECIATE YOUR HELP IN PROVIDING THESE IMPORTANT DATA. IF YOU NEED ANY INFORMATION TO HELP YOU ANSWER THE QUESTIONS IN THIS PART OF THE SURVEY (SUCH AS JOB SERIES NUMBER, PAY CATEGORY, ETC.), PLEASE CONTACT YOUR PERSONNEL OFFICE.

1. Are you:

   ① Female
   ② Male

2. Are you:

   ① American Indian
   ② Eskimo (Alaska)
   ③ Aleut (Alaska)
   ④ Asian or Pacific Islander
   ⑤ Black
   ⑥ White
   ⑦ Other

3. Are you of:

   ① Hispanic origin
   ② Non-Hispanic origin

4. What is your educational level? (Indicate highest completed)

   ① Elementary school (grade 1-8)
   ② Some high school or some technical training
   ③ Graduated from high school or GED (Graduate Equivalency Degree)
   ④ High school degree plus technical training or apprenticeship
   ⑤ Some college
   ⑥ Graduated from college (B.A., B.S., or other bachelors degree)
   ⑦ Some graduate school
   ⑧ Graduate degree (Masters, LL.B., Ph.D., M.D., etc.)

5. How old are you?

   ① Under 20
   ② 20 thru 29
   ③ 30 thru 39
   ④ 40 thru 49
   ⑤ 50 thru 54
   ⑥ 55 thru 59
   ⑦ 60 thru 64
   ⑧ 65 and over

6. Which of the following categories is most closely related to the field of study at your highest educational level? If you have not attended college, please go to item 7.

   ① Agriculture and Natural Resources
   ② Architecture
   ③ Biological, Health and Life Sciences
   ④ Business and Management
   ⑤ Communication/Journalism
   ⑥ Computer Science
   ⑦ Economics
   ⑧ Education
   ⑨ Engineering
   ⑩ English
   ⑪ Fine and Applied Arts
   ⑫ Foreign Languages
   ⑬ Home Economics
   ⑭ Law
   ⑮ Law Enforcement
   ⑯ Library Sciences
   ⑰ Mathematics and Statistics
   ⑱ Physical Sciences
   ⑲ Psychology
   ⑳ Public Administration/Political Science
   ㉑ Sociology/Anthropology
   ㉒ Other

2

102

7. How many years have you been a Federal government employee (excluding Military service)?

  ① Less than 1 year
  ② 1 thru 3 years
  ③ 4 thru 9 years
  ④ 10 thru 29 years
  ⑤ 30 years and over

8. When will you be eligible to retire voluntarily? (age 55 and 30 years of service, age 60 and 20 years of service, age 62 and 5 years of service, or under early-out provisions)

  ① I'm eligible now
  ② 1 to 2 years
  ③ 3 to 5 years
  ④ More than 5 years

9. Have you retired (eligible to receive retirement benefits) from active military service?

  ① Yes
  ② No

10. How many years of full-time employment have you had outside the Federal Government?

  ① None
  ② 1 thru 5 years
  ③ 6 thru 10 years
  ④ More than 10 years

11. How long have you worked for your present immediate supervisor?

  ① Less than 1 year
  ② 1 thru 2 years
  ③ 3 thru 5 years
  ④ 6 thru 8 years
  ⑤ More than 8 years

12. What type of appointment are you serving under?

  ① Career or career conditional
  ② Schedule C
  ③ Non-career executive
  ④ Other

13. How long has it been since you last received a written performance appraisal from your present supervisor?

  ① Less than 6 months
  ② 6 months to less than 1 year
  ③ 1 year to less than 2 years
  ④ 2 years or more
  ⑤ Never received one

14. What is your work schedule?

  ① Full-time
  ② Part-time or intermittent

15. What is your daily work schedule?

  ① Fixed schedule (**can not** change hours that you start or finish work)
  ② Flexitime (**can** choose hours that you start and finish work)
  ③ Compressed work week (four day week. 5-4-9 plan, etc.)
  ④ Don't know

16. How long have you officially been designated as a manager or supervisor?

  ① I am not a supervisor manager
  ② Less than 1 year
  ③ 1 thru 2 years
  ④ 3 thru 5 years
  ⑤ 6 thru 10 years
  ⑥ More than 10 years
  ⑦ I don't know if I am a supervisor/manager

17. For how many employees do you write performance appraisals? (not as second-level reviewer)

  ① None
  ② 1 or 2
  ③ 3 to 9
  ④ 10 or more

3

18. Which of the following do you work for?

① Agriculture, Department of
② Commerce, Department of
③ Defense, Office of the Secretary
④ Defense, Department of Air Force
⑤ Defense, Department of Army
⑥ Defense, Department of Navy
⑦ Defense Logistics Agency
⑧ Defense, all other Defense Agencies (e.g. DCA, DMA, DNA)
⑨ Energy, Department of
⑩ Environmental Protection Agency
⑪ Federal Communications Commission
⑫ Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation
⑬ Federal Home Loan Bank Board
⑭ Federal Trade Commission
⑮ General Services Administration
⑯ Health, Education and Welfare, Department of
⑰ Housing and Urban Development, Department of
⑱ Interior, Department of
⑲ Interstate Commerce Commission
⑳ Justice, Department of
㉑ Labor, Department of
㉒ National Aeronautics and Space Administration
㉓ National Labor Relations Board
㉔ Nuclear Regulatory Commission
㉕ Office of Personnel Management
㉖ Securities and Exchange Commission
㉗ State, Department of
㉘ Transportation, Department of
㉙ Treasury, Department of
㉚ Veterans Administration
㉛ Other

19. How many years have you worked in this agency?

① Less than 1 year
② 1 thru 3 years
③ 4 thru 8 years
④ 9 thru 15 years
⑤ More than 15 years

20. How long have you been performing your present job in this agency (even though your pay or grade may have been changed)?

① Less than 6 months
② 6 months thru 1 year
③ 2 thru 5 years
④ 6 thru 10 years
⑤ More than 10 years

21. Where do you work?

① Agency headquarters
② A field or regional installation

22. What is your pay category?

General Schedule and similar
① GS   ② GG   ③ GW

Foreign Service
④ FSR   ⑤ FSI   ⑥ FSO
⑦ FSS   ⑧ FC

Veterans Administration
⑨ VM   ⑩ VN   ⑪ VP

Wage System
⑫ WG   ⑬ WS   ⑭ WL
⑮ WD

Other
⑯ Ungraded position equivalent to GS-16 or above
⑰ Executive Level I—V
⑱ None of the above

23. What is your current pay grade? (for example, GS5, WG9)

① 1 to 2
② 3 to 4
③ 5 to 6
④ 7 to 8
⑤ 9 to 10
⑥ 11 to 12
⑦ 13
⑧ 14
⑨ 15
⑩ 16 to 18
⑪ 19 or over
⑫ Executive Level I-III
⑬ Executive Level IV-V
⑭ Ungraded

24. How long have you been in your present grade? (or if ungraded at your present salary)

① Less than 1 year
② 1 to 2 years
③ 3 to 5 years
④ 6 to 10 years
⑤ More than 10 years

4

104

25. In the last 10 years, how many job-related awards have you received from the Federal government?

  ① None
  ② 1
  ③ 2 or 3
  ④ More than 3

26. In your entire civilian Federal career, how many times have you moved geographically (outside commuting area)?

  ① Never
  ② One time
  ③ Two times
  ④ Three times
  ⑤ Four or more times

27. How many times have you moved between agencies in the last 10 years (count different major DOD components as different agencies)?

  ① Never
  ② One
  ③ Two
  ④ Three or more

28. What is your job series number? (such as 332 for computer operators, 810 for civil engineers, 2805 for electricians) Place 0's in front of your job series number, if necessary, so that it is four digits long. For example, if you are a computer operator with a job series number of 332, you would mark it as follows:

EXAMPLE

0	3	3	2

YOUR JOB SERIES NUMBER

29. Please refer to the map below and indicate which geographical region you work in.

Ⓐ Ⓖ
Ⓑ Ⓗ
Ⓒ Ⓘ
Ⓓ Ⓙ
Ⓔ Ⓚ
Ⓕ

5

GENERAL SURVEY INSTRUCTIONS

MOST OF THE QUESTIONS IN THIS SURVEY WILL ASK YOU

    —HOW MUCH YOU AGREE WITH THINGS

    —HOW IMPORTANT THINGS ARE

    —HOW OFTEN THINGS HAPPEN

EACH OF THE QUESTIONS IS ANSWERED BY FILLING IN THE APPROPRIATE OVAL.

For example, Dorothy Adams was asked how much she agreed or disagreed with some statements about training. She feels that the training she receives is very important for her advancement. However, she feels that the training is not effective. So she answered like this:

> HOW MUCH DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH
> THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ABOUT TRAINING?

STRONGLY DISAGREE / DISAGREE / UNDECIDED / AGREE / STRONGLY AGREE

1. The training I receive is important for my advancement.
     ① ② ③ ④ ●

2. The training program here is effective.
     ● ② ③ ④ ⑤

Some of the questions may look like this:

NOT IMPORTANT AT ALL / SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT / VERY IMPORTANT

3. The training I receive is important to me.
     ① ② ③ ● ⑤

In this example there are written descriptions above only some of the ovals. **However, any of the 5 ovals can be used.** Dorothy Adams feels that the training she receives is more than "somewhat important" but not quite "very important". So she answered by filling oval 4.

PLEASE FOLLOW THE DIRECTIONS GIVEN IN THE BOXES AT THE BEGINNING OF EACH SET OF QUESTIONS. BE SURE TO READ THE RESPONSE CHOICES BEFORE CHOOSING AND MARKING YOUR ANSWERS. YOU MAY BELIEVE THAT YOU DO NOT HAVE ENOUGH INFORMATION TO ANSWER SOME OF THE QUESTIONS. WE ASK THAT YOU ANSWER AS BEST YOU CAN, BASED ON THE INFORMATION THAT YOU HAVE. IF NONE OF THE CHOICES SEEMS STRICTLY APPROPRIATE, **PLEASE CHOOSE THE ONE THAT COMES CLOSEST TO YOUR FEELING OR OPINION.**

6

106

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE ABOUT YOUR ORGANIZATION AND THE EXPERIENCES YOU HAVE HAD WORKING HERE. HOW MUCH DO YOU **AGREE** OR **DISAGREE** WITH EACH STATEMENT?

STRONGLY DISAGREE / DISAGREE / UNDECIDED / AGREE / STRONGLY AGREE

1. In general, I like working here.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

2. The information that I get through formal communication channels helps me perform my job effectively.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

3. Under the present system, it is very difficult to motivate employees with financial rewards.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

4. When changes are made in this organization, the employees usually lose out in the end.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

5. When an employee continues to do his/her job poorly, supervisors here will take the appropriate corrective action.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

6. Overall, this organization is effective in accomplishing its objectives.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

7. In this organization, it is often unclear who has the formal authority to make a decision.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

8. I am not sure what determines how I can get a promotion in this organization.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

9. It's really not possible to change things around here.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

10. What happens to this organization is really important to me.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

11. I am told promptly when there is a change in policy, rules, or regulations that affects me.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

12. I have the authority I need to accomplish my work objectives.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

13. Disciplinary actions in this organization are avoided because of the paperwork that is required.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

14. Under the present system, supervisors here get few tangible rewards for excellent performance.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

15. Employees here feel you can't trust this organization.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

16. New employees in this organization are well qualified to perform their jobs.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

17. Promotions or unscheduled pay increases here usually depend on how well a person performs on his/her job.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

18. Affirmative action policies have helped advance employment opportunities for women and minorities in this organization.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

19. There are adequate procedures to get my performance rating reconsidered, if necessary.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

20. This organization moves its marginal and unsatisfactory workers to positions where they can be ignored.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

21. Employees do not have much opportunity to influence what goes on in this organization.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

7

107

AGREE OR DISAGREE . . .

22. Under the present system, financial rewards are seldom related to employee performance.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

23. There is a tendency for supervisors here to give the same performance ratings regardless of how well people perform their jobs.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

24. Management is flexible enough to make changes when necessary.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

25. I often think about quitting.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

26. I understand the performance appraisal system being used in this organization.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

27. Affirmative action policies have **not** had an adverse impact on the overall productivity of this organization.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

28. I care little about what happens to this organization as long as I get a paycheck.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

29. In general, disciplinary actions taken in this organization are fair and justified.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

30. Supervisors here cooperate with each other for the attainment of the organization's goals.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

31. This organization is responsive to the public interest.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

32. In this organization, authority is clearly delegated.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

33. People in this organization will do things behind your back.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

34. Affirmative action is not as important an issue in this organization now as it was several years ago.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

35. I am not afraid to "blow the whistle" on things I find wrong with my organization.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

36. Supervisors in this organization take the time to help marginal and unsatisfactory workers improve their performance.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

37. It takes too long to get decisions made in this organization.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

> THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS REFER TO PERSONNEL ACTIONS.
> SOME EXAMPLES OF PERSONNEL ACTIONS ARE PROMOTIONS,
> DEMOTIONS, REASSIGNMENTS, TRANSFERS, ETC. HOW MUCH DO
> YOU **AGREE** OR **DISAGREE** WITH EACH STATEMENT?

38. Performance appraisals **do** influence personnel actions taken in this organization.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

39. If I were subject to an involuntary personnel action, I believe my agency would adequately inform me of my grievance and appeal rights.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

40. I am aware of the specific steps I must take to have a personnel action taken against me reconsidered.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

8

HERE ARE SOME STATEMENTS THAT MAY OR MAY NOT DESCRIBE YOUR **WORK GROUP**, THAT IS, THE PEOPLE WITH WHOM YOU WORK MOST CLOSELY ON A DAY-TO-DAY BASIS. HOW MUCH DO YOU **AGREE** OR **DISAGREE** WITH EACH STATEMENT?

		STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
41.	The people I work with generally do a good job.	①	②	③	④	⑤
42.	I have confidence and trust in my co-workers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
43.	My group works well together.	①	②	③	④	⑤
44.	I feel I am really part of my work group.	①	②	③	④	⑤
45.	If we have a decision to make, everyone is involved in making it.	①	②	③	④	⑤
46.	There are feelings among members of my work group which tend to pull the group apart.	①	②	③	④	⑤
47.	In my group, everyone's opinion gets listened to.	①	②	③	④	⑤
48.	My co-workers encourage each other to give their best effort.	①	②	③	④	⑤
49.	All in all, I am satisfied with my work group.	①	②	③	④	⑤

THE QUESTIONS YOU JUST ANSWERED ASKED ABOUT **YOUR** WORK GROUP. THE NEXT SET OF QUESTIONS ASKS ABOUT **OTHER** WORK GROUPS AND HOW YOUR WORK GROUP AND OTHER GROUPS GET ALONG.

		STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
50.	In this organization, conflict that exists between work groups gets in the way of getting the job done.	①	②	③	④	⑤
51.	Because of the problems that exist between work groups, I feel a lot of pressure on the job.	①	②	③	④	⑤
52.	Coordination among work groups is good in this organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
53.	In this organization, competition between work groups creates problems in getting the work done.	①	②	③	④	⑤

THE NEXT FEW QUESTIONS ASK ABOUT YOUR IMMEDIATE **SUPERVISOR**— THE INDIVIDUAL THAT YOU REPORT TO DIRECTLY.

		STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
54.	My job duties are clearly defined by my supervisor.	①	②	③	④	⑤
55.	My supervisor encourages me to help in developing work methods and job procedures.	①	②	③	④	⑤
56.	My supervisor maintains high standards of performance for his/her employees.	①	②	③	④	⑤
57.	My supervisor considers the performance appraisal of subordinates to be an important part of his/her duties.	①	②	③	④	⑤
58.	My supervisor and I agree on what "good performance" on my job means.	①	②	③	④	⑤
59.	My job performance is carefully evaluated by my supervisor.	①	②	③	④	⑤

9

109

AGREE OR DISAGREE . . .

83. I have too much work to do everything well. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

84. My job makes good use of my abilities. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

85. I have control over how I spend my time working. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

86. Doing my job well gives me a feeling that I've accomplished something worthwhile. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

87. I have all the skills I need in order to do my job. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

88. My job gives me the opportunity to use my own judgment and initiative. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

89. I work hard on my job. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

90. The things I do on my job are important to me. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

91. On my job I know exactly what is expected of me. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

92. The standards used to evaluate my performance have been fair and objective. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

93. I have a great deal of say over decisions concerning my job. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

94. All in all, I am satisfied with the work on my present job. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

95. My job is pretty much of a one person job — there is little need for meeting or checking with others. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

96. In the past I have been aware of what standards have been used to evaluate my performance. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

97. Working hard leads to pressure from co-workers not to work so hard. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

98. Doing my job well makes me feel good about myself as a person. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

99. I have to depend on work performed by co-workers in order to get the materials or information I need to do my job. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

100. I enjoy doing my work for the personal satisfaction it gives me. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

101. During the next year I will probably look for a new job outside this organization. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

102. Working hard on my job leads to good job performance. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

103. Working hard on my job leads to gaining respect from co-workers. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

104. I will be demoted or removed from my position if I perform my job poorly. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

105. I will be given more routine work or less work if I perform my job poorly. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

106. Information that I receive about my performance usually comes too late for it to be of any use to me. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

107. My performance rating presents a fair and accurate picture of my actual job performance. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

11

REMEMBER, ANY OF THE 5 RESPONSE OVALS CAN BE USED.

DIFFERENT PEOPLE WANT DIFFERENT THINGS FROM THEIR WORK. HERE IS A LIST OF THINGS A PERSON COULD HAVE ON HIS/HER JOB. **HOW IMPORTANT** IS EACH OF THE FOLLOWING TO YOU?

Response scale: NOT IMPORTANT AT ALL / SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT / VERY IMPORTANT

108. The friendliness of the people you work with? ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

109. Getting a feeling of accomplishment from your job? ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

110. The respect you receive from the people you work with? ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

111. The chances you have to accomplish something worthwhile? ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

112. Your chances for getting a promotion? ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

113. The amount of job security you have? ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

114. Your chances for receiving a performance award? ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

IN THE QUESTIONS THAT YOU JUST ANSWERED YOU RATED THE IMPORTANCE OF DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF YOUR WORK. IN THIS SECTION, PLEASE INDICATE **HOW SATISFIED** YOU ARE WITH EACH OF THE FOLLOWING ASPECTS OF YOUR WORK BY INDICATING HOW MUCH YOU **AGREE** OR **DISAGREE** WITH EACH ITEM.

Response scale: STRONGLY DISAGREE / DISAGREE / UNDECIDED / AGREE / STRONGLY AGREE

115. I am satisfied with my chances for getting a promotion. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

116. I am satisfied with the amount of job security I have. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

117. I am satisfied with the chances I have to accomplish something worthwhile. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

118. I am satisfied with the respect I receive from the people I work with. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

119. I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for public service. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

HERE ARE SOME THINGS THAT COULD HAPPEN TO PEOPLE WHEN THEY DO THEIR JOBS **ESPECIALLY WELL**. **HOW LIKELY** IS IT THAT EACH OF THESE THINGS WOULD HAPPEN TO YOU IF YOU PERFORM YOUR JOB ESPECIALLY WELL?

Response scale: NOT AT ALL LIKELY / SOMEWHAT LIKELY / VERY LIKELY

120. I will be promoted or given a better job if I perform especially well. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

121. I can get the things I want from performing my job especially well. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

122. My own hard work will lead to recognition as a good performer. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

123. I will get a cash award or unscheduled pay increase if I perform especially well. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

124. I will have better job security if I perform especially well. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

12

111

THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ASK ABOUT THE **FREQUENCY** WITH
WHICH YOU RECEIVE FEEDBACK ON HOW YOU PERFORM YOUR JOB.
PLEASE INDICATE THE MOST APPROPRIATE RESPONSE FOR EACH
OF THE FOLLOWING ITEMS.

NEVER RARELY SOMETIMES OFTEN ALWAYS

125. How often **do you** receive feedback from your supervisor for good
performance?   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

126. How often **would you like** to receive feedback from your supervisor for good
performance?   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

127. How often **do you** receive feedback from your supervisor that helps you to
improve your performance?   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

128. How often **would you like** to receive feedback from your supervisor that
helps you to improve your performance?   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

IN YOUR OPINION HOW MUCH DID YOUR LAST
PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL HELP YOU TO . . .

NOT HELPFUL AT ALL SOMEWHAT HELPFUL HELPED A GREAT DEAL

129. Assess your strengths and weaknesses in performing your job?   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

130. Establish a plan for your training and development?   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

131. Receive needed training?   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

132. Determine your contribution to the organization?   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

133. Improve your performance?   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

THERE ARE VARIOUS REASONS FOR SELECTING A PLACE OF
EMPLOYMENT. **HOW IMPORTANT** WAS EACH OF THE FOLLOWING
FACTORS IN YOUR DECISION TO WORK FOR THE FEDERAL
GOVERNMENT?

NOT IMPORTANT AT ALL SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT VERY IMPORTANT

134. Salary   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

135. Fringe benefits   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

136. Challenging work responsibilities   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

137. Promotional opportunities   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

138. Opportunity to have an impact on public affairs   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

139. Job security   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

140. Opportunity for public service   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

141. Only job opportunity available at time   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

13

THE FOLLOWING ITEMS ASK YOU TO INDICATE HOW VARIOUS
GROUPS OF EMPLOYEES ARE TREATED IN YOUR ORGANIZATION.

MUCH WORSE   *WORSE*   *ABOUT THE SAME*   *BETTER*   *MUCH BETTER*

142. Compared to older employees, **younger employees** are treated: ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

143. Compared to other employees, **handicapped employees** are treated: ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

144. Compared to male employees, **female employees** are treated: ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

145. Compared to other employees, **minority employees** are treated: ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

NO EFFORT   *SOME EFFORT*   *EXTREME EFFORT*

146. Please rate the amount of effort you put into work activities during an
average workday. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

MANY OF THE ITEMS IN THIS SURVEY ASKED YOU ABOUT YOUR ORGANIZATION. WHICH OF
THE FOLLOWING DID YOU **GENERALLY** THINK OF WHEN YOU READ THE TERM **ORGANIZATION**?
(MARK ONLY ONE OVAL)

147. ① Agency (such as Veterans Administration) or Department (such as Treasury or Army)

    ② A major component within a Department (such as the Internal Revenue Service which is part
of Treasury, or Air Force Logistics Command which is part of Air Force)

    ③ A bureau or division within an agency

    ④ A field installation or activity (such as a VA hospital or an Army base)

    ⑤ Your immediate office or section

THE NEXT PART OF THE SURVEY IS FOR EMPLOYEES IN **GRADES GS-13 AND ABOVE, OR THE
EQUIVALENT.** IF YOU ARE A MEMBER OF THIS GROUP, PLEASE ANSWER THE ITEMS THAT
BEGIN ON THE NEXT PAGE. IF YOU ARE NOT, THIS COMPLETES THE SURVEY. WE APPRECIATE
YOUR COOPERATION IN TAKING THE TIME TO ANSWER THESE ITEMS. PLEASE USE THE
STAMPED ENVELOPE TO RETURN YOUR COMPLETED SURVEY. THANK YOU.

14

THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CONCERN YOUR VIEWS OF THE **EXPERIENCES YOU HAVE HAD IN YOUR AGENCY.** MANY OF THE QUESTIONS REFER TO "SENIOR EXECUTIVE POSITIONS". WHEN ANSWERING THESE QUESTIONS PLEASE KEEP IN MIND THAT "**SENIOR EXECUTIVE**" REFERS TO INDIVIDUALS IN GRADES GS-16 AND ABOVE.

PLEASE INDICATE HOW MUCH YOU **AGREE** OR **DISAGREE** WITH EACH OF THE FOLLOWING:

STRONGLY DISAGREE · DISAGREE · UNDECIDED · AGREE · STRONGLY AGREE

1. I understand how individuals are selected for senior executive positions in my agency. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

2. Senior executives are responsive in implementing top management's policy changes. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

3. There are insufficient incentives to retain highly competent senior executives in my agency. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

4. When an individual is hired or promoted as a career senior executive, one can feel assured that the decision was based on merit. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

5. The procedures used to select people for senior executive positions are fair. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

6. My agency recognizes supervisors who take the time to develop their subordinates' knowledge, skills, and abilities. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

7. There are adequate programs in my agency that focus on the development of future senior executives. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

8. Considering the skills and effort I put into my work, I am very satisfied with my pay. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

9. In this organization, it is unclear what has to be done to remove or demote an employee for unacceptable performance. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

10. The personnel office in this agency helps me perform my job effectively. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

11. I am given adequate opportunity to participate in training and development programs. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

12. In my agency, it is difficult to attract competent personnel for senior executive positions. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

13. In my agency, individuals from outside the Federal Government are selected for senior executive positions over better qualified career civil servants. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

14. Top management generally supports the personnel decisions made by supervisors in this agency. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

15. Training that individuals in grades GS-13 and above receive helps prepare them for executive positions. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

16. Senior executives are reluctant to express opposing views to top management in my agency. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

17. The assignment of individuals to senior executive positions in my agency is more a function of partisan politics than of any other factor. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

18. A senior executive in the private sector has the same or greater responsibility as a senior executive in the Federal sector. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

15

114

AGREE OR DISAGREE . . .

STRONGLY DISAGREE · DISAGREE · UNDECIDED · AGREE · STRONGLY AGREE

19. Personnel actions rewarding employees for good performance are avoided in my agency because of the paperwork that is required.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

20. Individuals are selected for senior executive positions on the basis of job performance.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

21. Political appointees in this agency respect the ability of career employees.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

22. Senior executives in this agency are reluctant to try new ideas and approaches.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

23. All in all, I am satisfied with my pay.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

24. Senior executives here receive adequate training to improve areas in which their performance has been evaluated as less than satisfactory.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

25. Senior career executives and noncareer executives work well together toward the attainment of agency objectives.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

26. If I think of an idea that will benefit my agency I make a determined effort to implement it.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

27. Supervisors here feel their ability to manage is restricted by unnecessary rules and regulations.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

28. It takes too long to process the paperwork needed to fill vacancies here.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

29. I am satisfied with my chances for getting a performance award.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

30. Lack of cooperation between senior career and noncareer executives gets in the way of getting work done.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

31. I do not have enough authority to determine how I get my job done.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

32. I do not have enough authority to carry out decisions which fall within the realm of established policy without consulting my supervisor.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

33. Senior executives are removed from their positions when they perform poorly.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

34. The procedures necessary to remove ineffective senior executives deter the initiation of such actions.
① ② ③ ④ ⑤

16

115

IF YOU ARE NOT A SUPERVISOR OR A MANAGER PLEASE SKIP TO ITEM 45.

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS REFER TO THE AUTHORITY YOU HAVE TO TAKE VARIOUS ACTIONS IN YOUR ORGANIZATION. PLEASE INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH YOU **AGREE** OR **DISAGREE** WITH EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS.

STRONGLY DISAGREE / DISAGREE / UNDECIDED / AGREE / STRONGLY AGREE

35. I do not have enough authority to remove people from their jobs if they perform poorly. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

36. I do not have enough authority to hire competent people when I need them. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

37. I do not have enough authority to promote people. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

38. I do not have enough authority to determine my employees' pay. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

THERE ARE MANY FACTORS THAT CAN BE USED TO EVALUATE AN INDIVIDUAL'S PERFORMANCE ON THE JOB. PLEASE INDICATE **HOW IMPORTANT** EACH OF THE FOLLOWING JOB FACTORS IS IN DETERMINING YOUR OWN PERFORMANCE RATING.

NOT IMPORTANT AT ALL / SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT / VERY IMPORTANT

39. Willingness to take action against ineffective employees ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

40. Development of your employees ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

41. Achievement of Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) objectives ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

42. Achievement of greater efficiency in operations ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

43. Achievement of program objectives ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

44. Ability to obtain resources needed to achieve program objectives ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

17

116

	MUCH LESS QUALIFIED	LESS QUALIFIED	AS QUALIFIED	MORE QUALIFIED	MUCH MORE QUALIFIED

45. Compared to other employees hired into or promoted into Senior Executive positions, **minorities** in this agency are: ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

46. Compared to other employees hired into or promoted into Senior Executive positions, **handicapped persons** in this agency are: ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

47. Compared to other employees hired into or promoted into Senior Executive positions, **women** in this agency are: ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

48. What do you believe is the biggest problem associated with the process of hiring minorities in your agency?

① Not enough qualified minority candidates
② No effective "mechanism" to identify potential candidates
③ General management resistance
④ Other

49. Which area in your agency offers the greatest job opportunities to minorities over the next five years?

① Personnel
② Clerical
③ Administrative
④ Technical
⑤ Financial
⑥ Other

HOW IMPORTANT IS EACH OF THE FOLLOWING FACTORS IN SELECTING INDIVIDUALS FOR SENIOR EXECUTIVE POSITIONS IN YOUR AGENCY?

	NOT IMPORTANT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT

50. Technical and professional qualifications ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

51. Ability to manage people ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

52. Program management experience ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

53. Personal favoritism ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

18

117

AS AN EMPLOYEE, YOUR PAY IN YOUR ORGANIZATION CAN BE
DETERMINED BY VARIOUS FACTORS, SOME OF WHICH ARE LISTED
BELOW. PLEASE INDICATE **HOW IMPORTANT** EACH OF THE
FOLLOWING IS IN DETERMINING YOUR PAY.

		NOT IMPORTANT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT		VERY IMPORTANT	
54.	Your length of service	①	②	③	④	⑤
55.	Your education	①	②	③	④	⑤
56.	Your training and experience	①	②	③	④	⑤
57.	The amount of responsibility on your job	①	②	③	④	⑤
58.	The quality of your job performance	①	②	③	④	⑤
59.	Your productivity (how much you produce)	①	②	③	④	⑤
60.	The amount of effort you expend on the job	①	②	③	④	⑤
61.	The quality of your **work group's** performance	①	②	③	④	⑤
62.	The productivity of your **work group**	①	②	③	④	⑤

IN THE ITEMS ABOVE, YOU INDICATED HOW IMPORTANT A NUMBER
OF FACTORS ARE IN DETERMINING YOUR PAY. BELOW, PLEASE
INDICATE HOW IMPORTANT EACH OF THESE SAME FACTORS
SHOULD BE IN DETERMING YOUR PAY.

		NOT IMPORTANT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT		VERY IMPORTANT	
63.	Your length of service	①	②	③	④	⑤
64.	Your education	①	②	③	④	⑤
65.	Your training and experience	①	②	③	④	⑤
66.	The amount of responsibility on your job	①	②	③	④	⑤
67.	The quality of your job performance	①	②	③	④	⑤
68.	Your productivity (how much you produce)	①	②	③	④	⑤
69.	The amount of effort you expend on the job	①	②	③	④	⑤
70.	The quality of your **work group's** performance	①	②	③	④	⑤
71.	The productivity of your **work group**	①	②	③	④	⑤

19

118

THE ABILITY TO CHANGE POSITIONS **WITHIN** AND **BETWEEN** AGENCIES EXISTS IN VARYING DEGREES IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH . . .

72. Your career has benefited from job mobility within your agency.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

73. An individual's advancement in your agency depends upon his/her willingness to change positions.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

74. Your agency has benefited from its job mobility provisions.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

75. The internal reassignment of senior executives impairs the continuity of agency programs.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

76. There are obstacles that impede executive mobility within your agency.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

77. There are obstacles that make it difficult to move from one agency to another.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

78. In general, **career** senior executives perform their jobs:

   ① much better than noncareer senior executives
   ② somewhat better
   ③ the same as noncareer senior executives
   ④ somewhat worse
   ⑤ much worse than noncareer senior executives

79. How often do you interact with senior executives in the course of your job?

   ① Never
   ② Rarely
   ③ Sometimes
   ④ Often
   ⑤ Daily

THIS COMPLETES THE SURVEY. WE APPRECIATE YOUR COOPERATION IN TAKING THE TIME TO ANSWER THESE ITEMS. PLEASE USE THE STAMPED ENVELOPE TO RETURN YOUR COMPLETED SURVEY. THANK YOU.

7123

119

APPENDIX B

DEPARTMENTAL DATA & GRAPHS

	Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**
1979	10633	445	4.19	56	0.53	504	4.74	9684	91.07
1980	11818	973	8.23	496	4.20	1443	12.21	9402	79.56
1992	13138	2433	18.52	484	3.68	1031	7.85	9674	73.63
1998	12965	3360	25.92	824	6.36	1274	9.83	8331	64.26
1999	12891	3648	28.30	926	7.18	1325	10.28	7918	61.42
2000	12817	3935	30.70	1027	8.01	1376	10.74	7506	58.56
2002	14495	4412	30.44	1157	7.98	1530	10.56	8553	59.01

Department of Agriculture
GS 13 -15 Employees

Agriculture Department

Legend: Female, Minority Female, Minority Male, White Male

Agriculture Department

Legend: Total Female %, Total Minority Female %, Total Minority Male %, Total White Male %
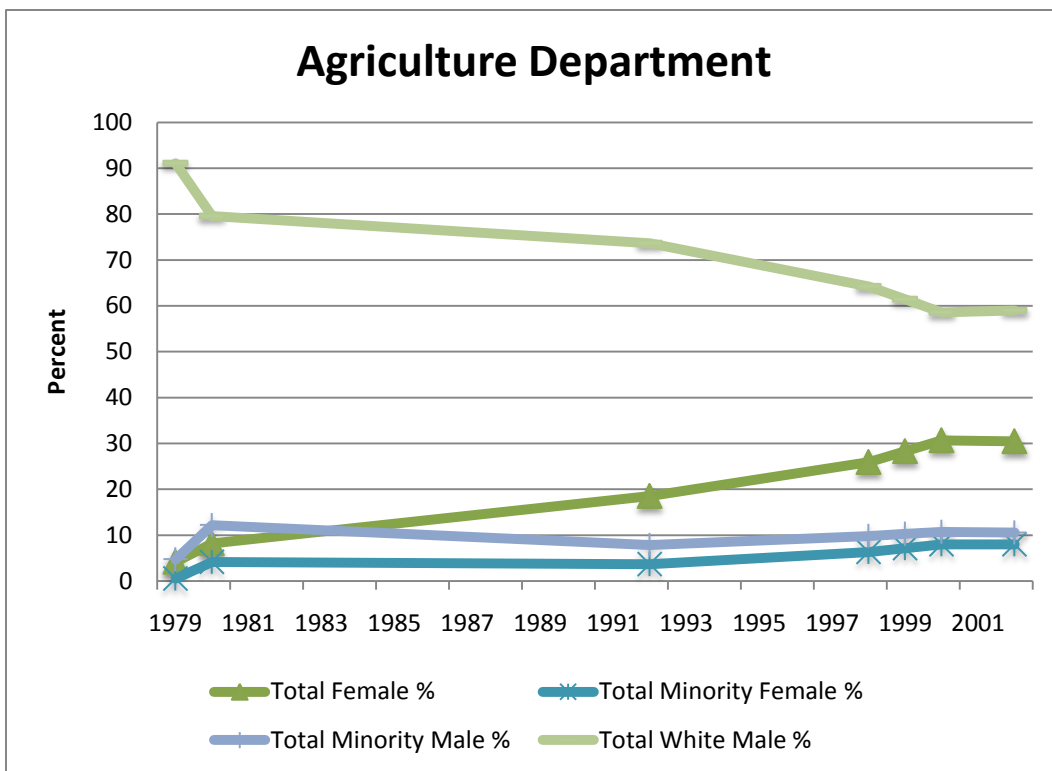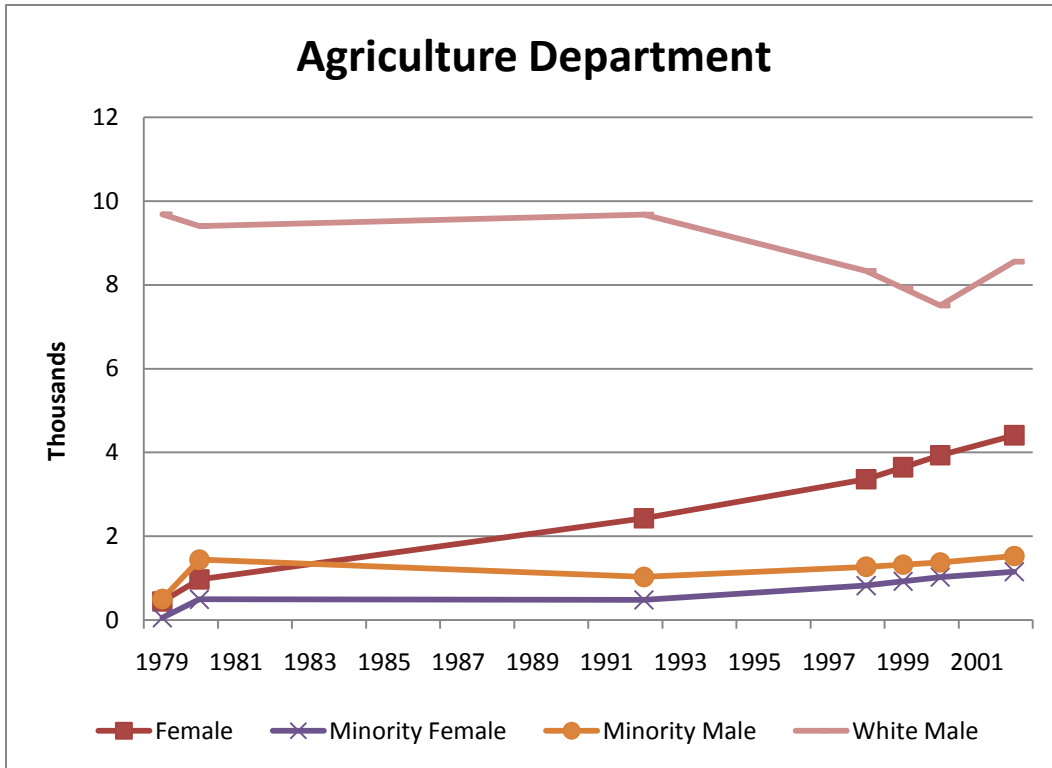
	Department of Commerce GS 13 -15 Employees									
	Total	**Total Female**		**Total Minority Female**		**Total Minority Male**		**Total White Male**	
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**
1979	8237	628	7.62	142	1.72	719	8.73	6890	83.65
1980	8698	761	8.75	160	1.84	761	8.75	7176	82.50
1992	9242	1830	19.80	395	4.27	825	8.93	6587	71.27
1998	11509	3014	26.19	806	7.00	1238	10.76	7257	63.06
1999	12019	3295	27.41	922	7.67	1336	11.11	7389	61.48
2000	12529	3575	28.53	1038	8.28	1433	11.44	7521	60.03
2002	12801	3873	30.26	1228	9.59	1330	10.39	7598	59.35

Commerce Department

Female · Minority Female · Minority Male · White Male

Commerce Department

Female · Minority Female · Minority Male · White Male

124
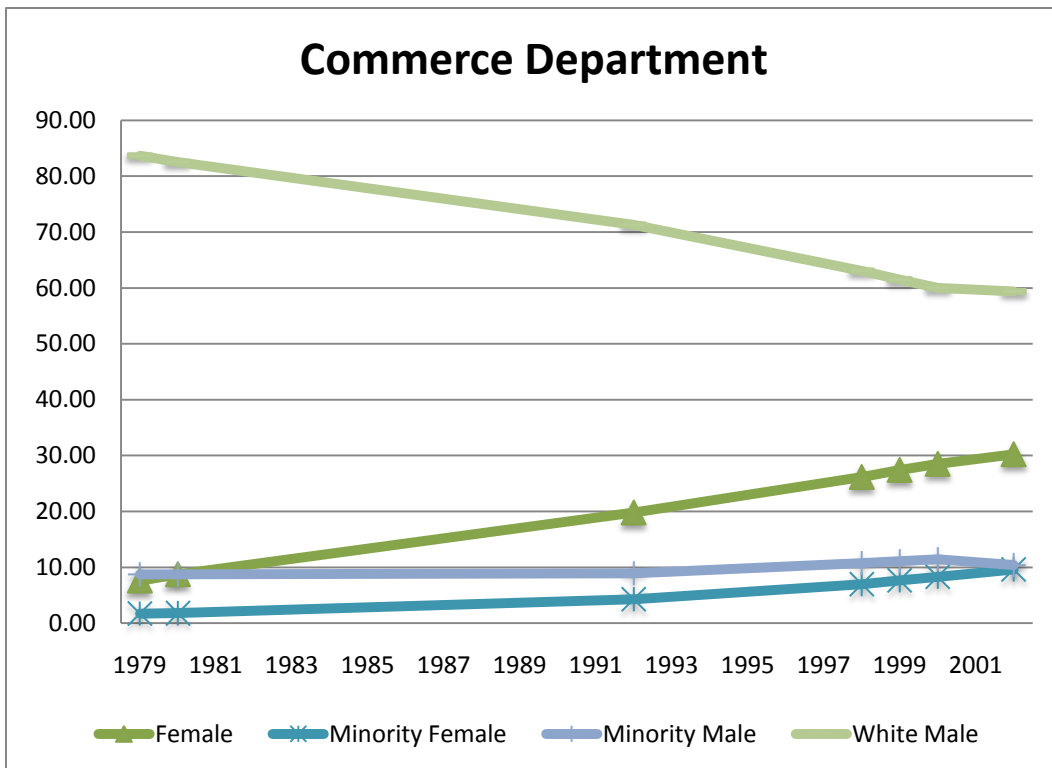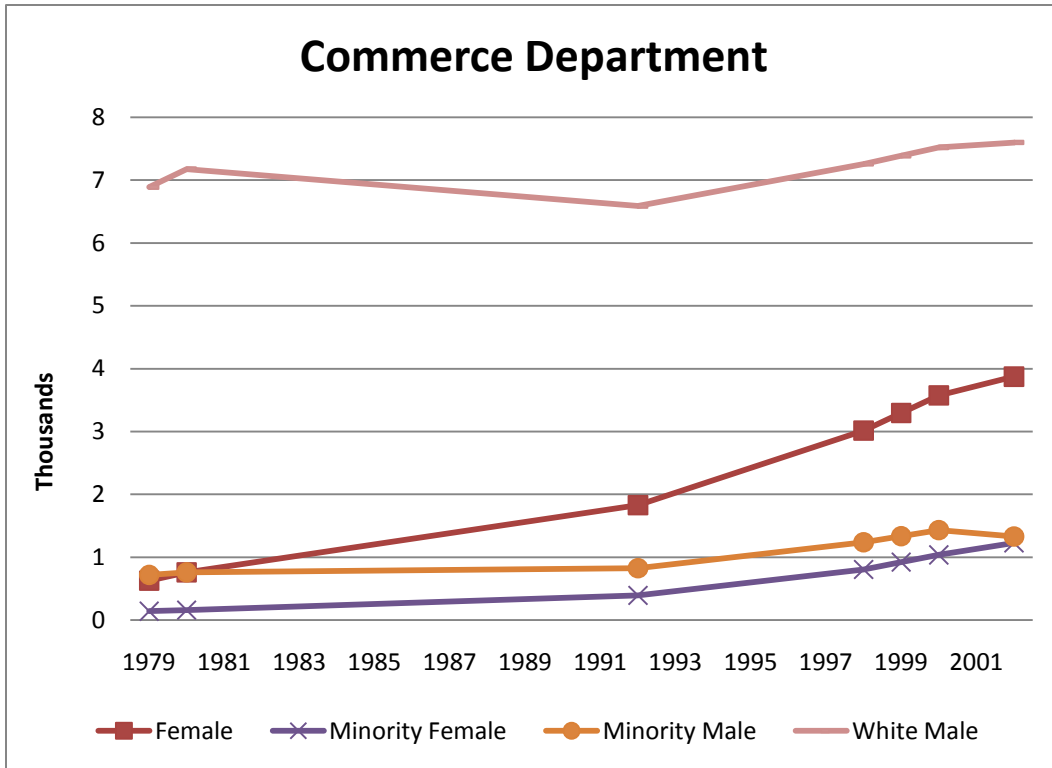
	Department of Defense GS 13 -15 Employees								
	Total	**Total Female**		**Total Minority Female**		**Total Minority Male**		**Total White Male**	
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**
1979	58037	2030	3.50	220	0.38	2921	5.03	53086	91.47
1980	57561	2306	4.01	280	0.49	3060	5.32	52195	90.68
1992	91765	14785	16.11	2429	2.65	7357	8.02	69623	75.87
1998	88949	18760	21.09	3517	3.95	8243	9.27	61946	69.64
1999	91611	20135	21.98	3900	4.26	8678	9.47	62799	68.55
2000	94272	21509	22.82	4282	4.54	9112	9.67	63651	67.52
2002	102328	24671	24.11	5227	5.11	10416	10.18	67241	65.71

Department of Defense

Thousands

- Female
- Minority Female
- Minority Male
- White Male

Department of Defense

Percent

- Female
- Minority Female
- Minority Male
- White Male

126

	Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
		#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1979	21854	798	3.65	95	0.43	1159	5.30	19897	91.05
1980	22069	896	4.06	121	0.55	1396	6.33	19777	89.61
1992	32969	5159	15.65	845	2.56	2782	8.44	25028	75.91
1998	30060	6027	20.05	1136	3.78	2897	9.64	21136	70.31
1999	31076	6559	21.11	1278	4.11	3110	10.01	21408	68.89
2000	32091	7090	22.09	1419	4.42	3322	10.35	21679	67.55
2002	28448	8268	29.06	1753	6.16	3870	13.60	16310	57.33

Department of the Army
GS 13 -15 Employees

Department of the Army

Thousands

- Female
- Minority Female
- Minority Male
- White Male

Department of the Army

Percent

- Female
- Minority Female
- Minority Male
- White Male

	Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**
1979	17963	562	3.13	46	0.26	833	4.64	16568	92.23
1980	17219	605	3.51	59	0.34	864	5.02	15750	91.47
1992	29810	4356	14.61	693	2.32	2395	8.03	23059	77.35
1998	29560	5639	19.08	1051	3.56	2815	9.52	21106	71.40
1999	30619	5997	19.58	1148	3.75	2962	9.67	21661	70.74
2000	31677	6354	20.06	1244	3.93	3108	9.81	22215	70.13
2002	35215	7427	21.09	1546	4.39	3631	10.31	24157	68.60

Department of the Navy
GS 13 -15 Employees

Department of the Navy

Thousands

Female ■ Minority Female ✕ Minority Male ● White Male

Department of the Navy

Percent

Female ▲ Minority Female ✱ Minority Male ✛ White Male
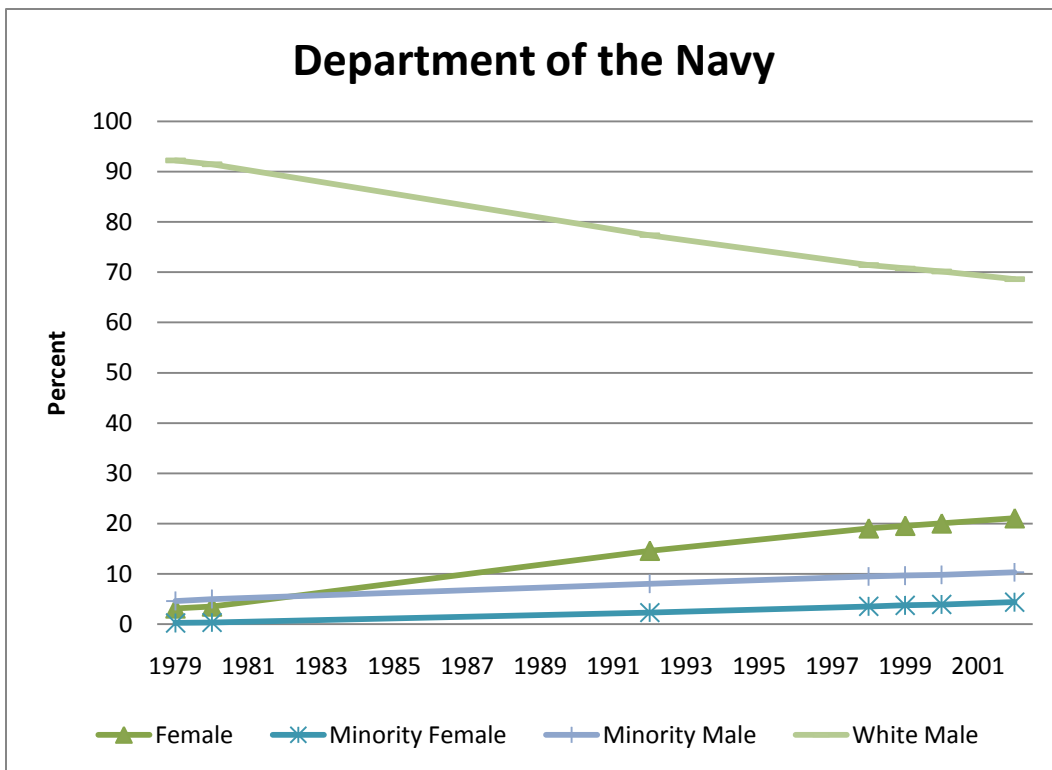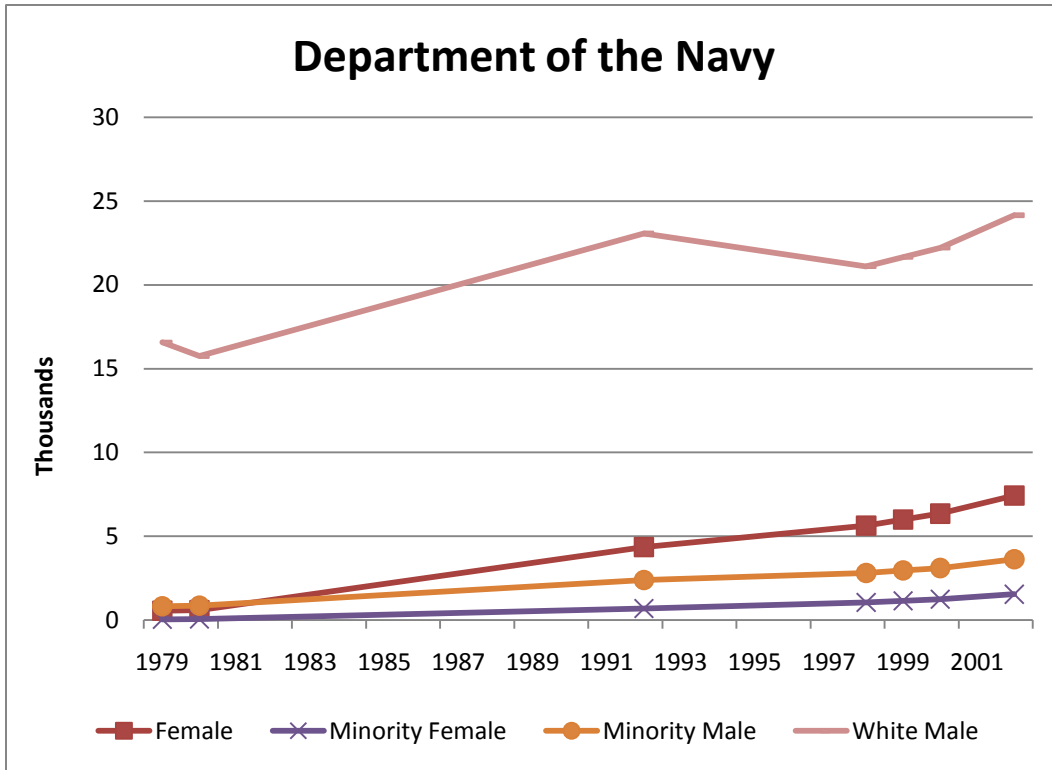
	Department of the Air Force GS 13 -15 Employees								
	Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
		#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1979	12125	314	2.59	36	0.30	590	4.87	11221	92.54
1980	12305	402	3.27	45	0.37	673	5.47	11230	91.26
1992	15651	2067	13.21	312	1.99	1137	7.26	12447	79.53
1998	16193	2993	18.48	485	3.00	1358	8.39	11842	73.13
1999	16439	3196	19.44	543	3.30	1390	8.45	11854	72.11
2000	16685	3399	20.37	601	3.60	1421	8.52	11865	71.11
2002	18246	3897	21.36	767	4.20	1973	10.81	12376	67.83

Department of the Air Force

Female — Minority Female — Minority Male — White Male

Department of the Air Force

Female — Minority Female — Minority Male — White Male
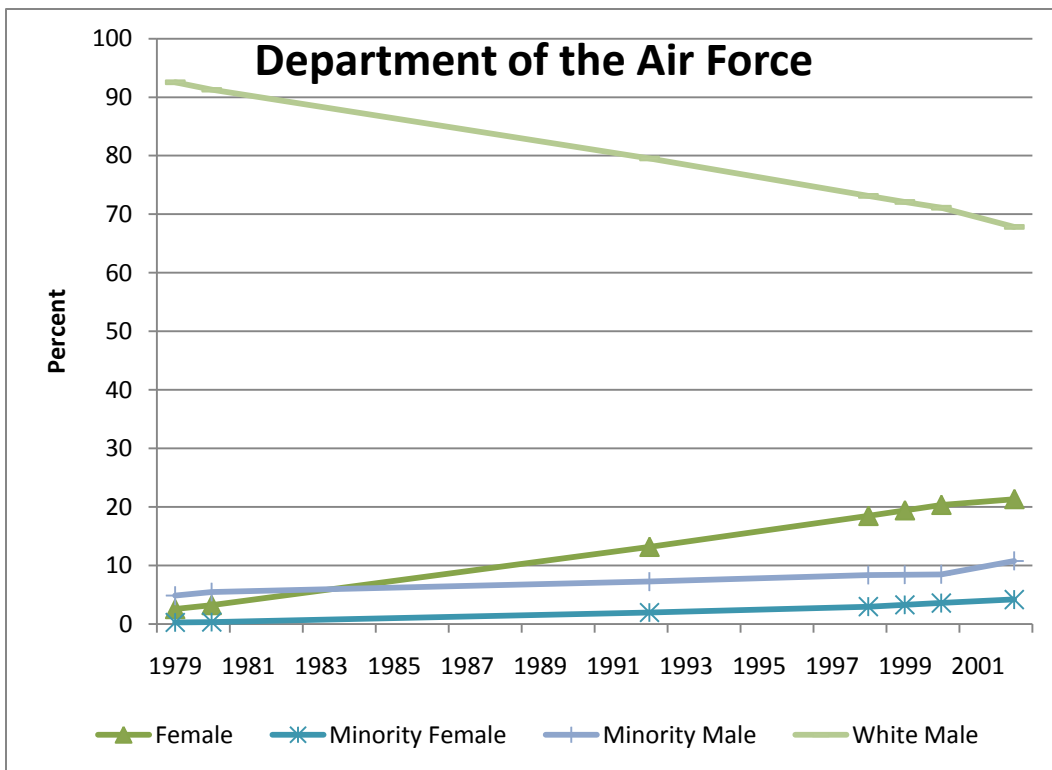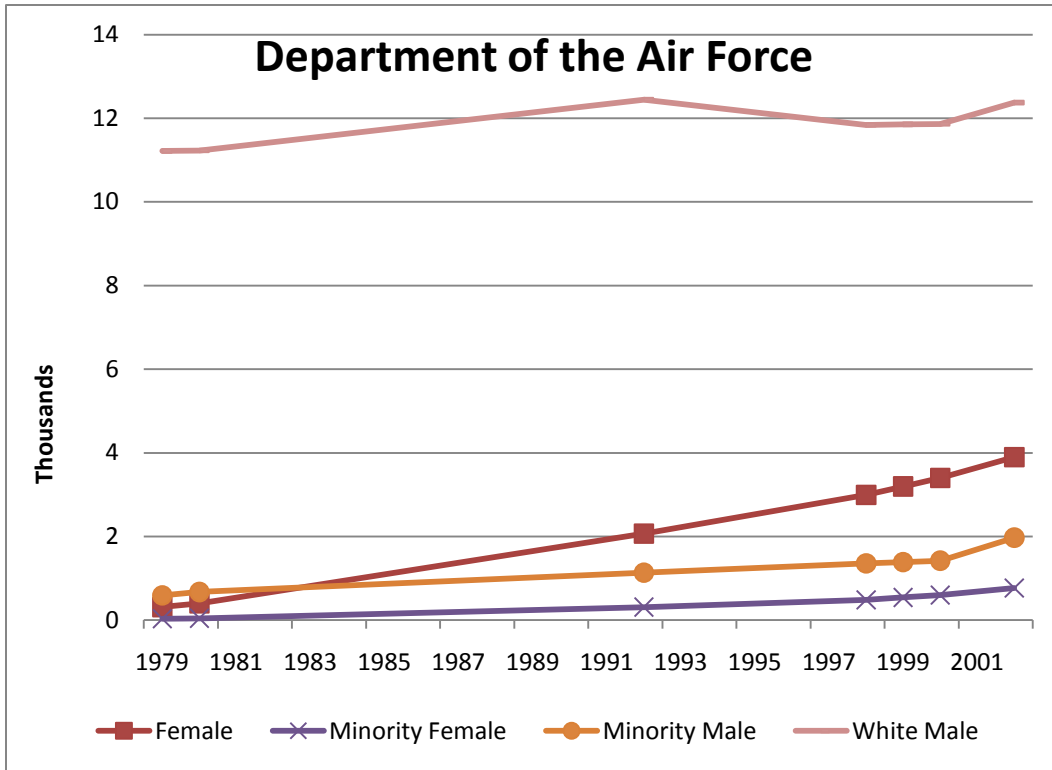
	Department of Education GS 13 -15 Employees									
	Total	**Total Female**		**Total Minority Female**		**Total Minority Male**		**Total White Male**	
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**
1979									
1980	2140	457	21.36	135	6.31	377	17.62	1306	61.03
1992	1822	839	46.05	290	15.92	189	10.37	794	43.58
1998	2109	1113	52.77	411	19.49	251	11.90	745	35.32
1999	2249	1210	53.81	474	21.08	262	11.65	777	34.53
2000	2388	1307	54.73	537	22.49	273	11.43	808	33.84
2002	2532	1367	53.99	575	22.71	355	14.02	810	31.99

Department of Education

Female — Minority Female — Minority Male — White Male

Department of Education

Female — Minority Female — Minority Male — White Male

134
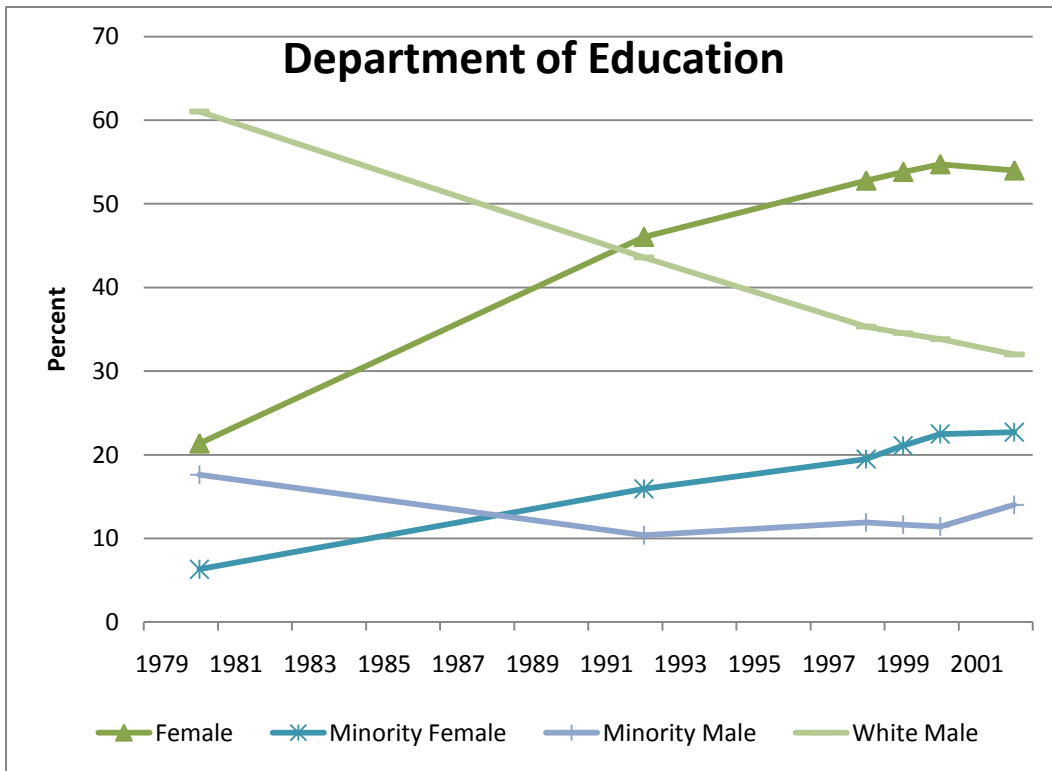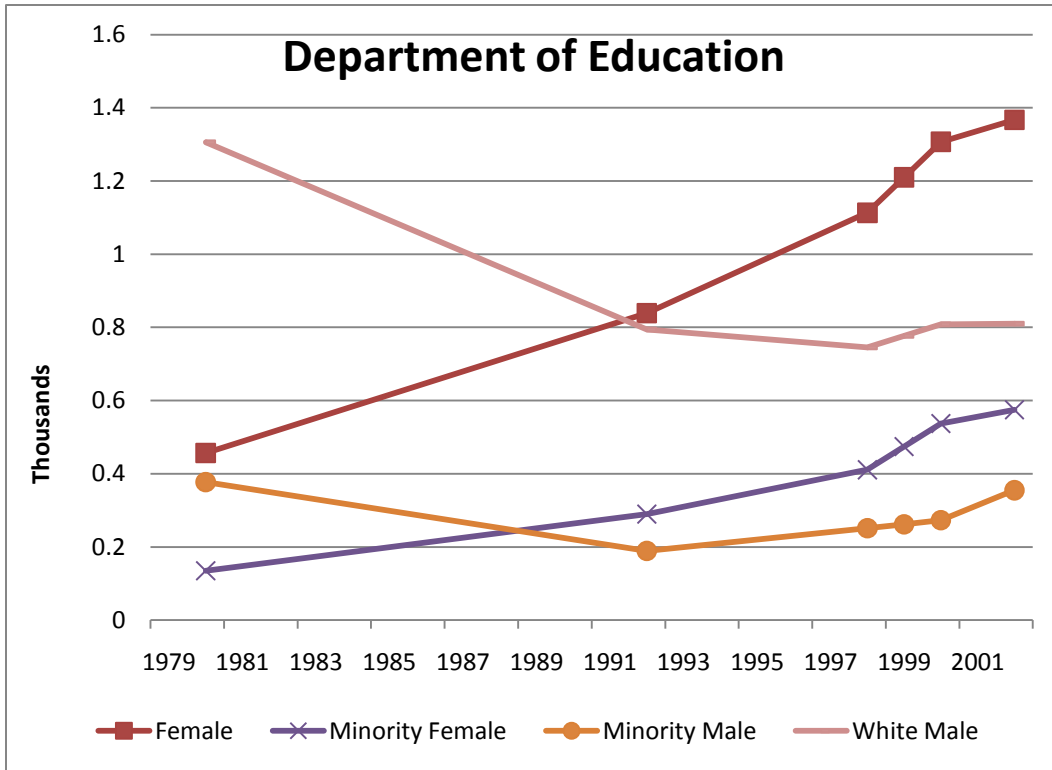
	Department of Energy GS 13 -15 Employees								
	Total	**Total Female**		**Total Minority Female**		**Total Minority Male**		**Total White Male**	
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**
1979	6648	512	7.70	66	0.99	421	6.33	5715	85.97
1980	7196	632	8.78	89	1.24	493	6.85	6071	84.37
1992	8445	1665	19.72	312	3.69	797	9.44	5983	70.85
1998	8624	2268	26.30	534	6.19	932	10.81	5424	62.89
1999	8643	2342	27.10	578	6.69	952	11.01	5349	61.89
2000	8661	2416	27.90	622	7.18	971	11.21	5274	60.89
2002	8577	2597	30.28	682	7.95	982	11.45	4998	58.27

Department of Energy

Department of Energy

136

	Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
General Services Administration GS 13 -15 Employees									
		#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1979	2795	190	6.80	56	2.00	267	9.55	2338	83.65
1980	3374	392	11.62	78	2.31	369	10.94	2613	77.45
1992	3563	1083	30.40	293	8.22	330	9.26	2150	60.34
1998	4135	1734	41.93	483	11.68	399	9.65	2002	48.42
1999	4376.5	1822	41.62	576	13.15	443	10.12	2112	48.26
2000	4617	1909	41.35	668	14.47	487	10.55	2221	48.10
2002	4238	2091	49.34	765	18.05	584	13.78	1563	36.88

General Services Administration

General Services Administration

138

	Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
		#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1979	19869	3165	15.93	679	3.42	2335	11.75	14369	72.32
1980	19444	3304	16.99	768	3.95	2299	11.82	13841	71.18
1992	19480	7221	37.07	1756	9.01	1923	9.87	10336	53.06
1998	17457	8050	46.11	2065	11.83	1764	10.10	7643	43.78
1999	18659	8902	47.71	2330	12.48	1903	10.20	7855	42.09
2000	19861	9754	49.11	2594	13.06	2041	10.28	8066	40.61
2002	22269	11259	50.56	3158	14.18	2334	10.48	8676	38.96

Health and Human Services
GS 13 -15 Employees

Health and Human Services

Health and Human Services

	Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
		#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1979	3616	458	12.67	123	3.40	495	13.69	2663	73.64
1980	3893	555	14.26	150	3.85	616	15.82	2722	69.92
1992	3406	1203	35.32	483	14.18	482	14.15	1721	50.53
1998	3793	1646	43.40	767	20.22	615	16.21	1532	40.39
1999	4291	1920	44.74	906	21.10	698	16.26	1674	39.00
2000	4788	2193	45.80	1044	21.80	780	16.29	1815	37.91
2002	4957	2341	47.23	1177	23.74	791	15.96	1825	36.82

Table title:
Housing and Urban Development
GS 13 -15 Employees

Housing and Urban Development

Female | Minority Female | Minority Male | White Male

Housing and Urban Development

Female | Minority Female | Minority Male | White Male

142
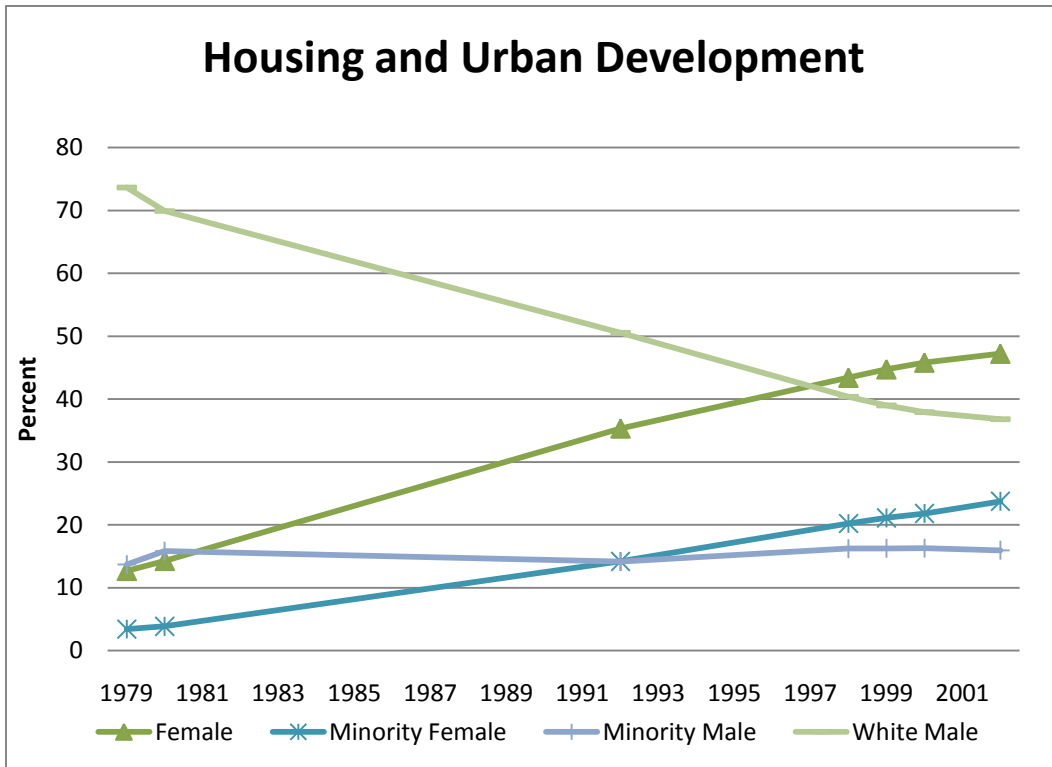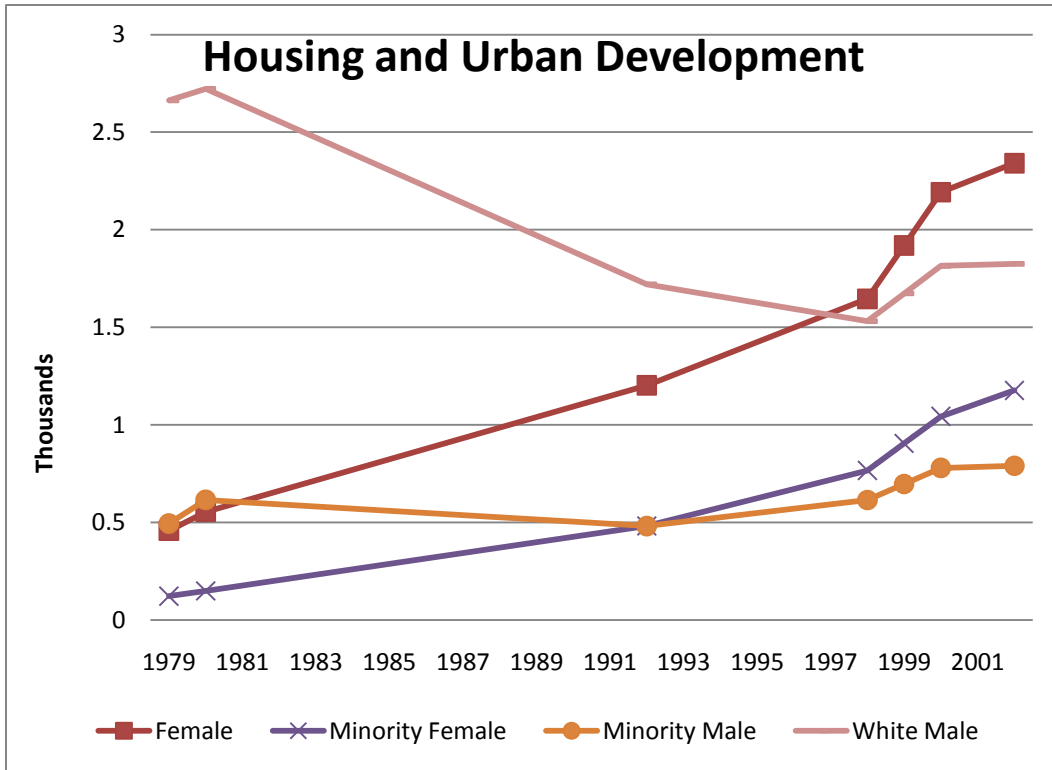
	Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
Department of the Interior GS 13 -15 Employees										
		#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1979	7918	369	4.66	71	0.90	662	8.36	6887	86.98
1980	8301	441	5.31	92	1.11	778	9.37	7082	85.32
1992	10056	1665	16.56	373	3.71	892	8.87	7499	74.57
1998	9598	2231	23.24	471	4.91	877	9.14	6490	67.62
1999	9965	2450	24.58	541	5.42	933	9.36	6583	66.06
2000	10332	2668	25.82	610	5.90	988	9.56	6676	64.61
2002	11219	3070	27.36	700	6.24	1068	9.52	7081	63.12

Department of the Interior

Female — Minority Female — Minority Male — White Male

Department of the Interior

Female — Minority Female — Minority Male — White Male

144
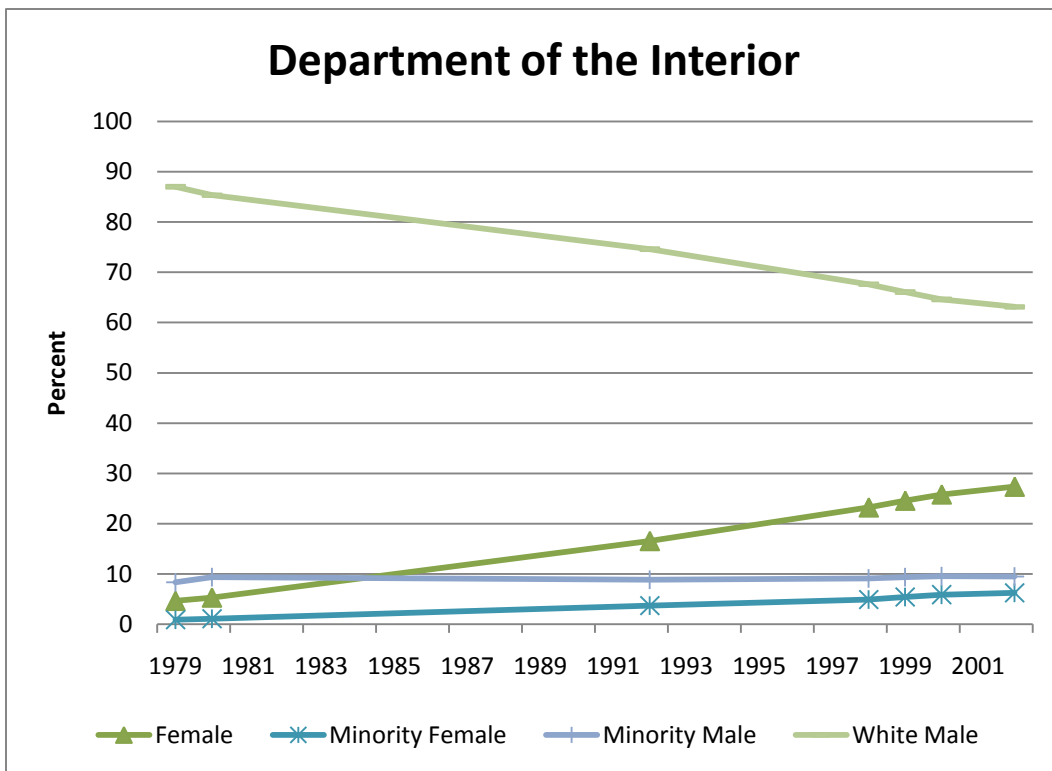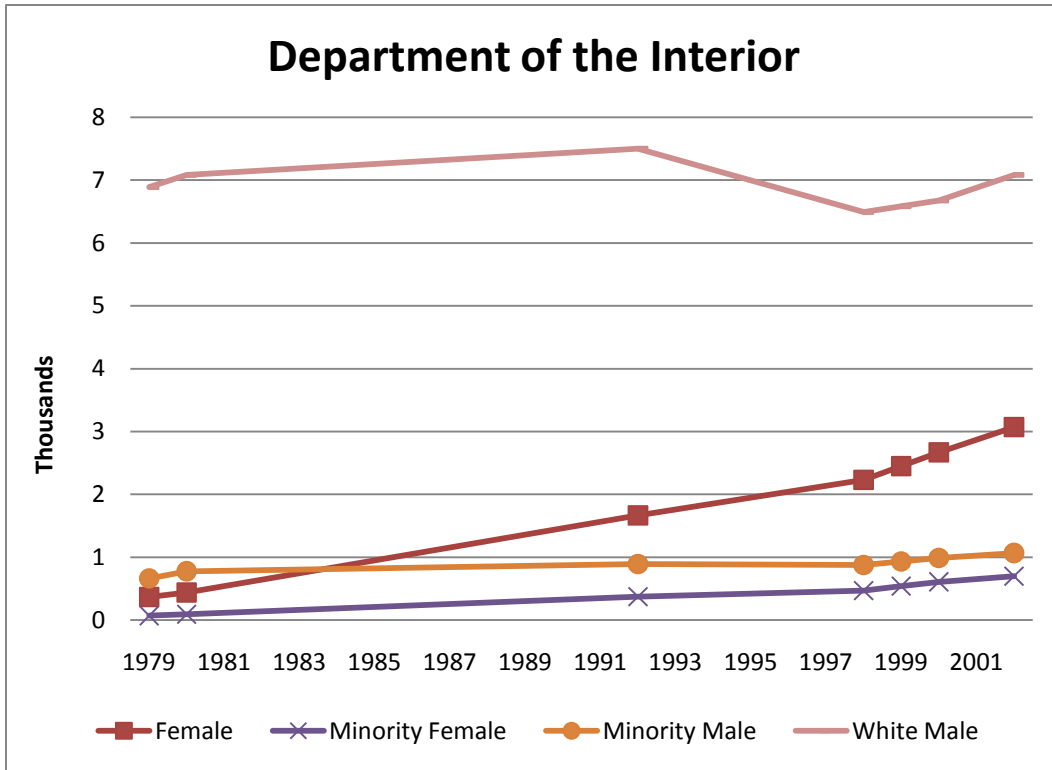
	Department of Justice GS 13 -15 Employees								
	Total	**Total Female**		**Total Minority Female**		**Total Minority Male**		Total White Male	
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**
1979	10383	486	4.68	75	0.72	580	5.59	9317	89.73
1980	10994	598	5.44	89	0.81	689	6.27	9707	88.29
1992	19825	3725	18.79	710	3.58	2059	10.39	14041	70.82
1998	25153	6783	26.97	1662	6.61	3154	12.54	15216	60.49
1999	25676	7230	28.16	1846	7.19	3263	12.71	15184	59.14
2000	26198	7676	29.30	2030	7.75	3371	12.87	15151	57.83
2002	29422	8914	30.30	2498	8.49	3891	13.22	16617	56.48

Department of Justice

Female   Minority Female   Minority Male   White Male

Department of Justice

Female   Minority Female   Minority Male   White Male

146

	Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
		#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1979	5685	824	14.49	142	2.50	904	15.90	3957	69.60
1980	5618	740	13.17	184	3.28	759	13.51	4119	73.32
1992	4685	1303	27.81	371	7.92	536	11.44	2846	60.75
1998	4592	1640	35.71	534	11.63	509	11.08	2443	53.20
1999	4786	1725	36.04	577	12.05	579	12.09	2483	51.88
2000	4979	1809	36.33	619	12.43	648	13.01	2522	50.65
2002	5118	2017	39.41	692	13.52	570	11.14	2531	49.45

Department of Labor
GS 13 -15 Employees

Department of Labor

Legend: Total Female #, Total Minority Female #, Total Minority Male #, Total White Male #

Department of Labor

Legend: Female, Minority Female, Minority Male, White Male

National Aeronautics and Space Administration GS 13 -15 Employees										
	Total	**Total Female**		**Total Minority Female**		**Total Minority Male**		**Total White Male**	
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**
1979	10121	214	2.11	17	0.17	404	3.99	9503	93.89
1980	10124	256	2.53	25	0.25	447	4.42	9421	93.06
1992	12391	1850	14.93	322	2.60	1116	9.01	9425	76.06
1998	12104	2603	21.51	534	4.41	1504	12.43	7997	66.07
1999	12148	2708	22.29	585	4.82	1547	12.73	7894	64.98
2000	12192	2813	23.07	636	5.22	1589	13.03	7790	63.89
2002	12514	3065	24.49	727	5.81	1656	13.23	7793	62.27

National Aeronautics and Space Administration

National Aeronautics and Space Administration
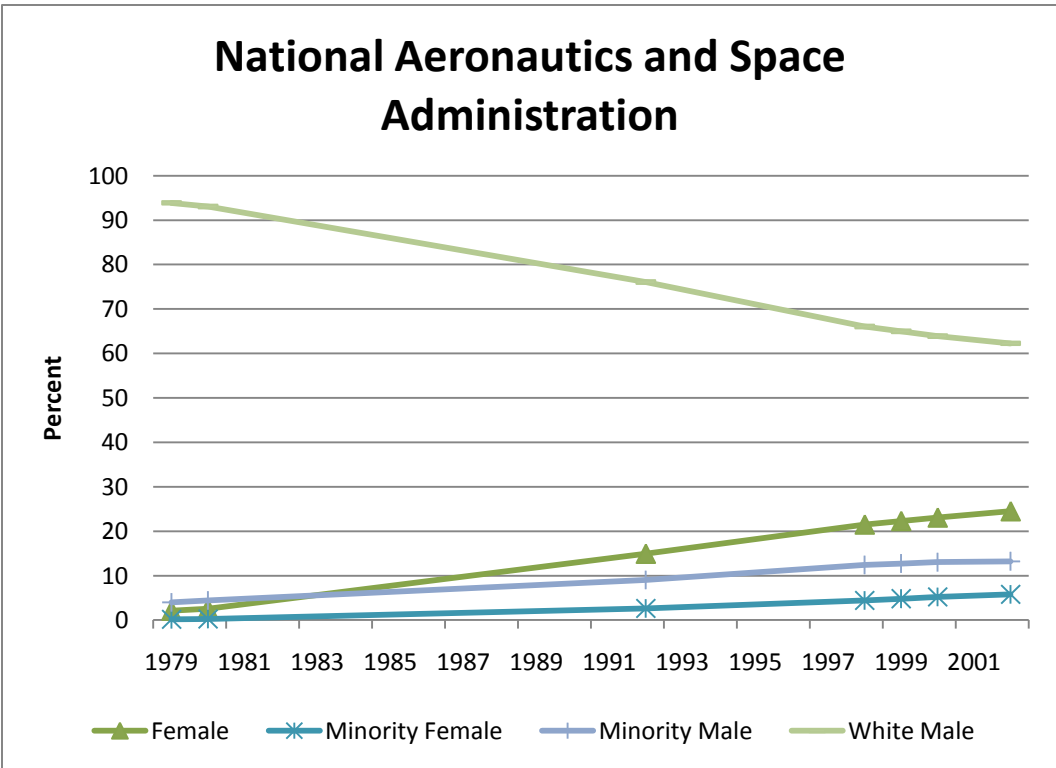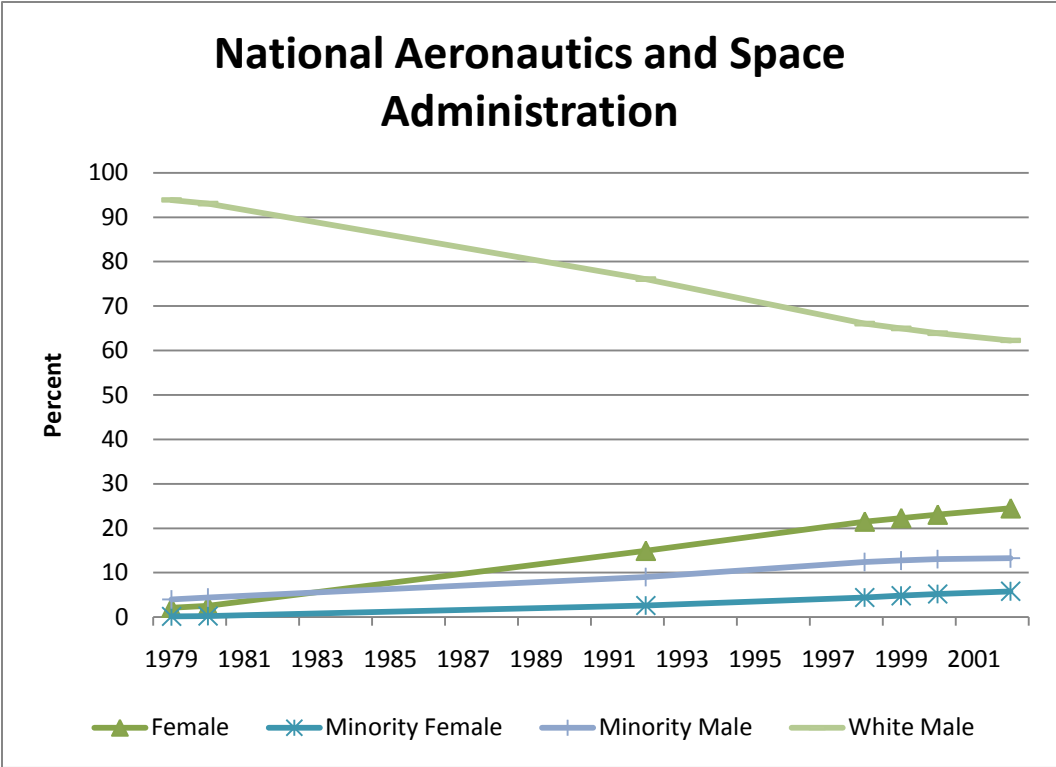
	Office of Personnel Management GS 13 -15 Employees								
	Total	**Total Female**		**Total Minority Female**		**Total Minority Male**		**Total White Male**	
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**
1979	1348	232	17.21	41	3.04	134	9.94	982	72.85
1980	1525	274	17.97	59	3.87	173	11.34	1078	70.69
1992	1133	435	38.39	110	9.71	108	9.53	590	52.07
1998	766	345	45.04	106	13.84	66	8.62	355	46.34
1999	810	378	46.60	125	15.43	75	9.20	358	44.20
2000	854	410	48.01	144	16.86	83	9.72	361	42.27
2002	900	438	48.67	168	18.67	94	10.44	368	40.89

Office of Personnel Management

Legend: Female, Minority Female, Minority Male, White Male

Office of Personnel Management

Legend: Female, Minority Female, Minority Male, White Male
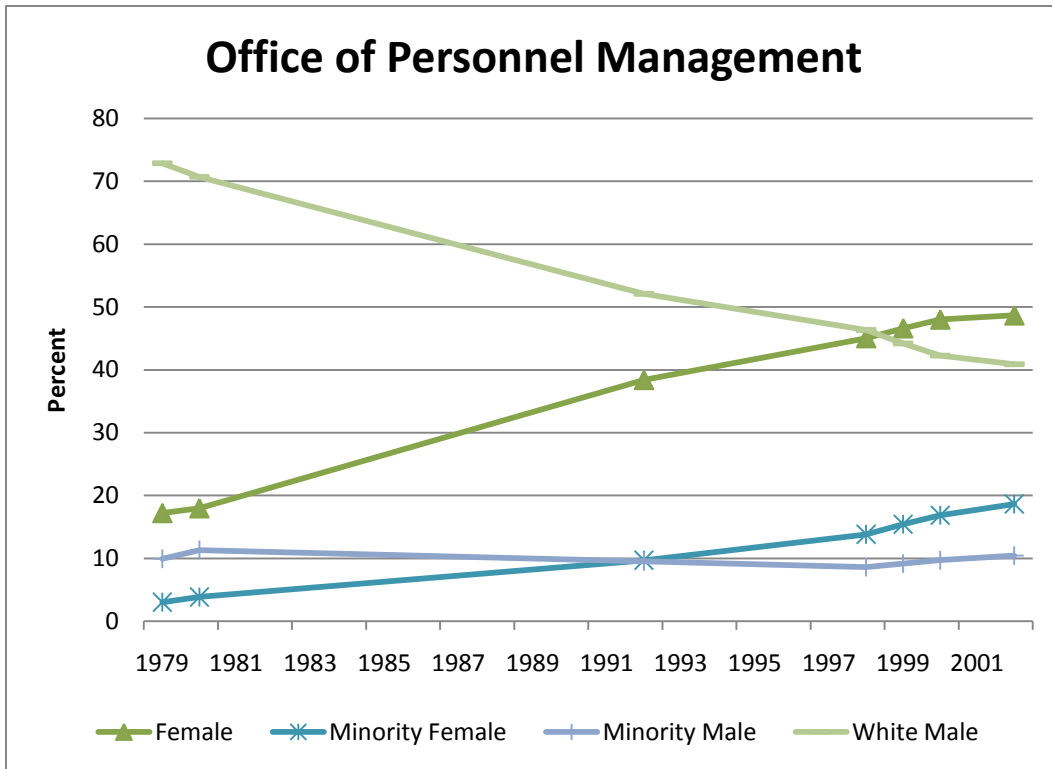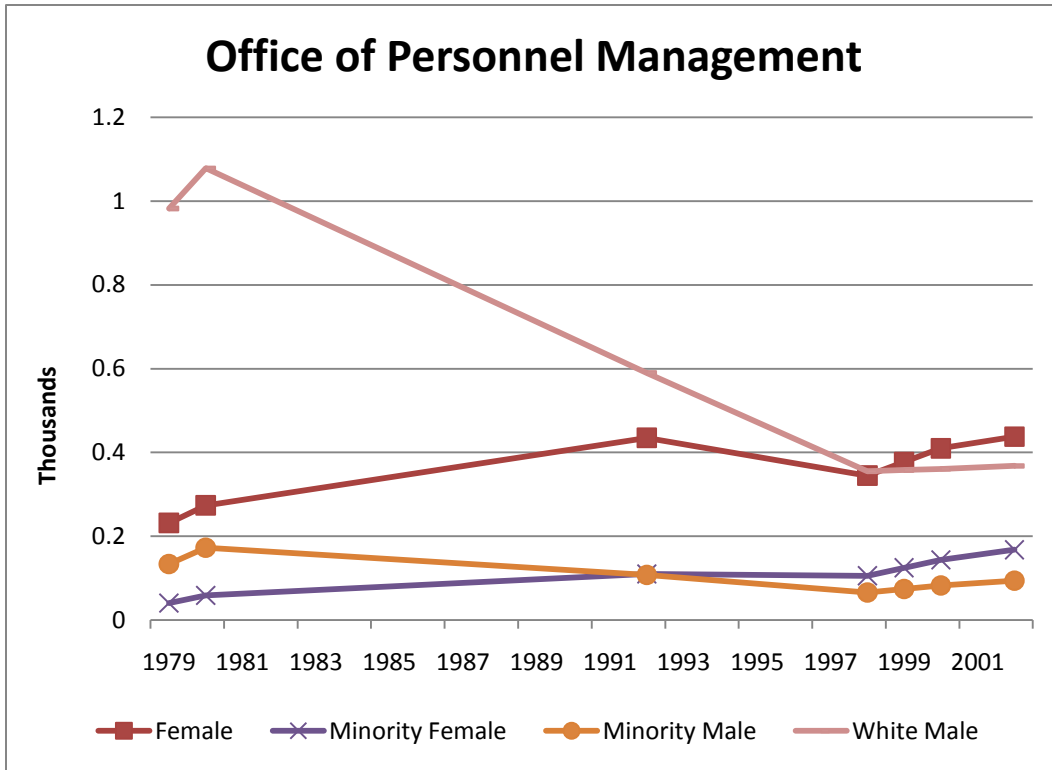
	Department of State GS 13 -15 Employees								
	Total	**Total Female**		**Total Minority Female**		**Total Minority Male**		**Total White Male**	
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**
1979	2729	277	10.15	37	1.36	151	5.53	2301	84.32
1980	2915	318	10.91	39	1.34	174	5.97	2423	83.12
1992	4508	1107	24.56	222	4.92	395	8.76	3006	66.68
1998	4988	1394	27.95	310	6.21	412	8.26	3182	63.79
1999	5569	1758	31.57	397	7.13	401	7.19	3411	61.24
2000	6150	2122	34.50	484	7.87	389	6.33	3639	59.17
2002	6973	2222	31.87	349	5.01	781	11.20	3970	56.93

Department of State

Department of State

	Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
		#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1979	23832	483	2.03	86	0.36	1413	5.93	21936	92.04
1980	23948	625	2.61	119	0.50	1620	6.76	21703	90.63
1992	29428	3807	12.94	847	2.88	2922	9.93	22699	77.13
1998	32789	5667	17.28	1318	4.02	4284	13.07	22838	69.65
1999	22906	4348	18.98	1115	4.87	3006	13.12	15553	67.90
2000	13023	3029	23.26	912	7.00	1727	13.26	8267	63.48
2002	12298	2947	23.96	902	7.33	1647	13.39	7704	62.64

Department of Transportation
GS 13 -15 Employees

Department of Transportation

Female   Minority Female   Minority Male   White Male

Department of Transportation

Female   Minority Female   Minority Male   White Male

156
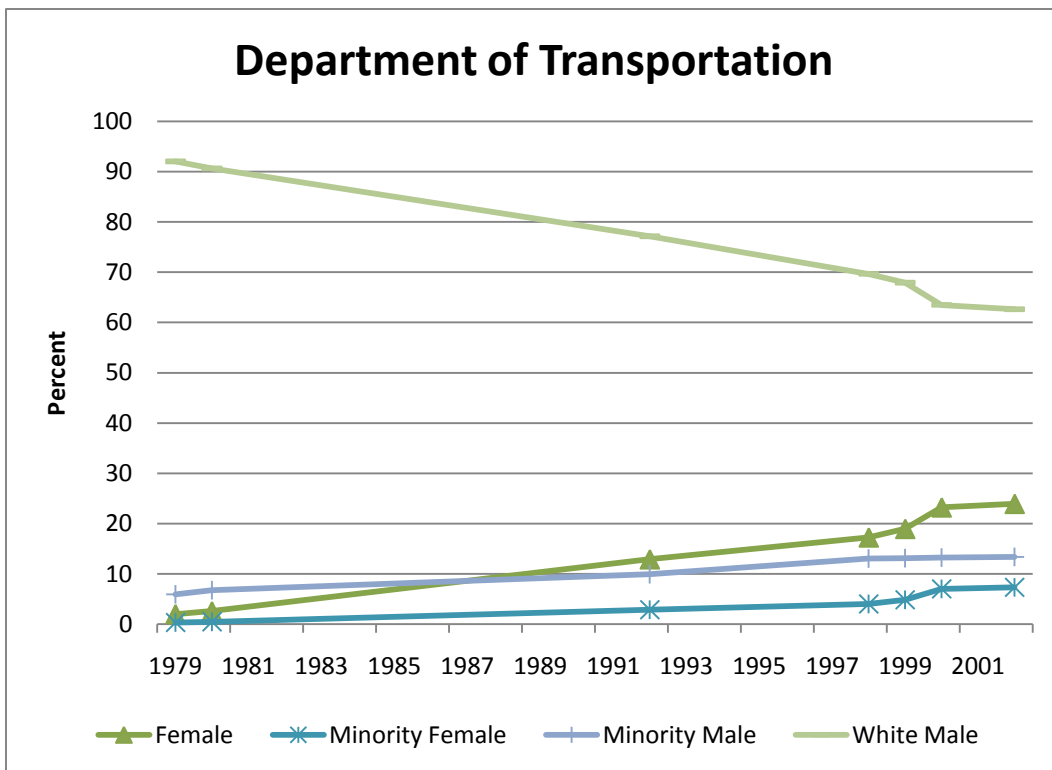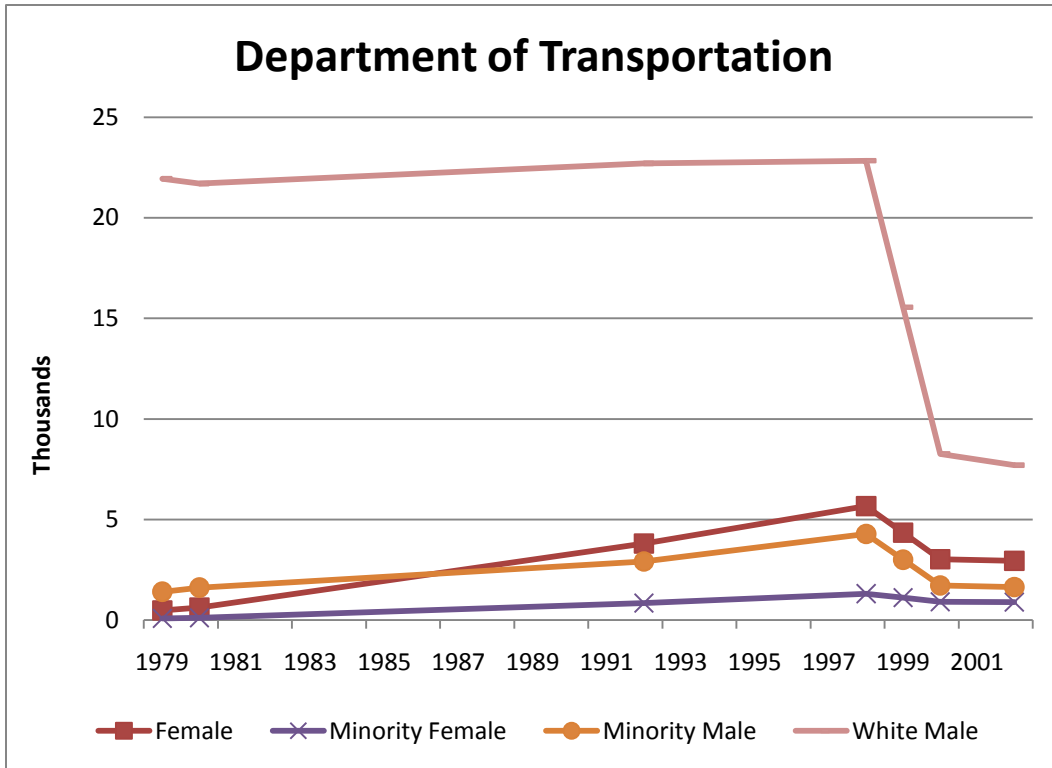
Department of the Treasury GS 13 -15 Employees									
Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
15844	896	5.66	136	0.86	965	6.09	13983	88.25
16617	1121	6.75	183	1.10	1104	6.64	14392	86.61
29444	7637	25.94	1847	6.27	2595	8.81	19212	65.25
31628	10187	32.21	2958	9.35	3314	10.48	18127	57.31
32637	11031	33.80	3296	10.10	3523	10.79	18083	55.41
33645	11874	35.29	3633	10.80	3732	11.09	18039	53.62
35771	13467	37.65	4368	12.21	4162	11.64	18142	50.72

Department of the Treasury

Female — Minority Female — Minority Male — White Male

Department of the Treasury

Female — Minority Female — Minority Male — White Male

158

Veterans Administration GS 13 -15 Employees								
Total	Total Female		Total Minority Female		Total Minority Male		Total White Male	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
12746	1351	10.60	260	2.04	1306	10.25	10089	79.15
13731	1565	11.40	323	2.35	1494	10.88	10672	77.72
16013	3541	22.11	989	6.18	2120	13.24	10352	64.65
17257	4898	28.38	1389	8.05	2336	13.54	10023	58.08
17093	5218	30.53	1476	8.63	2377	13.91	9498	55.57
16928	5537	32.71	1562	9.23	2418	14.28	8973	53.01
19580	6501	33.20	1863	9.51	2659	13.58	10420	53.22

Veterans Adminstration

Legend: Female, Minority Female, Minority Male, White Male

Veterans Administration

Legend: Female, Minority Female, Minority Male, White Male
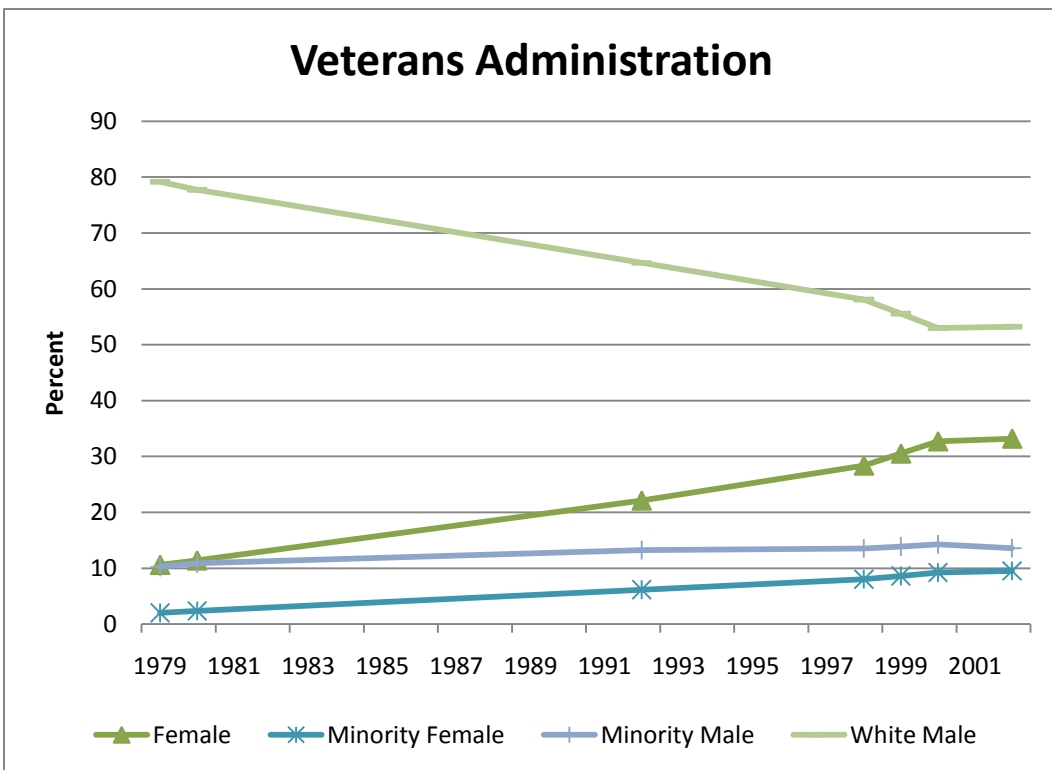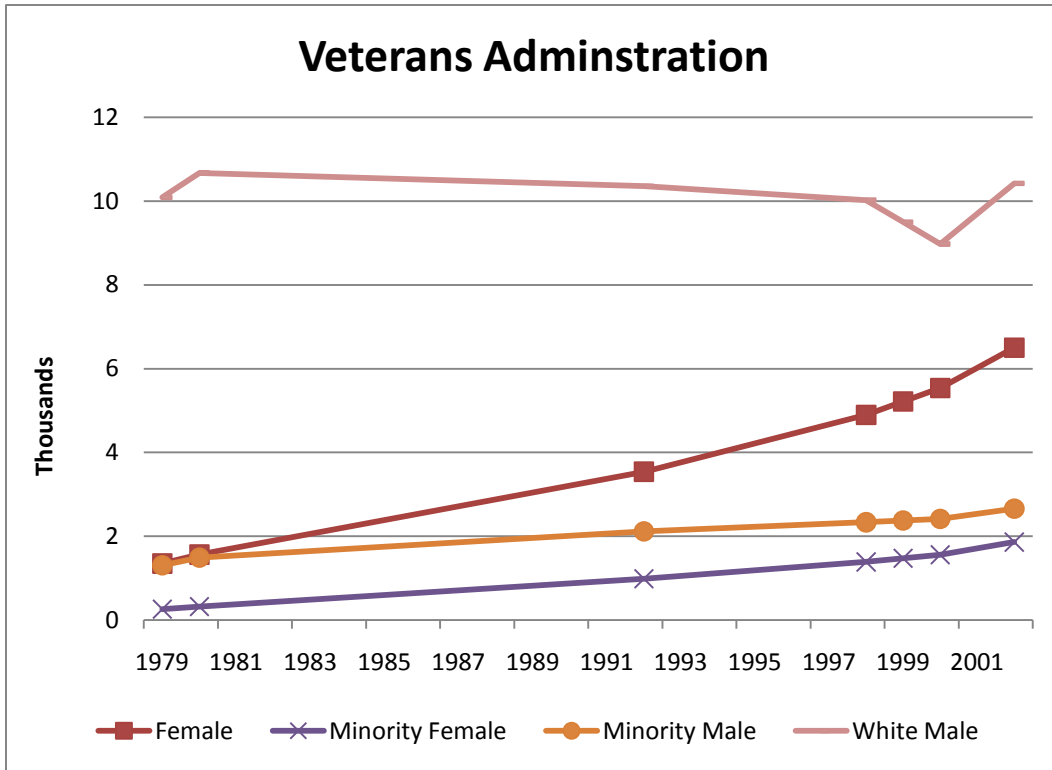
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Romona Saunders was born in Chicago, Illinois on July 14, 1955. She attended Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, majoring in Civil Engineering. Upon graduation in 1981, she worked for Chrysler Corporation in Hamtramck, Michigan, in the Safety and Product Testing Department, where she helped design safety fixes. In May 1983, she accepted employment with the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Reclamation as a Civil Engineer. She worked on the Yuma Desalinization Project, Horseshoe and Verde Safety of Dams Project, Central Arizona Project and lastly, in the Native American Affairs Office as Assistant Program Manager, working on water-related issues until her retirement in 2009. While at the Bureau of Reclamation, she also served as the Federal Women's Program Manager, helping with minority recruitment, developing special emphasis observances and serving on the diversity committee. She received her Master of Public Administration from Arizona State University in 2001. She entered the Public Administration's doctoral program in 2002. Romona has served as regional manager and Vice-President of Policy of the Federal Employed Women. She is president of the Delta Beta Omega Chapter of Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority, Inc. and volunteers at the Academy of Excellence Charter School.