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A Survey of Health Care Personnel's Perceptions Toward Diversity in the Workplace

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**A SURVEY OF HEALTH CARE PERSONNEL'S
PERCEPTIONS TOWARD DIVERSITY IN THE
WORKPLACE**

by

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ABSTRACT

A Survey of Health Care Personnel's Perceptions Toward Diversity in the Workplace

Jacqueline Elaine Sharpe
Old Dominion University, 1997
Director: Clare Houseman, Ph.D.

The purpose of this study was to explore the diversity climate in a large teaching military hospital by assessing the perceptions of employees regarding the organizational climate, including aspects of the climate related to ethnicity, gender, age, physical ability, sexual orientation, and job level. All 3,176 eligible employees based in the medical center were invited to participate, 1,252 did so (RR=40%). Participants were 37% minority, 57% females, 25% officer, 30% enlisted, and 45% civilian. Twenty-four percent were at the managerial level. Perceptions of the diversity climate were measured using the Diversity Survey Instrument (the reliability and validity of this instrument has been established in previous studies).

Overall, 28% of the organization rated the overall climate as less than favorable on diversity issues; in particular, 16% rated the climate as less than favorable for ethnic minorities, 13% rated the climate as less than favorable for women, and 51% rated the climate as less favorable for people in lower job levels. Males had significantly more favorable perceptions toward organization climate, ethnicity climate, gender climate, and job level climate, than females. Whites had significantly more favorable perceptions toward the organization climate, ethnicity climate, job climate, and gender climate than non-Whites. There is a significant difference in the perceptions of civilians, officers, and enlisted staff members toward organization climate, based on salaries, with officers and civilians in the pay categories of 05-07 and GS 13-15, having the most favorable

perceptions, and civilians in the paygrades of GS 5-8, W2-W3, WG 5-8, WG 9-12, and WD/WL 5-8, having the least favorable perceptions. Qualitative data also indicate that White males may feel left out or excluded from activities aimed at increasing acceptance of diversity in the organization.

The formal overall diversity climate ratings on all dimensions measured are favorable (except job level and sexual orientation), but answers to questions about the informal climate reveal that there are problem areas that must be addressed. Such as, 45% rated the organization climate as less than favorable concerning hearing offensive remarks about women, 38% rated the organization climate as less than favorable for hearing offensive remarks about minorities, 81% agreed that some (employees) are given preferential treatment and 75% believe that favoritism is shown toward some job levels. Before health care organizations devise effective diversity management strategies, it is necessary to determine the diversity climate of the organization. Surveying employees' perceptions about management's current effectiveness allows an understanding of the needs and dissatisfactions of employees within different organizational subgroups. Using the results from the assessment of the diversity climate may allow for effective management strategies and policies.

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Two broad trends are reshaping contemporary organizations in the United States: (1) increasing diversity in the workforce and (2) widespread restructuring of work organizations into less hierarchical, more collaborative forms (Tolbert, Andrews, and Simons, 1996). Today's workforce does not look, think, or act like the workforce of the past, nor does it hold the same values, have the same experiences, or pursue the same needs and desires (Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991, p. 6). Increasing diversity of cultural origins, gender, age, physical ability, national origin, values, and religion are just a few ways that the workforce has changed. Hentges, Yaney, and Shields (1990) state that differences and changes in the ethnic makeup of the workforce are unquestionably having an impact in the workplace. More than ever, today's organizations must be able to attract and retain a diverse population of workers, because the makeup of the pool of available workers grows ever more diverse. The ability of all individuals in a diverse workforce to work together in groups or teams will be a vital component for the survival of today's organizations.

According to Jackson and Alvarez (1992), three factors have contributed to increased diversity in the workplace: (a) the growing service economy, (b) the globalization of businesses, and (c) the changing nature of the workforce. In addition, the results of large-scale patterns of immigration and fertility have affected the overall representation of racial and ethnic groups in the population.

Because of these changes, by the end of the century, White males will no longer be the majority group in the labor force (Johnston and Packer, 1987). Due to the increase in the number of women and minorities in the workforce, there has been an increase in the dispersion of these groups into jobs and occupations traditionally held by White males.

Organizations have now eliminated many middle management positions and created self-managing teams charged with collective responsibility for managing and executing sets of interrelated production tasks. Many organizations and institutions have been affected by these changes. Total quality management/leadership (TQM/TQL) programs that emphasize teamwork have been implemented. Thomas (1991) states that total quality management is one of the most promising new ideas in the continuing efforts to maximize employee productivity and restore American competitiveness. Carnevale and Stone (1995) have pointed out the connections among diversity, team building, total quality management and reengineering. Reengineering is a new, customer-centered strategy that focuses on processes, and it is designed to give companies a competitive advantage by determining the most effective processes to best serve customers in the most cost-effective, quality way (Carnevale and Stone, 1995). The connection of TQM/TQL to reengineering lies in the fact that decisions about how and what should be reengineered are made by diverse people working in teams.

If informal work groups are to be the focus of day-to-day work relationships, productivity and rewards, the ability of individuals to effectively

cooperate with one another becomes even more critical for organizational success and high levels of active collaboration and support (Tolbert, Andrews, and Simons, 1996). Social barriers associated with racial, ethnic, and gender differences in work groups can have a particularly deleterious effect on organizational performance (Tolbert et al., 1996). Taylor Cox (1994) states that the basic phenomena of diversity are intergroup dynamics, and when people with different group identities interact in a social system, contemporary transactions are influenced by their perceptions of the legacy of prior interactions among members of these groups.

Perceptions about an organization's ability to respond to diversity grow out of the interactions that take place within the organization as well as those between organizational members, with possible job candidates, and with customers (Brinkman, 1992). An assessment of the perceptions of workers regarding various factors such as organizational climate, gender, ethnicity, age, physical ability, sexual orientation, job level, and nationality will offer information about an organization's valuation of a diverse workforce from the employees' perspective. The results of such an assessment will allow an organization to know where it stands in relation to these factors. Surveying employees' perceptions about diversity policies and procedures is important because it allows an understanding of the positive and negative perceptions of employees within different groups in the workplace.

This study will focus on employee perceptions by building on Schneider and Reichers' (1983) work on organizational climate: the assumption that

organizations can have a number of climates, each with a referent that provides meaning to psychological clusters of events. It is the central thesis of these two authors that climates emerge out of the interactions that members of a work group have with each other. This approach to the etiology of climates accounts for the differences in climates that exist between different groups within the same organization. That is, since meanings arise out of social interactions with others, and because members of the same work group are more likely to interact with each other than with members of the other groups, different groups in the organization will generate different climates, or meanings regarding events, practices, and procedures that may be constant throughout the organization (Schneider and Reichers, 1983).

Kossek and Zonia (1993) state that diversity climate refers to the influence of the organizational context on employee attitudes and behaviors that respond to the perceptions of phenomena construed as relevant to diversity. Diversity pertains to the extent of differences found within a group of people. Diversity climate centers on perceptions related to the direct and indirect influence of intergroup dynamics and selected organizational demography involving gender, ethnicity, age, physical ability, job level, national origin, and sexual orientation (Kossek and Zonia, 1993). These differences reflect any attribute that group members use to inform themselves that other members are different from them (Triandis, Kurowski, and Gelfand, 1994).

Statement of the Problem

In 1987, the publication of Workforce 2000 by the Hudson Institute captured the attention of the American business community. The message communicated was clear. The pool of qualified applicants from which organizations could select employees was shrinking and changing dramatically (Johnston and Packer, 1987). The report states that by the year 2000, for the first time in the history of American business, human capital will be as vital an asset as physical facilities, real estate, and financial assets.

The combination of workforce demographic trends and the increasing globalization of business has placed the management of cultural differences on the agenda of most leaders. Health care institutions, which are projected to remain at the pinnacle of job growth, will be strongly affected by the change in workforce demographics (Svehla and Crosier, 1994). The U. S. Department of Labor, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (1990) figures indicated that virtually all of the 30 occupations with 25,000 or more workers in 1990, and those with the fastest projected growth rates, are concentrated in rapidly growing service industries, especially health care. These institutions will need to look beyond the traditional pool of workers to recruit and retain employees of unparalleled diversity, such as increased numbers of women, minorities, immigrants, older workers, and the differently abled. The reason for this shift is that White males, who have traditionally represented the majority of new entrants into the workforce, will represent only 15 percent of the new hires over the next thirteen

years. Sabatino (1993) states that cultural diversity challenges the health care field to make better use of a radically changing labor force.

Healthcare organizations, like businesses, can ill afford to ignore cultural differences (Lappetito, 1994). Managing diversity is a business issue for companies because their external constituencies are becoming more diverse (Thomas, 1991). Experts like Svehla (1994) state that hospitals, like businesses, need to view the entire issue of cultural diversity as a business necessity. According to Jackson, LaFasto, Schultz, and Kelly (1992), in recent years, diversity as an issue has taken on a new face in business, one not involving morals and laws, but one with potential consequences for business's financial success. They state that the financial success lesson is straightforward: those organizations seen as hostile to (or not supportive of) disenfranchised groups simply will not be able to acquire the competent workforce they need to do successful work in the business arena in the next century. Whether the goal is equal performance or superior performance, the best way to get there is to stop treating diversity as a moral issue and start treating it as a business issue (Gordan, 1992).

The challenges of diversity in healthcare

Hagland (1993) states that with the U. S society rapidly diversifying, there is no question in the minds of experts and those on the front lines that health care must respond in myriad ways to cultural, ethnic and linguistic diversity. One problem in the health care field is that cultural diversity is not an area where health care employers have excelled, nor has it received the resources or

attention that have gone to technology or continuous quality improvement (Sabatino, 1993). Diversity in the health care setting, once on the periphery of work force concerns, is now an immediate and critical issue, claiming the full attention of employers. Lappetito (1994) further explained that the complex, moral, social, and economic implications of workplace diversity make it morally indefensible and economically impractical for employers to disregard the issue any longer.

According to Jackson, Stone, and Alvarez (1993), employers' rising concerns about the best way to manage diversity reflect the concerns of the larger society. But social and political forces are not the only reasons behind health care organizations' growing interest in the issue of managing diversity. Combined with these are the previously identified forces that also apply to health care: that is, slower growth in the labor supply; substantial changes in workforce demographics; globalization; and new organizational designs that rely relatively more on work teams as basic building blocks (Jackson et al., 1993).

According to Alexander and Brisbon (1993), another problem area in the health care field concerning cultural diversity is that the executive suite in voluntary not-for-profit hospitals has not kept pace with cultural diversification trends. The authors explain that most large employers in other fields have recognized the importance of ethnic diversity among their employees and have instituted policies to facilitate it, but the health care field has done little in this regard. To effectively serve their communities and remain competitive, hospitals and health care systems must tap the intelligence, imagination, energy, and

dedication of a corps of workers who will differ in many ways from their predecessors (Williams, 1992).

Hospitals, like all other organizations, can be viewed as pluralistic, that is, comprised of diverse groups, such as nurses, physicians, managers, immigrants, White and non-White Americans, each with their own interests and subcultures (Schwartz and Sullivan, 1993). Also, according to these authors, cooperation among these groups is needed to assure quality cost effective health care. That same cooperation is often undermined by a variety of social pathologies, such as racism and sexism, that involve individual employees, employee groups, intergroup relations, and ultimately the effectiveness of hospitals. Potential problem areas in managing workforce diversity include: communication, including language and literacy issues, cultural awareness and respect, organizational culture development, career development access and workforce preparedness (Eubanks, 1990). In hospitals the potential for problems is intensified if managerial/organizational norms that reflect the culture of a dominant group conflict with the culture of different groups within the organization. Some authors maintain that the problems of workforce diversity are not caused by the composition of the workforce itself (Coile, 1993), but the inability of the organization to integrate and utilize a truly heterogeneous work force at all levels (Cox, 1991; Thomas, 1991). Organizations sensitive to diversity will be able to attract and retain the best human resources because these organizations have demonstrated sensitivity to the needs of people who are different from the majority (Cox, 1991; Henderson, 1994; Loden and Rosener,

1991; Svehla, 1994; Thiederman, 1991; Thomas, 1991; Triandis, Kurowski, and Gelfand, 1994).

Employer benefits

Most information written about workforce diversity lists only the advantages that seem to benefit the employees. The findings on the benefits of diversity to employers tend to fall into three broad categories: workforce quality, market sensitivity, and organizational agility (Carnevale and Stone, 1995). Marketing is becoming as diverse as the workforce. According to Cox (1991), selling goods and services is facilitated by a representational workforce in several ways. If women, the physically disabled and minorities prefer to work for an employer who values diversity, most likely they will prefer to buy from such organizations (Cox, 1991). In health care, where consumers have a choice of selection of providers and health care services as part of membership in a health care plan, it would seem reasonable that selection for such services will be based on which health care services best meet the cultural needs of the customer as well.

Carnevale and Stone (1995) state that organizations sensitive to diverse employees are more likely to be attuned to diverse markets characteristic of both domestic and global competition. In the United States, for instance, Asian Americans, African Americans, and Hispanic Americans now represent *more than a trillion dollars in market value* (Carnevale and Stone, p. 59). In some cases, people from a minority group are more likely to give patronage to a representative of their own group (Cox, 1991). According to Carnevale and

Stone (1995), USA Today deliberately hired diverse workers to better understand diverse markets and attributes much of the newspaper's success to its diversity strategy. Also, Avon Corporation turned its sales around in once unprofitable inner city markets by giving African American and Hispanic American managers authority over product development and marketing in downtown areas. Cox (1991) reported that although accurate dollar cost savings figures from managing diversity initiatives of specific companies are rarely published, Ortho Pharmaceuticals has calculated its savings to date at \$500,000, mainly from lower turnover among women and ethnic minorities.

Another benefit to the employer because of diversity in the workplace is that studies have shown that diverse workgroups tend to be more agile, increasing organizational flexibility (Nemeth, 1984; Triandis, Hall, and Ewen, 1965). The agility in diverse groups is due to the variety of perspectives brought to bear. Also, a higher level of critical thinking occurs because they are less prey to "groupthink."

Employers who realize the benefits of workforce diversity understand that steps can be taken to create an environment where diversity in the workplace can be valued. The first step is by assessing diversity factors in the organization. Assessment of workforce diversity factors can help organizations clarify and examine their current values and practices. Such an assessment of diversity may lead to changing the intellectual character of an organization, especially its perception of its place in the global marketplace and its relationship to the community (Anderson, 1993). Brinkman (1992) states that awareness of the

factors that emerge as important determinants of positive employee assessment of an organization, and where the organization stands in relation to these factors, serves as a logical starting point from which to impose needed change.

According to R. Roosevelt Thomas, Jr. (1991), determining how an organization's corporate culture must change in order to adapt to an increasingly diverse workforce requires extensive organizationwide soul-searching and analysis. Determining the nature of the organization's roots requires research—what in this case is called a culture audit. This assessment is critical because it provides the basis for planning change in the organization. Data can be gathered through in-depth interviews, written surveys, review of company documents, focus groups, and direct observations (Thomas, 1991). Surveying employees' attitudes about management's current effectiveness is important because this allows an understanding of the needs and dissatisfactions of employees within different organizational subgroups. From this starting point, effective change strategies can be concentrated on those areas identified as most in need of alteration (Brinkman, 1992).

Before managers start applying solutions to a diverse workforce, it is best to identify and measure the problem areas. Many companies are buying videotapes about diversity, holding training classes in cross-cultural communication and work styles, offering various ethnic foods in their employee cafeterias, and even dipping back into the "sensitivity training" (race relations) that was popular for awhile in the organization development community during the Sixties and Seventies; however, these companies may be failing to

accurately assess the problem because they are applying remedies before they know the diagnosis (Krebs, 1992). Management must tap into employees' attitudes about the organization because interventions, such as training, would be particularly useful if they were focused on the needs as perceived by employees (Brinkman, 1992).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the diversity climate in a large military teaching hospital by assessing the perceptions of employees regarding organizational climate, ethnicity, gender, age, job level, physical ability, nationality, and sexual orientation as measured by the Diversity Survey Instrument. Another purpose of this study is to test theory.

Significance of the Study

This study is significant because it is one of the few studies that focuses on the assessment of diversity issues from the employees' perspective. There is a need to identify and find out where problem areas can be identified from the perspectives of different employee groups at all job levels before solutions to a diverse workforce are crafted. This study has the potential to serve as the basis for further theoretical and empirical work in this area because of the lack of research that addresses workforce diversity in the health care industry. This study also has the potential to add to the database of knowledge pertaining to research of organizational climates and the theory of embedded intergroup relations. This study is also significant because it further tests an instrument, the Diversity Survey, in a different population than the one it had been tested. This

study also supports the Joint Commission Accreditation for Healthcare Organizations (JCAHO, 1996) standards pertaining to leadership (LD.1.9.1), human resources (HR.1, HR.3, HR.3.1), and process improvement (PI.3.2.6).

Theoretical framework

Embedded intergroup relations theory

This theory is concerned with group level effects as they affect individuals, groups, and organizations (Alderfer, 1987). A central proposition treats the group as an entity on its own terms independent of particular individuals who make up the group at any time. Embedded intergroup relations means that groups exist inside (i. e, are embedded in) other groups (Alderfer and Smith, 1982). From this perspective, individuals become group representatives depending upon which individuals representing what other groups are present and how those individuals identify with their groups.

Research hypotheses

The hypotheses which this study will test are based upon the embedded intergroup relations theory and previous research studies. The hypotheses will test the differences in the perceptions of various groups within the organization, and the perceptions of embedded groups within these groups. Intergroup theory has suggested that the way people perceive social reality is largely determined by group membership such as racioethnicity (biologically and/or culturally distinct groups), sex, and job level.

1. Organizational climate

(this section focuses on perceptions to the degree to which the organization values its people and displays programs and opportunities for progression within the organization)

1a. Whites will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than non-Whites.

1b. Males will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than females.

1c. Managers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than non-managers.

1d. Protestants will have more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than non-Protestant religious groups.

1e. Majority religious groups (Protestants and Catholics) will have more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than minority religious groups.

1f. Staff members in non-clinical directorates will have more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than those in clinical directorates.

1g. Staff members in higher paygrades will have significantly more favorable perceptions of "organizational climate" than those staff members in lower paygrades.

1h. Staff members younger than 52 years old will have more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than those who are older than 52 years.

1i. Staff members with the longest duration of employment will have more favorable perceptions toward “organizational climate” than members with less duration of employment.

1j. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “organizational climate” than enlisted or civilian personnel.

2. Gender

(how women are treated in the organization)

2a. Men will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender” than women.

2b. Whites will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender” than non-Whites.

2c. Staff members in higher paygrades will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender climate” than those in lower paygrades.

2d. Managers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender climate” than those who are non-managers.

2e. The majority religious groups (Catholics and Protestants) will have more favorable perceptions toward the “gender climate” than the minority religious groups (Jews, Muslims, Buddhists, Mormons, etc.).

2f. Protestants will have more favorable perceptions toward the “gender climate” than non-Protestants.

2g. Staff in clinical directorates will have more favorable perceptions toward “gender climate” than those in non-clinical directorates.

2h. White women will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender” than minority women.

2i. Women in management will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender” than women in non-management positions. Female officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender” than enlisted women or civil service women.

2j. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender climate” than enlisted or civilian personnel.

2k. Female officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender” than enlisted women or civil service women.

3. Ethnicity

(how minorities are treated in the organization)

3a. Whites (non-Hispanics) will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “ethnicity” than minorities.

3b. Males will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward the “ethnicity climate” than females.

3c. Managers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “ethnicity climate” than non-managers.

3d. Staff members in higher paygrades will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “ethnicity climate” than those in lower paygrade levels.

3e. Staff in clinical directorates will have more favorable perceptions toward “ethnicity climate” than those in non-clinical directorates.

3f. African Americans will have significantly less favorable perceptions toward "ethnicity climate" than any other minority group.

3g. Staff members with longer length of employment will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "ethnicity climate" than those with shorter lengths of employment.

3h. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward the "ethnicity climate" than enlisted or civilian personnel.

Age

(the perceptions that attitudes, treatment, and awareness of age differences among employees are or are not operating within the organization)

4a. Workers older than 52 years will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "age" than workers 52 years of age or younger.

4b. Whites will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "age" than non-Whites.

4c. Males will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "age" than females.

4d. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "age" than enlisted or civilian personnel.

Physical Ability

(perceptions are explored to assess favoritism, fair treatment, and the needs and values of physically challenged employees)

5a. Managers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward the “physical disability climate” than non-managers.

5b. Employees less than 52 years will have significantly more favorable perceptions about the “physical ability climate” than those greater or equal to 52 years.

5c. Whites will have significantly more favorable perceptions about the “physical ability” climate than non-Whites.

5d. Males will have significantly more favorable perceptions than females to “physical ability” climate.

6. Sexual Orientation

(an exploration of whether fair treatment of all employees exist regardless of sexual orientation)

6a. Managers will have significantly less favorable perceptions toward “sexual orientation” than nonmanagers.

6b. Non-Whites will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “sexual orientation” than Whites.

6c. Majority religious groups will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “sexual orientation” than non-majority religious groups.

6d. Protestants will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward the “sexual orientation” climate than non-Protestants.

6e. Males will have more favorable perceptions toward the "sexual orientation" climate than females.

6f. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward the "sexual orientation" climate than enlisted or civilian personnel.

Job Level

(the perceptions of whether or not favoritism is operating about job levels in the organization)

7a. Staff members in higher paygrade positions will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "job level" than staff members in lower level paygrade positions.

7b. Men will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "job level" than females.

7c. Whites will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "job level" than non-Whites.

7d. Managers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "job level" climate than non-managers.

7e. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "job level" than enlisted or civilian personnel.

Embedded intergroup theory

(intergroup processes regulate how members treat and are treated by others, shape their perceptions, and help determine realities).

There will be significant differences in the perceptions of various groups (ethnicity groups, gender groups, paygrade groups and personnel type groups)

in the workplace toward organizational climate, gender climate, ethnicity climate, job climate, age climate, and sexual orientation climate as measured by the Diversity Survey.

Definitions

Definition of terms

Perceptions-in this study perceptions will be measured by responses to the Diversity Instrument.

Officer managers-all personnel listed as Department Heads.

Enlisted managers-all personnel E7 or above.

Civilian managers-all staff listed by the civilian personnel job classification as supervisors.

Non-manager-employees not designated as department heads, E6 and below, or employees who are not civilian supervisors.

Minorities-people who are in a subgroup on the basis of disability, religion, age, gender, sexual orientation, or race. In this study, the term includes African Americans, Native Americans, Hispanic Americans (non-White), and Asian Americans. Referring to religion, this term includes majority versus minority religion groups, as well as Protestant versus non-Protestant groups.

Diversity-refers to a broad range of differences among people, including race, gender, age, ethnicity, physical abilities, intellectual abilities, education, work experiences, learning styles, religion, and marital status.

Job level-the position in the organization that an employee works, such as civilian, officer or enlisted; job level also refers to the paygrade of the individual.

Sexual orientation-whether an employee is heterosexual or homosexual.

Majority religious group and minority religious group-majority religious group refers to the group that has the largest group membership (Catholics and Protestants) and minority religious group is the group (Jews, Mormons, Buddhists, and Muslims) and that has the smallest group membership. For the purposes of this study, persons who listed their religious preferences as 'none' or 'other' were also placed in this category due to their low membership number.

Directorate-functional area of the medical center to which an employee is assigned, such as either the office of the Commander, the Deputy Commander, the Command Master Chief, the Medical Director, the Director for Administration, the Director for Ancillary Services, the Director for Community Health Services, the Director of Health, Safety, and Environmental Services, the Director for Managed Care, the Director of Medical Services, the Director of Nursing Services, the Director of Pastoral Care Services, the Director for Resources, or the Director of Surgical Services.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This section is a review of the literature pertaining to the theoretical framework, health care organizations, diversity, and the military. Research about the factors that the instrument (the Diversity Survey) measures will be discussed. These factors are organizational climate, gender, ethnicity, age, physical ability, job level, politics in the workplace, and sexual orientation. The diversity section focuses on research studies conducted in organizations reflecting both the employees' and employers' perspective.

Theoretical framework

Embedded intergroup theory

Alderfer's intergroup theory will serve as the theoretical framework for this study. According to Alderfer (1987), every organization consists of a large number of groups, and every organization member represents a number of these groups in dealing with other people in the organization. Intergroup relations refer to activities between and among groups. He divided groups into two broad classes: an identity group and an organizational group. An identity group is one whose members share common biological characteristics, have participated in equivalent historical experiences, currently are subjected to similar social forces, and as a result have consonant world views. The identity groups are those based on gender, ethnicity, family, and age.

Alderfer (1987) defined an organizational group as one whose members share common organizational positions, participate in equivalent work experiences, and as a consequence, have consonant organizational views. Becoming an organizational member assigns a person to membership in both a task group and a hierarchical group. Task group membership arises because of the activities members are assigned to perform. Hierarchical group membership is assigned by those in the system with the authority to determine rank in the system. It is also pointed out that one critical factor in understanding intergroups in organizations is that identity group membership and organizational group membership are frequently highly related.

Research on intergroup relations has identified a number of characteristics of intergroup relations that do not depend on the particular groups or the specific settings where the relationships occur (Alderfer and Smith, 1982). These include the following:

1. Group boundaries. Both physical and psychological group boundaries determine group membership. Transactions among groups are regulated by variations in the permeability of the boundaries.
2. Power differences. The types of resources that can be obtained and used differ among groups. The variety of dimensions on which there are power differences and the degree of discrepancy among groups influence the degree of boundary permeability among groups
3. Affective patterns. The permeability of group boundaries varies with the polarization of feeling among the groups, that is, it varies with the

degree to which the membership associates mainly positive feelings with their own group and mainly negative feelings with other groups.

4. Cognitive formations, including “distortions.” As a function of group boundaries, power differences, and affective patterns, groups tend to develop their own language , condition their members’ perceptions to explain the nature of experiences encountered by members and to influence relations with other groups.
5. Leadership behavior. The behavior of group leaders and representatives reflect boundary permeability, power differences, affective patterns, and cognitive formations of their group in relation to other groups.

According to intergroup theory, because each person is viewed as a group representative, every individual's membership in groups can influence interactions with other groups. Intergroup processes regulate how members treat and are treated by others, shape our perceptions, and help determine realities. Alderfer and Smith (1982) stated that reactions to diversity initiatives have implications for intergroup relations which are embedded in an organizational context. The perceptions toward diversity in the workplace which are held by members of specific identity and organizational groups are critical to successful implementation of policies promoting diversity (Kossek and Zonia, 1993). If the perceptions of members of a group are negative and resistant to change, efforts to modify recruitment, promotion, and other policies to foster a multi-cultural environment will be hampered. Intergroup theory suggests that

the way we perceive our social reality is largely determined by our group memberships such as, racioethnicity, gender, and job level (Alderfer, 1987).

Another component of intergroup theory is that concepts from the theory apply to researchers as well as to respondents (Alderfer, 1987). "Intergroup theory assumes that researchers and research teams are subject to the same forces in their work as are the people they study. The traditional goal of objectivity, by which investigators separate themselves from the phenomena they study, should be replaced by a notion that calls on researchers to search for their own biases and then to build compensatory mechanisms into their research procedures" (Alderfer and Smith, 1982, p. 63). Alderfer (1982) further explained that additional research skills should include the awareness of one's various group memberships, the knowledge of how these affiliations affect research with people from different groups, and the capacity to use these effects to obtain a deeper and more complete understanding of organizational phenomena.

The Concept of Diversity

A problem concerning the concept of diversity is the absence of a careful definition of the term cultural diversity. The lack of clarity of the meaning of the word, diversity, has contributed to the difficulty in defining issues and creating common solutions. The terms themselves are fraught with emotional and political baggage (California Confederation of the Arts, 1994). In the absence of careful definition, diversity is likely to be categorized or confused with minority hiring, equal opportunity, or similarly mandated initiatives to achieve heterogeneity in the workplace (Freed, 1993). We should not confuse these issues because

“valuing diversity” brings with it a paradigm shift, a new way of thinking about differences among people (Gardenswartz and Rowe, 1993).

Defining Diversity

In 1987 the Hudson Institution's report, Workforce 2000, made diversity a household word in companies across the country. It is interesting to note that prior to the publication of Workforce 2000 (1987), only two papers with cultural diversity in their titles appeared in the Health Planning and Administration database. Since that time, 59 papers have been published. Diversity is not a strictly contemporary human resource issue because employee diversity has been an ongoing theme in American industry for many years; the only aspect that changes is the groups toward which companies have directed diversity activities (Foster et. al., 1988). A review of the literature also revealed that diversity is labeled as either cultural diversity, human diversity, or workforce diversity. An exploration of how the word, “diversity,” is defined by different authors will be presented. It will become evident that diversity is an evolving concept, but definitely not a new one. Selective definitions from each category will be presented.

Foster and others (1988) defined cultural diversity as the term being applied to African Americans, Asian Americans, Mexican Americans, Native Americans, women, the physically disabled, homosexuals, and even the “new” American White male. Princeton (1993) wrote that cultural diversity must be broadly based, not limited to the traditionally defined minority groups, such as Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans, Native Americans, or African Americans.

Rather the term should include, for example, women as a minority group and their issues; men in nursing as minorities and their related issues, and groups of people who have different lifestyles from the dominant population due to religious beliefs, employment status, sexual orientation, and so forth.

Triandis, Kurowski, and Gelfand (1994) define human diversity as any attribute that humans are likely to use to tell themselves that a person is different. Diversity refers to a broad range of differences among employees, including race, sex, age, ethnicity, physical abilities, intellectual abilities, sexual orientation, education, work experiences, learning styles, religion, and marital status among others (Johnson, 1994). Maldonado (1993) states that human diversity refers to each individual's unique total make up, including: biological, psychological-personality, sociological, and individual human development. He further explained that human diversity is manifested in one, or more of the following characteristics: social class, ethnicity, race, sexual preference, gender, exceptionalism, disability, religion, language and culture, lifestyle and learning style.

A term used to delimit diversity is workforce diversity. Svehla and Crosier (1994) define workforce diversity to refer to a mosaic of races, ethnic and religious backgrounds, sexual orientations, family situations, ages, and physical abilities. Taylor Cox (1994) addressed diversity in the context of social systems that are characterized by a majority group and a number of minority groups. Fostering workforce diversity is about building an organizational culture that

embraces personal differences and encourages heterogeneous groups of persons to work toward a common end (Lappetito, 1994).

An examination of cultural diversity, human diversity, and workforce diversity reveal that despite the adjectives placed in front of the word "diversity" all meanings point to differences among people. For the purposes of this paper, diversity is defined as the perceptions of employees toward organizational climate, gender, ethnicity, age, job level, physical ability, national origin, and sexual orientation as they occur in the organization.

Demographics of Diversity

The United States population is becoming more diverse by race and Hispanic origin. The two major components driving the population growth are fertility (births) and net immigration. As projected in the Population Profile of the United States, the African American; Asian and Pacific Islander; American Indian, Eskimo, Aleut; and Hispanic populations are increasing their proportions of the total population, whereas the non-Hispanic White population is decreasing their proportions of the population (Day, 1993). By the year 2000, the non-Hispanic White proportion of the population is projected to decrease to less than 72 percent with about 13 percent African American; 11 percent Hispanic origin; 5 percent Asian and Pacific Islander; and less than 1 percent American Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut. These population changes are shifting the composition of people in the United States.

By 2050, projected shares shift quite dramatically. The non-Hispanic White population is predicted to be less than 53 percent: 16 percent would be

African American, 21 percent would be of Hispanic origin; 11 percent would be Asian and Pacific Islander; and about 1 percent would be American Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut. By the year 2050, it is projected that 47% of the total population of America will be people of color. The phrase, "people of color," rather than "ethnic minority" is now being used to refer to groups such as Mexican Americans, African Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Native Americans (Banks, 1991; Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991; Morrison, 1992). This change is used to reflect new demographic realities because in some places, the "minority group," is the "majority group." However, in this study the term minorities will be used to describe people of color because this is the terminology used in the Diversity Survey Instrument. That is, minorities will refer to non-Whites and non-minorities will refer to Whites. In addition, the practice of capitalizing all ethnic groups, such as White and Black will be used as recommended by the American Psychological Association (1994).

As a result of demographic changes, therefore, the workforce will be changing. According to Johnston and Packer (1987) by the year 2000, one third of all new workers will be non-White. The workforce is changing from a majority homogeneous group of people to a heterogeneous group of people.

Age, Gender, and Disability

Age

The median age of the workforce is increasing (Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991). It is predicted that those in the 35-54 age group will increase their presence by more than 25 million---from 38 % of the workforce in 1985 to 51%

by the year 2000. According to Day (1993), the median age of the population will steadily increase from 32.8 in 1991 to 35.7 in 2000, peak at 39.4 in 2035, then decrease slightly to 39.3 by 2050. This increasing median age is driven by the aging of the population born during the baby boom after World War II (1946 to 1964). These changes in the population will continue to result in changes in the workforce.

Gender

In *Megatrends 2000* by Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990), it is stated that for the last two decades, U. S. women have captured two-thirds of the millions of new jobs created in the information era and will continue to do so well into the millennium. Men and women are and will increasingly be working as peers or in nontraditional relationships, such as female manager-male subordinate roles (Epting, Glover, and Boyd, 1994). In 1980, women made up 43 percent of the total workforce. By the year 2000, women will account for more than 47% of the total workforce, and 61% of all American women will be employed.

Disability

The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) was passed in 1990. The term "differently abled" refers to Americans with disabilities because it acknowledges physical and/or developmental differences while focusing on abilities (Loden and Rosener, 1991). There are 43 million Americans who are differently abled, and a large portion of them are not active participants in the labor market, according to statistics supporting the ADA. About 17% of adults of working age were disabled in 1978. Only one third of disabled persons 16 through 64 are employed; of

those who are unemployed, 66 % (8.2 million) would like to have a job (Triandis, Kurowksi, and Gelfand, 1994).

Demographics of the healthcare field

Ethnic diversity in the workplace and in patient populations is already a fact of life for many health care organizations (Grayson, 1993). Wagner (1991) states that the demographics previously outlined have pointed out that senior management, doctors, nurses, allied health professionals and patients are going to be considerably different from today's mix. According to Wagner (1991), the health care industry currently reflects the labor pool's changing demographics:

- foreign-born and foreign-educated physicians now represent almost 20% of physicians licensed in the United States.
- foreign-born clinical professionals trained in their home countries now occupy a significant share of technical and laboratory positions at the nation's hospitals.
- service workers may represent the most culturally and ethnically diverse component of the hospital work force because these unskilled and semi-skilled positions are among the jobs most attainable for new Americans.

Experts say diversity is greatest in low-paying jobs (Carnavale and Stone, 1995). For example, data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics show 954,000, or 20%, of the 4.6 million people employed at U. S. hospitals in 1990 were service workers (Wagner, 1991, p. 26). The percentage of racial concentration for service occupations (except for protective and private household) are as follows: White Americans-9.7%, African Americans-18.3%, Hispanic Americans-16.0%, Native

Americans-15.7% and Asian Americans-13.5%. The percentages shown are the percentages of each group's workforce. (Carnavale and Stone, 1995). Compared to men in service occupations, about 15.7 percent of women work in service jobs whereas only about 7.4% men of men work in service jobs (U. S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1995). This included 141,000 food preparation workers and supervisors, 420,000 nurses aides, orderlies and attendants, and 223,000 housekeepers and janitors.

Whereas the diversity of the healthcare workforce has been increasing, the awareness of the need to manage workforce diversity "is probably no more than a year old in most hospitals" (Eubanks, 1990). While there are a number of articles dealing with various aspects of caring for a culturally diverse patient population, there have been few publications and little research to assist hospital managers in dealing with a diverse workforce (Bruner, Cunningham, and Hattar, 1990).

Health care organizations

Research in the health care field pertaining to workforce diversity is very limited. Brinkman (1992) stated that research targeted at assessing diversity effectiveness is almost nonexistent to date. Epting, Glover, and Boyd (1994) noted, during a literature review, that only two studies concerning diversity in the health care workforce could be found. However, these authors did not specify the two studies that were found. Motwani, Hodge and Crampton (1995) reviewed the limited literature on the diversified work force in the health care industry and provided a synopsis of the health care organizations' response to

this issue. They researched and found that the literature on managing diversity in the workforce concentrated on the change in the labor force, the importance of the diversified work force in today's business environment, strategies to handle cultural diversity, and the corporate response to the issue of cultural diversity. These authors found only a few studies that addressed work force diversity efforts in the health care industry, and that these studies were largely written by practitioners. Also, these studies were all conceptual in approach and without any kind of methodological rigor.

Diversity research in healthcare

Since 1991, Baxter International Corporation, a major health care supply organization, has been listed in publications such as Business Week and Working Mother as one of the best companies for working mothers. Baxter International Corporation in Deerfield, Illinois has also been recognized as one of the best companies for women and minorities to work (Svehla and Crosier, 1994). In 1990 management at Baxter dedicated considerable time, money, and resources to evaluate their cultural norms by conducting surveys, focus groups, and feedback sessions. Baxter has used the data from the original employees survey to create a Valuing Diversity index for the ongoing measurement and monitoring of diversity management progress. Dr. Frank LaFasto, and Dr. Carl Larson developed the "Diversity Survey," that was used in the Baxter survey. Brinkman (1992) further developed the "Diversity Survey" a valid and reliable diversity instrument which would target employee attitudes and could be used by different organizations on a large scale. Brinkman (1992) compared the

results of the instrument from three separate organizations. There were several phases of development of this study that consisted of a qualitative analysis that resulted in the identification of eight broad categories. The second phase involved the writing of items that addressed the issues within the eight broad dimensions of diversity. The final phase of the development of this instrument was the construction of the diversity index.

Pertaining to the statistical analysis conducted, the t-tests showed clearly that significant differences existed between males and females, and between Whites and other ethnic groups on all of the factors and scales, with few exceptions (Brinkman, 1992). After factor analysis was performed on the data, the following scales developed: no change needed, hiring practices, promotion practices, training and development, equity and fairness, visible commitment, and politics in the workplace. Correlations were run to see if the scales or factors correlated with an employee's willingness to recommend his or her organization (known as comfort ratings) as an excellent place for women and minorities to work. The comfort ratings were shown to be significantly different between Whites and all other ethnic groups. Whites and African Americans were shown to differ significantly on all scales and factors of diversity. White Americans' perceptions were more favorable than African Americans on all scales. All scales and factors were shown to correlate significantly with comfort ratings at a .01 level of confidence for both organizations.

Motwani, Hodge, and Crampton (1995) conducted a study to obtain data on institutional awareness of cultural diversity using a different instrument. The

Cultural Awareness Instrument consists of three parts. The first part contained nine terms commonly used in cultural diversity, along with their meanings. The respondents were asked to match the terms with their meaning. The second part contained questions designed to get an idea of the institution's approach to cultural diversity. The last part of the questionnaire pertained to demographic information. Six hospitals in the Midwest were selected as study targets. From a total of 300 questionnaires to the six hospitals (50 questionnaires each), 60.0 percent of the questionnaires were returned. The most significant findings were that while 69.4 percent of the respondents experienced cultural shock in their workplace, only 27.7 percent of the respondents felt that their institutions had a program to improve employee skills in dealing with people of different cultures (Motwani, Hodge, and Crampton, 1995). Another finding was that only 38.9 percent of the respondents felt that the management personnel of their organization realized that cultural factors are sometimes the cause of conflicts among employees. J. Motwani (personal communication, February 22, 1996) stated that more work is being done to improve the reliability and validity of the instrument and that an item analysis of each item on the instrument had not yet been done.

Qualitative research in a health care facility was conducted by Battaglia (1991) to assess respondents' critical incident experiences with cultural differences-ethnicity, age, gender, along 12 job categories and across 14 departments of one hospital site in Southern California. Data was collected through interviews with 34 participants (15 managers and 19 employees).

Interview questions focused on typical, positive, and negative intercultural interactions. Other questions related to perceived advantages and disadvantages of cultural diversity, knowledge of others who were different, work ethic, challenge to authority, and recognition. Five prominent themes appeared recurrently in the participants' incident accounts. These themes were as follows: attitude (prejudice, people's intense feelings and behaviors and attitude tolerance), group differences (cultural, gender, age), adaptation (unassertive behavior, assertive behavior), work (work related issues, management related issues, and authority relations), and communication effectiveness (linguistic competence and comprehension/ understanding). The conclusion of this study was that cultural diversity definitely impacts the hospital work place, and that there was the potential to take a culturally diverse environment and foster actions that can transition it to a multicultural collaborative one.

Research was carried out by Camberg (1992) to identify specific organizational strategies successful in integrating people from culturally diverse backgrounds, and to determine if those strategies were perceived differently by upper management, middle management, supervisors, and line staff. The organization used in the research study was a health maintenance organization composed of a hospital, health plan, and physician partnership. All participants for the survey were volunteers and were selected through researcher contact. Because of the method of selection, one of the limitations of this study included bias in participant selection. Another factor was the sample size which was 205 out of an organization of close to 4700 employees, which limited the

generalizations of the results. The findings of this study demonstrate that management had greater knowledge than line staff about what strategies existed in the organization to value cultural diversity. It was also revealed that as a group, management identified more closely with the organization's values than line staff. The level of success of strategies for valuing cultural diversity at two levels (raising awareness and changing behavior) were evaluated. Raising awareness was easier to accomplish than changing behavior.

In conclusion, a review of prior research conducted indicates that there is not currently a solid base of research pertaining to diversity in the health care field. Therefore, there is a need to assess the perceptions of workers in the health care sector to identify factors that may decrease job satisfaction, and factors that may affect the productivity of the workers and thus hinder the organization from accomplishing its mission. This research focuses on the perceptions of health care personnel toward diversity in the workplace as expressed by examining their perceptions of the overall organizational climate/culture, as well as about gender issues, ethnicity, age, physical ability, sexual orientation issues, age, sexual orientation, and job level in the workplace. Since the present study was conducted in a military environment, the next section will review selected information pertaining to the military.

Demographics in the U. S. Military

Rosenfeld, Edwards, Thomas, P., and Thomas, E. (1991) stated that the late 1960s and early 1970s were a period of accelerated social change in both American society in general and the military in particular. Krouse (1991) also stated that the traditional military recruit, the White male, has been declining as a percentage of the total force for a number of years. The difference has been taken up by other recruit groups---African Americans, Hispanic Americans, and females, who have seen the guaranteed equal pay and training of the military as opportunities for economic and educational advancement. According to military analyst, Edwin Dorn (1989), the military is one of the largest single employers of African Americans. The termination of the draft in 1972 has been accompanied by an unprecedented rise in the accession rates of minorities and in 1990, minorities comprised about 29.1% of the active duty armed forces (Pierre, 1991). In 1990, according to Day (1993), the total minority percentage in the United States was 25.1%.

According to demographic data for the fourth quarter of FY-96 from the office of the Chief of Personnel (of one branch of the military), as of 30 September 1996, the majority percentage was 69.05 percent and the minority percentage was 30.79 percent; the unknown racial category was 00.16 percent. The total minority population of the U. S. in 1992 was only about 22 percent. The U. S. population is projected to consist of about 27 percent of non-majority people in the year 2000 (Day, 1993).

The demographic data just pointed out have already been observed by military leadership. The 4 December 1994 issue of Navy Times carried a story entitled, "Looking Like America." In this article one of the military secretaries has proposed a "12-12-5" plan (Fuentes and Pexton, 1994). By the year 2000, his plan is for each service to recruit officer year groups composed of the following:

- 10 to 12 percent African-Americans.
- 10 to 12 percent Hispanics.
- 4 to 5 percent Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders.

This "12-12-5" plan is obtainable, but certain questions need to be answered: how will these new officers view the organizational culture of the military and how will the organizational culture treat them? Many of these new officers will enter the health care field. How will their culture and the culture of the military affect their managerial style and leadership ability? How will these new officers be viewed by the people whom they will lead? Efforts to increase the representation of individuals of different gender, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds into an organization is known as diversity enlargement (Kossek, Zonia, and Young, 1995).

A recent study by Kossek, Zonia, and Young (1995) pointed out that organizations have been unclear about what goals they hope to achieve as a result of diversity enlargement. Their research findings stated that organizational demographic approaches focused on diversity enlargement are necessary, but insufficient strategies for fostering employee attitudes highly supportive of workplace diversity. Kossek, Zonia, and Young (1995) believe that diversity

enlargement strategies are most likely to succeed if they also include group-based change approaches that are devised to alter the design of jobs, the structure of the workplace, and the supporting reward systems in a manner that fosters collaboration, mentoring, voluntary role modeling, and other forms of intergroup teamwork.

Research in Diversity

Triandis, Kurowski, and Gelfand (1994) reviewed empirical research on the experiences of ethnic minorities, women, and other groups in the workplace and stated that as diversity has increased in the workplace within the last 20 years, so has research on the expectations, experiences, and attitudes of ethnic minorities, women, the disabled and others in the workplace. Research is not evenly distributed and a large body of research exists on sexual harassment and issues surrounding women's entry into management. Such research reviewed by these authors revealed that research pertaining to diversity focused on a particular diverse group or the particular attitudes of members of these groups.

Research of the Dimensions of the Diversity Survey Instrument

The following factors from the instrument will be expounded in this section: organizational climate/culture and job level research, gender and job level in the workplace research, sexual harassment in the workplace, politics in the workplace, ethnicity (how minorities are treated), training and development research, age research, physical disability research, and sexual orientation research.

Organizational climate and job level research

Overall, research pertaining to organizational climate and job level indicates that different groups in the organization will generate different climates, or meanings regarding events, practices, or procedures that may be present throughout the organization. The force-field theory of Kurt Lewin is often cited as the origin of the measurement of organizational climate (Landis, Dansby, and Tallarigo, 1995). Organizational climate is instrumental among the forces shaping individual behavior, motivation, and values (Lewin, 1951). Landis, Dansby, and Tallarigo (1995) state that Lewin's ideas of social justice and equity were very much part of his formulations of the organizational climate. This is because in the 1930's, Lewin incorporated individual appraisals, or perceptions, into the formal study of social climates and dynamics in the small group. Since then, the use of perceptual measures in organizational studies have been common.

Rentsch (1990) states that organizational culture and organizational climate research has contributed to the understanding of important topics in industrial/organizational psychology pertaining to leader behavior, job satisfaction, organizational socialization, and turnover intentions. Rentsch also stated that the focus of climate research and even the definition of climate has evolved over the past 25 years, from the 1960's to the 1990's. From 1964-1968, early researchers defined climate as enduring organizational or situational characteristics that organizational members perceived. During this period, measurement efforts focused on objective organizational characteristics that

people perceived. From 1972-1979, more attention was given to individuals' perceptions than to organizational characteristics that people perceived. During this time psychological meaningfulness became an explicit part of climate definitions. During the late 1980's, meaning and sense making have been discussed as the essence of climate because, one assumption of climate theory is that organizational members perceive and make sense of organizational policies, practices, and procedures in psychologically meaningful terms. The 1990's have returned to an appreciation of the objective value of group perceptions, while acknowledging the potential for variability of perceptions within organizations (Landis, Dansby, and Tallarigo, 1995). Recently, the term, organizational climate is being replaced by some with the term, organizational culture.

The difference between organizational climate and organizational culture

Schneider and Reichers (1983) state that climate is generally conceived as the influence of work contexts on employee behavior and attitudes, which are grounded in perceptions. According to Glick (1985, p. 612), like climate, culture is a broad class of organizational and psychological variables that reflect an individual's interaction in an organizational setting. "The primary differences appear to be methodological, stemming from the different disciplinary bases. Climate, developed primarily from the Lewinian social psychological framework, can be compared with the anthropological and symbolic interactionist roots of culture." Organizational culture is a widely acclaimed metaphor for

understanding how organizations differ, how their members cohere, and how organizations and members interact (Adler and Jelinek, 1986).

According to Schein (1990, p. 111) organizational culture as a concept has a fairly recent origin, since the concept of "culture" has been explicitly used only in the last few decades. Organizational culture is then defined as: (a) a pattern of basic assumptions, (b) invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, (c) as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, (d) that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore (e) is to be taught to new members as the (f) correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. Schein (1990) also stated that the concept has been thrust into the forefront because of the recent emphasis on trying to explain why U. S. companies do not perform as well as some of their counterpart companies in other societies, notably Japan.

Cultural diversity has grown increasingly important in both international and domestic spheres. In general, people recognize neither the presence of cultural diversity nor its potential advantages (Adler, 1983) (Adler, Doktor, and Redding, 1986). Adler further explained that only in those cases in which the concept of culture is explicitly recognized can the response to cultural diversity be synergistic, that is, in which one believes that cultural diversity can potentially create both advantages and disadvantages for the organization. The previous statement supports the premise that culture is invisible, that culture is not commonly used as a construct for explaining the behavior of people in organizations. The strength of an organization's culture refers to the degree of

consensus among members about which norms prevail and which values dominate in importance. Organizations with strong cultures provide more meaning and guidance to their employees (Nystrom, 1993). Meaning in culture research has typically been assessed qualitatively; data sources have included organizational stories, signs and symbols, patterns of assumptions, expectations, and shared understanding or interpretations, reward systems, and transactions. Rentsch (1990) state that in culture research, there is explicit respect for qualitative variance in meaning.

Jackofsky and Slocum (1988) found that after the passage of time, membership in a particular department no longer provided the employee with this frame of reference, but rather the employees sought out others who had similar descriptions of the organization, regardless of departmental affiliation. Rentsch (1990) conducted a study and found that people involved in the same interaction group interpreted organizational events similarly and that people in different groups perceived different relationships among the events and possibly used different adjectives to interpret them.

Organizational climate in the military

Since 1979 the Department of Defense created the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI) that had formerly been called the Defense Race Relations Institute (DRRI) (Dansby and Landis, 1991). The DRRI had been created in 1971 by the Department of Defense to develop and implement a training program in race relations designed to prevent racial unrest, tension, or conflict from impairing combat readiness and efficiency (Dansby and

Landis, 1991). Research conducted by DEOMI (1994) continues today with an increased emphasis on exploring other dimensions of diversity in the workplace (Albright & McIntyre, 1995; Dansby, 1995; Dansby & Landis, 1995; Grosch, 1994; Hochhaus, 1995; Knouse, 1994; Landis, Dansby, & Tallarigo, 1995; Niebuhr, 1994; Niebuhr, Knouse, & Dansby, 1994; Tallarigo, & Landis, 1995).

As reported by Rosenfeld, Thomas, Edwards, Thomas, and Thomas (1991), the U. S. Navy conducted research into race, ethnicity, and gender issues as part of their Human Resource Management (HRM) program. The focus of the HRM survey was organizational climate and effectiveness. The HRM survey was to make comparisons of active duty men with women; Whites with African Americans, Hispanics and Filipinos; and African Americans with Hispanics. The results indicated that on both organizational climate indices and on equal opportunity items, nonrated (E-1 to E-3) African Americans had the least positive perceptions of any group. (Enlisted personnel who do not yet have a specialty are in the lowest paygrade category of E1-E3). African Americans' perceptions became more favorable at the middle enlisted levels (E-4 and E-5). Hispanic and White perceptions were generally more favorable than African American perceptions. Among officers, junior African American officers had more favorable perceptions than their White, Hispanic, and Filipino counterparts. The HRM survey has also been used to compare women's and men's perceptions of the Navy's organizational climate. It was found that enlisted women in the lower paygrades had more favorable perceptions regarding their work than their male counterparts; however, at the first class officer level (E-6),

women's perceptions were below those of men on almost every scale. It was suggested by the researchers that one possibility for why perceptions of women in higher enlisted paygrades are sometimes less favorable than senior enlisted men is that women's high hopes are tempered when reality does not match their expectations.

Cox (1994) reviewed research in cultural diversity in organizations and concluded that there is research evidence to support the ideas that affective and achievement outcomes of individuals are influenced by dimensions of diversity such as gender, racioethnicity, and age. "Affective outcomes" refers to how people feel and think about their jobs and their employers. "Achievement outcomes" refer to tangible measures that are at least theoretically, indexes of the employee's contribution to the organization. The research that Cox reviewed showed that individual outcomes (job satisfaction, job involvement, and performance rating), both affective and achievement outcomes, and organizational outcomes such as turnover rates and innovation are influenced by value congruence (the fit between organization and individual culture). A growing body of research documents the more direct and obvious costs of not responding effectively to a diverse workforce (Carnevale and Stone, 1995).

Gender and job level in the workplace research

Research about women in the workplace indicates that women and men identify and define their experiences in unique ways in the organization. Fine, Johnson, and Ryan (1990) reported on a study of gender and race issues (cultural diversity in the workplace) in the regional office of a federal agency that

employed approximately 500 people. After completing focused interviews of 51 employees, they developed a questionnaire based on the issues raised by employees, including: barriers which create underrepresentation of women and minorities in supervisory and management positions; sexual harassment; training programs for all employees; the impact of equal opportunity and affirmative action on White males; the career paths of women and minorities; and perceptions of the organizational culture. The questionnaire was completed by 242 employees. The findings of this study are as follows:

- In regards to communication networks, the results indicate that employees tend to choose to talk with members of their own race or gender.
- In general, White men appeared least aware of the concerns of women and minorities; they also tended to believe that sexism and racism, at least in the workplace, are problems of the past.
- the results suggested that men, women, and minorities do not share a common culture of organizational life; rather, each group identified, defined, and organized its experiences in the organization in unique ways.

According to Triandis, Kurowski, and Gelfand (1994), women are still dramatically underrepresented in management and tend to be clustered in the lower ranks of organization. Additionally, another barrier that women face is the effect of sex role stereotypes on perceptions of them, for instance, in evaluations of performance. Standards used to evaluate male and female managers may be based on sex role stereotypes. Sex role stereotypes are culturally based beliefs prescribing appropriate and inappropriate behavior. Because the traits

associated with leadership have been generally male sex-typed, men fit the image of a successful manager more than women (Schein, 1973).

As part of a major organization development effort, a study was conducted by Synder, Verderber, Langmeyer, and Myers (1992). Various departmental representatives distributed a general attitude survey to all 931 employees of a federally funded social service agency. Six-hundred-eighty-three completed questionnaires (a 73 percent response rate) were returned by direct mail to the senior author. Approximately 74 percent of the sample was female.

The general hypothesis guiding this study was that occupancy of a supervisory position and hierarchical level in the organization are each better predictors than gender of self and organization-referent attitudes. The self and organization referent attitudes of interest in this study were "perceived competence (self)" and "organizational commitment (organization-referent)." It was found that supervisors reported more favorable self and organization referent attitudes than do non-supervisors. Another interesting finding was that where gender differences did occur in this particular sample, women actually had more favorable attitudes than men. (In this study, 74% of those participating in the study were women, men were the minority.) Occupancy of a supervisory position and hierarchical level in the organization were each better predictors than sex of self- and organization-referent attitudes. The literature based expectation was that women would have more favorable work-related attitudes. These authors believe that in no cases should managers operate on the basis of assumed differences between the sexes without first validating the possible

existence of these differences in the organization at hand. In contrast to beliefs often expressed in the popular media, the results confirmed the researchers' expectation that women's self and organization referent attitudes would not necessarily be lower than men's in conditions where accurate and realistic feedback about performance was available.

A study conducted by Snizek and Neil (1992) examined the processes underlying gender discrimination in a large Australian government research organization. The study was based on data gathered through the use of self-administered questionnaires completed in confidence by employees of a large Australian government agency which employed over 7,100 workers. Based on responses from 625 women and 512 men, data analyzed in this study indicated that when women worked primarily with other women, or when women have men reporting to them, day to day discrimination is minimal. By contrast, women who occupy jobs and job ladders (administrative jobs and job ladders with broad salaries) where power and money are at stake, often find themselves the target of promotional discrimination by men. Also according to this study, women were likely to experience salary levels below those received by men, either in the same position when in men's career streams or in comparable jobs on the basis of job evaluations, when in mostly women's jobs.

Sexual harassment in the workplace

Social-sexual behavior is any non-work related behavior having a sexual component; it includes sexual harassment, initiating dating, flirting, and the like (Gutek, Cohen, and Konrad, 1990). Sexual harassment in the workplace is

related to the problems of sex role stereotypes (Triandis, Kurowski, and Gelfand, 1994). In a study of work experiences on attitudes toward sexual harassment, Konrad and Gutek (1994) found that as in previous studies, men were found to label fewer sexual behaviors at work as sexual harassment than women. Men and women were found to differ in their personal attitudes toward sexual overtures from the opposite gender and to have had qualitatively different experiences with sexual behaviors at work.

If jokes, comments, or the general ambience of a work environment create a hostile or offensive environment, an employer can be found guilty of sexual harassment. The question of a reasonable definition of what constitutes a hostile work environment is important. Thacker and Gohmann (1993) stated that two recent court decisions have refined the "reasonableness" standard by suggesting that the standard is different for males and females. The reasonable woman standard (what a reasonable woman would find offensive) was an attempt to determine a representative woman's interpretation of sexual behaviors as the standard by which courts can decide whether a sexual harassment claim is frivolous or trivial. A survey of 8,523 respondents employed in 24 governmental agencies revealed that 42 percent of the females and 14 percent of the males had received some form of unwelcome sexual attention (Thacker and Gohmann, 1993). The results of this study was that for all those respondents who had experienced hostile work harassment, a significant difference existed between males and females concerning the need for emotional or medical counseling. Females were significantly more likely than

males to report that emotional or medical counseling was needed as a result of hostile work environment harassment.

A study conducted by Gutek et al. (1990) used a "contact hypothesis" to suggest that reports of sexual harassment, nonharassing sexual behavior, and the sexualization of a work environment are associated with the amount of contact individuals have with members of the other gender at work. The study was a stratified random sample of 1,232 working men and women in Los Angeles County who were interviewed by telephone in the summer of 1980. Results showed that perceived sexual harassment increased as the amount of contact with the other gender increased and that women reported significantly more sexual harassment than men. Both men and women experienced more sexual harassment as their amount of contact with the other gender increased. Lobel (1993) stated that rather than eradicate sexuality from the workplace, organizational scholars need to explore alternative, positive forms of relationships between men and women at work.

Politics and gender in the workplace

In 1988 Drory and Romm conducted a study that found that employees in managerial positions perceived the various definition elements of "politics in organizations" as less political than employees in non-supervisory positions. This study suggested that organizational politics was affected by culture and organizational characteristics and supervisory positions. Drory and Beaty (1991) conducted a study that compared the gender differences in the perception of organizational influence tactics since the use of organizational politics (OP) has

been recognized as an important vehicle toward achievement. The study was designed to examine the relations between gender and attitudes toward organizational politics in an attempt to shed some light on the determinants of OP perceptions as well as inter-gender relations at work.

This study addressed two basic questions with regard to the relations between gender and attitudes toward OP. The first question was whether men and women differ in their attitudes toward political behavior. The second question pertained to the possibility that the judgment of OP is affected by the gender of the participants in the observed political act. A critical incident describing an act of political behavior was presented to a sample of 84 males and 68 female members in different organizations. The subjects' attitudes toward the behavior and toward the actor were measured to test for gender differences.

The results of the study pointed at two findings which were relevant both to the study of OP and to the issue of gender at work. First, it highlighted the significance of the gender factor to the judgment of OP. Secondly, the study supported the notion that men and women relate to power and politics in a rather similar way and perceive it in terms of its effect on one's gender group interest. The results of the study by Drory and Beaty (1991) suggested that gender may be another important variable affecting the perceptions toward OP. From the inter-gender relations perspective, this study suggested that when it comes to assessing a situation in which an employee is being politically manipulated, the subject tended to side with his or her own gender.

Gender and Position

Drory (1993) conducted a study that examined the relationships between perceived organizational politics (OP) and job attitudes. It was found that variables reflecting on the employee's status in the organization, such as gender and supervisory position, moderate the relationship between perceptions of OP and job attitudes. The results suggested that for non-supervisory and female employees the association between OP perceptions and job attitudes were particularly relevant. The rationale behind this finding was that employees who have access to sources of organizational power and status, are in a position to take advantage of the political game and to gain a greater share of the organizational benefits. It was also found that the association between climate and negative job attitudes was stronger for employees of lower status than for those of a higher status. Low status employees who were not in a position to benefit from a political decision-making style were more likely to feel disadvantaged in such a prevailing political climate. It was speculated that OP had a potentially damaging effect on lower status employees, who react to a climate of politics by showing increasingly negative attitudes toward the organization. The basic assumption underlying this study was that employees' perceptions of OP may be regarded as a facet of the perceived organizational climate (p. 61).

Research of perceptions about ethnicity (how minorities are treated)

Organizations may have their own distinctive cultures and the degree of congruence or fit between organization and individual culture is of potential

importance to various career outcomes of individuals. Alderfer and Smith (1982) described the nature of these differences by stating the following: "Groups condition their members' perceptions of objective and subjective phenomena and transmit a set of propositions...to explain the nature of experiences encountered by members and to influence relations with other groups" (p. 40).

Alderfer and Smith (1982) conducted a study that revealed the differences in cognitive orientations between groups from their data on perceptions of race relations in a large organization of 13,000 members. In a study of 2,000 managers in a large corporation, they found that perceptions between Whites and African Americans were dramatically different. For example, they found that while 62 percent of African American men and 53 percent of African American women agreed that qualified Whites were promoted more rapidly than equally qualified African Americans, the percent agreement among Whites was only four and seven percent respectively for men and women. They also asked the same subjects if they agreed that qualified African Americans were promoted more rapidly than equally qualified whites. The percentages tended to be reversed, with agreement by only 12 to 13 percent African Americans versus 75 to 82 percent of Whites. This study gave an interesting view of how members of different groups in the same organization have different perceptions of events and organizational climate.

Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) conducted a study that examined race, organizational experiences, job performance evaluations, and career outcomes for African American and White managers from three work

organizations. In this study, 1,628 managers, 814 African Americans, 814 Whites and their supervisors participated in the study from a communication firm, a banking firm, and from an electronics company. Compared to White managers, African Americans felt less accepted in their organization, perceived themselves as having less discretion on their jobs, received lower ratings from their supervisors on their job performance, and were less promotable. The results of this study, according to the authors, strengthened the conclusion that African Americans may be excluded from opportunities for power and integration within organizations and that such exclusion may be detrimental to their job performance. Alternatively, these authors concluded that race differences in job performance evaluations do not reflect differences in actual job performance but instead indicated the presence of bias in the rating process.

Thomas (1990) conducted a study that examined the impact of race on managers' experiences of developmental relationships (mentoring and sponsorship). This study examined the experiences of African Americans and Whites who shared the same organizational setting, in gaining developmental relationships. The examination of cross-race and same race relationships with regard to the kinds of support they provide was examined. Data was collected from 88 African American managers and 107 White managers. The results indicated that White proteges have almost no developmental relationships with persons of another race. African American proteges formed 63 percent of their developmental relationships with Whites. Same race relationships were found to provide significantly more psychosocial support than cross-race relationships.

Studies have been conducted to compare the results of evaluations given to White and African American persons by same-race ratees and different-race ratees. Sackett and DuBois (1991) compared data from three sources (civilian, military, and meta-analysis) and challenged the conclusion that raters generally give more favorable ratings to members of their own race. Results from the civilian and military data converged, but they differed from the meta-analytic results. Means for the civilian data and the Technical Skill and Job Effort dimension of the military data clearly indicated that African American ratees consistently received lower ratings than White ratees from both White and African American raters. It had been concluded from the meta-analytic data that African American raters rated African Americans higher than they rated White Americans. The present study found that African American raters did not rate African Americans higher than they rated Whites. The finding that over half of the ratings in the studies were peer ratings made it seem plausible that such a race effect was more likely to occur with peers than with supervisors. The studies had been categorized into three groups (laboratory studies, studies using peer ratings, and studies using supervisor ratings), and effect sizes were computed for each group.

Cox, Lobel, and McLeod (1991) examined the hypothesis that differences in the cultural norms of Anglo-Americans and three other ethnic groups, Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans, and African Americans, would result in different behaviors on a group task. It was hypothesized that groups composed of people from collectivist cultural traditions would display more cooperative behavior than

groups composed of people from individualistic cultural traditions. The authors stated that compared to individualist cultures, collectivist cultures place greater emphasis on the needs and goals of the group, social norms and duty, shared beliefs, and cooperation with group members. Results confirmed this hypothesis.

Williams and Bauer (1994) used an experimental design to assess the impact of a managing diversity policy on participants' rating of organizational attractiveness. This study investigated potential differences in organizational attraction based on gender and race. Participants in this study were 448 students enrolled in upper level undergraduate management courses at two large universities in midwestern states. The sample was composed of 263 men and 185 women. All racial minority groups were collapsed so that a participant was in either a majority group (392 participants) or a minority group (56 participants). Subjects were asked to read one of two forms of a recruitment brochure describing a fictitious company and then to rate the attractiveness of the company. The first form was used as the control condition and used a standard phrase to which job seekers are regularly exposed. The brochure included the statement pertaining to the company being advertised as one that was an affirmative action/equal opportunity employer. The second form of the brochure was the managing diversity experimental condition. It was identical to the control condition except that a proactive stance in the form of a paragraph stated that the company valued the contributions of a diverse work force and that

the company had implemented programs to teach all employees to recognize the strengths that individuals from diverse backgrounds could bring to the company.

As hypothesized, participants in the managing diversity condition rated the organization significantly more favorably than did those in the control condition. The results also revealed that women evaluated the company more favorably than men did, regardless of their race or their experimental condition. Minority members rated the company more favorably than majority members.

Training and development research

Research on relationships with supervisors has addressed gender and racial differences. However, according to Cianni and Romberger (1995) few studies have included minority groups other than African Americans. Cianni and Romberger used multivariate analysis of covariance to investigate the differential effect of race/ethnicity among African Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Asian Americans (male and female midlevel) employees' perceptions of access to developmental activities initiated by immediate supervisors, controlling for organizational tenure. The sample consisted of 3,106 employees in a Fortune 500 financial services company. A total of 1,645 (53%) employees actually participated in the study. One organizational experience found to be significantly related to upward mobility is a supportive relationship with immediate supervisors (Baird and Kram, 1983). Immediate supervisors are also in a position to provide developmental job assignments and experiences viewed to be critical to advancement to senior management positions. In this study the results of the content analysis showed that all participants, regardless of race, ethnicity, and

gender perceived that political factors, in addition to performance, are primary determinants for advancement. These political factors included such supervisor behaviors as actively endorsing an employee through assignments that result in increased visibility, access to formal training programs, and participation in key task forces. Development opportunities were seen as forms of recognition and forums for visibility that conveyed messages that one is "promotable," and "has the potential to get to the next level" (p. 446).

The one control variable that was used in this study was organizational tenure-designated as number of years employed by the company. The results of the study showed significant main effects both for gender and race. Men perceived that they received information about the department or company to a greater degree than women. Men also reported attending external management development programs to a greater degree than women. Men also reported higher levels of satisfaction with the developmental experiences provided by supervisors than women.

Results on access to information by race differed from previous research on African American managers. African American managers did not report less access to information than White managers from their immediate supervisors. However, significant differences between African Americans and other groups were found on three measures. African American employees perceived lower levels of encouragement to try new assignments, limiting chances to develop additional skills. However, they also reported attending external development programs more frequently than Whites. Survey findings revealed that African

American managers also perceived the greatest dissimilarity in attitudes and values from their supervisors, reinforcing the concept of biculturalism (functioning in two cultures). An interesting finding of the study was the lack of significant differences among Hispanic Americans according to the similarity or dissimilarity to race of their supervisor. Analysis of racial differences did not reveal significant differences between Hispanic managers with supervisors of the same race and Hispanic managers with supervisors of a different race. However, the researchers did not test differences according to ethnicity. For the total sample, organizational tenure was found to be negatively and significantly related to six variables: perceptions regarding the provision of assignments by supervisors that increase contact with higher level managers, the provision of assignments to gain new skills, promotion of career interests in general, supervisor's promotion of career interest within the unit, supervisor's encouragement of new responsibilities, and supervisors as role models. Tenure was very weakly correlated to perceptions regarding supervisor's provision of information about the company and opportunities to participate in internal management development programs.

Research About Perceptions of Age in the Workplace

Rosen and Jerdee (1976) examined differences in evaluations of the average younger and the average older person on 65 job-related traits. The average younger person was defined as ages from 23 years old to 34 years old. The average older person was defined as ages from 52 years old to 62 years old. They found that respondents viewed older persons, compared to younger

persons, to be deficient in job performance, potential for development, certain interpersonal skills, vitality, and propensity for risk taking. These perceptions of age differences in job related characteristics were held by respondents of all ages. Another research study conducted by Rosen and Jerdee (1976) focused on the effects of these age stereotypes on managerial decision making. Participants were presented with a series of six hypothetical administrative incidents in which an employee's age might be expected to have an influence on a managerial decision. Results confirmed the hypothesis that stereotypes regarding older employees' physical, cognitive, and emotional characteristics lead to discrimination against older workers.

Hassell and Perrewé (1995) conducted research to examine individual beliefs about older workers and the relationship between those beliefs and selected variables. The selected variables were age, education, gender, supervisory status and number of interactions with older workers. As hypothesized, age was related significantly to positive beliefs about older workers. Therefore, an individual's beliefs about older workers become more positive with age. Their findings were similar to the findings of Kirchner and Dunnette (1954) and Bird and Fisher (1986). The fact that gender was insignificant as a predictor suggests that men and women do not differ in these beliefs. With respect to education and gender, no statistically significant relationship with beliefs was found. The number of interactions that younger workers had with older workers significantly, positively affected their beliefs about older workers. Older supervisors reported less favorable beliefs about

older workers than younger supervisors reported. Although speculative, it was thought that because supervisors may be "older" themselves, they psychologically may deny membership in that category to protect their work identity and status.

Dedrick and Dobbins (1991) conducted research to examine the manner in which employee age affected supervisors responses to high and low performances. This research suggested that subordinate age should influence the stability of the factor to which performance is attributed. Managers should be inclined to attribute the low performance of older employees more to unchangeable factors (e.g. lack of ability) than the low performance of younger employees. Supervisors were most likely to attribute poor performances of older employees to stable factors (e.g. ability deficits and task difficulty), which were assumed to be relatively unchangeable, and therefore demonstrated a general reluctance to help the subordinate improve his/her performance with additional training.

Lin, Dobbins, and Farh (1992) investigated whether age and race similarity between interviewer and interviewee influenced interview outcomes and whether these effects were moderated by interview type. The first purpose of this study was to examine same-race bias in a field interview setting with African Americans, Whites, and Hispanic Americans. The second purpose of the research was to examine the effects of interviewer-interviewee age similarity on interview ratings. The findings were that interviewer-interviewee race similarity had a small but significant effect on interview ratings. Comparisons showed that

the only difference among the three types of panels was that Black/Black panels rated Black interviewees more favorably than did other/other panels. However, White applicants (5.3%) were underrepresented in the occupational structure of these jobs, which were custodian jobs in a large West Coast urban school district. An interesting and important finding was that the same-race bias was sharply reduced when mixed race panels were used in interviews. The researchers did not find same-age bias in these interview ratings.

Research on physical disability

The purpose of the study done by Maldonado (1993) was to identify specific attitudes of employers and employees toward human diversity in the workplace. An attitudinal questionnaire was randomly administered to a sample of 50 employers and 50 employees who were students in a multicultural education class. The items on the questionnaire were selected from a series of attitudinal questionnaires designed and validated to measure attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The subjects for this study consisted of undergraduate and graduate students in a multicultural education course. The findings of this study revealed that employees' attitudes and employers' attitudes toward hiring persons with disabilities (or persons who are ethnically, culturally, or linguistically diverse) generally tend to be less favorable than positive due to their lack of knowledge, experience, and skills related to working with minorities and diverse groups.

Kamieniecki (1987) explored the dimensions underlying public attitudes toward African Americans and disabled citizens. The study used a theoretical

discussion of the political orientations that may influence support for these minorities. Using data collected in a national survey, the data was analyzed for public support for African Americans and disabled and then examined the various economic and political contexts in which these views were held. An analysis of the relationships among attitudes toward federal spending on African Americans and disabled people, evaluations of government performance, and views on civil rights was conducted. As the data show, views on public funding of African Americans tend to be part of a broader attitudinal structure than views on public funding of disabled people. For example, federal spending on African Americans was significantly negatively correlated with views on spending on national defense and foreign aid, whereas, spending on disabled persons was not. This finding and the results of the analysis of respondents' political ideology suggested that attitudes toward African Americans in this country more closely reflect traditional liberal-conservative cleavages than attitudes toward disabled people (Kamieniecki, 1987).

Katz, Hass, and Bailey 1988) described a program of research on people's attitudes and behavioral reactions to individuals with physical disabilities and their findings were consistent with the following ideas:

- the sentiments of many people about people who are disabled tend to be ambivalent rather than unambiguously hostile or friendly.
- the pro and anti attitudes tend to be rooted to some extent in two general value orientations, individualism of the Protestant ethic variety and humanitarianism.

- stimulus events that make salient one's ambivalence about disabled people create a state of psychic tension and efforts at tension reduction may take a form of extreme behavior toward members of the group in question (p. 56-57).

Research of health care personnel's attitudes toward persons with disabilities was conducted by Geskie and Salase (1988) and their findings were that the attitudes held toward different disability populations vary but are consistently more favorable than expected. McCarthy (1988) stated that findings from a nationwide study of corporate accommodation practices for employees with handicaps clearly indicated that the firms most likely to consider and successfully implement accommodations were those with a low turnover rate and a philosophy emphasizing the importance of the individual.

Research on sexual orientation

Limited research about homosexuals in the workplace states that discriminatory practices about homosexuals have been based on the belief that employing homosexuals has negative consequences for the organization and its employees. Based on a review of the literature and focus group interviews of 51 full-time managers from Southeastern U. S. manufacturing firms, 33 potential consequences of employing homosexuals were generated (O'Brien and Vest, 1988). The major concerns of this study pertained to the discrimination against homosexuals in the workplace as a widespread problem. Employers have used sexual preference as a basis for making employment decisions which adversely affect both current employees and job applicants. These two authors believed

that these discriminatory practices have been based in part on the belief that employing homosexuals will have negative consequences for other employees and ultimately for the firm. Two factors contributing to this belief are the AIDS crisis and the belief that employing homosexuals disrupts the work flow and lowers company morale.

The purpose of this 1988 study was to report preliminary work in the development of a scale to measure beliefs about the consequences of employing homosexuals. After a process of review, twenty items were eliminated. The thirteen items which were retained for use in the questionnaire were formatted with a five-point Likert scale. Two hundred and fifty questionnaires were mailed to managers and supervisors in manufacturing, government, and service organizations. Seventy-three percent of the questionnaires were returned. The results of the study showed that in testing a scale about beliefs about employing homosexuals, O'Brien and Vest (1988) found one major factor emerging, disruption of the organization, characterized by 13 beliefs about the effects of employing homosexuals, including the following: undermining company morale, hurting the company image, losing some customers, causing some employees to quit, attracting other homosexuals to the company, increasing employees' risk of getting AIDS, discouraging people who are not homosexual from applying for jobs at the company, making it difficult for employees to concentrate on their work, causing disruption in the flow of work, contributing to a higher rate of absenteeism, contributing to a higher accident rate, causing some employees to quit, and undermining the company's ability to

provide service to clients. Evidence of predictive validity was provided, but the author pointed out that much work remains to be done in construct and external validity.

A survey of 4,000 homosexual men and women conducted by Overlooked Opinions, a Chicago market research firm, revealed that stereotypes about the occupations in which homosexuals work were inaccurate. According to this survey it was found that more homosexuals worked in science and engineering than in social services. Forty percent more were employed in finance and insurance than in entertainment and the arts; and ten times as many in computers as in fashion (Stewart, 1991, p. 43).

Hall (1986) conducted a study that investigated the work experience of 13 lesbians employed by large corporations. The respondents in this study were already discredited for being women and had to manage the potentially discrediting information of their lesbianism. Hall (1986) examined the strategies used to manage such information. Phenomenology was used because this qualitative method included the observer in the phenomena observed and emphasized non-measurable aspects of phenomena. The results of this study were that the corporate workplace is a potentially hostile environment that reflects the values of the dominant White heterosexual male culture. From the analysis of the interviews, it was concluded that lesbian employees have developed strategies for dealing specifically with homophobia in the corporation that included deception.

Summary and conclusions of the literature review

A literature review was conducted to present results of similar studies pertaining to diversity in the workplace, to relate this study to the literature, and to provide a framework for comparing results of this study with other studies. The changing demographics of the workforce have affected most organizations, especially service organizations. Recent studies pertaining to labor statistics have pointed out the changes in the workforce. The workforce is becoming more female, more minority, and older. Most studies do not conduct research on one particular variable, usually a combination of variables are used, such as, gender and job level climate; age and physical ability. Research pertaining to diversity in the workplace is evolving.

Research about workforce diversity is not evenly distributed. There is an obvious difference in the amount of research conducted in certain areas compared to others. For example, there is more research conducted pertaining to women and sexual harassment than about men. Research about gays in the workforce is also very limited.

Chapter III

METHOD

DESIGN

The purpose of this study is to examine the perceptions of employees regarding organizational climate in a military health care setting. This study will assess the organization's current standing on the dimensions of diversity as measured by the Diversity Survey Instrument. This study will also examine the relationship of racioethnicity, gender, age, and job level to employees' perceptions. The hypotheses for the study are listed in **Table 1**.

Research Method

A survey design was selected for this study because it is one of the best ways to collect data from a large population in order to determine the current status of that population with respect to the variables of the study (Gay, 1992). Survey research has the advantage of wide scope; a great deal of information can be obtained from a large population. **Table 2** outlines the entire research plan.

Table 1
Hypotheses

Section of the Instrument that the Hypothesis Tests	Hypotheses
1. Organizational Climate (OC)	<p>1a. Whites will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than non-Whites.</p> <p>1b. Males will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than females.</p> <p>1c. Managers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than non-managers.</p> <p>1d. Protestants will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "organizational climate" than non-Protestants.</p>

	<p>1e. Majority religious groups will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “organizational climate” than minority religious groups.</p> <p>1f. Staff members in non-clinical directorates will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “organizational climate” than those in clinical directorates.</p> <p>1g. Staff members in higher paygrades will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “organizational climate” than those in lower paygrades.</p> <p>1h. Staff members younger than 52 years will have more favorable perceptions toward “organizational climate than those older than 52 years old.</p>
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<p>Multivariate Hypothesis for “Organizational Climate”</p>	<p>1i. Staff members with the longest length of employment will have significantly more favorable perceptions of “organizational climate than those with less length of employment.</p> <p>1j. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “organizational climate than enlisted or civilian personnel.</p> <p>Job level will be the strongest predictor of organizational climate perceptions when all of the independent variables are examined with organization climate in the multiple regression model (MRM).</p>
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2. Gender

2a. Men will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender” than women.

2b. Whites will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender climate” than non-Whites.

2c. Staff members in higher paygrades will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender climate” than those in lower paygrades.

2d. Managers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward “gender climate” than those who are non-managers.

2e. The majority religious groups will have more favorable perceptions toward “gender climate” than the minority religious groups.

2f. Protestants will have more favorable perceptions toward “gender climate” than non-Protestants.

2g. Staff in clinical directorates will have more favorable perceptions toward "gender climate" than those in non-clinical directorates.

2h. White women will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "gender" than minority women.

2i. Women in management will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "gender" than women in non-management positions.

2j. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "gender climate" than enlisted or civilian personnel.

2k. Female officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "gender" than enlisted women or civil service women.

3e. Staff in clinical directorates will have more favorable perceptions toward "ethnicity climate" than those who are in non-clinical directorates.

3f. African Americans will have significantly less favorable perceptions toward "ethnicity climate" than any other minority group.

3g. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward the "ethnicity climate" than enlisted or civilian personnel.

**Multivariate Hypothesis for
"Ethnicity"**

Ethnicity will be the strongest predictor of perceptions when all independent variables are examined with ethnicity in the same MRM.

4. Age

4a. Employees older than 52 years old will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "age" than employees younger than 52 years old.

4b. Whites will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "age" than minorities.

4c. Males will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "age" than females.

4d. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "age" than enlisted or civilian personnel.

Multivariate Hypothesis for "age"

Age will be the strongest predictor of perceptions toward age when all of the independent variables are examined with age in the same MRM.

5. Job Level Climate

5a. Staff members in higher paygrade levels will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "job level climate" than staff members in lower paygrade positions.

5b. Men will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "job level" than females.

5c. Whites will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "job level climate" than non-Whites.

5d. Managers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "job level climate" than non-managers.

5e. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward "job level climate" than enlisted or civilian personnel.

Multivariate Hypothesis for “job level climate”

6. Physical Ability

Management level will be the strongest predictor of perceptions toward job level climate when all independent variables are examined with management level in the same MRM.

6a. Managers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward the “physical disability climate” than non-managers.

6b. Employees less than 52 years old will have significantly more favorable perceptions about the “physical ability climate” than those greater or equal to 52 years old.

6c. The perceptions of Whites are significantly more favorable about the “physical ability climate” than non-Whites.

**Multivariate Hypothesis for
“physical ability”**

6d. Males will have more favorable perceptions than females to “physical ability climate.”

Age less than 52 years old will be the strongest predictor of positive impressions of physical ability when all of the independent variables are examined with physical ability in the same MRM.

7. Sexual Orientation Climate

7a. Managers will have significantly less favorable perceptions toward how the organization handles issues of “sexual orientation” than non-managers.

7b. Non-Whites will have significantly less favorable perceptions toward how the organization handles issues of “sexual orientation climate” than Whites.

7c. Majority religious groups will have more favorable perceptions toward "sexual orientation climate" than non-majority religious groups.

7d. Protestants will have more favorable perceptions toward "sexual orientation climate" than non-Protestants.

7e. Males will have more favorable perceptions toward the "sexual orientation climate" than females.

7f. Officers will have significantly more favorable perceptions toward the perceptions of "sexual orientation climate" than enlisted or civilian personnel.

Multivariate Hypothesis for "Sexual Orientation Climate"

Job level will be the strongest predictor of perceptions toward sexual orientation climate when all independent variables are examined with job level in the same MRM.

Table 2**Schedule for the Full Study****1. Approval procedure**

- A. Obtained approval on March 20, 1996 from the military hospital to conduct research.
- B. Obtained approval from the Human Subjects Review Committee of the Old Dominion University School of Health Sciences to conduct research.

2. Pilot Study Plan**A. May 1996-Advertising month for the pilot study**

During the month of May various forms of advertisement for the encouragement of staff participation were carried out. Strategies completed were procedures for using electronic mail, the hospital newspaper, the Plan of the Day, flyers and posters, and visits by the researcher to various staff meetings. These strategies were done to enhance participation in order to get a high response rate.

B. June and July 1996-Pilot Study Procedure

- 1. Discussed research study with the hospital's board of directors and department heads at selected meetings. Information about the study placed in the Plan of the Day (a daily written paper distributed to all departments) and on electronic mail.
- 2. Surveys were distributed by data collectors to staff members who were

either transferring to another duty station, retiring, or leaving the military or civil service employment.

3. Fifty-four surveys were completed by the end of June and were given in a sealed envelope to the researcher. (Response rate-71%)
4. Data analysis was performed using SPSS programming. See Appendix A for full report on the pilot study.

3. Full study plan

A. August/September-Advertisement for the Full Study and Preparations

Information will also be placed in "the Plan of the Day," on flyers, and on electronic mail. Staff will be asked to self enroll in the g.diversity electronic mail group to communicate as needed with the researcher.

B. October-Full Study to Begin

C. November/December-Data collection continues.

D. December 17, 1996-1,236 responses counted.

E. Re-survey conducted during January 7, 1997-January 17,1997.

Data analysis-January 17, 1997-22 March 1997.

Description of Research Site

The research site is a fully accredited, tertiary care military medical center with a 360 bed capacity. The average inpatient load is 232 patients. The medical center was designed to accommodate inpatient wards and administrative spaces and now houses a wide variety of outpatient acute and specialty care clinics as well as inpatient facilities. Through its extensive Graduate Medical Education Programs, this medical center conducts internships and residency training in medical, dental, psychology, and pastoral care. This medical center is a major teaching hospital with residency programs in 13 specialty areas.

The core staff consists of approximately 200 staff physicians and dentists, 500 nurses, and 3200 allied health and support personnel. Another 900 medical and support personnel staff the seven branch clinics. A \$330 million facility is presently being built to replace the existing medical center.

POPULATION, SAMPLING FRAME, AND SAMPLE

The population for this study was from a large, military teaching hospital. The total number of hospital employees was over 3000. Personnel who left shortly after the study began were not part of the study, since they would not be available for follow up response. Therefore, the sampling frame (total of persons targeted for this study) was 3,176. Persons on leave, vacation, or absent due to illness were excluded from the sampling frame in order that such numbers do not count as a nonresponse.

Population description

The population for this study consists of all active duty officers, enlisted staff and civil service employees in the hospital. This study focuses only on the responses from all directorates of the medical center, except the Community Health Directorate. As **Table 3** shows, the population in these directorates is ethnically diverse with all of the major ethnic groups having representation.

Table 3

Socioedemographic Characteristics of the Total Population of the Military

Medical Center

<u>Ethnicity</u>	%	N=
		3310
Native American	.4	14
Asian/Pacific Islander	6	195
African American	24	793
Hispanic	4	125
White	59	1957
Other	7	226
<u>Gender</u>		
Female	53	1741
Male	47	1569
<u>Nationality</u>		
U. S. Citizen	95	3142
International	5	168
<u>Physical Ability</u>		
Differently abled	3	101
Not differently abled	97	3209

Females account for 52 percent of the total staff population. Most of the staff are United States citizens (95 percent) and the majority of the population is physically abled (97.3 percent). As **Table 4** shows, both civilians and military personnel work at the hospital. The larger of the three groups are enlisted personnel that account for 42 percent. Division officers (49 percent) account for the largest percent of management level at the hospital.

SURVEY INSTRUMENT AND SCORING

The survey instrument used in this study is built around The Diversity Survey Instrument (Brinkman, LaFasto, and Larson, 1992). The Diversity Survey Instrument was created as a means to examine diversity issues in an organizational environment. Detailed assessment of the categories center on differences related to ethnicity and gender. It is a Likert-type scale, with 70 items in a 6-point agreement scale. The rest of the survey instrument consists of six open ended questions and 14 demographic questions. This question format is frequently used in the construction of many types of attitudinal questionnaires (Henerson, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987).

Results of the Diversity Survey Instrument

To date, there are over 10,000 responses to the diversity survey in a data base (Brinkman, personal communication, September, 1996). The results of the 10,000 responses are shown in **Table 5**.

Table 4
Population Description and Job Level

Population	%	3310
		(T)
Civilians	33	1105
Enlisted	42	1381
Officers	25	824
<u>Management Level</u>		
Board of Directors	2	13
Civilian Managers	24	136
Enlisted Managers	5	28
Department Heads	20	110
Division Officers	49	275
Total Managers		562
		(17%)

Table 5

Results of the Diversity Survey by Brinkman^a

	Means
General Diversity Climate	3.94
Hiring Practices	3.99
Promotion Practices	3.95
Training and Development	3.59
Equity and Fairness	3.74
Visible Commitment	3.39
Politics in the Workplace	3.81
Total Over All Gender	3.77
Ethnic Diversity Climate	4.14
Hiring Practices	4.11
Promotion Practices	4.19
Training and Development	3.82
Equity and Fairness	3.87
Visible commitment	3.68
Politics in the Workplace	4.15
Total Over All Ethnicity	3.99

¹ Total points are 6.00. The higher the scores, the more favorable the perceptions of diversity climate for each item. Scores 3.5 or higher are positive and scores under 3.5 are negative.

^a Brinkman (personal communication, September 6, 1996)

Respondents in the national data base are mostly men and Whites. Five organizations have participated in the survey. The five organizations are as follows: one Fortune 500 communication company, one Fortune 500 production and manufacturing company, one major financial institution, and two Midwestern utility companies. These responses are mostly for the gender and ethnic areas of diversity. Brinkman (1996) stated that basically on a six point scale, if organizations want to be slightly positive, they should be at least at a 4.0. However, a 3.5 score indicates a positive view of the organization.

Reliability and validity of the Diversity Survey instrument

The scales and factors of diversity effectiveness were all found by the authors of this instrument to contain high levels of internal consistency (alpha coefficients ranging from .77 to .97). Additionally, the scales and factors of diversity effectiveness were found to discriminate between groups known to differ in their satisfaction with organizational policies and practices (Brinkman, 1992).

Variable definitions and scoring of diversity constructs

The Diversity Survey instrument is divided into eight sections (dimensions). These sections are as follows: organizational climate, gender, ethnicity, age, physical ability, sexual orientation, job level, and national origin.

Scoring

A six-item Likert scale is used to measure perceptions of each section. Respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with the perception expressed in the statement (such as the following; 1

=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=disagree slightly, 4=agree slightly, 5=agree, and 6=strongly agree). This scale has a maximum of six points. The responses are scored in such a way that endorsement of positively-worded statements and non-endorsement of negatively worded statements are assigned a higher score. For this reason, the scoring is reversed for the negatively worded items (1=6, 2=5, 3=4, 4=3, 5=2, and 6=1). The negatively worded items in this instrument are as follows; 20, 24, 29, 30, 32, 35, 36, 38, 39, 40, 43, 44, 52, 53, 55, 58, 59, 61, 62, 63, 66, 67, 70, 73, 76, 79, and 82. **Table 6** shows the constructs of the Diversity Survey Instrument and the location of the negatively worded items in the dimensions and subscales. This reversal is necessary so that a high score will consistently reflect positive perceptions (Polit and Hungler, 1995). This instrument can be scored by each section or each subscale. The general procedure for scoring the instrument is as follows:

1. Use the statements to measure individual responses for each section (dimension) or subscale. To score the dimensions (such as organizational climate, gender, ethnicity, age, physical ability, sexual orientation, job level, and national origin) or any of the subscales, (subscales=diversity climate, hiring practices, promotion practices, training and development, equity and fairness, visible commitment, or politics in the workplace of the gender or ethnicity section) do the following: (1) add the responses for each statement and then, (2) average the individual responses to provide a mean score for each dimension and each subscale. (3) To compute an overall dimension

score, add the scores of all the subscales and divided by the total number of subscales that are being used.

2. A higher score on both subscale and dimension scales indicates a more favorable perception of organizational climate on that dimension (Brinkman, personal communication, September 6, 1996).

Ethnicity	Q47-Q69 Q52, Q53, Q55, Q58, Q59, Q61, Q62, Q63, Q66, Q67 ®
Subscales	
diversity climate	Q47-Q50
hiring practices	Q51-Q53
promotion practices	Q54-Q56
training and development	Q57-Q59
equity and fairness	Q60-Q62
visible commitment	Q63-Q65
politics in the workplace	Q66-Q69
Age	Q70-Q72 Q70 ®
Physical Ability	Q73-Q75 Q73®
Sexual Orientation	Q76-Q78 Q76®
Job Level	Q79-Q81 Q79 ®
Domestic versus International	Q82-Q84 Q82®

Operational definitions

Table 6 also shows how the constructs of the Diversity Survey instrument are operationalized and how the instrument is divided into dimensions (sections) and subscales. Organizational climate consists of 10 items. The gender section consists of 22 items that includes the following subscales; diversity climate, hiring practices, promotion practices, training and development, equity and fairness, visible commitment, and politics in the workplace. The ethnicity section consist of 23 items with the following subscales; diversity climate, hiring practices, promotion practices, training and development, equity and fairness, visible commitment, and politics in the workplace. The sections on age, physical ability, sexual orientation, job level, and national origin consists of three items each.

Section one, organizational climate, focuses on general practices within the organization. Organizational climate consists of 10 items. These items, Q15 through Q24 (Q=question), are scored by summing Q15-Q24 and dividing the total sum by 10 to get the overall mean score. Statements in this section focus on the perceptions of the employees to the degree to which the organization values its people and displays programs and opportunities for progression within the organization. This section captures the general perceptions on how the organization is functioning from the viewpoints of the employees.

Section two of the instrument focuses on **gender**, how women are treated in the organization. Statements on how women are treated are listed in the

subscales of diversity climate, hiring practices, promotion practices, training and development, equity and fairness, visible commitment, and politics in the workplace; these seven subscales are also listed under the ethnicity section as well. If desired, each of these subscales can be scored separately by adding the total sum of each subscale and dividing by the total number of items listed under each subscale. The ***diversity climate subscale*** captures general perceptions about the organization's ability to manage diversity. The ***diversity climate means subscale*** is scored by adding Q25-Q27 and dividing by three. The ***hiring practices of the organization*** and the attitudes which influences these practices are targeted in the hiring practice category. The ***hiring practices means subscale*** is scored by adding Q28-Q30 and dividing by three. The ***promotion practice means subscale*** focuses on the perceptions concerning promotions in the workplace. This subscale is scored by adding Q31-Q33 and dividing by three. The common theme for the ***training and development category*** focuses on the amount and type of training and help offered to organizational employees. The actual list of programs and opportunities are not the issue, rather, it is the employees' perceptions of what is available that is of interest. The ***training and development means subscale*** is scored by adding Q34-Q36 and dividing by three.

In the ***equity and fairness category***, the issue is equality both in organizational policy and regard for different individuals. This category is scored by adding Q37-Q39 and dividing by three. The general sense of fairness and respect with which the organization treats minorities and/or women is the focus.

Judgments of performance, daily conduct and immersion in the communication network is specified. Overall, these statements address how women and/or minorities are valued in the organization and the degree to which the organization addresses issues of importance to them. The category of ***visible commitment*** indicates that there should be clear and concrete signs that the corporation values minorities and/or women. Indications in the subcategories are that this commitment should be visible and tangible (not merely verbal). This subscale is scored by adding Q40-Q42 and then dividing by three. ***Politics in the workplace subscale*** deals specifically with the perceptions that acts (or attitudes) of favoritism are or are not operating in the organization. This subscale is scored by adding Q43-Q46. The overall ***gender perception means score*** is computed by adding the scores of all of the items, Q25-Q46, and dividing by 22.

Section three, ethnicity, pertains to how minorities are treated within the organization. The subscales of this section are the same as those that were used to determine how women are treated in the organization; diversity climate, hiring practices, promotion practices, training and development, equity and fairness, visible commitment, and politics in the workplace. However, the common theme throughout this section is assessing any aspect of ethnic diversity in the organization that promotes or hinders the progress of minorities.

The ***diversity climate means subscale*** is scored by adding Q47-Q50 and dividing the total sum by four. The ***hiring practices means subscale*** is scored by adding Q51-Q53 and dividing the total sum by three. The ***promotion***

practices means subscale is scored by adding Q54-Q56 and dividing the total sum by three. The ***training and development means subscale*** is scored by adding Q57-Q59 and dividing the total sum by three. The ***equity and fairness means subscale*** is scored by adding Q60-Q62 and dividing the total sum by three. The ***visible commitment means subscale*** is scored by adding Q63-Q65 and dividing the total sum by three. The ***politics in the workplace means subscale*** is scored by adding Q66-Q69 and then dividing the total sum by four. The **overall ethnicity perception means score** is computed by adding all of the scores of this dimension, Q47-Q69, and then dividing the total scores by 23.

Sections four through eight are the shorter subscales of the instrument and each section contains only three statements for the employee to evaluate his/her reaction. Section four deals with the perceptions that attitudes, treatment, and awareness of **age** differences among employees are or are not operating within the organization. This dimension on age is scored by adding Q70-Q72 and then dividing the total sum by three. Section five pertains to the perceptions concerning **physical ability**. Perceptions about physical ability are explored to assess favoritism, fair treatment, and the needs and values of physically challenged employees. This dimension is scored by adding Q73-Q75 and then dividing the total sum by three. Perceptions about **sexual orientation** are the focus of section six. This dimension is scored by adding Q76-Q78 and then dividing the total sum by three. The common theme within this dimension seeks to find out if favoritism exists based on one's sexual orientation, if fair

treatment of all employees exists, and if there is an awareness of the needs and values of employees with alternative sexual orientations.

The last sections of the instrument pertain to **job level** (section seven) and **domestic versus international employees** (section eight). Job level statements deal specifically with the perceptions of whether or not favoritism is operating about job levels in the organization. The job level dimension is scored by adding Q79-Q81 and then dividing the total score by three. The domestic versus international employee dimension assesses whether there is an awareness of the customs, cultures, and values of international employees who work in the organization. This dimension is scored by adding Q82-Q84 and then dividing the total sum by three.

Demographic data and job level will be obtained to describe the characteristics of the population to be studied and to test the hypotheses pertaining to the study. However, some of the variables may not be used for group comparisons due to small sizes, such as the physically disabled and the international group. Other groups, such as the Asian and Hispanic (non-White) groups, may also be combined with other ethnic groups for comparison to the ethnic majority group (White Americans).

Appearance of the questionnaire

Fox, Crask, and Kim (1988) conducted a meta-analysis of experimental studies that examined ten different factors believed to influence response rates to mail surveys. Their findings were that the estimated effect sizes for six of the nine factors examined were statistically significant. University sponsorship,

prenotification by letter, stamped return postage, postcard follow-up, first-class outgoing postage, and the questionnaire color, all successfully increased the response rates. In the studies reviewed, one intent was to determine whether the attention-grabbing effect of a colored questionnaire, as opposed to a white one, would stimulate a higher response rate. In eight of the ten experiments reported, the response rate was higher for the green questionnaire. The range of effects varied from a decrease in response rates of 5.6 percent when a green questionnaire was used to an increase of 9.1 percent. The meta-analysis revealed an overall significant increase in response rate associated with a green questionnaire.

In this study, a yellow questionnaire was used. In this organization the color yellow is often used as a highlighter to point out information that is important and to gain immediate attention. The standard answer sheet, Form 6703 by the National Computer Systems, was green and white.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data was collected from a six question form that was placed on the front of the Diversity Survey Instrument for those who wished to make written comments. These questions related to how the organization handled issues related to the following categories: age, physical ability, sexual orientation, job level, gender, and ethnicity. Qualitative data was also collected from a sheet that asked, "Are there any other questions that we should have asked you?" A qualitative analysis of survey responses to the open-ended questions was conducted to uncover emerging categories of diversity issues

because it was important to assess what the important factors were through the perceptions of the employees in the organization (Brinkman, 1992).

The following steps in this procedure, as stated by Fink (1995), Glesne and Peshkin (1992), and Wolcott (1990) were used to analyze the data from the open-ended questions;

1. After having read all of the responses, the first step was to categorize and code the responses.
2. The next step was to match the codes and responses.
3. To make sure that the codes were assigned correctly, the reliability was established by the procedure being done by another reviewer. The reviewer was a researcher with a doctoral degree. This person was not a participant in the study.
4. Once reliability was established, the next step was to count the number of responses for each code.
5. Then the number of persons whose answers were assigned to each code was counted.
6. Finally, the percentage of responses assigned to each code was calculated.

Changes to the Survey Method Based upon Findings From Pilot Study or Findings of Additional Facts

Two questions were added to the Demographic Data—"U. S. citizen" and "Directorate Assigned." A subscale from the original survey was included—"Domestic versus International." These additions were made when it was discovered that there were active duty personnel from foreign countries at the

hospital. Eighty-six persons did not list a home of record. The open-ended responses were placed at the front of the survey instrument due to the results of the pilot study. During the pilot study, one-half of the total number of survey questionnaires had the sheet with the open-ended responses placed on the front of the survey questionnaire (Form A) and the remaining one half of the total number of survey questionnaires had the open-ended response sheet placed on the back of the questionnaire (Form B). A larger percentage of participants answered Form A where open ended questions were placed at the beginning. A category of "Mormon" was added to the selection for religion based on a participant's request to have the category added. "Years of Employment" on the demographic sheet was changed to "Years at (name of the medical center)" to denote specified years of employment at the present site.

Also, persons used for data collection were not hospital employees, nor were they employed in the health care field. The role of the data collectors was to make every effort to hand deliver survey packets to the staff. If staff, such as physicians, were unable to be personally contacted, then their secretary was given the packet for them, and the data collector noted to whom the packet was given. The same procedure applied to the pick-up of surveys by data collectors.

SURVEY ADMINISTRATION

Recent research on survey design

This study used a method described by Babbie (1990, 1995) of keeping the survey anonymous in the hope of encouraging more candid responses to some sensitive questions. This method involved the use of a special postcard

method for a mail survey. Each person selected to participate in this study was mailed a questionnaire that carried **no identifying marks**, plus a postcard addressed to the research office with one of the person's mailing labels affixed to the reverse side of the card. The introductory letter asked the person to complete and return the questionnaire—assuring anonymity—and to return the postcard simultaneously by a different route. Receiving the postcard would tell the researcher that the person had returned the questionnaire—without indicating whose questionnaire it is. If a questionnaire and the postcard with the respondent's name on the card are returned together, the two items will be immediately separated to assure anonymity of the respondent's reply.

Babbie (1995) stated that some recent experimentation has been conducted with regard to the home delivery of questionnaires. He further stated that when a research worker either delivers the questionnaires, picks it up, or both, the completion rate seems higher than for straightforward mail surveys. Mangione, Hingson, and Barrett (1982) conducted a study to compare three survey strategies for collecting sensitive data and found that the method of a drop-off/pick-up, self administered questionnaire had the potential of producing higher quality information at costs comparable to in-person interviewing.

A modification of the models by Dillman (1978) and Babbie (1990, 1995) for survey studies will be carried out in this study. Since identifiers on the questionnaires will not be used, a method of using data collectors and a yellow 3x5 card with a preaddressed label will be used instead.

Data collectors for this study were paid personnel who assisted the researcher by distributing and collecting the questionnaires to all employees of the hospital as of July 1, 1996. The data collectors maintained a record of the names of the persons who are given a questionnaire and the names of the persons from whom the collectors receive a questionnaire. The data collectors were trained by the researcher on the procedure, maintenance of security of the questionnaires, and given a script for answering questions about the study. The researcher met with the data collectors as needed and maintained frequent communication with the data collectors during the weeks of data collection. The data collectors worked in a group due to the volume of surveys to be distributed. For the convenience of the staff, the data collectors were trained to collect the questionnaires in the work areas at scheduled times in order that staff would not have to leave the work areas to return the questionnaires.

The introductory letter, the questionnaire, the directions sheet, the answer sheet, the 3x5 card with the respondent's name on it, a 9X12 envelope (for the return of the questionnaire and answer sheet) and a sharpened pencil were placed inside an interoffice U. S. government messenger envelope (commonly called a guard mail envelope) that was addressed to each person selected to participate in the study. Using guard mail was a very common, day to day practice within this organization for communication. The label (with the respondent's name) on the guard mail envelope was a removable label that the respondent could discard. The guard mail envelope was addressed to be returned to the researcher. Then, the 3x5 card with the name of the

respondent, could be placed in the same U. S. government messenger envelope that the respondent received the materials for the study, and then returned to the researcher.

To maintain anonymity, participants returned the questionnaire, and the answer sheet with no identifiers to the data collector in a **sealed** envelope. The sealed envelope was returned to the researcher with the seal unbroken and the word "sealed" handwritten by the respondent across the flap. The 3x5 card with the respondent's name was mailed to the researcher in the guard mail envelope. The data collector maintained a roster of all the staff in his or her area, and noted the individuals who had been given a questionnaire, as well as individuals who returned the completed questionnaires. The number of questionnaires returned were compared to the number of 3X5 cards returned.

Response rate and follow up

The researcher provided the data collectors with a list of persons who had not responded based on the mailed 3x5 cards received within two weeks after the delivery of the survey packet. The researcher then supplied the data collectors with another packet for the respondents if it was needed. A follow up request by either a memorandum and/or telephone call to persons who did not respond within a two week period was done to enhance participation. Electronic mail was used as necessary for those staff members who had access. Another copy of the entire survey packet was sent to all nonrespondents at the medical center 19 days later.

The methodological literature on follow-up mailings strongly suggested that it was an effective method for increasing return rates in mail surveys (Babbie, 1990; Babbie, 1995; Fink and Kosecoff, 1985; Fowler, 1993; Fox, Crask, and Kim, 1988; Kalton, 1983). The entire time frame for data collecting was about two months. An acceptable return response rate varies according to different authors who wrote the standard. Fink (1995) stated that no single response rate is considered the standard. There is no agreed upon standard for a minimum acceptable response rate (Fowler, 1993). Kalton (1983) stated that response rates in mail surveys are extremely varied, ranging from as low as ten percent to over 90 percent.

A response bias analysis was conducted to find out if the nonrespondents were different from the respondents. The cause for concern about nonresponse was the risk that nonrespondents differed from respondents with regard to the survey variables (Kalton, 1983). For example, if the sample population had been composed of men and women, but only the women responded to the survey, then the survey estimates based on the women respondents would be biased estimates of the overall population. It was helpful to know the composition of the population being surveyed prior to the actual distribution of the survey. The knowledge of the composition of the population was used for comparison purposes in response bias analysis. In other words, this knowledge of the population served as a point of reference to allow for checking to see that all representatives of the population were included in the study.

Protection of Human Rights

In this study the risks were minimal, namely, the 20 minutes of time needed to complete the survey. A person may have experienced minimal mental discomfort if a question about a dimension in the workplace was one that he or she was uncomfortable about answering. This was considered minimal risk. The benefits included that the person's participation may have provided insight into the perceptions of health care personnel toward diversity at this medical center. Results of the study have significance for policy making and/or training for the staff.

Participation in this study was voluntary, and the participant's completion of this survey denoted his or her consent to participate in this study. A cover letter to each potential participant stated that the person would not be adversely affected if he or she did not participate in the study. All of the participants' responses were handled as sensitive data. Returned surveys were kept under lock and key at all times. Anonymity was guaranteed since no identifiers (no numbers or codes on the questionnaires) were used for identification of who completed the survey. All individual responses were entirely confidential. All results were reported as a group only. Anonymity of a participant's responses was maintained by the participant placing the completed survey in an envelope, sealing the envelope, and writing the word, "sealed" across the flap prior to giving the sealed envelope to a data collector who had been instructed to give the unopened envelope to the researcher.

The results of the study were available to participants upon request to the researcher. The method for accessing these results were outlined in the cover letter of the survey packet. The researcher and the dissertation chairperson's telephone number and e-mail numbers were listed on the cover letter to each potential participant.

The Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to test the instrument used in the study and to review the entire procedure for the full study. See **Appendix A** for the results of the pilot study.

Proposed Statistical Analysis

All statistical analysis were performed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). Descriptive statistics (frequencies, means, standard deviations, and mode) were calculated for all the variables used in the Diversity Survey Instrument. Tests of the hypotheses were done with the appropriate statistical method. If the grouping variable (e. g., gender), was dichotomous and if the dependent variable was normally distributed for an independent sample, t-tests, were used. (Munro and Page, 1995). If the dependent variable was not normally distributed, the Mann-Whitney U test was to be used instead of a t-test (Daniel, 1995). A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) or n-way of analysis was to be used for testing differences between groups when the grouping variable had three or more categories and the other variable was interval and normally distributed (Munro and Page, 1993). However, if the distribution was

not normally distributed, a non-parametric analogous test such as the Kruskal-Wallis H-test was to be used instead (Daniel, 1995).

If the distribution were normal, multiple regression was another test to be used to allow assessment of the relative contribution of each independent variable toward predicting the dependent variable (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1995). Cross tabs were used to compare the percentage of different groups' unsatisfactory ratings of the various climate scores (Munro and Page, 1993). **Table 7** outlines the statistical plan.

Table 7

Original Statistical Analysis Plan

SECTION NAME	HYPOTHESES- PERCEPTIONS	STATISTICS
1. Organizational Climate (OC)	1A. Whites more + than non-Whites.	Directional T-test
	1B. Males more + than females.	Directional T-test
	1C. Managers more + than non-managers.	Directional T-test
	1D. E1-E3 women + than E1-E3 men.	Directional T-test
	1E. Members of different directorates will differ toward perceptions of OC.	ANOVA
	1F. Differences bet. Length employ, & percep. OC.	ANOVA
Multivariate Hypothesis	Job personnel level strongest predictor than ethnicity or gender.	Multiple Linear Regression

2. Ethnicity climate	2A. W. (non-Hispanics) more + than minorities.	Directional T-test
	2B. Afr. Am. more (-) than other minority groups.	Directional T-test
Multivariate Hypothesis	Ethnicity strongest predictor than gender or job level.	Multiple Linear Regression
3. Gender climate	3A. Men more + than women.	Directional T-test
	3B. White women more + than minority women.	Directional T-test
	3C. Female off. More + than elist. Or civil ser. women.	Directional T-test
	3D. Women in manage. More + than women not.	Directional T-test
Multivariate Hypothesis	Job level is the strongest predictor than ethnicity or gender.	Multiple Linear Regression

SECTION NAME	HYPOTHESES- PERCEPTIONS	STATISTICS
4. Age climate	4A. Workers younger than 50 more + than workers < 50.	Directional T-test
Multivariate hypothesis	4B. Whites more + than minorities.	Directional T-test
	Persons younger than 50 years old stronger predictor than ethnicity, gender, or job level.	Multiple Linear Regression
	5. Physical Ability climate	5A. Management perceps more (+) toward empl. w/disability.
	5B. Workers <52 more + than Workers >52.	Directional T-test
	5C. Whites more + than non-Whites.	Directional T-test

<p>7. Job level climate</p>	<p>7A. Mang-staff more + than non-mang.</p> <p>7B. Men more + than women.</p> <p>7C. Whites more + than non-Whites</p>	<p>Directional T-test</p> <p>Directional T-test</p> <p>Directional T-test</p>
<p>Multivariate Hypothesis</p>	<p>Gender will be the stronger predictor when ethnicity, and job level are examined.</p>	<p>Multiple Linear Regression</p>

Survey Initial Results

A total of 3,176 eligible health care personnel comprised the invited sample of this study from one of the Navy's largest medical facilities on the east coast of the United States. Just the medical center itself was chosen for the study and none of the branch clinics were used. The results of the population description (demographic data) obtained are presented in **Table 8**. Participants are 37% minorities, 57% female, 25% officer, 30% enlisted, 45% civilian, and 24% managers. A total of 1,419 persons responded but only 1,252 responses were useable. The total number of participants in the study is 1,252 persons. The response rate was 40%.

Table 8
Full Study Population Description (N=1252)

Ethnicity	N	%
Native American	33	2.6
Asian American	87	7.0
African American	254	20.3
Hispanic American	47	3.8
White American	781	63
Biracial or Multiracial	19	1.5
Other/Unknown	22	1.8
Gender	N	%
Female	707	56.7
Male	540	43.3
Age	N	%
18-24	172	13.8
25-31	223	17.9
32-38	302	24.2
39-45	240	19.2
46-52	200	16.0
53-59	83	6.7
60-66	25	2.0

67-73	3	0.2
Language		
English	1173	95.3
Other	58	4.7
Physical Ability		
Not differently abled	1202	96.5
Differently abled	44	3.5
Religion		
Catholic	336	27.0
Protestant	659	53.0
Jewish	13	0.9
Mormon	17	1.4
Muslim	9	.7
Buddhist	5	.4
Other	108	8.6
None	98	8

The breakdown of responses by the various directorates of the medical center is illustrated in **Table 9**. The results of the Diversity Survey testing for reliability of the scales are shown in **Table 10**.

Table 9

RESPONSE BIAS ANALYSIS REPORT

Directorate	Total	Ineligible	Total Minus Ineligible	'R' As of January 30, 1997	R %	#1 Refusal
Administration	662	14	648	259	39%	13 (2%)
Nursing	701	18	683	288	41%	25 (4%)
Medical Serv	440	18	422	206	47%	16 (4%)
Surgical Serv	499	16	483	108	22%	03 (0%)
Commander	222	1	221	084	38%	07 (3%)
Resources	076	1	75	049	64%	04 (5%)
Ancillary	477	12	465	198	42%	11 (2%)
EnvironHealth	072	0	72	049	68%	04 (5%)
Managed	009	0	9	003	33%	01 (1%)
Care						
Pastoral Care	018	0	18	008	44%	00 (0%)
TOTAL	3176	80	3096	1252	A=44%	108

A=average

Table 10
Cronbach Coefficient Alpha

Scale	Standardized Item Alpha	Alpha
1. Organization climate	.8948	.8931
2. Gender Climate	.9266	.9249
3. Ethnicity Climate	.9480	.9468
4. Age Climate	.6037	.6032
5. Physical ability Climate	.6661	.6600
6. Sexual Orientation Climate	.6917	.6920
7. Job Level Climate	.7579	.7575

Chapter IV

RESULTS

An Overview of the Results

Participants' responses to the individual question items of the Diversity Survey, that is composed of 70 items, are presented in **Appendix B**. The Diversity Survey questionnaire contains eight sections that measures the participants' responses to perceptions about the organizational climate, the gender climate, the ethnicity climate, the age climate, the physical ability climate, sexual orientation, the job level climate, and the national origin climate. The survey packet received by the respondents is shown in **Appendix C**.

Results of the data analysis for this study are presented in this chapter. The alpha level set for all hypotheses for this study was a .01 level of significance. The theory of embedded groups in organizations is partially supported in that there are statistically, although weak, significant differences in the perceptions of people about their workplace based on gender, ethnicity, and job level (paygrade or personnel type).

In this section, the information will be presented for each of the scales that measure different aspects of the social climate (organizational climate, gender climate, ethnicity climate, age climate, physical ability climate, sexual orientation climate, and job level climate): a description of the climate, bivariate group differences of the climate, multiple group comparisons of the climate, the multivariate hypotheses as well as the multiple regression model for the climate.

A cross tab analysis was used to determine the relationship of holding unfavorable perceptions about the various climates to the independent variables used in the study. Each dependent variable (the various climates) was dichotomized into favorable and unfavorable perceptions by using the Likert scale scores of the Diversity Survey instrument in the following manner: (1) 0.00-3.00 scores are considered unfavorable and (2) 3.01-6.00 scores are considered favorable scores of the climate.

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The description of the organizational climate

This section, organizational climate, focused on perceptions of the degree to which the organization values its people and displays programs and opportunities for progression within the organization. As **Table 11** shows, the mean rating of the organization climate was 3.59 (SD=.991) with 28 percent rating the climate as unfavorable. The following organization climate scale items received unfavorable ratings from a substantial percent of study participants: (1) 40 percent do not agree that the organization is doing an excellent job addressing issues, (2) 42 percent do not agree that there are opportunities for growth and development, (3) 41 percent have unfavorable perceptions regarding the organization actively planning for the promotion of women, (4) 45 percent have unfavorable perceptions regarding hearing offensive remarks about women, (5) 45 percent have unfavorable perceptions about training and development programs meeting their needs, and (6) 81 percent have unfavorable perceptions pertaining to some being given preferential treatment.

Table 11
Mean, Standard Deviation, and Percentage of Unfavorable Rating of the
Scales

Scales	Mean (SD)	% Rate Unfavorable
Organizational climate	3.59 (.991)	28
Gender climate	3.99 (.868)	13
Ethnicity climate	4.04 (.950)	16
Age climate	4.10 (.996)	16
Physical ability climate	4.83 (2.94)	16
Sexual orientation climate	3.38 (1.27)	40
Job level climate	3.12 (1.20)	51

Organizational climate bivariate group differences

Hypothesis 1

Table 12 lists the results of all t-tests conducted for **hypothesis 1a** through **hypothesis 1h**. *The mean scores are shown in the tables under M(sd)*. **Tables 13 and 14** lists Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) summary comparison of lengths of employment and personnel levels for **hypothesis 1i** and **hypothesis 1j**. The bivariate analysis supported hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, 1f, and 1g. **Hypothesis 1a** is supported in that Whites have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.68) toward organizational climate than non-Whites (mean score=3.43). Thirty one percent of non-Whites have unfavorable perceptions of the organizational climate as compared to 26 percent of Whites, however, this is not statistically significant. **Hypothesis 1b** is supported in that males have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.72) about organizational climate than females (mean score=3.49). Thirty-one percent of females have unfavorable perceptions of the organizational climate as compared to males. **Hypothesis 1c** is supported in that managers have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.89) toward organizational climate than non-managers (mean score=3.50). Eighteen percent of managers have unfavorable perceptions of the organizational climate as compared to 30 percent of non-managers. **Hypothesis 1d** is not supported because Protestants do not have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.54) about organizational climate than non-Protestants (mean score=3.66). Twenty-six

Table 12
Comparisons for Perceptions of the Mean Organizational Climate Scores

Hypotheses	Variables	n	M (SD)	p	Pearson- χ^2	Unfavorable	
						a	b
1a Whites more favorable than non-White	Non-White	460	3.43 (.963)	.000		.04	31
	White	779	3.68 (.997)				26
1b Males more favorable than females	Females	704	3.49 (.997)	.000		.004	31
	Males	539	3.72 (.966)				23
1c Managers more favorable than non-managers	Manager	294	3.89 (.926)	.000		.000	18
	N-manager	947	3.50 (.990)				30
1d Protestants more favorable than N-Protestants	N-	582	3.66 (.970)	.041		.32	26
	Protestant	658	3.54 (.999)				28
	Protestant						
1e Majority religions more favorable than minority	Maj.religi	993	3.66 (.977)	.161		.39	27
	Min. relig	247	3.54 (1.02)				29
1f Non-clinical more favorable than clinical directorate	N cli dir	461	3.45 (1.04)	.000		.000	35
	Cli dir	786	3.66 (.956)				24
1g High pay staff more favorable than low pay	L pay	672	3.43 (.981)	.000		.000	33
	H pay	573	3.77 (.973)				22
1h Younger than or equal to 52 more favorable	Age \leq 52	1135	3.59 (.987)	.899		.47	27
	Age \geq 53	109	3.60 (1.03)				31

$\alpha=.01$

a. p-value for t value

b. p-value for Pearson χ^2

c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

Table 13
Summary Table for Comparisons of Perceptions of the Mean Organization
Climate Scores by Years of Employment
Hypothesis 1i

Source	N	M (SD)	P value	F ratio	Pearson χ^2	
					a	b
Group 1 (0-6 yrs)	926	3.63 (.972)	.0460	3.09	.028	26
Group 2 (7-13 yrs)	208	3.48 (1.05)				33
Group 3 (14-41 Yrs)	111	3.45 (1.02)				34

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value of F-test (ANOVA)
- b. p-value of Pearson's χ^2
- c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

Table 14
Summary Table for Comparison of Perceptions of the Mean Organizational
Climate Score by Personnel (Civilians, Enlisted, or Officers)
Hypothesis 1j

Source	N	M (SD)	p value	F ratio	Pearson χ^2	% Unfavorable
				a	b	c
Civilians	550	3.33 (1.05)	.000	39.9	.000	39
Enlisted	379	3.67 (.886)				21
Officers	316	3.92 (.885)				16

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value of F-test
- b. p-value of χ^2 test
- c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

percent of non-Protestants have unfavorable perceptions of the organizational climate as compared to Protestants. **Hypothesis 1e** is not supported in that there is not a significant difference in the perceptions of majority religious groups (mean score=3.66) and minority religious groups (mean score=3.54) to the organizational climate. Twenty-seven percent of the majority religion groups have unfavorable perceptions of the organizational climate as compared to 29 percent of the minority religion groups. **Hypothesis 1f** is not supported because staff members in non-clinical directorates did not have more favorable perceptions as hypothesized. In fact, staff members perceptions in the clinical areas had significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.45) of the organizational climate than those members in non-clinical directorates (mean score=3.66). Thirty five percent of the non-clinical directorate group have unfavorable perceptions of the organizational climate as compared to 24 percent of the clinical directorate group. **Hypothesis 1g** is supported because staff members in higher paygrades had more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.77) toward the organization climate than those in lower paygrades (mean score=3.43). Thirty three percent of employees in the lower two paygrades had unfavorable perceptions of the organizational climate as compared to 22 percent of the two higher paygrade groups. **Hypothesis 1h** is not supported because there are no significant differences between the perceptions of persons 52 years of age or younger (mean score=3.59) and those older than 52 years of age regarding the organizational climate (mean

score=3.60). Twenty seven percent of employees younger than age 52 had unfavorable perceptions of the organizational climate as compared to 31 percent of those equal to or greater than age 53.

Multiple group comparisons

In order to test **hypotheses 1i and 1j**, ANOVAs and Chi square tests were performed. **Hypothesis 1i** is not supported because it was found that staff members with the longest length of employment (mean score=3.45), when compared to those with shorter lengths of employment (mean score=3.63), did not have more favorable perceptions toward the organizational climate. This hypothesis was significant and reversed. Twenty six percent of staff employees whose length of employment was from 0-6 years have unfavorable perceptions of the organizational climate as compared to 33 percent of employees whose length of employment is from seven to 13 years; and as compared to 34 percent of employees whose length of employment is from 14 to 41 years. **Hypothesis 1j** is supported because a Scheffe test revealed that officers (mean score=3.92), enlisted (mean score=3.67), and civilians (mean score=3.33) differed significantly in their perceptions toward the organizational climate. Thirty nine percent of civilians have unfavorable perceptions of the organizational climate as compared to 21 percent of the enlisted and 16 percent of the officers. Civilians had less favorable perceptions when compared to the officers or enlisted personnel, and officers had the more favorable perceptions of the organizational climate.

The multivariate hypothesis for the organizational climate

Nine independent variables (personnel type, paygrade, ethnicity, gender, age, length of employment, religion, management level, and directorate assigned) were regressed on the dependent variable, organizational climate. This multiple regression model is significant, but not a strong model since only eight percent of the observed variability in organizational climate is explained by the nine independent variables. The multiple regression model was built upon the variables used in the bivariate analyses. However, although non-significant in the bivariate analysis, some of the variables, such as religion, were tested since there is a lack of knowledge in the literature of the role of this variable in the diversity climate assessment. Prior to multiple regression analysis, assessment of all of the independent variables for multicollinearity using Spearman Rho correlation was found to be nonexistent. After the regression model was built, an analysis of the residuals of all of the models in this study was performed to confirm that the model's assumptions were not violated.

Table 15 lists the variables that are significantly associated with organizational climate in the multivariate model for organizational climate; personnel type, ethnicity, and management level. Furthermore, this model provides support for only hypotheses 1a, 1c, and 1j. When all factors are considered, the relationship between organizational climate and gender (hypothesis 1b), religious group (hypothesis 1d), majority/minority religious group (hypothesis 1e), directorate type (hypothesis 1f), paygrade (hypothesis 1g) and

Table 15
A Multiple Regression Model of the Perceptions of Organizational Climate
N=1252

Predictors	B (SE)	Adjusted β	t-value	p-value
Personnel level				
a. Civil	-.344 (.099)	-.174	-3.477	.001
b. Enlisted	9.793E-02(.124)	.046	.790	.429
c. Officer	(Reference)			
Ethnicity				
a. Other ethnic minorities	-6.41E-02(.078)	-.024	-.823	.411
b. African Am	-.200 (.075)	-.082	-2.683	.007
c. White Americans	(Reference)			
Management level				
a. Non-managers	.238 (.075)	.099	3.042	.002
b. Manager	(Reference)			

$\alpha=.01$

Adjusted R squared=.09

Sig of F-statistic=.000

This model also controls for paygrade, gender, age, length of employment, religion, and directorate, although they were not significantly associated with the dependent variable (organizational climate) in this model.

age (hypothesis 1h), became non-significant in the multiple regression model when all factors were examined together.

The **multivariate hypothesis for organizational climate** is supported because it was predicted that **job level** (whether officer, enlisted, or civilian) would be the strongest predictor of organizational climate when examined with the other independent variables in the same multiple regression model.

The Gender Climate

The description of the gender climate

Perceptions about gender climate pertain to how women are treated in the workplace. Table 11 shows the mean rating of gender climate is 3.99 (SD=.868), with 13 percent rating it as unfavorable. The following gender climate items received especially low ratings as follows: (1) 41 percent disagreed that the organization actively plans for promotion of women (2) 45 percent disagreed with the statement that offensive remarks are not heard about women, (3) 44 percent agreed that more should be done to recruit women, 57 percent agreed that there is a need to develop programs for women, and 52 percent agreed that more women are needed at the top.

Gender climate bivariate group differences

Table 16 presents the data analysis results of hypothesis 2a through 2i. Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 2c, and 2g are supported by the bivariate analyses of the gender climate. **Hypothesis 2a** is supported in that males have statistically significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.33) than females (mean

Table 16
Comparisons for Perceptions of the Mean Gender Climate Scores

Hypothesis 2

Hypotheses	Variable	n	M (SD)	p	Pearson χ^2		% Unfavorable
					a	b	
2a Males more favorable than females	female	704	3.71 (.856)	.000	.000		20
	male	539	4.33 (.741)				4
2b Whites more favorable than non-whites	N-White	460	3.78 (.838)	.000	.007		16
	White	779	4.10 (.861)				11
2c High pay more favorable than low pay	Low pay	672	3.83 (.838)	.000	.004		16
	High pay	573	4.15 (.873)				10
2d Managers more favorable than non-managers	Manager	294	4.12 (.914)	.001	.136		11
	N-manager	947	3.94 (.849)				14
2e Majority religions more favorable than minority	Maj Relig	993	3.99 (.876)	.738	.462		13
	Min religion	247	3.97 (.807)				11
2f Protestants more favorable than N-Protestants	N-Protest	582	4.03 (.806)	.100	.004		10
	Protest	658	3.95 (.907)				15
2g Non-clinical more favorable than clinical directorate	NC-	421	3.86 (.925)	.001	.001		18
	Direct	817	4.04 (.833)				11
2h White females more favorable than non-White females	N-White	275	3.59 (.814)	.003	.194		22
	White	425	3.79 (.877)				18
2i Female managers more favorable than non-female managers	Manager	145	3.71 (.890)	.917	.681		19
	N-Manager	555	3.70 (.849)				20

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value for t-statistic
b. p-value of χ^2 test
c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

score=3.71). Four percent of the males have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to 20 percent of the females. Whites have more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.10) about the gender climate than non-Whites (mean score=3.78) and **hypothesis 2b** is supported. Sixteen percent of non-Whites have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to 11 percent of Whites, **Hypothesis 2c** is supported because staff members in higher paygrades have more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.15) than those members in lower paygrades (mean score=3.83). Sixteen percent of staff members in the lower paygrades have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to ten percent of staff in the higher paygrades. Managers do have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.12) about the gender climate than non-managers (mean score=3.94); therefore, **hypothesis 2d** is somewhat supported. Eleven percent of managers have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to 14 percent of the non-managers; however, this is not a significant difference. **Hypothesis 2e** is not supported. It was found that there is no significant difference in the perceptions (mean score=3.99) of majority (Protestants and Catholics) versus minority (mean score=3.97) religious groups (all other religious groups) about the gender climate. Thirteen percent of the majority religious groups have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to 11 percent of the minority religious groups. **Hypothesis 2f** is not supported because there is not a significant difference in the perceptions of Protestants (mean score=3.95) and non-Protestants (mean score=4.03) religious groups toward the gender climate.

Ten percent of Protestants have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to 15 percent of non-Protestants, and this difference is significant.

Hypothesis 2g is supported because there is a significant difference between the perceptions of staff working in non-clinical (mean score=3.86) and clinical directorates (mean score=4.04). Eighteen percent of those staff members working in non-clinical directorates have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to 11 percent of those working in clinical directorates.

Hypothesis 2h is somewhat supported because there is a significant difference between White women (mean score=3.79) and non-White women's perceptions (mean score=3.59) regarding the gender climate. Twenty two percent of non-White women have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to 18 percent of the White women, but this difference is not significant.

Hypothesis 2i is not supported in that there is no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of women in management (mean score=3.71) and women in non-management positions (mean score=3.70). Nineteen percent of female managers have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to 20 percent of female non-managers.

Multiple group comparisons

Table 17 lists the results of **hypothesis 2j** and **Table 18** lists the results of **hypothesis 2k**. **Hypothesis 2j** is supported in that officers have more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.27) than enlisted (mean score=4.08) or civilian personnel (mean score=3.74). A Scheffe test performed revealed that the perceptions of officers, enlisted personnel, and civilian personnel all differed

Table 17
Summary Table for Comparisons of Perceptions Toward the Gender
Climate Scores in the Workplace by Personnel Type
Hypothesis 2j

Source	N	M (SD)	p value	F ratio	% Unfavorable	Pearson χ^2
				a	b	c
Civilian	550	3.74 (.908)	.000	42.6	21	.000
Enlisted	379	4.08 (.742)			7	
Officers	316	4.27 (.831)			8	

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value of F-test (ANOVA)
- b. p-value of χ^2 test
- c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

Table 18

**Summary Table for Comparisons of *Female Perceptions* Toward the Mean
Gender Climate Scores in the Workplace by Personnel Type**

Hypothesis 2k

Source	N	M (SD)	p value	F ratio	Pearson χ^2	% Unfavorable
				a	b	c
Civilians	418	3.60 (.882)	.0001	9.67	.003	24
Enlisted	150	3.82 (.709)				13
Officers	135	3.94 (.872)				15

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value of F-test (ANOVA)
- b. p-value of χ^2 test
- c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

significantly regarding gender climate. Twenty one percent of the civilian staff have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to seven percent of the enlisted staff and eight percent of the officer staff. **Hypothesis 2k** is supported in that *female officers* have significantly statistically more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.94) about the gender climate than *enlisted women* (mean score=3.82) or *civil service women* (mean score=3.60) when an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed. According to a Scheffe test, the gender perceptions of the female officer, the female enlisted, and the female civilian employee significantly differed. Twenty four percent of female civilians have unfavorable perceptions of the gender climate as compared to 13 percent of the female enlisted staff and 15 percent of the female officer staff.

The multivariate hypothesis for gender climate

Nineteen percent of the observed variability in gender climate is explained by the nine variables. Only hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c are supported. The other hypotheses are ultimately not supported since significant relationships disappear when other factors are controlled. The following variables in the gender model are significantly associated with the gender climate: ethnicity, paygrade, age, and gender, as listed in **Table 19**. The **multivariate hypothesis for gender climate** is not supported in that gender is the strongest explanation of how women perceive they are treated in the organization, instead of job level. Job level (paygrade and personnel type) is a factor, but not the strongest one. This model is significant, and a fairly moderate multiple regression model for explaining the gender climate.

Table 19
A Multiple Regression Model of the Perceptions of Gender Climate
N=1252

Predictors	B (SE)	Adjusted β	t-value	p-value
1. Ethnicity				
a. <i>Other minorities</i>	-8.8E02(.064)	-.038	-1.387	.166
b. <i>African Americans</i>	-.298 (.061)	-.139	-4.850	.000
c. <i>White Americans</i>	(reference)			
2. Paygrade	.154 (.043)	.180	3.618	.000
3. Gender	-.565 (.049)	-.325	-11.430	.000
4. Age	-5.50E02 (.021)	-.100	-2.610	.009

Adjusted R^2 =.19

α =.01

Sig of F statistic=.000

This model also controls for personnel type (officer, enlisted , or civilian), directorate assigned, religion, manager, and length of employment, although these were not significantly associated with the dependent variable in this model.

THE ETHNICITY CLIMATE

The description of the ethnicity climate

The ethnicity climate is the perception of how various ethnic groups (minorities) are treated in the workplace. As Table 11 shows, the overall mean score on this scale was 4.04 (SD=4.04) and the percentage of unfavorable ratings was 16 percent. The following ethnicity climate scale items received particularly unfavorable ratings: (1) 40 percent agreed that more should be done to recruit minorities, (2) 46 percent agreed that there is a need for more effective programs for minorities, and (3) 55 percent agreed that more minorities are needed at the top.

Ethnicity climate bivariate group differences

Table 20 presents the results of hypothesis 3a through 3f. All of the bivariate analyses for hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3c, 3d, 3e, and 3f are supported. **Hypothesis 3a** is supported in that Whites have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.42) toward how minorities are treated than non-Whites (mean score=3.41). Thirty five percent of non-Whites have unfavorable perceptions of the ethnicity climate as compared to four percent of Whites. **Hypothesis 3b** is supported because males have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.23) than females (mean score=3.90). Nineteen percent of females have unfavorable perceptions of the ethnicity climate as compared to 11 percent of the males. **Hypothesis 3c** is supported because managers have more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.29) about the ethnicity climate than non-managers (mean score=3.97). Nine percent of

Table 20
Comparisons for Perceptions of the Mean Ethnicity Climate Scores
Hypothesis 3

Hypotheses	Variable	N	M	p	χ^2	Unfav	
						a	b
3a Whites more favorable than non-Whites	N-White	459	3.41 (.929)	.000	.000	35	
	White	774	4.42 (.732)				4
3b Males more favorable than females	Female	700	3.90 (.955)	.000	.000	19	
	Male	537	4.23 (.902)				11
3c Managers more favorable than N-managers	Managers	292	4.29 (.884)	.000	.000	9	
	N-manager	943	3.97 (.955)				18
3d High pay more favorable than low pay	Low pay	667	3.84 (.965)	.000	.000	21	
	High pay	572	4.27 (.879)				9
3e Clinical more favorable than non-clinical directorate	N Clin-Direct	417	3.93 (1.04)	.004	.000	21	
	Clin-Direct	815	4.10 (.895)				13
3f Other ethnic minorities more favorable than African Americans	Others	203	3.77 (.934)	.000	.000	22	
	African Am.	252	3.11 (.817)				45

$\alpha=.01$

a. p-value for t statistic

b. p-value for Pearson χ^2

c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

managers have unfavorable perceptions of the ethnicity climate as compared to 18 percent of the males. **Hypothesis 3d** is supported because staff members in higher paygrades have more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.27) about the ethnicity climate than those in lower paygrades (mean score=3.84). Twenty one percent of staff members in lower paygrades have unfavorable perceptions of the ethnicity climate as compared to nine percent of staff members in higher paygrades. **Hypothesis 3e** is supported because the clinical directorates have more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.10) toward the ethnicity climate than the non-clinical directorates (mean score=3.93). Twenty one percent of staff in non-clinical directorates have unfavorable perceptions of the ethnicity climate as compared to 13 percent of staff in clinical directorates. African Americans have significantly less favorable perceptions (mean score=3.11) about how minorities are treated in the workplace than any other minority group (3.77); therefore, **hypothesis 3f** is supported. Twenty two percent of all other ethnic minority groups have unfavorable perceptions of the ethnicity climate as compared to 45 percent of the African Americans.

Multiple group comparisons

Staff members with longer lengths of employment did not have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.80) than those with shorter lengths of employment (mean score=4.09); therefore, **hypothesis 3g** was not supported as presented in **Table 21**. Sixteen percent of staff members whose length of employment was from 0-6 years have unfavorable perceptions of the ethnicity climate as compared to 21 percent of those whose length of

Table 21

Summary Table for Comparison of Perceptions Toward the Mean Ethnicity

Climate Scores by Length of Employment

Hypothesis 3g

Source	N	M (SD)	p value	F ratio	Pearson χ^2	% Unfavorable
				a	b	c
1. (0-6 yrs)	922	4.09 (.903)	.002	6.30	.001	16
2. (7-13 yrs)	207	3.93 (1.06)				21
3. (14-41yrs)	110	3.80 (1.06)				25

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value of F-test (ANOVA)
- b. p-value of χ^2 test
- c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

employment is from 7-13 years and; to 25 percent of those who length of employment is from 14 to 41 years. **Table 22** shows that **Hypothesis 3h** was supported because officers (mean score=4.36) did have significantly more favorable perceptions about the ethnicity climate than enlisted personnel and the civilian personnel differed significantly. Twenty three percent of civilians have unfavorable perceptions of the ethnicity climate as compared to thirteen percent of the enlisted and seven percent of the officers.

The multivariate hypothesis for ethnicity climate

Multiple regression was used to determine which of the nine independent variables (personnel type, paygrade, ethnicity, gender, age, length of employment, religion, management level, and directorate assigned) would explain the ethnicity climate. Thirty one percent of the observed variability in ethnicity climate is explained by the nine independent variables in this model. Only hypotheses 3a and 3b are supported in this multivariate analysis. The relationships between management level, paygrade, type of directorate, and minority type become non-significant when all factors are examined together in this model. Therefore, hypotheses 3c, 3d, 3e, and 3f are not supported.

The variables that are significantly associated with ethnicity climate in the multivariate model are ethnicity and gender as shown in **Table 23**. All other factors are not ultimately significantly related to perceptions of ethnicity climate because ethnicity and gender explains the relationship. The **multivariate hypothesis for ethnicity climate** predicted that ethnicity would be the strongest

Table 22
Summary Table for Comparison of the Perceptions toward Ethnicity
Climate by Personnel Type
Hypothesis 3h

Source	N	M (SD)	p value	F ratio	Pearson χ^2	% Unfavorable
				a	b	c
Civilian	547	3.86 (1.03)	.000	29.7	.000	23
Enlisted	376	4.04 (.857)				13
Officer	316	4.36 (.821)				7

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value of F-test (ANOVA)
- b. p-value of χ^2 test
- c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

Table 23
A Multiple Regression Model of the Perceptions of Ethnicity Climate
N=1252

Predictors	B (SE)	Adjusted β	t-value	p value
1. Ethnicity				
a. <i>All other minorities</i>	-.603 (.063)	-.239	-9.494	.000
b. <i>African Americans</i>	-1.238 (.061)	-.530	-20.246	.000
c. <i>White Americans</i>	(Reference)			
2. Gender	-.219 (.049)	-.116	-4.454	.000

$\alpha=.01$

Adjusted $R^2=.33$

Sig of F-statistic=.000

This model also controls for personnel type, directorate assigned, paygrade, religion, age, length of employment, and manager, although these were not significantly associated with the dependent variable in this model.

predictor of perceptions of how minorities are treated in the workplace and the hypothesis is supported.

THE AGE CLIMATE

A description of the age climate

The age climate hypothesis examined the perceptions pertaining to attitudes, treatment, and awareness of age differences among employees. Table 11 shows, the mean rating for the age climate is 4.10 (SD=.996), revealing favorable perceptions about the age climate. However, 39 percent of the staff disagreed with the statement that there is an awareness of the needs of the older employees.

Age climate bivariate group differences

Table 24 lists the results of data analysis of hypothesis 4a through 4c. Only hypothesis 4a is supported in the bivariate analyses of the age climate. **Hypothesis 4a** is supported in that employees younger than 52 years of age do have significantly more favorable perceptions about the age climate than employees older than 52 years of age. There is a significant difference because Sixteen percent of those 52 years or younger have unfavorable perceptions of the age climate as compared to three percent of those 53 years or older. **Hypothesis 4b** is partially supported because Whites do have significantly more favorable perceptions about the age climate than non-Whites; however, nineteen percent of non-Whites have unfavorable perceptions of the age climate as compared to 15 percent of Whites. This difference is not statistically significant. **Hypothesis 4c** is partially supported because males do have

Table 24
Comparisons for Perceptions of the Mean Age Climate Scores

Hypotheses	Group	N	M (SD)	p value	Pearson χ^2	% Unfavorable
				a	b	c
4a Age 53 or older more favorable	Age \leq 52	1123	4.13 (.981)	.01	.012	16
	Age \geq 53	105	3.87 (1.07)			3
4b Whites more favorable than N-Whites	N-White	456	3.94 (.962)	.000	.030	19
	White	767	4.20 (1.01)			15
4c Males more favorable than females	Female	697	4.03 (.977)	.007	.332	17
	Male	530	4.19 (1.01)			15

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value for t-statistic
- b. p-value of χ^2 test
- c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

significantly more favorable perceptions than females about the age climate. There is no significant difference between the nineteenth percentage of females who have unfavorable perceptions of the age climate as compared to the 15th percentage of the men.

Multiple group comparisons

Hypothesis 4d is partially supported because officers and enlisted have significantly more favorable perceptions about the age climate than civilian personnel as **Table 25** shows. A Scheffe test performed showed that the military personnel (officer and enlisted) perceptions about the age climate significantly differs from those of the civilian personnel. Twenty six percent of the civilian staff have unfavorable perceptions of the age climate as compared to ten percent of the enlisted and nine percent of the officers.

The multivariate hypothesis for age climate

Multiple regression was used to determine which of the nine independent variables (personnel type, paygrade, ethnicity, gender, age, length of employment, religion, management level, and directorate assigned) would be associated with the dependent variable, age. However, this model could only explain seven percent of the variability in this model. When all factors are examined together, the relationships between gender, personnel level, directorate type, paygrade, religion, and length of employment became non-significant in this model. Age, management level, and ethnicity are the variables that explain this model. The **multivariate hypothesis for the age climate** is

Table 25
Summary Table for Comparison of Perceptions Toward the Mean Age
Climate Scores by Personnel Type
Hypothesis 4d

Source	M (SD)	p value	F ratio	Pearson χ^2	Unfavorable %
			a	b	c
Civilian	3.86 (1.07)	.000	30.9	.000	26
Enlisted	4.24 (.917)				10
Officer	4.35 (.857)				9

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value of F-test (ANOVA)
- b. p-value of χ^2 test
- c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

supported because the variable that was most strongly associated with the age climate in the multivariate model was age itself as **Table 26** shows.

THE JOB LEVEL CLIMATE

The description of job level climate

Job level climate perceptions are those perceptions that pertain to how employees at different job levels are treated in the workplace. Since the workplace in this study is comprised of enlisted, civilians, and officers, two variables (paygrade and personnel level) were created. The paygrade variable was created on the range of incomes. The personnel type variable was created on whether an employee is civilian, officer, or enlisted to unite the three groups for data analysis.

As **Table 11** shows, the mean rating of the job level climate is 3.12 (SD=1.20) and the percentage of unfavorable rating on the scale is 51 percent. The job level climate scale received the lowest rating when compared to all other scales. The following job level climate scale items received particularly unfavorable ratings: (1) 53 percent disagreed with the statement that there is fair treatment of all job levels, (2) 49 percent disagreed that the values of all job levels is fostered, and (3) 75 percent agreed that there is favoritism shown toward some job levels.

Job level climate bivariate group differences

The bivariate analysis supports hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5d. Hypothesis 5c is not supported by the bivariate analysis. **Table 27** lists the results of hypothesis 5a through 5d. Hypothesis 5a is supported in that staff members in

Table 26
A Multiple Regression Model of the Perceptions of the Age Climate

N=1252

Predictor	B(SE)	Adjusted β	t-value	p-value
1. Age	-9.95E-02(.026)	.156	-3.832	.000
2. Manager	.223(.076)	.096	2.928	.003
3. Ethnicity				
a. All other minorities	-.164(.077)	-.061	-2.122	.034
b. African Americans	-.177(.074)	-.072	-2.399	.017
c. White Americans	(Reference)			

$\alpha=.01$

Adjusted R squared=.074

Sig of F-statistic=.000

This model also controls for personnel level, directorate, paygrade, gender, and length of employment, although these were not significantly associated with the dependent variable in this model.

Table 27

Comparisons for the Perceptions of the Job Level Climate Mean Scores

Hypotheses	Group	N	M (SD)	p value a	Pearson χ^2 b	% Unfavorable c
5a High pay more favorable than low pay	Low pay	656	2.96 (1.19)	.000	.000	57
	High pay	563	3.31 (1.18)			44
5b Males more favorable than females	Females	694	3.00 (1.17)	.000	.000	57
	Males	530	3.28 (1.21)			45
5c Whites more favorable than Non-Whites	N-White	452	2.96 (1.17)	.000	.210	54
	White	768	3.21 (1.21)			50
5d Managers more favorable than non-managers	Manager	290	3.42 (1.22)	.000	.001	43
	N-manag	932	3.03 (1.18)			54

$\alpha=.01$

a. p-value for t statistic

b. p-value for Pearson χ^2

c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate.

higher paygrades have significantly more favorable perceptions toward job level climate (mean score=3.31) than those in lower paygrade levels (mean score=2.96). Fifty seven percent of those in lower paygrades have unfavorable perceptions of the job level climate as compared to 44 percent of those in higher paygrades. Men have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.28) about job level climate than females (mean score=3.00), so **hypothesis 5b** is supported. Fifty seven percent of females have unfavorable perceptions about the job level climate as compared to 45 percent of the males. **Hypothesis 5c** is partially supported because Whites have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.21) toward job level climate than non-Whites (mean score=2.96). Fifty four percent of non-Whites have unfavorable perceptions of the job level climate as compared to 50 percent of Whites, but this difference is not significant. **Hypothesis 5d** is supported because staff members in management positions have more favorable perceptions (mean score=3.42) toward job level climate than staff members in non-management positions (mean score=3.03). Forty three percent of managers have unfavorable perceptions of the job level climate as compared to 54 percent of non-managers.

Multiple group comparisons

An ANOVA was performed to compare the job level climate perceptions of officers, enlisted personnel, and civilian personnel as **Table 28** shows. A Scheffe test showed that there is no significant difference in the job level climate perceptions of officer personnel (mean score=3.30), enlisted personnel (mean score=3.06) or civilian personnel (mean score=3.06). Fifty three percent of the

Table 28
Summary Table for Comparisons of Perceptions of Job Level Climate by
Personnel Type
Hypothesis 5e

Source	N	M (SD)	p value	F ratio	Pearson χ^2	% Unfavorable
				a	b	c
1. Civilian	539	3.06 (1.24)	.0079	4.86	.047	53
2. Enlisted	372	3.06 (1.15)				55
3. Officer	315	3.30 (1.18)				46

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value of F-test (ANOVA)
- b. p-value of χ^2 test
- c. unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate.

civilians have unfavorable perceptions of the job level climate as compared to 55 percent of the enlisted and 46 percent of the officers.

The multivariate hypothesis for job level

This is a very weak model. Only four percent of the variability of this model could be explained by the nine independent variables. **Table 29** shows that the variables associated with job level climate in the multivariate model are ethnicity and gender. All other hypotheses are ultimately not supported since the relationship between all other variables and job level climate disappear when ethnicity and gender effects are controlled. Although they were not significantly associated with the dependent variable, this model controls for paygrade, age, length of employment, religion, management level, and directorate type. The multivariate hypothesis for job level climate is not supported because ethnicity is the strongest factor that explains job level climate, instead of management level that was hypothesized.

Table 29
A Multiple Regression Model of the Perceptions of Job Level

Hypothesis 5f

N=1252

Predictor	B(SE)	Adjusted β	t-value	p-value
1. Ethnicity				
a. All other minorities	-8.48E-02(.097)	-.026	-.871	.384
b. African Americans	-.255(.094)	-.086	-2.717	.007
(Reference)	c. White Americans			
2. Gender	-.230(.075)	-.095	-3.052	.002

$\alpha=.01$

Adjusted R squared=.042

Sig of F-statistic=.000

This model controls for paygrade, age, length of employment, religion, management level, and directorate, although they were not significantly associated with the dependent variable.

THE PHYSICAL ABILITY CLIMATE

A description of the physical ability climate

Perceptions about physical ability pertain to those perceptions of how employees with handicaps are treated in the workplace. Perceptions were explored to assess favoritism, fair treatment, and the needs and values of physically challenged employees. As Table 11 shows, the rating of the ethnicity climate is 4.83, but the standard deviation shows a variability of this score of 2.94. The percentage of unfavorable rating is 16 percent. The following physical ability climate scale items received particularly unfavorable ratings: (1) 24 percent have unfavorable perceptions that there is fair treatment regardless of disability, (2) 30 percent have unfavorable perceptions regarding the needs of the physically challenged fostered, and 32 percent believe that there is favoritism toward the physically abled.

Physical ability climate-bivariate group differences

Table 30 presents the results of data analysis of hypotheses 6a through 6d. The bivariate analyses does not support any of the hypotheses stated, that is, hypotheses 6a, 6b, 6c, and 6d. **Hypothesis 6a** is not supported because the perceptions of those in management positions (mean score=4.34) are not significantly more favorable toward the physical ability climate than those in non-management positions (mean score=4.04). Fourteen percent of the managers have unfavorable perceptions of the physical ability climate as compared to 18 percent of the non-managers. **Hypothesis 6b** is not supported because employees older than 52 years old did not have significantly more favorable

Table 30
Comparisons for Perceptions of the Mean Physical Ability Climate Scores
Hypothesis 6

Hypotheses	Group	N	M (SD)	p value	Pearson χ^2	% Unfavorable
				a	b	c
6a Managers more favorable than N-managers	Manager	290	4.34 (.987)	.000	.084	14
	N-manager	929	4.04 (1.03)			18
6b 52 years or younger more favorable	≤ 52 yr.	1112	4.09 (1.03)	.163	.860	17
	≥ 53 yr.	102	4.24 (1.08)			17
6c Whites more favorable than Non-Whites	Non-white	452	4.00 (1.00)	.008	.055	20
	White	766	4.17 (1.05)			16
6d Males more favorable than females	Females	688	4.04 (1.04)	.016	.109	19
	Males	525	4.19 (1.02)			15

$\alpha=.01$

a. p-value for t statistic

b. p-value for Pearson χ^2

c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

perceptions (mean score=4.24) about how employees in the workplace with a disability were treated than those employees who were less than 52 years old (mean score=4.09). Seventeen percent of those 52 years or younger have unfavorable perceptions about the age climate as compared to 17 percent of those 53 years or older. However, **hypothesis 6c** is not supported because the perceptions of Whites toward physical ability climate (mean score=4.07) is not significantly more favorable than non-Whites (mean score=4.00). Twenty percent of non-Whites have unfavorable perceptions of the age climate as compared to 16 percent of Whites. **Hypothesis 6d** is not supported because males do not have significantly more favorable perceptions (mean score=4.19) than females (mean score=4.04). Nineteen percent of females have unfavorable perceptions of the age climate as compared to 15 percent of the males.

The multivariate hypothesis for physical ability climate

Multiple regression was used to determine which of the nine independent variables (personnel type, paygrade, ethnicity, gender, age, length of employment, religion, management level, and directorate assigned) would explain the dependent variable, physical ability climate. This model was very weak and could only explain three percent of the variability. Although they were not significantly associated with the physical ability climate, this model controls for paygrade, age, length of employment, religion, management level, and directorate type. In this model, the variable that was significantly associated with physical ability climate in the multivariate model is ethnicity. It was hypothesized

that age would explain the physical ability climate. Therefore, the **multivariate hypothesis for physical ability climate** is not supported.

THE SEXUAL ORIENTATION CLIMATE

Description of the sexual orientation climate

Perceptions pertaining to how the sexual orientation of employees are viewed in the workplace were measured by the sexual orientation climate questions. The issue of whether fair treatment of all employees exist regardless of sexual orientation was examined. As Table 11 shows, the mean rating of the sexual orientation climate is 3.38 (SD=1.27) and the percentage of unfavorable rating is 40 percent. The following sexual orientation climate items received particularly unfavorable ratings: (1) 40 percent disagree that there is fair treatment regardless of sexual orientation, (2) 70 disagree that there is an awareness of employees with alternative sexual orientation, and (3) 45 percent agree that there is favoritism toward heterosexuals.

Bivariate group differences of the sexual orientation climate

The bivariate analysis supports only hypothesis 7b. Hypotheses 7a, 7c, 7d, and 7e are not supported. **Table 31** shows the results of data analysis for hypotheses 7a through 7e. **Hypothesis 7a** is not supported. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of managers (mean score=3.36) versus non-managers (mean score=3.40), pertaining to the sexual orientation climate. Forty four percent of managers have unfavorable perceptions of the sexual orientation climate as compared to 39 percent of non-managers. **Hypothesis 7b** is supported because there is a significant difference between the perceptions of

Table 31
Comparisons for the Perceptions of the Sexual Orientation Climate
Hypothesis 7

Hypotheses	Group	N	M	p value	Pearson χ^2	% Unfavorable
7a Managers more favorable than N-managers	Manager	288	3.36 (1.26)	.690	.135	44
	N-manage	920	3.40 (1.27)			39
7b Whites more favorable than non-Whites	N-whites	448	3.56 (1.11)	.000	.000	32
	Whites	759	3.28 (1.34)			44
7c Majority religions more favorable than minority religions	Maj. relig	959	3.45 (1.23)	.001	.013	38
	Min. relig	239	3.15 (1.36)			47
7d Protestants more favorable than N-Protestants	N-Protes	565	3.29 (1.31)	.010	.058	43
	Protes	633	3.48 (1.21)			37
7e Males more favorable than females	Female	686	3.43 (1.26)	.139	.024	37
	Male	524	3.33 (1.28)			43

$\alpha=.01$

a. p-value for t statistic

b. p-value for Pearson χ^2

c. % unfavorable or the percent have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate.

non-Whites (mean score=3.56) and Whites (mean score=3.28) about the sexual orientation climate. Non-Whites have significantly more favorable perceptions about the sexual orientation climate than Whites. Thirty two percent of Whites have unfavorable perceptions of the sexual orientation climate as compared to 44 percent of the non-Whites. **Hypothesis 7c** is partially supported because there is a significant difference between the perceptions of the majority (mean score=3.45) religion groups (Catholics and Protestants) and minority (mean score=3.15) religion groups (all other religious groups other than Catholics and Protestants) toward the sexual orientation climate. Thirty eight percent of the majority religion groups have unfavorable perceptions of the sexual orientation climate as compared to 47 percent of the minority religion groups, but this difference is not significant. **Hypothesis 7d** is not supported because there is no significant difference between Protestants (mean score=3.48) and non-Protestants (mean score=3.29) concerning sexual orientation climate. Forty three percent of non-Protestants have unfavorable perceptions of the sexual orientation climate as compared to 37 percent of the Protestants. There is no significant difference between males (mean score=3.33) and females (mean score=3.45) toward the sexual orientation climate as shown by the results of **hypothesis 7e**. Thirty seven percent of females have unfavorable perceptions of the sexual orientation climate as compared to 43 percent of the males.

Multiple group comparisons

To test **hypothesis 7f**, an ANOVA and a Chi square test were performed to compare the mean score of sexual orientation climate among personnel type.

The perceptions of civilian staff significantly differed from those of the officers and the enlisted as **Table 32** shows. A Scheffe test showed that the perceptions of the civilian staff (mean score=3.71), the enlisted staff (mean score=3.29), and the officer staff (mean score=2.93) significantly differed on the topic of sexual orientation. Civilians have the more favorable perceptions and officers have less favorable perceptions about the sexual orientation climate. Twenty nine percent of the civilians have unfavorable perceptions of the sexual orientation climate, as compared to 43 percent of the enlisted and 55 percent of the officers.

The multivariate hypothesis for sexual orientation climate

This is a weak model, because only eight percent of the variability of this model could be explained by the nine independent variables. Job level was hypothesized to be the strongest predictor of perceptions toward the sexual orientation climate. However, the variables that are significantly associated with sexual orientation climate in this multivariate model are personnel type and ethnicity. Only hypotheses 7b and 7f are supported by this model, whereas, directorate type, management level, length of employment, age, gender, and paygrade became non-significant when all factors were examined together.

Table 32
Summary Table for Comparison of the Mean Sexual Orientation Climate
Scores by Personnel Type
Hypothesis 7f

Source	N	M (SD)	p value	F ratio	Pearson χ^2	% Unfavorable
				a	b	c
1. Civilian	533	3.71 (1.16)	.000	41.1	.000	29
2. Enlisted	369	3.29 (1.23)				43
3. Officer	310	2.93 (1.33)				55

$\alpha=.01$

- a. p-value of F-test (ANOVA)
- b. p-value of χ^2 test
- c. % unfavorable or the percent who have a score of less than 3.0 on the scale, indicating that on the average, they have an unfavorable view of the climate

Qualitative Research Results

In this section the results of the responses to the open ended questions are presented under the categories that were requested on the Diversity Survey Instrument. There were two sheets that requested a response from the participants in the study if they chose to do so. One sheet requested, "What changes, if any, does our organization need to make in any of the following areas?" and the other sheet requested, "Is there anything else we should have asked you?" The responses to each of the questions have been summarized in this section. Examples of the kind of responses that were given by the respondents for recommending changes is also presented.

Examples of comments made by the respondents in the study

What changes if any does our organization need to make in any of the following areas?

AGE

- better treatment for youth
- hire people based on experience
- think there is a very equal and fair atmosphere already
- chance for jobs with advancement for older group too
- more scholarships for people over 30
- personnel that have retirement years should be forced to retire-give the young a chance-get rid of stopper list
- young people have been shut out of civil service due to a 20 year hiring freeze, huge stopper lists, and hiring bias in favor of retired military

- because a person is young, it should not place them in a broad category of know-nothing
- become more sensitive to the senior age employees, military style is focused on the young and active
- weight standards should vary with age
- need to value young people's opinions
- eliminate the retirement age requirement
- stop treating older employees as children
- need to value the older employee
- no age limit for officer programs
- young enlisted and officers need to be reminded of what is required of them

PHYSICAL ABILITY

- give them the job if they can handle it
- would like to see more handicap accessibility to the building
- handicap/physical disability, the climate is fair, there is a problem with able bodied people who lack physical strength and others have to carry their slack
- give people the time to PRT (physical readiness test--exercise)
- standards more equitable for male and female
- we coddle pregnant women too much
- more handicap parking spaces
- should allow military to have time to exercise

- eliminate differences between senior and junior in PRT (physical readiness training)-seniors, officer and enlisted forgiven PRT inadequacies and juniors administratively separated
- building is not wheel chair accessible
- restrooms too small for wheelchairs
- would like more ramps, rails, etc.

SEXUAL ORIENTATION

- don't ask, don't tell
- should not matter if it does not affect how you perform a duty
- a person can not complain about this without the perception that she or he is of an 'alternative orientation'
- less profane language in the hallways and workspaces, less sexual innuendoes
- keep to one's self
- I have seen back rubs given to men by women and men giving back rubs to women in departments
- they are not identified, what is the problem?
- keep it out of my Navy!
- allow people to be honest
- don't ask, don't tell isn't sufficient-military should be open to gays/lesbians
- sensitivity training should be provided so that people can understand that homosexuality is not contagious

- need to be accepted by peers-attitudes need to change
- stop harassing people with different sexual orientation
- don't bury the HIV clinic and its patients as if they do not exist
- stop homophobic jokes
- discourage alternative sexual orientations

JOB LEVEL

- more women in higher jobs
- treat everybody the same
- consider upgrading lower grade jobs
- upgrade positions
- need more high level administrative staff
- provide more flexibility and assistance for expanding jobs
- there seems to be a reluctance to admit when a civilian or senior military person had erred
- need to look at placement of junior ranking staff in charge of seniors, it is contrary to good order and discipline
- create more upward mobility positions
- many civilian employees' professional backgrounds are not given much consideration--this command is rampant with good ole boys and girls network
- LPN's position should have been upgraded years ago
- equity between civilian and military

- higher management need to be more involved and aware of working environment
- chance to get to a higher level
- senior nurses on floors should be recognized as more than staff nurses
- those in dead end positions-make available the opportunity for upward mobility
- put women in jobs other than secretary
- training is not adequate
- no advancement, no movement
- should be a better way to monitor job levels
- need increased promotion of professional pathways for civilian employees
- jobs should be upgraded--ther commands doing the same jobs are at least 1-2 grades higher
- the positions here are rated much lower than line commands
- rank for enlisted is extremely hard
- physicians need to be involved in workgroups that are lead by non-physicians
- leadership should lead by example
- treat low level supervisors as supervisors
- value all employees, not just military
- all officers need training in dealing with civilians. Stop trying to impose military rules on civilians. This organization is the lowest on employee relations. Place is primed for a class action suit over hiring, and promotion.

- need flex hours for employees
- need a climate for education for employees to go to school
- more flexibility when children are sick
- more attentive to the corpsmen and the junior officers' training needs
- need for civilians to be promoted
- consider job trading days
- enlisted upper echelon needs to get down to the deckplates to listen to them
- get women out of all low level clerical positions
- available day care for working parents on base
- military reeks of favoritism toward those in higher positions
- corpsmen and nurses need to work together
- make lower level employees feel that they play an important part in getting the job done
- want to gain knowledge from working with the nurses (corpsmen)
- need to give respect to all, not just the nurses
- stop separating parking spaces by rank-no lights in enlisted area
- little people do not have a voice
- need to eliminate subtle racism on evaluations
- need cross-training opportunities
- employee records should be updated yearly by HRO to ensure employees are working at the level according to their rating
- more female COs and XOs

- encourage exercise or health programs for all, including civilians
- please help-doctors' nasty attitudes toward corpsmen and nurses

GENDER

- hire more males, too many females
- give them the same treatment as men
- the majority of people are women-so it must be an excellent place for women
- culture and environment which promotes jobs in accordance with skills required and not gender
- things seem fair and equal to me
- a brand new BEQ is opening with single man rooms for men only! Don't women deserve new barracks with single rooms too?
- the military bends over backward to the point of reverse discrimination
- day care on base and more upward mobility for men and women
- employ supervisors that are fair, even tempered and knowledgeable of the job
- what about men and unfair treatment against them concerning rape and sexual harassment?
- more women at the top
- acceptance by men
- don't believe there is no discrimination--women should have the same opportunities as men
- have a more publicized women's problem

- reverse discrimination is evident in the ____ Corps
- people have forgotten how to react to one another because of sexual harassment fear
- day care center to help mothers
- more women in positions of authority
- being a white male, females get better jobs in the Navy
- more female in top management
- please help men to feel better about themselves
- forums for women to discuss health issues, education, employment
- most nurses are female, there is a lack of opportunity for promotion
- military male officers should be trained to be more sensitive to both active duty and civilian females
- equal promotion for female nurse practitioners
- female military are allowed 6 weeks off, why not males?
- males in nursing face discrimination
- military nursing is great for females, not for males. Female supervisors and male supervisors tend to use males for any physically demanding task, and males with families are tapped for extra duties, more often than females. Certain areas (maternal child care) discourage male RNs but allow male MDs
- the system makes it difficult to change job descriptions, up or down
- need a more representative BOD (Board of Directors) of people in the command

- Navy Exchange should not sell Playboy
- promote civilian NP (nurse practitioners) to the same level as PAs (physician assistants)
- women's pants should be lined like men's pants
- management discourages pregnant women from taking leave without pay and encourages them to borrow sick leave-could the command clean up the "leave without pay in rifting and layoffs theory"-it would really make people less uptight.
- could we start a job sharing program?
- manager feels confused....men and women are different in many ways...feel a sense of confusion when assigning jobs
- culture of the organization needs to change to a more collaborative focus
- more senior ranking male nurses
- an excellent place for women to work, now make it for men

ETHNICITY

- they seem to be happy with their jobs and I get along with them
- treat them fairly
- things seem fair and equal to me
- white men now have minority status, time to create an environment for all to excel
- more EO classes
- reverse discrimination--military bends over backward

- educate as to customs of fellow co-workers, fear of the unknown produces ridicule and animosity toward those who are 'different'
- fair treatment in job distribution
- educate people not to make smart comments about anybody
- minorities get away with many things and job performance is overlooked
- it is who you know that allows a civilian here to get a job above GS-9 and most of them are white
- need to expose people to different cultures
- more minorities in leadership roles
- I am a minority--stop making other people think I got where I am because I'm a minority
- more workshops for promotion or professional development that is concerned about minority advancement
- White people are getting overlooked....would like a White heritage month
- minorities are often given work responsibilities without salary or grade recognition or awards
- command has an all white partnership council-are there other groups like this in the command? Are groups like this making decisions for the best of only some groups?
- Would like people to speak in English in presence of others
- need to stop racial remarks about biracial personnel
- more minorities on the Board of Directors

- get help for people with accents who have to communicate with patients by telephone
- Black males slammed the most at mast, whereas others given a second chance

SUMMARY OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS

There were 615 individuals who answered at least one of the six open-ended survey responses. The top three emerging themes of each category answered by the respondents are discussed. Following is a summary of those findings:

Gender Climate

Of the 615 respondents, 174 (28%) individuals responded to the gender climate question. Of those, 101 (58%) felt that the gender climate is already fair. Forty-three (25%) saw a need for more women to be placed in positions of authority. Thirty (17%) felt that there should be on-site day care facilities available to working mothers. Fourteen white males (7%) believed that they were experiencing discrimination at the workplace.

Ethnicity Climate

Of the 615 respondents, 177 (29%) individuals responded to the ethnicity climate question. Of those 177 respondents, 105 (59%) felt that the ethnicity climate is fair. Forty-one (23%) felt that minorities should be treated fairly. Another 31 (18%) felt that more minorities should be placed in leadership roles. A very interesting finding of the data is that respondents tended to have similar views on the gender and ethnicity issues. Those individuals who answered the gender climate question typically responded to the ethnicity climate as well.

Age Climate

Of the 615 respondents, 149 (24%) answered this question. Eighty (54%) felt that the age climate within the hospital was fair. Thirty five (23%) felt

that age should not matter. Another 34 (23%) felt that older employees should be valued more. The emerging theme for this climate indicated that in general, the organization is tolerant of older employees in that age was not an area of concern as long as the individuals are competent.

Job Level Climate

Of the 615 respondents on the open-ended survey items, 104 (17%) responded to the job level climate question. Of those 615 respondents, 40 (38.5%) felt that the job climate as it is currently structured is fair. 44 (42.3%) expressed a need for more chances for advancement. Twenty (19.2%) felt that among civilians, there needs to be more room for advancement.

Physical Ability Climate

Of the 615 respondents, 158 (26%) answered the question that asked what changes should be made with regard to physical ability climate. Of those 158 respondents, 62 (39%) felt that the climate is currently fair with regard to physical ability. Thirty eight (24%) indicated that an individual should be given a job if they can handle it without regard to physical ability. Thirty eight respondents (24%) believed that personnel should be in better shape with regard to physical fitness and the naval readiness standards. Finally, another 20 (13%) voiced a need for more handicap accessibility. Overall, two themes emerged from this climate: (a) There is sensitivity towards individuals with handicaps and (b) there is a need for a more physically fit Navy.

Sexual Orientation Climate

Of the 615 respondents, 175 (28%) responded to the sexual orientation climate question. Seventy eight (43%) were in agreement with the "Don't ask, don't tell" policy that the military currently has. Another 85 (49%) indicated that ones sexual orientation should not matter as long as it does not interfere with the individuals ability to perform their duties. Another 15 (8%) of the respondents stated that homosexuals should not be allowed in the military. The emergent theme from this climate was that sexual orientation is not and should not be an issue. **Table 33** shows the summary of the qualitative research responses pertaining to the various climates.

Table 33
Summary of Qualitative Research Responses

N=615

Climate	Themes Emerging	Number Responding	Percentage Responding
Gender		174	28
	Gender climate fair.	101	58
	More women in positions of authority.	43	25
	Need for on-site daycare.	30	17
Ethnicity		177	29
	climate is fair	105	59
	minorities should be treated fairly	41	23
	more minorities in leadership roles	31	18
Age		149	24
	Age climate fair.	80	54
	Age should not matter.	35	23
	Value older employees.	34	23
Job Level		104	17
	Job level climate is fair.	40	38.5
	More chances for advancement.	44	42.3
	More room for advancement for civilians.	20	19
Physical Ability		158	26
	Climate is fair.	62	39
	Give individual with physical disability a job if he can handle it.	38	24
	Staff should be in better physical state.	38	24
	Need more handicap accessibility.	20	13
Sexual Orientation		175	28
	"Don't ask, don't tell.	78	44
	Should not matter.	85	48
	No gays allowed.	15	8

This section presents the responses to the question, "Are there any other questions we should have asked you?"

The last part of the qualitative data pertains to analyzing the results from a sheet in the survey packet that was entitled, "Are there any other questions that we should have asked you? A total of 198 persons (16%) of the participants in the research study responded to this question.

Examples of questions offered by respondents:

- Was diversity policy/program information presented in new employee information?
- Ask questions about stress.
- Are there opportunities for growth and development?
- Add a section for "don't care."
- Have questions that are department/division specific.
- What is a minority?
- Add a section for "don't know."
- Do civilians have the same opportunities as the military staff?
- Can the results of this survey help to improve the working conditions?
- Is recognition of lower level employees' input into daily business practices and operations of our organization appreciated?
- Why is it so hard for LPNs to go back to school to become a RN?
- Need questions pertaining to male gender items.
- What about men in the organization? Are we being treated fairly?

- Should have asked questions about fair treatment of all.
- Should have asked questions about single parents and pregnant women.
- Should have asked questions about preparing for retirement.
- Should have asked questions about offensive jokes about gays.
- Should have asked questions about religion.
- Questions needed pertaining to witnessing racism and sexism.
- Is total quality leadership being practiced in the workplace?
- Why can't my job allow me to be promoted?
- Ask questions about why we feel the way we do about the organization.
- Questions needed pertaining to living quarters for the enlisted.
- Are people in the same job in different directorates treated equally?
- Does diversity awareness have any influence on the success of this hospital?

Table 34 summarizes the respondents' recommendations.

Table 34

Summary of Responses Regarding Questions to be Added to the Survey

Kind of Questions to be Added to Instrument	Total Number	Total Percentage
reverse discrimination (perceptions of White people that Non-Whites are given preferential treatment)	34	17
discrimination against White males	14	7
general questions (variety-no common theme)	40	20
more collaborative efforts of staff to work together as team	8	4
need to add, 'do not know' category	49	25
civilians have perceptions of not feeling appreciated	34	17
employee-management relationship	16	8

Chapter V

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to explore the diversity climate in a large teaching military medical center by assessing the perceptions of employees regarding organizational climate, ethnicity, gender, age, job level, physical ability, and sexual orientation as measured by the Diversity Survey Instrument. The independent variables used to examine the differences in the perception scores and the degree of their relationship to the climates being studied were as follows: ethnicity, gender, management level, religion, directorate assigned, paygrade, age, length of employment, and personnel level. The results show that the climates that were viewed by the employees to be most unfavorable were the sexual orientation climate (40 percent unfavorable) and the job level climate (51 percent unfavorable). The other climates received the following percentages for perceptions of an unfavorable climate: organizational climate, 28 percent; gender climate, 13 percent; ethnicity climate, 16 percent; age climate, 16 percent; and physical ability climate, 16 percent. A discussion of the findings from each of the climates examined will be presented.

Alderfer's theory of embedded groups in organizations is partially supported because differences in the respondents' perceptions have been found according to ethnicity, gender, and job level. The results of most of the bivariate analyses demonstrate that the perceptions of the respondents significantly differ according to one's gender, ethnicity, or job level (whether by paygrade and/or

personnel level-officer, enlisted or civilian). However, some of these factors did not remain significant in the multivariate analyses. The multiple regression models that were considered fair models were the gender model and the ethnicity model. However, none of the models were considered strong.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following are limitations of this study:

1. The findings of this study may be representative of employees of a large teaching military medical center, but may not be generalizable to other settings.
2. The results of this study may be limited to the perceptions of the employees at a particular time and place.
3. The results of the study are limited to the dimension of perceptions measured by the "Diversity Survey" instrument used in the study.
4. The relationship of sexual orientation to perceptions of how the organization treats sexual orientation could not be fully explored due to the military's policy pertaining to "Don't ask, don't tell."
5. The findings of this study may be limited by the risk of social desirability bias, that is, the people stating what they think the researcher wants to hear, instead of their true beliefs.
6. The findings of this study may not reflect the views of the enlisted staff since 30 percent of the enlisted participated in the study, whereas, the population consists of about 40 percent enlisted.

STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY

One of the strengths of this study is the timeliness of the research conducted. Recent events in the media, such as the Texaco discrimination incident, the integration of women cadets into previously all male military schools, the sexual harassment stories about women in the Army, and the Tailhook incident, demonstrate that the questions asked by this study are timely and relevant.

Another strength of this study is the sample size of 1,252 respondents and the representation of the various groups in the population for comparisons of the study, such as management levels, religions, ethnicity groups, age groups, personnel levels, directorate levels, as well as gender comparisons. The limitations of most diversity studies pertain to the lack of representation of all ethnicity groups in a diverse population; however, that was not a limitation of this study because all ethnicity groups were represented in this study. The demographics of this study also illustrates the changes in the workforce predicted by Johnston and Packer (1987) with the exception that the sample used in this study is not in the year 2000, but now in the present time period of 1997. The data for this study was collected in the workplace from employees in their natural work setting. Another strength of the study is that the instrument employed has now been used to survey a military as well as a civilian population.

Perhaps, the most significant contribution of this study is adding to the literature the multivariate analysis of the groups using multiple regression analysis, whereas most other studies have been either qualitative or conducted

at the bivariate analysis level. Further data analysis using multivariate techniques allows for a more precise testing of the theory used for the study. Although the results of the multivariate analyses were not strong in explaining the amount of variances of the different climate scores, the results were significant and predictive. Although the variances explained were small, the results of this study revealed that ethnicity and management level, followed by gender and personnel level were significant predictors in the various diversity climates assessed.

CLIMATES

Organizational climate

The organizational climate focuses on the perceptions of staff regarding the degree to which the organization values its people and displays programs and opportunities for progression within the organization. The following groups in the organization were compared based on the following traits: ethnicity, gender, management level, religion, directorate level, paygrade, age, years of employment, and personnel level. More than fifty percent of each group examined had favorable perceptions of the organizational climate. With the exception of religion and age, the results of all other bivariate analyses of the independent variables with organizational climate were significant. However, when examined in the multiple regression model, only ethnicity, personnel level, and management level were significant. This model was significant, predictive, but weak since it could only explain about eight percent of the variability.

The bivariate analysis results of this study support the findings of similar studies conducted by Brinkman (1992) and Dansby and Landis (1995). Brinkman found that significant differences exist between males and females, and between Whites and non-Whites on all the scales of the Diversity Survey Instrument. Using a different instrument (the Military Equal Opportunity Climate Survey), but having similar findings, Dansby and Landis (1995) found that in the military, there are significant differences among various demographic subgroups according to gender, race, and personnel level (whether an officer, enlisted, or civilian person).

The results of this study do not support the findings of the study conducted by Fine, Johnson, and Ryan (1990) in that men, women, and minorities *do not* share a common climate of organizational life; rather, each group identified, defined, and organized their experiences in the organization in different ways. The results of this study show that men and women *do* share a common climate of organizational perceptions. Whereas in the bivariate analysis gender differences were significant, in the multivariate analysis gender is not significant when all other factors are controlled. In the multiple regression model pertaining to perceptions of the organizational climate, ethnicity is significant, but not gender when all other factors are controlled.

Gender climate

An examination of this climate was to determine the perceptions of how women are treated in the workplace. Twenty two questions on the Diversity Survey Instrument address how women are treated in the organization. These

questions are divided into seven sections: diversity climate, hiring practices, promotion practices, training and development, equity and fairness, visible commitment, and politics in the workplace.

The same independent variables that were used to examine the organizational climate were also used to examine the gender climate with two exceptions. The first exception was that in addition to examining the differences between males and females, and Whites and non-Whites, managers and non-managers; the perceptions of *female managers* and *non-female managers'* perceptions were also examined. The second exception was that *White females'* and *non-White females'* gender perceptions were also examined.

There were no significant differences in the perceptions toward gender climate as a result of the religious groups compared, nor the 'female only' management level groups compared (whether a manager or non-manager of the 'females only' groups). This means that it did not matter whether one was Protestant or non-Protestant that would explain differences in perceptions of how women in the workplace are treated. There were also no significant differences in the perceptions of the female managers versus the female non-managers group, nor between the White females and the non-White females. This means that perceptions toward gender climate was not due to the females' ethnicity or management level; it was due to an unknown factor that was not examined in this study. Perhaps differences in work place experiences could explain these differences.

The results of the bivariate analysis revealed that there were significant differences in the perceptions of some groups toward gender climate (perceptions of how women are treated) based on gender, ethnicity, directorate level, and paygrade. The results of the multiple group comparison of gender climate by personnel type (whether an employee was a civilian, officer or enlisted) revealed that there was a significant difference in perceptions. When *only females* were compared based on personnel level (whether one is a civilian, officer or enlisted employee) to gender climate perceptions, the results of the multiple group comparison were also significant, demonstrating a significant difference of perceptions based on whether a female was a civilian, officer, or enlisted person. However, in the multiple regression model, only ethnicity, paygrade, gender, and age were significantly associated with gender climate. In this model only 19 percent of the variability of gender climate was explained.

In this study, 57 percent of the population were females. In the study conducted by Synder, Verderber, Langmeyer, and Myers (1992), 74 percent of the sample were females. However, the findings of this study does not fully support their findings of occupancy of a supervisory position and hierarchical level in the organization as better predictors of favorable perceptions toward how women are treated in the workplace. Also, their findings of women having more favorable perceptions than men is not supported in this study. In the bivariate analyses conducted in this study, women had less favorable perceptions than men on all other scales, except for sexual orientation climate. Also, in this study, there was no significant difference between women by ethnicity or

supervisory role toward the gender climate. This lack of difference means that the differences in perceptions of how women are treated in the organization were not based on the women's ethnicity or the management level of the women. There is some unknown factor about female gender perceptions that was not part of this study that may explain this difference. Perhaps an exploration of the experiences of women in the workplace may explain these differences.

Although this study did not directly focus on sexual harassment, there were questions that directly focused on how women in the organization were treated. Such as, question number 45 that stated, "In this organization, I do not hear offensive stories, jokes, or remarks about women," and question number 46 that asked, "To what extent do you feel our organization is an excellent place for women to work?" One of the questions on the open ended response sheet asked the respondents, "What would have to change to make this organization an excellent place for women to work?" The majority of responses to such questions like this stated that the organization already is an excellent place for women to work.

Some respondents were critical of the question which asked, "In your opinion, to what extent do you feel our organization is an excellent place for women to work?" They replied that the question should not have just asked about the organization being an excellent place for women to work, but for men as well. Because of the changes in the demographics of the population, and the shift from the Civil Rights focus of just minorities and women, it is necessary today to include all groups for determination of fairness of treatment since it has

been reported in Workforce 2000 that White males in the workforce are becoming a minority. The fact that the organization used in the study is predominately composed of women, with a number of women in positions of authority of high visibility, may very well be the reason why incidents of gender discrimination of women and sexual harassment are few. This statement does not mean that the incidents could not occur, but the occurrence of such incidents may be few because of the distribution of women in leadership and/or management positions. Sexual harassment is most likely to occur in the workplace in areas where women are not in a management position of power. Areas of training in the military (such as boot camp) where women are sometimes few in positions of management and power, are places highly susceptible for sexual harassment to occur.

Findings from this study are supportive of the one conducted by Snizek and Neil (1992) that found when women worked primarily with other women or when women have men reporting to them, day to day discrimination is minimal. A question unanswered is whether perceptions of discrimination toward men increase as the position and power of women in the organization increase? In this study a few men were very vocal about their perceptions of reverse discrimination in the workplace.

The top three areas of concern pertaining to the gender climate, after analysis of the qualitative data, reveals that 58 percent of the respondents believe that the gender climate is fair. The other two common themes of the gender climate were the need for more women in positions of authority and the

need for on-site daycare for the staff's children. In regard to recommendations for changes in the workplace pertaining to gender, a variety of comments were made. It was interesting to note that some men stated that they are now facing gender discrimination.

Ethnicity climate

Ethnicity climate is the perception of how minorities in the workplace are treated. When the perceptions of the ethnic groups were compared among all other ethnic groups, the perceptions of African Americans significantly differed from the other groups, that is, Native Americans, Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans, Biracial/Multiracial Americans, and a group listed as "Other Americans". In the multiple regression model of the perceptions of ethnicity climate, it was found that gender and ethnicity were significantly associated with the ethnicity climate. Thirty three percent of the observed variability in ethnicity climate is explained by the perceptions of females and African Americans. This model was the strongest one in comparison with the other climates in this study.

Differences (if any) in evaluations given to individuals of different ethnicity groups (Sackett and DuBois, 1991) may also offer information about experiences in the organization. Most past studies pertaining to ethnicity in organizations have focused on just African American and White American relationships. Studies conducted by Dansby and Landis (1995) for the Department of Defense in the United States were such studies as well. Dansby and Landis (1995) provided a review of the historical background of race relations in the U. S. military from the integration of African Americans into the services following

World War II to the present time. Due to the increase in women and other ethnic groups, the military studies now include findings from these groups as well.

The results of this study supports the research conducted by Alderfer and Smith (1982) and the research conducted by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990). In these two studies the perceptions of African Americans about the organizational climate significantly differed from those of White Americans. Perhaps these differences in perceptions are the result of the types of societal experiences encountered by the African Americans and the White Americans. The effects of ethnicity on the experiences of African Americans within the economic and political dimensions of stratification in American society continue to allow African Americans to occupy a unique position in the American ethnic hierarchy as color of skin and other biological characteristics have not allowed most African Americans to assimilate into the majority race. Both of these studies only focused on African American-White Americans' differences.

The results of studies such as these show the disparities in each group's perceptions of the other. African Americans perceive they are not being treated fairly in the organization and White Americans perceive that African Americans are being treated fairly in the organization. In this study the finding of African Americans' perceptions being less favorable than White Americans pertaining to the ethnicity climate was similar to the studies by Alderfer and Smith (1992) and Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990). Perhaps such differences in each group's perceptions about each other is the result of differences in experiences, differences of positions within the organization, mentoring, and lack

of communication and meaningful contact of each group with the other. The improvement of ethnic relationships has been the focus of the department of defense to improve race relations. At the present time, maybe it is a sign of progress in human relations that one's ethnicity does not substantially account for perceptions of treatment as revealed in this study. The three themes that emerged from an analysis of the ethnicity qualitative data are (a) climate is fair (59 percent), (b) minorities should be treated fairly (23 percent), and more minorities should be in leadership roles (18 percent).

Age climate

Age climate is defined as the perceptions involving how older employees are treated in the workplace. Sixteen percent of the respondents found the age climate to be unfavorable. The mean score rating for this climate is 4.10 (favorable). Thirty nine percent of the respondents believed that there is not an awareness of the needs of older workers. Only three bivariate analyses were performed to examine the perceptions of age climate. Only the results of the differences between age and the differences among personnel level were significant. In the multiple regression model, the variables that were negatively associated with the age climate were older workers age 52 years or older, and African Americans. Although significant, it is a very weak model because only seven percent of the observed variability of age climate is explained by this model. According to the results of the qualitative data analysis, there is a need to value the older employee as well as to appreciate the younger employee.

In this study, there was no significant difference in the perceptions of the respondents in the study based on age. Each group had positive perceptions, but the younger group (employees younger than 52 years old) had significantly more favorable perceptions toward the age climate. Research findings neither by Kirchner and Dunnette (1954) nor by Bird and Fisher (1986) support this study, because both groups had correctly hypothesized that the older employees (employees equal to or greater than 52 years old) would have the more favorable perceptions. In this study both young and older workers had positive perceptions, but younger workers had significantly more favorable perceptions than older workers. Perhaps the perceptions of older workers today reflect the sentiments of downsizing, the forcing of senior workers for earlier retirements, the disappointment of being replaced by junior, inexperienced workers for higher level positions in the organization, and the decreasing retirement benefits of the older workers.

Hassell and Perrewe (1995) also conducted research to examine individual beliefs about older workers. Their finding that gender was insignificant as a predictor of age climate is supported by the finding in this study as well. The fact that gender was insignificant as a predictor suggests that men and women do not significantly differ in their age perceptions. Another hypothesis tested by Hassell and Perrewe (1995) was that age was significantly related to positive beliefs about older workers. They found that although older workers hold more positive beliefs about older workers than younger workers hold, that younger workers also tended to have generally positive beliefs. Their finding

that even younger workers tended to hold positive beliefs is supported in this study. However, what was different in this study from the one by Hassell and Perrewe (1995) is that the age group that had more positive age perceptions was the younger age workers, not the older workers as in their study.

Job level climate

Job level climate is the perception of whether or not favoritism is operating about job levels in the organization. Previous research conducted pertaining to the job level climate focused on perceptions of discrimination about women and ethnic minorities, whereas, in this study the focus has been on whether favoritism is operating based on an employee's position in the workplace. Job level climate received the most unfavorable perceptions in comparison to the other climates. Seventy-five percent of the respondents agreed that there seems to be favoritism shown toward some job levels in this organization. Fifty-three percent of the respondents disagreed with the statement that the organization is committed to the fair treatment of all employees, regardless of job level. Forty-nine percent of the respondents have perceptions that there is not an awareness of the needs and values of all job levels fostered in the command.

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of the respondents toward job level climate based on paygrade, gender or management level; however, all of the bivariate perception scores are unfavorable (less than 3.50), but there still is a significant difference among the groups even with an unfavorable score. People in this organization who are in a low paygrade, a female, a non-manager, and a non-White, had the most unfavorable perceptions

of the job level climate. When ranked, those in lower paygrades and non-Whites have the least favorable perceptions of the job level climate.

The hypotheses pertaining to job level climate bivariate analyses were fully supported for all groups compared, except for the White, Non-White group. There is partial support for the hypothesis pertaining to the White and Non-White group. Fifty percent or more of both of these two groups have unfavorable perceptions toward the job level climate. This means that ethnicity did not make a difference pertaining to job level perceptions in the bivariate analysis.

There is a significant difference between the perceptions of managers and non-managers; 54 percent of the non-manager group had unfavorable perceptions of the job level climate, compared to 43 percent of the managers. However, both groups had unfavorable perceptions of the job level climate. If managers are having more favorable perceptions of the job level climate than non-managers, perhaps there is a lack of awareness of issues in the workplace or a difference in the priority of issues in the workplace between these two groups. These variances could account for what may be the source of differences in perceptions. Also, since the military is a hierarchical organization, perhaps the perceptions of "rank having its privileges" is negatively viewed by non-managers as favoritism given by level of position and not merit.

Perhaps due to the changes in the Navy pertaining to downsizing, the slow rate of advancement, decrease in promotions, and the restructuring within organizations, all groups are experiencing similar events that are negatively impacting on their perceptions of the job climate. There is also no significant

difference in the job level climate perceptions of officer personnel, enlisted personnel, and civilian personnel. Each group had unfavorable perceptions; the civilian and the enlisted groups had the same mean score of 3.06, a very low score.

In the multiple regression model the two variables associated with job level climate are gender (females) and ethnicity (African Americans). Perhaps something about one's gender and ethnicity explains the differences in how an individual believes one is treated based on job level in the organization. The attitudes and experiences of the African Americans, civilians and the enlisted personnel could offer an explanation because their perceptions were significantly, as well as negatively, different from others in the multivariate model. However, this is a very weak model since it can only explain about four percent of the variability of this model. Since none of the group memberships could substantially contribute to the explanation of the job level climate, perhaps future research of employees' experiences may offer some additional insight.

The qualitative data collected in this study gave in-depth information about the employees' perceptions about job level climate. Employees wrote more information about their job level experiences than any other climate listed on the open ended response sheet. Their areas of concern are briefly summarized as follows: staff concerns about hiring and promotions, advancement for women, lack of respect for civilian employees, lack of recognition of staff's accomplishments, and gender issues involving the perceptions of discrimination voiced by White males.

Perceptions of favoritism and racism concerning the job level climate may be explained by recent findings offered by Thomas (1990). Recent studies conducted by Thomas (1990), Cox, Lobel, and McLeod (1991), and Sackett and DuBois (1991) reveal areas of research other than just attitudinal measures of racial differences that may offer additional explanation for the variances of the job level climate which are not explained in this study. Thomas (1990) examined the impact of race on managers' experiences of developmental relationships (mentoring and sponsorship). In his study it was found that White protégés have almost no developmental relationships with persons of another race. With the increase in number of Non-White leaders, White protégés will need to form developmental relationships with persons of another race. In this study it was also found that African American protégés form 63 percent of their developmental relationships with Whites. There may also be the perception of belonging to the boys' club or the girls' clubs (favoritism for a select few) when such events occur. An exploration of these kinds of experiences, in addition to membership in a group may explain perceptions about how employees are treated in the organization.

Research conducted by Sackett and DuBois (1991) focused on the effects of rater and ratee race on performance ratings. This study did not focus on the effects of the race of the rater and performance ratings; maybe this is another area that can be explored for possible differences in perceptions toward the job level climate. Finding out how diverse groups work together may offer insight to differences in perceptions toward the job level climate.

A study conducted by Cox, Lobel, and McLeod (1991) addressed differences in cultural norms and values among ethnic groups in the United States and how these differences manifested themselves in work related behaviors. This study did not address differences in cultural norms and values in the workplace, but such phenomena may also impact on perceptions regarding racism and favoritism.

Physical ability climate and sexual orientation climate

Physical ability climate

The value and fair treatment of all employees, regardless of physical ability, is the focus of assessment of the physical ability climate. In this study, the number of employees who listed themselves as being disabled was just 44 employees. Only three questions in this study focused on how people with physical disabilities are treated in the workplace. In this study it was found that all groups had very favorable perceptions about how employees with physical disabilities were treated in the workplace and there were no significant differences between any of the groups (managers, non-managers, the younger age group, the older age group, Whites, non-Whites, males, and females).

Neither the bivariate hypotheses nor the multivariate hypothesis of this climate was supported. The results of the multivariate model showed that African Americans had less favorable perceptions than any other group about how persons with physical disabilities are treated. Since in this medical center only three percent of the employees list themselves as physically disabled, perhaps

there are not enough employees with a disability to get an accurate assessment of perceptions about their treatment in the workplace.

Previous research in this area identified specific attitudes of employers and employees toward physical ability in the workplace (Maldonado, 1993) and research on people's attitudes and behavioral reactions to individuals with physical disabilities (Katz, Hass, and Bailey, 1988). Maldonado (1993) found that the attitudes of employers and employees toward hiring persons with disabilities tended to be less favorable than positive. Katz, Hass, and Bailey (1988) found that the sentiments of many people about disabled people tend to be ambivalent rather than unambiguously hostile or friendly. Research of health care personnel's attitudes toward persons with disabilities was also conducted by Geskie and Salase (1988), and their findings were that the attitudes held toward different disability populations vary but are consistently more favorable than expected. This study and previous research studies about the physical disability climate explored the attitudes and the perceptions of how employees with a disability are treated in the workplace.

Sexual orientation climate

Perceptions of fair treatment of all employees, regardless of sexual orientation is the focus of the assessment of the sexual orientation climate. Previous research focused on the following: discriminatory practices about homosexuals that have been based on the belief that employing homosexuals has negative consequences for the organization and its employees (O'Brien and Vest, 1988), development of a scale to measure beliefs about the consequences

of employing homosexuals (O'Brien and Vest, 1988), and research pertaining to finding out the stereotypes regarding the occupations in which homosexuals work (Stewart, 1991). In this study the focus of the research was on perceptions of fair treatment of homosexuals in the workplace.

The results of the analysis of the qualitative data show that 48 percent of the 178 respondents stated that the sexual orientation of the employee should not matter. It is unknown what impact the recent publicity about sexual orientation in the military, or how the impact of the Navy's, "Don't ask, don't tell" policy regarding homosexuals may have influenced the perceptions of employees during this study. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of the respondents toward sexual orientation climate based on religion, management level, or gender in the bivariate analysis. It is interesting to note that in the bivariate analysis of the study, ethnicity was significant in the reverse order of what had been hypothesized. Non-Whites, particularly African Americans, had more favorable perceptions toward the sexual orientation climate than Whites. Perhaps this difference in perceptions is due to differences in expectations that each group has pertaining to fairness of treatment expressed in the workplace. In the multivariate analysis, the perceptions of African Americans were more favorable than White Americans, and the perceptions of civilians were more favorable than officers and the enlisted regarding how homosexuals are treated in the workplace (the sexual orientation climate).

FUTURE RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of the research information obtained from the question that asked, "Are there any other questions that we should have asked you?" should be used for further development of the instrument. These results may offer information that could identify climates not tested in this study. Instruments with reliability and validity to measure various aspects of the organizational climate are greatly needed. The instrument should also be revised so that information requested will be known by all levels of staff personnel, since some employees in the organization, based on their positions, did not believe that they were in a position to be aware of the organization's standing on some of its practices. This belief seem to be more prevalent by employees in lower job levels.

Further exploration of why some groups perceive the same information differently may offer insight to improve the concept of working in teams that is so prevalent in today's organizations. Climate and culture research conducted by Rentsch (1990) provided evidence that people who interact with each other had similar interpretations of organizational events and members of different interaction groups attached qualitatively different meanings to similar organizational events. It is especially important that differences or similarities that exist between groups which could affect the productivity of the organization continue to be researched. Perhaps, since group membership alone does not explain perceptions, future research should include individuals' experiences, behaviors observed, and/or interactions with others. It is also recommended that researchers in the military allow their research and findings to be more readily

available. A final recommendation is that future studies on military hospitals and civilian hospitals be conducted to determine if similar results are found in other military hospitals only, or other hospitals as well.

Future research based on experiences

This study focused on individuals' perceptions of diversity in the workplace pertaining to organizational climate, the gender climate, the ethnicity climate, the age climate, the job level climate, the physical ability climate, and the sexual orientation climate. Future research based on individuals' experiences may help to explain the variances better than the results of this study. This study sought to determine whether one's membership in a group based on ethnicity, gender, management level, job level, or age could offer an explanation about the differences in the perceptions of the employees in the organization. However, since the groups selected did not offer such an explanation, maybe the experiences that one encounters in the workplace may offer some insight. It is well known in the field of social psychology that one's attitudes and experiences shape one's perceptions.

Perhaps asking participants to describe critical incidents that have occurred to them in the organization, or were behaviors observed by them, could serve as a basis for better understanding of differences in employees' perceptions. Since today's work philosophy for employees in most organizations is the team concept, factors pertaining to the leadership style of managers that could hinder or promote group productivity should also continue to be researched.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study have revealed that the theory of embedded groups in organizations is partially supported and significant differences among ethnicity groups, management level, and gender occur based on differences of perceptions of diversity issues such as the organizational climate, the gender climate, the ethnicity climate, and the job level climate. It is noted that although in the multivariate analysis the explained variance's percentage was low, ethnicity was significant throughout all of the seven scales, followed by management level on five scales, and gender on three scales. However, the multiple regression analysis of the various climate shows that group membership can explain only a small portion of the variance of these climates.

The answers to explanation of the variances found in the dimensions of the diversity climates may lie in exploring dependent variables not yet studied. Ethnicity was the strongest predictor in this study of diversity climate. It is recommended that future research pertaining to diversity explore how employees' experiences in the workplace may influence perceptions of the diversity climate. It is also recommended that future research pertaining to diversity in the workplace shift its focus from bivariate analysis to multivariate analysis of the dependent and independent variables studied.

Since operational readiness is the number one goal of the military in the defense of this country, research pertaining to workforce diversity research must continue to be fully supported by the Department of Defense. How the increasing diversity of groups in the military may affect the military's ability to

perform as a cohesive organization in times of peace as well as world conflict is perhaps just as important as the development of modern warfare tactics. Lessons from history have repeatedly demonstrated that the fighting spirit and camaraderie of the group have won many battles against seemingly impossible foes. Further research conducted that continues to seek explanations that will assist any organization to maximize the "working together" or team concept of its members could provide unlimited possibilities to enhance the productivity of the organization.

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Appendix A

The Pilot Study

Purpose

A pilot test to determine the instrument in regards to how well the items were written and the amount of time it took to complete the instrument was conducted in June of 1996. There was a need to review the items that required a short written response to determine if there was any evidence that other issues of concern may not have been addressed by the survey questionnaire. The other purpose of the pilot test was to go through the entire survey process and to find out if the directions for using the answer sheet were clear and to try out how the procedure for usage of optical scanning prior to the full study. Since an answer sheet developed by the National Computer Systems, Inc. for optical scanning was to be used for questions one through seventy-eight, the pilot study would offer an opportunity to assess any problems with the answer sheet usage. Six open-ended questions required a short response from the participants. Half of the total number of the questionnaires would be placed in the front and the remaining half would be placed at the back of the questionnaire. This method was done to find out which placement would more suitable to enhance participation from the respondents to complete the information.

Procedure

May-1996-Advertising Month for the Pilot Study

During the month of May various forms of advertisement for the encouragement of staff participation were carried out. Strategies completed were procedures for using electronic mail, the hospital newspaper, the Plan of

the Day (a daily publication of the medical center's events and notices of importance), flyers and posters, and visits by the researcher to various staff meetings. These strategies were done to enhance participation in order to get a higher response rate.

June-1996-the Pilot Study

Procedure

1. Obtained permission from the military medical center to conduct research study.
2. Obtained approval from the Old Dominion University School of Health Sciences Human Subjects/Risk Management Committee to conduct research.
3. Discussed research study with the medical center's Board of Directors and Department Heads at selected meetings. Information about the study placed in the Plan of the Day and electronic mail.
4. Surveys distributed by data collectors to detaching staff by mid-June.
5. Fifty-four surveys completed by the end of June and were given to the researcher in a sealed envelope.
6. Data analysis performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences personal computer version.

Population

Personnel leaving the hospital due to transfer or leaving the military service due to retirement were used in the pilot testing of the instrument during the month of June. There were 188 persons due to leave in June of 1996.

However, by the time that the pilot study began (the second week in June), more than a third of the June staff had already checked out of the hospital or were on terminal leave prior to being discharged from the military.

The pilot group consisted of 76 persons who were similar to the people whose perceptions the researcher wished to measure and people who were most likely to express the whole range of perceptions that the instrument detected. The average length of employment at the medical center for this group was three years.

Response

The return response rate was 71 percent.

Survey results

A description of those who participated in the pilot study is listed in Table 1. The participants in the pilot study were mostly white enlisted males in the military who were non-managers. Frequencies were done on all the variables as listed in Table 2 and Table 3. Internal consistency was assessed by calculating Cronbach alphas to obtain reliability of each measure. The resulting coefficient alphas are shown in Table 4. With the exception of the age and physical ability scale, the reliabilities of the instrument ranged from .75 to .95. In the early stages of research on predictor tests or hypothesized measures of a construct, one saves time and energy by working with instruments that have only modest reliability, for which purpose reliabilities of .70 or higher will suffice (Nunnally, 1978). An alpha greater than .60 is considered reasonable in organization research (Finkelstein, 1992; Van de Van and Ferry, 1980).

The mean and standard deviation of all the scales of the instrument are shown in Table 5 along with the percentage rate that shows the perceptions of the diversity climate that is unfavorable toward each scale (these scores reflect a score of three or less). The persons in the pilot study believed that the diversity climate toward sexual orientation (66 percent) and job level (50 percent) were not favorable. All other scales were less than 24 percent unfavorable. A comparison of the scores of the participants of the pilot study are shown with the results of the responses of over 10,000 participants who have completed the instrument in Table 6. All of the scores were more than four except for visible commitment. A score of four or more is viewed as positive perceptions toward the scales being measured, such as organizational climate, gender, ethnicity, etc.

Results of the qualitative analysis of the pilot study

A qualitative analysis was conducted on the six open-ended questions. Coding was used to analyze respondents replies. Coding is a progressive process of sorting and defining scraps of collected data. (Glesne and Peskin, 1992). From the coding conducted, the data were analyzed to discover the themes which emerged from the data.

In order to determine the best placement for the open-ended questions for the respondents, half of the survey packets contained the open ended questions on a sheet placed on the front of the survey questionnaire and the other half of the survey questionnaires contained the sheet at the back of the questionnaires. Seventeen respondents answered this sheet placed on the front of the survey

questionnaire, and ten respondents answered the sheet that had been placed at the back of the questionnaire.

The open ended response that most persons wrote about was in regards to sexual orientation. The common theme that emerged was pertaining to the issues involving the military's "Don't ask, don't tell" policy involving homosexuals. The persons that responded believed that the military policy should change.

Results of responses to "Are there any other questions that we should have asked you?"

Responses to this question varied. Only seven persons completed this sheet. None of the responses were consistent among those who replied. Comments were made pertaining to more emphasis on officer programs, discrimination based on the number of children, sexual harassment situations not reported, one positive comment, and one negative comment about the survey questionnaire. The addition of "Mormon" to the options for selection of religion was based on a recommendation from these responses.

Changes to the Survey Method

Changes to the survey method were based upon the results of the pilot study, information obtained during the ongoing literature review, information obtained about the demographics of the medical center, and problems associated with the administration of the survey. These changes were as follows:

1. Two questions have been added to the demographic information-U. S. citizen and Directorate assigned.

2. The open-ended responses have been placed at the front of the survey instrument due to results of the pilot study. More participants answered the questions that were placed on the front of the questionnaire than those questions that were placed at the back of the questionnaire.
3. A category of "Mormon" was added to the selection for religion.
4. "Years of employment" on the demographic sheet was changed to "Years at (name of the medical center)."
5. Volunteers would not be used for the collection of data because they could not be held accountable for the timely delivery of survey packets.
6. It was not possible for data collectors to make contact with every person for delivery of the survey packet due to involvement of the staff with patient care, and staff shift work times. Data collectors made every effort to hand deliver survey packets to the staff. If staff, such as physicians, are unable to be personally contacted, then their secretary or leading petty officer of the unit , or division officer, can be given the packet , and the data collector will note to whom the packet was given. The same procedure will apply to the pick-up of surveys by the data collectors. Delivery to the staff member's work site and to whom the packet was delivered.

Table 1
Pilot Study Population Description

Ethnicity	N	%
Native American	1	2
Asian/Pacific Islander	3	6
Black	8	16
White	34	68
Other	8	4
Gender		
Female	19	38
Male	31	62
Age		
18-24	7	14
25-31	19	38
32-38	11	22
39-45	13	26
Language		
English	48	96
Other	2	4
Physical Ability		
Differently Abled	1	2
Not differently Abled	49	98

Religion		
Catholic	14	28
Protestant	30	60
Buddist	1	2
Other	1	2
None	4	8

Table 2

Responses to Each Positively Worded Item of the Questionnaire

SD = Strongly disagree

AS = Agree slightly

D = Disagree

A = Agree

DS = Disagree slightly

SA = Strongly agree

N=50

Question Number and Item	Percentage Answering					
	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
<u>Organizational Climate</u>						
Q#12 dedicated to the well being of all.	2	12	20	32	30	4
Q#13 pleased with progress in valuing people.	2	8	32	44	14	0
Q#14 excellent job addressing issues.	2	6	24	50	16	2
Q#15 attract & hire quality people.	2	12	20	32	32	2
Q#16 opportunities for growth and advancement.	6	2	10	30	36	16
Q#18 does a good job of helping employees.	2	10	20	46	20	2
Q#19 committed to the fair treatment of employees.	6	6	16	30	28	14
Q#20 forums exist where concerns can be addressed.	2	12	18	22	38	8
Q#22 dedicated to the well being of all.	2	10	20	30	34	4

<u>Gender</u>	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
Q#23 pleased with the progress of valuing women.	4	8	10	42	32	4
Q#24 excellent job addressing women issues.	4	4	16	42	32	2
Q#25 doing good job attracting and hiring women.	4	10	12	40	28	6
Q#28 growth and advancement exist for women.	2	4	12	24	42	16
Q#30 actively plans promotion of women.	4	6	22	32	34	2
Q#31 needs of women fostered in the command.	2	6	20	52	20	0
Q#34 committed to fair treatment of all.	8	2	16	30	32	12
Q#38 models for women within senior levels.	4	4	18	28	34	12
Q#39 forums women can voice their concerns.	4	8	22	30	32	4
Q#42 don't hear offensive remarks about women.	12	18	28	8	22	12
Q#43 excellent place for women.	2	6	10	34	38	10

	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
Q#44 dedicated to well being of all.	8	2	20	22	36	12
<u>Ethnicity</u>						
Q#45 progress made in valuing minorities.	2	8	12	34	38	6
Q#46 address issues important to minorities.	6	4	10	46	28	6
Q#47 awareness cultures of minorities.	6	18	36	32	8	0
Q#48 good job of hiring minorities.	2	4	2	36	40	14
Q#51 growth and advancement exist for minorities.	6	2	4	36	42	8
Q#53 plans for promotion of minorities.	8	6	14	44	20	6
Q#54 aware of career development needs of minorities.	0	2	30	36	30	2
Q#57 committed to fair treatment of all.	4	4	16	26	34	16
Q#61 good role models for minorities at top levels.	4	10	10	22	42	12
Q#62 minorities can voice concerns.	2	10	26	20	34	8
Q#65 offensive remarks about minorities not heard.	4	20	24	10	30	12
Q#66 excellent place for minorities to work.	2	8	12	18	42	18

<u>Age</u>	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
Q#68 fair treatment regardless of age.	2	6	20	28	30	14
Q#69 awareness needs of older employees.	0	6	28	34	26	4
<u>Physical Ability</u>	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
Q#71 fair treatment of physical ability.	4	6	8	32	42	8
Q#72 needs of physically challenged fostered.	2	8	24	30	34	2
<u>Sexual Orientation</u>	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
Q#74 fair treatment regardless of sexual orientation.	20	24	22	12	16	6
Q#75 awareness of employees with alternative sexual orientation.	26	50	10	8	4	2
<u>Job Level</u>	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
Q#77 fair treatment of all job levels.	14	14	28	12	22	10
Q#78 values of all job levels fostered.	2	20	18	24	24	10

Table 3

Responses to Each Negatively Worded Item of the Questionnaire

SD = Strongly disagree

AS = Agree slightly

D = Disagree

A = Agree

DS = Disagree slightly

SA = Strongly agree

N=50

Question Number and Item	Percentage Answering					
<u>Organizational Climate</u>	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
Q#17 training and development programs do not meet needs.	2	30	30	28	10	0
Q#21 some given preferential treatment.	6	4	10	32	24	24
<u>Gender</u>	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
Q#26 should do more to recruit women.	0	38	28	16	12	6
Q#27 women hired for dead end jobs.	16	42	22	14	2	4
Q#29 women not promoted to same degree men.	16	38	22	14	6	4
Q#32 programs not meet needs of women.	12	36	30	20	2	0
Q#33 need to develop programs for women.	8	26	18	30	12	6
Q#35 success more demanding for women.	18	32	28	12	8	2

Question Number and Item	Percentage Answering					
	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
Q#36 women not involved in communication as men.	14	30	24	14	16	2
Q#37 more women needed in top.	6	38	16	22	12	6
Q#40 favoritism shown toward men.	16	42	20	6	10	4
Q#41 fair treatment of women ignored.	6	40	36	10	4	4
<u>Ethnicity</u>						
Q#49 do more to recruit minorities.	10	34	26	20	8	2
Q#50 minorities hired for dead-end jobs.	16	40	30	6	2	4
Q#52 minorities not promoted same.	16	36	26	8	10	4
Q#55 programs not meet needs of minorities.	10	36	36	16	2	0
Q#56 more effective programs for minorities.	8	24	26	26	10	6
Q#58 criteria demanding for minorities.	14	42	22	10	10	2
Q#59 minorities not involved in	10	36	26	14	10	2

network.							
Q#60	need more minorities in	2	28	24	26	16	4
network.							
Q#63	ignore fair treatment of	14	38	30	12	4	2
minorities.							
Q#64	favoritism toward non-	20	38	22	6	8	4
minorities.							

<u>Age</u>						
Q#67 favoritism toward younger employees	16	48	22	10	4	0
Q#70 favoritism toward physically abled.	8	36	18	14	18	6
<u>Sexual Orientation</u>						
Q#73 favoritism toward heterosexuals.	4	18	12	14	26	26
<u>Job Level</u>						
Q#76 favoritism shown toward some job levels.	2	16	10	24	24	22

Table 4
Correlation Analysis
Cronbach Coefficient Alpha

Scale	Standardized Item Alpha	Alpha
1. Organization climate	.8606	.8548
2. Gender	.9483	.9410
3. Ethnicity	.9483	.9467
4. Age	.5335	.5340
5. Physical ability	.6659	.6427
6. Sexual Orientation	.7868	.7820
7. Job level	.7558	.7572

Table 5
Mean, Standard Deviation, and Unfavorable Percentage Rate of Scales

Scale	Mean (SD)	Percentage Rate Unfavorable
<u>Organization climate</u>	3.79 (.759)	12
<u>Gender</u>		18
Diversity climate	3.99 (.965)	
Hiring practices	4.07 (.971)	18
Promotion practices	4.24 (.868)	8
Training & development	3.96 (.824)	14
Equity and fairness	4.17 (1.09)	20
Visible commitment	3.99 (.948)	22
Politics in workplace	4.07 (1.04)	24
<u>Ethnicity</u>		
Diversity climate	4.13 (.921)	14
Hiring practices	4.32 (.900)	10
Promotion practices	4.09 (1.04)	16
Training & development	4.04 (.821)	12
Equity and fairness	4.24 (1.04)	16
Visible commitment	3.95 (.922)	22
Politics in the workplace	4.25 (.968)	10
<u>Age</u>	4.23 (.812)	10
<u>Physical ability</u>	4.01 (.951)	14
<u>Sexual orientation</u>	2.67 (1.21)	66
<u>Job level</u>	3.30 (1.18)	50

Table 6
Mean and Standard Deviations of the Pilot Study

Scales	Previous Studies Mean	Pilot Study Mean	SD
Gender Climate			
Gender diversity climate	3.94	3.99	.965
Hiring practices	3.99	4.07	.971
Promotion practices	3.95	4.24	.868
Training and development	3.59	3.96	.824
Equity and fairness	3.74	4.17	1.09
Visible commitment	3.39	3.99	.948
Politics in the workplace	3.81	4.07	1.04
Total score/gender	3.77	4.07	
Ethnicity Climate			
Ethnic diversity climate	4.14	4.13	.921
Hiring practices	4.11	4.32	.900
Promotion practices	4.19	4.09	1.04
Training and development	3.82	4.04	.821
Equity and fairness	3.87	4.24	1.04

Visible commitment	3.68	3.95	.922
Politics in the workplace	4.15	4.25	.968
Total score/ethnicity	3.99	4.15	
Age		4.23	.812
Physical Ability		4.01	.951
Sexual Orientation		2.67	1.21
Job Level		3.30	1.18

END OF PILOT STUDY

Appendix B

Responses to Each Positively Worded Item of the Questionnaire

SD=STRONGLY DISAGREE

D=DISAGREE

DS=DISAGREE SLIGHTLY

AS=AGREE SLIGHTLY

A=AGREE

SA=STRONGLY AGREE

N=1252

%D=Percentage 'Disagree'

Question Number and Item

Percentage Answering

Organizational climate	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%D
Q#15 dedicated to the well being of all	8	14	14	25	35	6	36
Q#16 progress valuing people	7	15	17	29	28	4	39
Q#17 excellent job addressing issues	8	15	17	32	25	4	40
Q#18 attract and hire quality people	7	12	16	29	29	6	35
Q#19 opportunities for growth and advancement	14	15	13	23	26	8	42
Q#21 good job helping employees	8	14	17	33	25	3	39
Q#22 committed fair treatment of employees	11	12	15	23	32	8	38
Q#23 forums exist where concerns can be addressed	9	13	12	27	33	7	34
Gender							
Q#25 fair treatment of all	6	11	13	23	38	9	30

Q#26	pleased w/progress valuing	4	7	12	27	40	10	23
	women							
Q#27	excellent job addressing women	5	8	15	31	33	8	28
	issues							
Q#28	doing good job attracting and	3	4	10	26	45	11	17
	hiring women							
Q#31	growth and advancement exist	7	7	11	22	40	12	25
	for women							
Q#33	actively plans promotion of	7	14	20	23	28	7	41
	women							
Q#34	needs of women fostered in the	5	15	19	27	28	6	39
	command							
Q#37	committed to fair treatment of all	9	11	12	22	35	12	32
Q#41	models for women within senior	6	9	11	23	38	14	26
	levels							
Q#42	forums where women can voice	7	14	18	25	31	6	39
	their concerns							
Q#45	don't hear offensive remarks	10	18	17	13	30	12	45
	about women							

Q#46 excellent place for women to work	3	5	13	28	31	21	21
Ethnicity	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%D
Q#47 dedicated to well being of all	8	11	12	22	33	13	31
Q#48 progress valuing minorities	5	11	12	26	35	11	28
Q#49 address issues important to minorities	6	10	13	28	32	11	29
Q#50 awareness culture of minorities	4	7	14	27	35	13	25
Q#51 good job of hiring minorities	4	6	10	26	38	16	20
Q#54 growth and advancement exist for minorities	4	7	11	25	42	12	22
Q#56 plans for promotion of minorities	7	11	18	26	28	10	36
Q#57 aware career development of minorities	5	13	18	28	28	8	36
Q#60 committed to fair treatment of all	8	11	10	22	35	14	29
Q#64 role models for minorities at top	6	10	14	23	36	12	30
Q#65 minorities can voice concerns	6	12	14	26	32	11	32
Q#68 offensive remarks minorities not heard	7	14	17	13	34	14	38
Q#69 excellent place minorities to work	2	5	13	26	35	20	20

Age	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%D
Q#71 fair treatment regardless of age	6	8	12	24	39	11	26
Q#72 awareness needs of older worker employees	6	13	20	27	28	7	39
Physical Ability	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%D
Q#74 fair treatment regardless of disability	5	8	11	25	40	13	24
Q#75 needs of physically challenged fostered	4	11	15	28	34	9	30
Sexual Orientation	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%D
Q#77 fair treatment regardless of sexual orientation	14	16	10	19	31	11	40
Q#78 awareness of employees with alternative sexual orientation	24	30	16	14	12	4	70
Job Level	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%D
Q#80 fair treatment of all job levels	16	19	18	23	18	6	53
Q#81 values of all job levels fostered	10	17	22	27	19	5	49
Domestic versus International	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%D
Q#83 fair treatment of all	5	7	12	28	38	10	24
Q#84 awareness of international employees	5	10	16	30	30	10	31

Responses to Each Negatively Worded Item of the Questionnaire

SD=Strongly Disagree

D=Disagree

DS=Disagree Slightly

AS=Agree Slightly

A=Agree

SA=Strongly Agree

N=1252

%A=Percentage 'Agree'

Question Number and Item	Percentage Answering						
	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%A
Organizational Climate							
Q#20 training and development programs do not meet needs	6	31	19	19	18	8	45
Q#24 some given preferential treatment	4	8	7	22	30	29	81
Gender							
Q#29 should do more to recruit women	7	26	24	20	18	6	44
Q#30 women hired for dead end jobs	14	33	17	15	12	9	36
Q#32 women not promoted to same degree men	16	31	19	15	12	6	33
Q#35 programs not meet needs of women	12	31	23	19	11	4	34

Q#36 need to develop programs for women	8	18	18	24	24	9	57
Q#38 success more demanding for women	16	32	21	15	10	6	31
Q#39 women not in communication	17	34	19	16	10	4	30
Q#40 more women needed at top	10	21	17	21	21	10	52
Q#43 favoritism shown toward men	18	30	19	18	9	7	34
Q#44 fair treatment of women ignored	14	35	21	17	8	5	30
Ethnicity	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%A
Q#52 do more to recruit minorities	13	26	22	19	14	7	40
Q# 53 minorities in dead end jobs	17	32	21	14	9	7	30
Q#55 minorities not promoted the same	19	32	18	12	11	7	30
Q#58 programs not meet needs of minorities	14	31	25	17	10	4	31
Q#59 need more effective programs for minorities	12	23	19	20	17	9	46
Q#61 criteria demanding for minorities	20	37	17	11	9	6	26
Q#62 minorities not involved in communication network	16	32	17	16	13	7	36

Q#63 need more minorities in top management	10	18	17	20	21	14	55
Q#66 ignore fair treatment of minorities	15	34	21	14	10	7	31
Q#67 favoritism toward non-minorities	19	32	18	13	11	8	32
Age	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%A
Q#70 favoritism toward younger employees	18	40	18	13	7	4	24
Physical ability							
Q#73 favoritism toward physically abled	13	35	21	16	10	6	32
Sexual Orientation	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%A
Q#76 favoritism toward heterosexuals	15	30	11	15	15	15	45
Job Level	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%A
Q#79 favoritism shown some job levels	5	12	9	19	31	25	75
Domestic versus International	SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA	%A
Q#82 favoritism toward domestic employees	14	36	23	14	9	4	27

Appendix C

Diversity Survey © 1992 Brinkman, LaFasto, Larson.

September/October 1996

Dear Staff Member,

I am an active duty Navy Nurse Corps Officer currently pursuing a Ph.D. degree in the field of Urban Services-Health Services concentration program at Old Dominion University in Norfolk, Virginia. Since the workforce is steadily becoming more diverse, I have chosen to study the management of diversity in the health care workplace.

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your completion of this survey denotes your consent to participate in this study. You will not be adversely affected if you do not participate in this study. **No identifiers** (no numbers or codes on the questionnaire) are used for identification of who completes the survey. **Your individual responses are entirely confidential.** All results are reported as a group only. Your involvement in this study may provide insight into the perceptions of health care personnel toward diversity at this hospital. Finding out such information may have significance for policy making and/or training for the staff.

The questionnaire should take about 20 minutes of your time to complete. Please place your completed questionnaire and the answer sheet in the self-addressed envelope provided and seal the envelope. Then give the **sealed** envelope to the same data collector who gave you the packet. A list of the names of data collectors is provided in this envelope or you may view the list on e-mail under the g.diversity group.

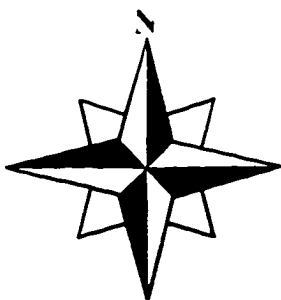
If you have any other questions about the study, please feel free to contact me or my Dissertation Chairperson, Dr. Clare Houseman, at Old Dominion University at 683-4259 or via e-mail cxh100x@cranium.hs.odu.edu. I can be reached at the address below or via e-mail on the CHCS system as Sharpeje or on the internet as pnh0jes@pnh10.med.navy.mil. When the study is completed, the results will be available upon request to me. **Your data collector will collect your sealed envelope in two weeks from the date that you received your packet.**

Sincerely,

Captain J. E. Sharpe, NC, USN
Head, Staff Education and Training
Naval Medical Center
Portsmouth, Virginia 23708-5100
(804) 398-5623 or 398-5459

Dr. Clare Houseman
Health Services Concentration
Ph.D. Program in Urban Services
Old Dominion University
Norfolk, VA 23529-0286





Directions for Completion of the Diversity Survey

1. Check your packet and make sure that you have the following seven items:

1. a "Diversity Survey" questionnaire. (Yellow)
2. a "General Purpose-NCS Answer Sheet" (green and white sheet).
3. a yellow 3X5 card with your name attached to it.
4. a 9X12 government mailing envelope with "Captain Sharpe's name on it.
5. a "U. S. Government Messenger Envelope" (guard mail envelope) addressed to Captain Sharpe (the one that you have received your materials for the study).
6. a list of Data Collectors or see g.diversity on e-mail (CHCS).
7. a sharpened pencil.

Note: If any of these materials are missing from your packet, please call the Staff Education and Training Department at 398-5623 or 398-5459. You could also send an e-mail message to Sharpej via CHCS.

2. Remove and discard the "removable label" with your name on it from the front of the guard mail envelope that you received your materials for the study.
3. Complete the questionnaire, be sure to answer each question from "1-84" using the General Purpose-NCS answer sheet. Open-end questions can be answered if you wish to comment on any area of concern to recommend improvement. Do not write your name or social security number on the answer sheet. Note that the questionnaire has information on the front and back.
4. **TO REMAIN ANONYMOUS, DO NOT MAIL THE YELLOW 3x5 CARD THAT HAS YOUR NAME ON IT WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND ANSWER SHEET.**

5. Place the questionnaire and completed NCS-Answer Sheet in the 9X12 envelope, and seal the 9X12 envelope. Write the word "sealed" across the flap of the envelope to insure that the seal will not be broken by any one other than the researcher. Give the sealed 9X12 envelope to the data collector. The data collector has been instructed to give the sealed envelope to me with the seal unopened.
6. Then, place the yellow 3X5 card in the Guard mail envelope addressed to Captain Sharpe and mail it immediately! My receipt of your card will indicate that you have returned the questionnaire and answer sheet to the data collector, and will mean it is not necessary for me to send you a reminder, requesting a response.

7. Once you have mailed the guard mail envelope with Captain Sharpe's name on it that contains the yellow 3X5 card, you have completed your participation in the study. **THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!!!**

Now, please consider how our organization handles diversity issues related to the following categories: age, physical ability, sexual orientation, job level, gender and ethnicity. In your opinion, **what changes (if any) does OUR ORGANIZATION need to make in any of the following areas?**

Age

Physical Ability

Sexual Orientation

Job Level

Gender: What would have to change in order for you to feel our organization is an excellent place for women to work? (Please be as specific as possible.)

Ethnicity: What would have to change in order for you to feel our organization is an excellent place for minorities to work? (Please be as specific as possible.)

DIVERSITY SURVEY¹

Our organization is in the process of analyzing the way we emphasize and value differences among our staff. The following questionnaire is designed to assess your perceptions about our organization and its ability to handle issues associated with gender, ethnicity, and other aspects of our population.

BLACKEN THE CIRCLE WITH THE NUMBER CORRESPONDING TO THE ANSWER YOU SELECTED IN QUESTIONS * 1 - 84* ONLY ON THE ANSWER SHEET PROVIDED.

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Ethnic Identity
 - ① Native American
 - ② Asian/Pacific islander
 - ③ Black (non-Hispanic)
 - ④ Hispanic-American
 - ⑤ White (non-Hispanic)
 - ⑥ Biracial/Multiracial
 - ⑦ Other/Unknown
2. Your Gender
 - ① Female
 - ② Male
3. Your Age
 - ① 18-24
 - ② 25-31
 - ③ 32-38
 - ④ 39-45
 - ⑤ 46-52
 - ⑥ 53-59
 - ⑦ 60-66
 - ⑧ 67-73
 - ⑨ 74-80
4. Language Spoken at Home:
 - ① English
 - ② Other
5. Differently abled (handicapped)
 - ① No
 - ② Yes
6. Years at NMCP
 - ① 0-6 years
 - ② 7-13 years
 - ③ 14-20 years
 - ④ 21-27 years
 - ⑤ 28-34 years
 - ⑥ 35-41 years
7. Your Management Level
 - ① Board of Directors/ Assistant Director
 - ② Dept. Head/Assistant Department Head
 - ③ Division Officer/ Assistant Division officer
 - ④ Master Chief, Senior Chief or Chief
 - ⑤ Officer in Charge (Branch Clinic)
 - ⑥ Civilian Supervisor
 - ⑦ None of the above
8. U.S. Citizen
 - ① No
 - ② Yes
9. Pay Category/Civilians
 - ① GS 1-4
 - ② GS 5-8
 - ③ GS 9-12
 - ④ GS 13-15
 - ⑤ WG 1-4
 - ⑥ WG 5-8
 - ⑦ WG 9-12
 - ⑧ WDM/L 5-8
 - ⑨ Not a civilian
10. Pay Grade for Enlisted
 - ① E1-E3
 - ② E4-E6
 - ③ E7-E9
 - ④ Not enlisted
11. Pay Grade for Officers
 - ① O1-O4
 - ② O5-O7
 - ③ W2-W3
 - ④ Not an officer
12. Your religious preference
 - ① Catholic (e.g. Roman Catholic)
 - ② Protestant (e.g., Lutheran, Baptist, Presbyterian, etc.)
 - ③ Jewish
 - ④ Mormon
 - ⑤ Muslim
 - ⑥ Buddhist
 - ⑦ Other
 - ⑧ None
13. Directorate Assigned
 - ① Commander/Deputy Commander/Med Dir
 - ② Dir for Admin
 - ③ Dir for Resources
 - ④ Dir of Nursing
 - ⑤ Dir Med Svcs
 - ⑥ Dir Surg Svcs
 - ⑦ Dir Ancillary Svcs
 - ⑧ Dir Pastoral Care
 - ⑨ Dir Community Health
14. Question #13 Cont'd
 - ① Selection made in #13
 - ② Dir Health, Safety, & Enviro Svcs
 - ③ Dir Managed Care
 - ④ Don't know

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SECTION I. ORGANIZATION CLIMATE

The following questions focus on general practices within our organization. Blacken the circle with the number corresponding to the answer you selected on the answer sheet provided. Select 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6 for each statement, according to your level of agreement or disagreement with the statement.

1 = strongly disagree

2 = disagree

3 = disagree slightly

4 = agree slightly

5 = agree

6 = strongly agree

Organization Climate

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15. It is clear that our organization is dedicated to the well being of its employees. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 16. I am very pleased with the progress our organization has made in valuing people. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 17. Our organization is doing an excellent job of addressing issues important to employees. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 18. Our organization does a good job of attracting and hiring high quality people. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 19. Opportunities for growth and advancement exist in our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 20. Our organization's training and development programs do not meet the needs of our employees. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 21. Our organization does a good job of helping employees feel confident and capable. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 22. Our organization is committed to the fair treatment of all employees. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 23. There are forums where employees can voice their concerns in our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 24. Some people are given preferential treatment in our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

SECTION II. GENDER

The following questions focus on how women are treated within our organization. Blacken the circle with the number corresponding to the answer you selected on the answer sheet provided. Select 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6 for each statement, according to your level of agreement or disagreement with the statement.

1 = strongly disagree

2 = disagree

3 = disagree slightly

4 = agree slightly

5 = agree

6 = strongly agree

Diversity Climate

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 25. It is clear that our organization is dedicated to the well being of its employees, regardless of whether they are male or female. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 26. I am very pleased with the progress our organization has made in valuing women within the work place. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 27. Our organization is doing an excellent job of addressing issues important to women. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

Hiring Practices

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 28. Our organization does a good job of attracting and hiring women. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 29. Our organization should do more than it is doing presently to recruit women. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 30. Women tend to be hired for dead-end jobs. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

Promotion Practices

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 31. Opportunities for growth and advancement exist for women in our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 32. Female employees with skill and experience are not promoted to the same degree as male employees. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 33. Our organization actively plans for the promotion of women. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

Training and Development

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 34. An awareness of the career development needs of women is fostered within our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 35. Our organization's training and development programs do not meet the needs of female employees. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 36. Our organization needs to develop more effective support programs for female employees. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

Equity and Fairness

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 37. Our organization is committed to the fair treatment of all employees, regardless of whether they are male or female. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 38. In our organization, the performance criteria for success are more demanding for women than for men. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 39. Women are not involved in our organization's communication channels and networks as much as are men. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

Visible Commitment

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 40. Our organization needs more women in top management. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 41. Within the senior levels of management in our organization, there are good role models for women. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 42. There are forums where women can voice their concerns in our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

Politics in The Work Place

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 43. There seems to be favoritism shown toward men in our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 44. In our organization, people often ignore or "get around" guidelines for the fair treatment of women. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

45. In our organization, I do not hear offensive stories, jokes, or remarks about women. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

46. Darken the number on the answer sheet which best represents on the continuum shown, how you feel about the following question. In your opinion, to what extent do you feel our organization is an excellent place for women to work?

① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

A VERY POOR PLACE FOR WOMEN TO WORK AN EXCELLENT PLACE FOR WOMEN TO WORK

SECTION III. ETHNICITY

The following questions focus on how minorities are treated within our organization. Blacken the circle with the number corresponding to the answer you selected on the answer sheet provided. Select 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6 for each statement, according to your level of agreement or disagreement with the statement.

1 = strongly disagree

2 = disagree

3 = disagree slightly

4 = agree slightly

5 = agree

6 = strongly agree

Diversity Climate

47. It is clear that our organization is dedicated to the well being of its employees, regardless of whether they are minorities or non-minorities. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

48. I am very pleased with the progress our organization has made in valuing minorities within the work place. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

49. Our organization is doing an excellent job of addressing issues important to minorities. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

50. An awareness of the customs, cultures, and values of minorities is fostered within our organization. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

Hiring Practices

51. Our organization does a good job of attracting and hiring minorities. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

52. Our organization should do more than it is doing presently to recruit minorities. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

53. Minorities tend to be hired for dead-end jobs. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

Promotion Practices

54. Opportunities for growth and advancement exist for minorities in our organization. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

55. Minority employees with skill and experience are not promoted to the same degree as non-minority employees. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

56. Our organization actively plans for the promotion of minorities. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

Training and Development

57. An awareness of the career development needs of minorities is fostered within our organization. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

58. Our organization's training and development programs do not meet the needs of minority employees. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

59. Our organization needs to develop more effective support programs for minority employees. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

Equity and Fairness

60. Our organization is committed to the fair treatment of all employees, whether they are minorities or non-minorities. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

61. In our organization, the performance criteria for success are more demanding for minorities than for non-minorities. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

62. Minorities are not involved in our organization's communication channels and networks as much as are non-minorities. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 71. Our organization is committed to the fair treatment of all employees, regardless of age. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 72. An awareness of the needs and values of older employees is fostered within our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

SECTION V: PHYSICAL ABILITY

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Physical Ability | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 73. There seems to be favoritism shown toward physically-abled employees in our organization. | | | | | | |
| 74. Our organization is committed to the fair treatment of all employees, regardless of physical ability. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 75. An awareness of the needs and values of physically challenged employees is fostered within our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

SECTION VI: SEXUAL ORIENTATION

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sexual Orientation | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 76. There seems to be favoritism shown toward heterosexual employees in our organization. | | | | | | |
| 77. Our organization is committed to the fair treatment of all employees, regardless of sexual orientation. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 78. An awareness of the needs and values of employees with alternative sexual orientations is fostered within our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

SECTION VII: JOB LEVEL

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 79. There seems to be favoritism shown toward some job levels in our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 80. Our organization is committed to the fair treatment of all employees, regardless of job level. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 81. An awareness of the needs and values of all job levels is fostered within our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |

SECTION VIII: DOMESTIC VERSUS INTERNATIONAL

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 82. There seems to be favoritism shown toward domestic employees in our organization. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 83. Our organization is committed to the fair treatment of all employees, regardless of whether they are domestic or international.. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |
| 84. An awareness of the customs, cultures and values of international employees is fostered within our organization.. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ |



**Are there any other questions that we
should have asked you?**

**Thank you for participating in this
survey!**

CAPTAIN JACQUELINE ELAINE SHARPE NC USN

Captain Sharpe was born in Spartanburg, South Carolina and attended the public schools there. She graduated with honors from Carver high School in 1967, (ranked 7/170 students) receiving 11 academic awards and an academic scholarship to Winston-Salem State University (WSSU) in Winston-Salem, North Carolina. After graduating Cum Laude from WSSU in 1971, Captain Sharpe worked for a year as a registered nurse in her local hometown prior to joining the Navy. She was commissioned as a Lieutenant, junior grade on January 16, 1972. Her active duty service began at the National Naval Medical Center, Bethesda, Maryland following indoctrination at the Officer's Indoctrination School in Newport, Rhode Island. Advancing progressively, she obtained the rank of Captain on December 1, 1992, being the tenth African-American female, at that time, selected in the history of the U.S. Navy Nurse Corps. During her off duty time for the past four and one-half years, Captain Sharpe has completed all required course work for a Ph.D. degree at Old Dominion University in Norfolk, Virginia. An internship in managed care was also completed with Sentara, the largest local HMO group. Her field of study is Urban Studies - Health Care Services - supported with a cognate area in Multicultural Education. Her doctoral dissertation is "A Survey of Health Care Personnel's Perception's Toward Diversity in the Workplace".

Captain Sharpe's assignments have included the following: staff/charge nurse at the National Naval Medical Center, Bethesda, Maryland from 1972 to 1974; Instructor, Hospital Corps School, Great Lakes, Illinois from 1974 to 1977; ICU/CCU Nurse, Charge Nurse, Psychiatry, Assistant Nursing Education Coordinator, Naval Regional Medical Center, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina from 1977 to 1980; duty under instruction, University of Maryland from 1980 to 1982 where she obtained a Master of Science Degree in Nursing Education; Staff Nurse, Clinical Instructor, Assistant Educational Coordinator, Naval Hospital, Bethesda, Maryland from 1982 to 1985; Head Command Education and Training, Naval Hospital, Roosevelt Roads, Puerto Rico from 1985 to 1988; Head, Education and Training, Naval Medical Command, Mid-Atlantic Region from 1988 to 1989 (Command decommissioned 01OCT89); Interim Officer in Charge and OutPatient Care Coordinator, Admiral Joel T. Boone Clinic, Little Creek Amphibious Base, Norfolk, Virginia from November 1989 to September 1991; Director, Ambulatory Nursing Service, Oceana Branch Medical Clinic, Naval Air Station, Oceana from September 1991 to September 1992. Captain Sharpe presently serves as Head, Staff Education and Training, Naval Medical Center, Portsmouth, Virginia. Her awards include the Navy Commendation Medal with two Gold Stars in lieu of second and third medals, the Meritorious Unit Service Medal with Bronze Star in lieu of second medal, National Defense Medal with Bronze Star in lieu of second medal, the Navy/Marine Corps Overseas Ribbon with two Bronze Stars and the Coast Guard Special Operations Ribbon.

Captain Sharpe is a member of Sigma Theta Tau International National Honor Society of Nursing, Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, The National Naval Officer's Association, National Black Nurses Association, The American Public Health Association, The Health Services Research Association and The National Association of Female Executives. Since 1990 she has been listed in *Who's Who in American Nursing* for significant contribution to the nursing profession and is listed in the 1993 edition of *2,000 Notable American Women* for outstanding professional and community achievement. **CAPT Sharpe's curriculum vitae has been listed since 1995 in The National Association of Female Executives.** Captain Sharpe has been married twenty one years to Dr. Isiah R. Sharpe III from Rocky Mount, North Carolina and they have four children: Victor, Sara, Jaclyn and Sean.