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An Inclusive Public Sector Workplace

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An Inclusive Public Sector Workplace

by

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Abstract

An Inclusive Public Sector Workplace

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This report explores the intersection between public management and workplace inclusion. At its core, workplace inclusion refers to an individual's ability to participate meaningfully and access opportunities within an organization, regardless of his or her unique identity (Mor Barak, 2005 & Prime et. al, 2010). The public sector is of particular interest to this author because of the types of services provided, populations served, and people employed by government agencies. Structural constraints, high expectations of transparency, and broad accountability to the public at large also make public sector organizations a unique management setting.

Hill and Lynn (2009) developed a three-dimensional approach to public management that is one of the foundations of this report. In their framework, the three dimensions of public management are structure, culture, and craft. This framework is used in this report because it captures the complex environmental and individual factors that influence a public manager's ability to achieve organizational goals. Mor Barak's (2005) model for an inclusive workplace serves as the second foundation for this report because it is on the cutting edge of social work research. Her model combines both

business and social work perspectives to capture the multidisciplinary nature of workplace inclusion. Supplementing these models, private sector research is discussed to illustrate the potential examples, benefits, and limitations of creating an inclusive workplace.

The purpose of this report is to create a foundation for future empirical research and to offer an inclusive public management perspective to practitioners. It attempts to integrate models from different disciplines and apply private sector research to a public management context. This report operates under the premise that management practice can be enhanced when the strengths and unique perspectives of different disciplines—such as social work, business, and public management—are shared and integrated. An effectively implemented inclusive public sector workplace model has the potential to mitigate social injustice at the organizational level and enhance an agency’s ability to fulfill its mission.

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Executive Summary

All social workers must abide by the Code of Ethics outlined by the National Association of Social Workers (NASW). A critically important ethical principle within the Code is the requirement that members of the profession challenge social injustice:

Social workers pursue social change, particularly with and on behalf of vulnerable and oppressed individuals and groups of people...Social workers strive to ensure access to needed information, services, and resources; equality of opportunity; and meaningful participation in decision making for all people (NASW Code).

Social workers practice at a variety of systems levels, from individuals, families and groups, to organizations, communities, and social institutions. Challenging institutionalized inequity by encouraging greater workplace inclusion is one avenue for fulfilling this professional obligation.

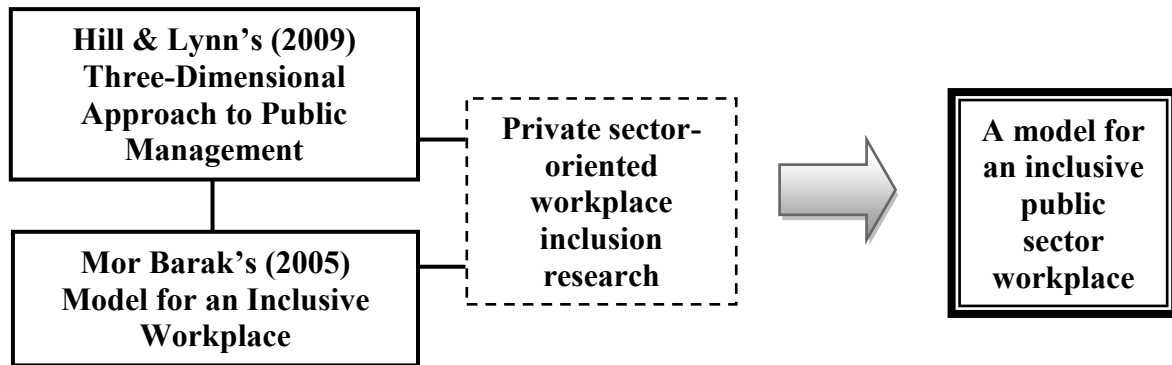
“Inclusion” is an umbrella construct—a broad concept used to describe a diverse set of phenomena (Hirsch & Levin, 1999). A work environment can be inclusive, as can an organization’s culture (Prime et. al, 2010). Structural components, such as policies and procedures, can be inclusive (Prime et. al, 2010). An individual employee can experience inclusion in the workplace and a manager can promote inclusion through his or her actions and leadership style (Mor Barak, 2005 & Prime et. al, 2010). At its core, workplace inclusion refers to an individual’s ability to participate meaningfully and access opportunities within an organization, regardless of his or her unique identity (Mor Barak, 2005). Identity in this sense does not refer to the items one might find on a resume: skill sets, education level, work experience, or professional qualifications. Instead, identity refers to characteristics related to social justice including gender, race, ethnicity, disability status, or sexual orientation (Mor Barak, 2005).

This report explores the intersection between public management and workplace inclusion. The public sector is the focus of this report because public/government sector organizations frequently employ social workers and serve vulnerable populations. Hill and Lynn (2009) developed a three-dimensional approach to public management that is one of the foundations of this report. In their framework, the three dimensions of public management are structure, culture, and craft. Structure refers to the formal, legally-bound delegations of responsibility and authority given to public managers. Structural elements can be internal or external to the organization, and can enable or constrain a manager's activities.

Culture refers to the informal, unseen climate inside an organization that can either support or hinder a manager's ability to act. Values, beliefs, norms, unwritten rules, and patterns of meaning are all included in the concept of culture. Craft deals with the individual manager and the extent to which he or she can act successfully within the environmental limitations imposed by the other two dimensions. Craft rests heavily upon sound decision making, judgment, and the ability to prioritize and address complex demands. Hill and Lynn's framework is used as a foundation for this report because it captures the complex environmental and individual factors that can influence a public manager's ability to achieve organizational goals.

This report merges the three-dimensional approach with the concept of workplace inclusion to propose a model for an inclusive public sector workplace. Mor Barak's (2005) model for an inclusive workplace serves as the second foundation for this report because it is on the cutting edge of social work research. The four levels of her model can be easily applied to a private sector setting and combine both business and social work perspectives. Supplementing these models, private sector research is included to illustrate the potential examples, benefits, and limitations of workplace inclusion.

Figure 1: Goal of the Report



This report aims to contribute to the conceptual exploration of workplace inclusion in the public sector, create a foundation for future empirical research, and offer an inclusive public management perspective to practitioners. It attempts to integrate models from different disciplines and apply private sector research to a public management context. This report operates under the premise that management practice can be enhanced when the strengths and unique perspectives of different disciplines—such as social work, business, and public management—are shared and integrated. An effectively implemented inclusive public sector workplace model has the potential to mitigate social injustice at the organizational level and enhance an agency’s ability to fulfill its mission.

Chapter 1: Context for an Inclusive Public Sector Workplace Model

PUBLIC MANAGEMENT: TRANSFORMING GOVERNMENT RESOURCES INTO GOAL ACHIEVEMENT

In a review of public management definitions, Hill and Lynn (2009) describe two different perspectives: public managers as “creatures” and public managers as “creators.” The “creatures” perspective focuses on ways in which managers are limited by environmental features such as laws, rules, and elements of the public sector organization’s structure. The “creators” perspective frames these environmental limitations in a different light— because of the public sector work environment, managers have the opportunity to exercise discretion, judgment, and sound decision making in meaningful ways. Hill and Lynn (2009) define public management as:

the process of ensuring that the allocation and use of resources available to the government are directed toward the achievement of lawful public policy goals (p.10).

This definition of public management captures the tension that managers face—the push and pull between managerial opportunities and environmental constraints.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR A PUBLIC SECTOR MODEL

Since this report aims to create a model that is tailored to the public sector, several considerations must be noted. First, in the public sector, the rule of law provides a formal framework for organizational decision making and gives authority to managers. As Hill and Lynn (2009) describe:

the legitimacy of public management—the faith placed in it by citizens, elected officials, and judges—is ultimately derived from public managers’ sense of responsibility—their accountability—to constitutional principles and institutions (p.89).

Five specific types of law—Constitutional law, statutory law, administrative law, common law, and international law—“create an extensive, complex, and intrusive

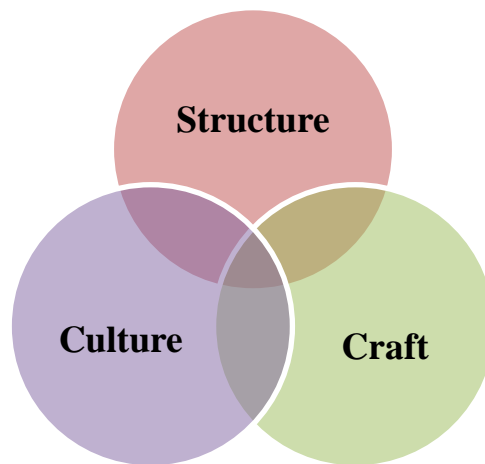
environment for public management” (Hill and Lynn, 2009, p. 95). These legal underpinnings greatly affect the processes that a public manager must go through to make decisions and take action.

Additionally, the inner workings of public sector organizations are subject to a high level of transparency. Because of legislation like the Freedom of Information Act, members of the general public can access—and closely examine—information about agency operations and performance (Starling, 1998). Furthermore, public sector organizations are accountable to the public at large and are tasked with serving the public good (Lynn 2006). Broad accountability requires public sector organizations to collaborate and coordinate action to achieve shared goals (Starling, 1998).

OVERVIEW OF HILL & LYNN’S (2009) THREE-DIMENSIONAL APPROACH

Hill and Lynn’s (2009) approach to understanding public management comprises three main parts—structure, culture, and craft. The unit of analysis is the organization. Each dimension can be analyzed on its own, but the dimensions are interconnected and influence each other. For example, structural elements can affect the way that employees relate to each other, and thus, the organization’s culture. The extent to which organizational culture supports or resists change can affect the manager’s craft. Assessing the relationships between the three dimensions provides a holistic framework for understanding how management practice influences the way that an organization functions. The three-dimensional approach to public management is illustrated below.

Figure 2: Three Dimensions of Public Management



Adopted from Hill & Lynn (2009), pg.47

Structure

The structural dimension is the most straightforward. Information about organizational structures is documented, formalized, and accessible to the manager. In contrast, understanding and defining culture or craft can be more tacit, nuanced, and subject to individual interpretation. Within the three-dimensional approach, Hill and Lynn (2009) define structure as:

formal and lawful delegations of authority and specific responsibility to designated officials and organizations to take action on behalf of policy and program objectives (p. 139).

This definition encompasses a range of structural elements that influence management practice, from broad legislative directives to specific agency job descriptions or performance evaluation standards. In this construct, structure is categorized in two ways: (1) constraining vs. enabling and (2) external vs. internal. Constraining structures define or limit activities, whereas enabling structures give authority or discretion to decision-makers. Additionally, structural elements can be either external or internal to the

organization’s source of formal authority (Hill and Lynn, 2009). Table 1 illustrates four types of structural elements that result from combining the two dimensions.

Table 1: Examples of Structural Elements

	External to the Organization’s Formal Authority	Internal to the Organization’s Formal Authority
Constraining Structure	Legislative mandate to create agency budget proposal with 10% across the board reductions	Agency procedures for submitting timesheets and travel reimbursements
Enabling Structure	Authority given to governor-appointed commissioners to oversee an agency’s regulatory needs	Permission and resources given to department heads to create employee wellness programs

Heffron (1982) proposes a different way of describing organizational structure in public organizations. Unlike, the internal-external division that Hill and Lynn propose, Heffron focuses her structural analysis on what is happening inside the organization, specifically the way that work is divided and coordinated along three dimensions. These dimensions are formalization, centralization, and complexity. Formalization captures “the extent to which jobs, activities, and behavior are “standardized” in an organization (Heffron, 1982, p. 19). Formalization can include the way that a particular job is designed, the extent to which an agency function is automated, and formal rules for employee conduct. According to Heffron, centralization refers to the dispersion of decision making power within an organization. If an organization is centralized, power is concentrated and there are a small number of decision-makers. Complexity relates to job specialization and leadership structure within the organization, as well as the geographic spread of the organization’s physical location(s). Like Hill and Lynn, Heffron (1982) suggests a relationship between structure and a manager’s ability to influence organizational effectiveness:

Ultimately, for the organization the crucial problem becomes determining the most effective structure given a particular configuration of situational variables. This in turn leads to determining what constitutes an effective organization (p. 52).

Similar to Heffron, Handy (1993) focuses internally and describes organizational structure as a balance between uniformity and diversity. Handy (1993) notes that “Uniformity implies standardization and common procedures centrally administered” (p. 255). In Handy’s approach, an organization’s ability to have uniformity in its structures is challenged by the need to accommodate diversity. Examples include diversity within an organization’s geographic service area, goal diversity among agency departments or divisions, and identity diversity when employees identify with specialized subgroups rather than the entire organization. Handy’s concept of diversity is reminiscent of Heffron’s notion of the complexity in organizing and structuring work and the idea that a challenge that managers face is balancing the need for flexibility and standardization when designing organizational structures. In Handy’s approach, managers interact with organizational structures—neither operates independently of each other and a manager’s decision making around structure can have implications for how well the organization performs.

For the purposes of this report, structure as a dimension of public management:

- Can be external or internal to the organization;
- Can limit or enhance decision making power;
- Can affect the broad environmental context within which organizations function as well as an individual’s experience in the organization; and
- Can affect organizational effectiveness.

Culture

While structure represents the formal parameters that managers must function within, culture captures the important informal characteristics of the work environment.

According to Hill and Lynn (2009):

Culture—the informal aspects of organizations—are the values, beliefs, ethics, and motives of individual participants in addition to the shared norms and understandings that broadly characterize the organization or its subunits (p. 192).

As this definition suggests, culture in the three-dimensional framework is derived from and influences individual actors, subgroups, and the organization as a whole. Hill and Lynn (2009) also note that: cultural manifestations can be tacit (ex: views) or explicit (ex: behaviors); culture can give people motivation, meaning, and purpose at work; culture can influence organizational functioning in positive and negative ways; and culture affects an organization's ability to fulfill its mission (p.192). Culture impacts and is impacted by the other two dimensions, structure and craft.

Schein (2004) echoes this interrelationship and divides cultural elements into three layers that vary in terms of how explicitly they are expressed and articulated by people within the organization. Schein's (2004) layers of organizational culture are illustrated in Table 2. Along this spectrum of expression, artifacts are the cultural elements that are most obvious and easily understood by the outside observer, whereas basic underlying assumptions are the most hidden, enmeshed, and unconscious elements of an organization's culture. According to Schein (2004), leaders play an important role in creating culture, embedding and transmitting culture, and driving cultural change in an organization

Table 2: Levels of Culture

Level	Description	Examples
ARTIFACTS	“Visible organizational structures and processes”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physical layout of office • Formal organizational chart • Technology used by employees
ESPOUSED BELIEFS & VALUES	“Strategies, goals, philosophies”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Our agency values high quality customer service • It is important that we use public resources efficiently
BASIC UNDERLING ASSUMPTIONS	“Unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, and feelings”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conforming to group norms is more important than individual expression • Change is usually a not good thing for me or the agency

Source: Schein (2004), p.27

When defining culture, Hill, Lynn and Schein emphasize elements that are broadly shared among members in an organization. In contrast, Martin (2002) advocates for a study of organizational culture that examines dominant and shared beliefs, as well as cultural elements that are disagreed upon or unclear.

A cultural observer...seeks an in-depth understanding of the patterns of meaning that link these manifestations together, sometimes in harmony, sometimes in bitter conflicts between groups, and sometimes in webs of ambiguity, paradox, and contradiction (p.119).

Martin’s analysis combines the integration, differentiation, and fragmentation perspectives of organizational culture. To summarize, the integration perspective focuses on consensus and what is shared among individuals in the organization (like Schein). The differentiation perspective focuses on inconsistencies within the organization’s culture, for example, the way in which subcultures align and contrast. The fragmentation perspective embraces ambiguity and takes the stance that consistency among cultural manifestations changes over time and is issue specific. Shared cultural elements can inform and enhance management practice because they can provide a common ground for

starting a dialogue or implementing a change. However, a manager's craft is also constrained and influenced by the aspects of the organization's culture that are not consistent or agreed upon.

For the purposes of this report, culture as a dimension of public management:

- Can be examined at the individual, subgroup, and organizational levels;
- Can be manifested in tacit and explicit ways;
- Includes that which is shared, disagreed upon, or unclear in individual, subgroup, and organization-wide interpretations of experience and meaning; and
- Can affect organizational effectiveness.

Craft

While structure and culture account for broad contextual features that influence public management, the third dimension of Hill and Lynn's (2009) approach—craft—focuses on the manager him or herself. The inclusion of craft as a dimension affirms the potential influence that an individual manager can have over the work environment and effectiveness of the organization. For Hill and Lynn (2009):

Managerial craft may be defined as responses by individual public managers to the challenges and opportunities inherent in their positions. More simply, craft means 'skilled practice' (p.229).

In this framework, managerial craft can be shaped by personal characteristics such as: individual skills and abilities, psychological or emotional factors, knowledge, experience, creativity, and judgment. Furthermore, two key activities that are integral to craft—deliberation and decision making—allow a public manager to efficiently use scarce resources to meet agency demands. According to Hill and Lynn, deliberation captures all of the activities (such as meeting, listening, talking, observing) that precede the final

decision that is made. Craft is the manager’s ability to work within the environmental constraints imposed by the other two dimensions.

Craft can also be influenced by the leadership style that a manager adopts. Denhardt and Campbell (2005) explore four approaches in relation to leadership education in public administration: trait, situational, transformational, and value-based leadership. Two other leadership approaches that could relate to public management are servant leadership (Spears, 2004) and authentic leadership (George et. al, 2007).

Table 3: Approaches to Leadership in the Public Sector

Leadership Approach	Source	Main characteristics
Trait approach	Denhardt & Campbell (2005)	Leaders are born and not made. Leaders possess distinct traits that set them apart from other people.
Situational approach	Denhardt & Campbell (2005)	Leaders must assess and adapt to the specific contextual features of a given situation. Different situations require different leadership skills and traits.
Transformational change approach	Denhardt & Campbell (2005)	Leaders are people who inspire, create, and mobilize large-scale change. The leader’s vision is essential.
Value-based leadership approach	Denhardt & Campbell (2005)	Leadership is understood through the leader-follower relationship and the shared values and vision that come out of this relationship.
Servant leadership approach	Spears (2004)	Leadership is based on a deep commitment to helping others, which is facilitated through community building activities and shared decision making.
Authentic leadership approach	George, B., Sims, P., McLean, A. N., & Mayer, D. (2007)	Leaders are not born; they develop through introspection and personal development. Intrinsic motivation and an understanding of the leader’s own strengths and weaknesses are key.

Leadership style can influence a manager’s craft in terms of what motivates action, what decision making criteria are used, or how the manager interacts with others. For example, a manager who identifies with a servant leadership style may work more collaboratively with employees than a manager who uses a trait approach. Hill and Lynn (2009) also

acknowledge this relationship and identify three elements of managerial craft that are critical to successful leadership:

- (1) a capacity to engage in systematic analysis of the possibilities for change; (2) an ability to see new possibilities offered by the evolving historical situation and communicate such possibilities to the organizational and political environment; and (3) the manager's desire to "make a difference" and to commit his or her energies and personal reputation toward transformative goals (p.280).

For the purposes of this report, craft as a dimension of public management:

- Involves the individual characteristics and behaviors of the manager;
- Can be influenced by the manager's leadership style; and
- Can affect organizational effectiveness.

Chapter 2: Understanding Workplace Inclusion

DIVERSITY VERSUS INCLUSION

Definitions of workforce diversity abound. In an analysis of workforce diversity definitions, Mor Barak (2005) outlines three categories: narrow category-based definitions, broad category-based definitions, and definitions based on a conceptual rule (p.124). In this classification system, a narrow category-based definition specifies workforce diversity in terms of the groups typically included in discrimination legislation. As Mor Barak (2005) notes, these definitions—focused on gender, race, ethnicity, national origin, disability status, and age—are often U.S.-centric and can be difficult to transfer to other cultural contexts. Broad category-based definitions expand upon the narrow categories to include both visible and invisible diversity characteristics. In addition to race and gender, for example, religious identity or educational status might be included in this type of definition. The third category does not delineate specific diversity categories, but instead defines diversity in terms of a conceptual rule (or set of rules). Mor Barak's (2005) definition of workforce diversity falls under this category:

Workforce diversity refers to the division of the workforce into distinction categories that (a) have a perceived commonality within a given cultural or national context, and that (b) impact potentially harmful or beneficial employment outcomes...irrespective of job-related skills and qualifications (p. 132).

In contrast, the concept of inclusion builds upon part (b) of the definition above and focuses on the way that an individual experiences the consequences of being in a particular group in his/her work life. Inclusion in the workplace is the result of people's tendency to create social categories and include (or exclude) themselves and others based on the meanings attached to these categories (Mor Barak, 2005). Practically speaking, inclusion-exclusion in the workplace can be understood as:

a continuum of the degree to which individuals feel a part of critical organizational processes such as access to information, connectedness to co-workers, and ability to participate in and influence the decision making process (Mor Barak, 2000, p. 341).

Inclusion can also be discussed in terms of understanding and being able to capitalize on an organization's "unwritten rules" (Sabattini, 2008). For example, knowing about and having access to informal meetings—such as offsite lunches or social events where important work-related discussions take place—can affect a person's sense of inclusion in the organization's decision making processes. As one researcher explains:

Despite increased efforts to create more inclusive workplaces, however, many organizations continue to function based on old norms and rules, not all of which are communicated formally or explicitly. Understanding the unwritten rules and how they are shared is fundamental to the creation of an inclusive work environment (Sabattini, 2008, p.6).

In an inclusive workplace, membership in a particular identity group does not affect access to the benefits associated with knowing and following the organization's unwritten rules. Following unwritten rules helps a person build professional networks, create relationships with mentors or sponsors, assimilate into the organization's culture, and communicate more effectively with others (Giscombe, 2011, p. 5). To summarize this conceptual distinction, workforce diversity relates to the creation of different groups and the consequences—positive and negative—of being associated with a particular group (Mor Barak, 2005). In contrast, inclusion relates to an individual's ability to participate meaningfully and access opportunities in the organization (Mor Barak, 2005).

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INCLUSION AND ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Arguments for diversity management

Diversity management and workplace inclusion are terms that overlap. As such, arguments for, benefits, and limitations of diversity management can apply to workplace inclusion as well. Diversity management is:

the voluntary organizational actions that are designed to create greater inclusion of employees from various backgrounds in to the formal and informal organizational structures through deliberate policies and programs (Mor Barak, 2005, p. 208).

Using this definition, diversity management represents the actions taken by the organization to foster inclusion, while inclusion describes the actual experience of the organization's people. Mor Barak and Travis (2009) outline three main arguments for implementing diversity management initiatives:

1. Organizations have an obligation to promote social justice;
2. Organizations have no choice because current and future talent pools are becoming more diverse;
3. These types of initiatives can give organizations a competitive advantage, also known as the "business case" (p. 342).

The first argument uses moral or ethical reasoning as the foundation for implementing diversity management strategies (Mor Barak and Travis, 2009). This argument is reminiscent of the NASW ethical principle mentioned in the report's Executive Summary and the idea that organizations should use policies, procedures, and practices to promote equal access to jobs and opportunity. Mor Barak (2005) further develops this argument and discusses the ethical argument for diversity management in the context of compensatory justice, or the idea that "organizations have a social obligation to participate in compensating groups that have been wronged in the past" (p.219).

Maltbia and Power's (2009) review of organizations' rationale for leveraging diversity in the workplace supports the second argument. According to their analysis, changing labor force demographics, a subsequent changing diverse and global marketplace, and legal requirements have caused organizations to consider diversity management strategies (p. 29). The idea that changing labor force demographics and more diverse global markets compel organizations to consider diversity management strategies is consistent with the argument regarding the current and future increase in talent pool diversity.

Finally, much has been written about the third argument, or the "business case" for diversity. This argument rests on the idea that leveraging diversity can give organizations a competitive advantage. One way to categorize the competitive advantage is to think about it in terms of three main benefits: improved financial performance, improved relationship with the community, and increased organizational effectiveness.

Business Case Benefit 1: Improved Financial Performance

Focus: Internal Operations

Sources: Mor Barak, 2005; Hubbard, 2004; Maltbia and Power, 2009; Catalyst, 2002

Examples: *Reduced turnover costs (especially among certain populations such as women or people of color), reduced absenteeism costs, and reduced losses associated with training employees with short tenure*

Business Case Benefit 2: Improved Relationship with the Community

Focus: External Environment

Sources: Mor Barak, 2005; Hubbard, 2004; Catalyst 2002

Examples: *More effective marketing strategies, ability to attract new customers, reduced risk of discrimination-related lawsuits, improved company image, and enhanced customer loyalty*

Business Case Benefit 3: Increased Organizational Effectiveness

Focus: Internal Operations

Sources: Mor Barak, 2005; Hubbard, 2004; Maltbia and Power, 2009; Catalyst, 2002

Examples: *Increased productivity, advantages in accessing top talent and ensuring that hiring goals match the company's growth strategies, improved problem solving, enhanced creativity and innovation, better teamwork, and improved employee satisfaction, motivation and engagement*

It is important to note that the potential benefits attributed to diversity management may have more to do with an improved sense of inclusion rather than merely having different demographics represented in the workforce. For example, benefits associated with better problem solving do not spontaneously occur when the identity mix of a work team becomes more diverse. Instead, leveraging the benefits of diversity stems from changing the way that employees interact and work together—for example, the extent to which different perspectives are elicited, received, and included in the problem solving process. Another example—benefits related to increased innovation and creativity—may not be realized in an organization that doesn't actually foster inclusion by creating opportunities for meaningful participation and an environment that welcomes new ideas and risk-taking from employees who may not have previously felt that they had a voice.

Applying the private sector business case to public sector organizations

This section hypothesizes how the three business case benefits described above could apply to a public sector context.

Business Case Benefit 1: Improved Financial Performance

Efficient use of public resources is of the utmost concern to a government organization. Reducing unnecessary costs—such as costs associated with preventable staff turnover—not only improves operational efficiency but it also frees up resources for other agency needs. Reducing attrition among certain populations—such as women and people of color—could uniquely benefit public sector organizations because they often employ disproportionate numbers of these demographic groups. For example, the Texas Health and Human Services (HHS) workforce— comprising of almost 55,000 full-time and part-time employees—was 74.8% female and 25.2% male in FY 2011 (Strategic plan, 2012, pgs. E-8, E-9). Race and ethnicity in the HHS workforce compared to the Texas state population is summarized in Table 4 below. The Texas HHS system employs a substantially larger proportion of Black employees than is represented in the overall Texas state population.

Table 4: Percentage by Race and Ethnicity, Texas State Population and Texas HHS System Workforce

	Texas State Population 2011 (Texas Quickfacts, 2013)	Texas HHS System for FY11 (Strategic plan, 2012, p. E-10)
White, not Hispanic	44.8%	41.8%
Black	12.2%	26.6%
Hispanic (or Latino origin)	38.1%	29.0%
Native American	1%	.6%
Asian	4%	2%

Business Case Benefit 2: Improved Relationship with the Community

While the potential “markets” for public sector organizations are determined legislatively (i.e. through eligibility requirements), there is an ethical rationale for ensuring that individuals who could benefit from a particular government program or service know about it and have access to it. An inclusive public sector workplace could make government services more accessible and easier to use. Organizational practices that foster inclusion might include culturally sensitive (or in social work literature, “culturally competent”) intake processes, or maintaining hours of operation that accommodate fully-employed single parents. Inclusion might also be a consideration when creating agency documents or websites that are used by the public—in terms of type of content provided and how the information is communicated. Inclusion as a tool for increasing accessibility could also take the form of hiring staff that represent—to a reasonable degree—the characteristics of clients served. Additionally, inclusion could be considered when developing internal processes for eliciting and using new ideas from diverse staff members and identifying ways to publicize and design services that align with local community needs.

Secondly, due to the nature of services provided by public sector organizations, customer loyalty may not be as relevant. However, fostering a sense of trust in the efficiency of government organizations could have the benefit of increasing the willingness among those who use government services to invest financial resources in a particular program. In sum, inclusive practices could be a tool for proactively building relationships with the community, improving the “image” of government agencies, and better connecting organizations to the people they serve.

Business Case Benefit 3: Increased Organizational Effectiveness

While public sector organization “growth strategies” are not tied to financial growth, public managers often have to figure out how to accommodate a growing population with diminishing resources. Attracting the best talent pools can benefit public organizations when there is money to hire new staff as it allows managers to ensure that the mission of the organization is implemented by the most talented employees. Inclusive recruitment and retention strategies can demonstrate that the organization is a good place to work for employees with diverse backgrounds and needs, thereby attracting individuals who may not otherwise want to work for a government agency.

Additionally, many public sector jobs are stressful and can result in employee burnout. As Heffron (1989) notes:

burnout is associated primarily with occupations that work directly and constantly with people: social workers, child protection workers, teachers at all levels of education, police officers, parole and probation officers, prison personnel, managers, and mental and physical healthcare workers—occupations that account for a sizeable proportion of public sector workers (pgs. 291-292).

Using inclusive practices to make individuals feel valued, engaged, and respected could mitigate the stress and burn-out experienced by public sector employees. Increased employee satisfaction and engagement not only benefits employees and enhances the quality of service provided, but it can also impact the lives of those served by public sector employees. Preventing poor service outcomes that result from employee burn-out could be especially critical when considering the vulnerable populations served by government agencies, including youth in the foster care system, individuals with developmental and intellectual disabilities, or those with severe mental illness. Additionally, maximizing innovation and creativity is also directly applicable to public

sector organizations as the goals of government agencies are often complex and involve diverse stakeholders.

Barriers to creating an inclusive workplace

Barriers to creating an inclusive workplace include “increased potential for miscommunication” and “greater difficulty reaching consensus” (Catalyst, 2002, p. 13). Mor Barak (2005) identifies these potential barriers to creating inclusive workplaces: manager and employee prejudice and discrimination; perceived threat to job security by dominant group members; pressure to invest in activities that achieve short-term goals over activities that can yield long term benefits (limited vision); lack of senior leadership-level champions to sustain and carry inclusion strategies and goals forward; greed and the willingness to exploit others (Mor Barak, 2005, p. 232, 248, 262, 276). As this list implies, a public manager who is considering inclusive workplace initiatives may be confronted by resistance at the individual, group, and organizational levels. Furthermore, many of these barriers involve complex attitudes and beliefs about individual differences and what is best for the organization.

Criticisms of the benefits of workplace inclusion

Some research suggests that there is no significant relationship between diversity management and inclusion and improved organizational performance. Kochan et al. (2003) conducted a large, five-year field research project that examines the relationship between business performance and gender and racial diversity. The project included individual studies of four large, well-respected companies that have a demonstrated, long-term commitment to creating a diverse workforce and using diversity to enhance business outcomes. Overall results in this project are that:

racial and gender diversity do not have the positive effect on performance proposed by those with a more optimistic view of the role diversity can play in organizations—at least not consistently or under all conditions—but neither does it necessarily have the negative effect on group processes warned by those with a more pessimistic view (p.17).

That being said, the researchers emphasize that “context is crucial in determining the nature of diversity’s impact on performance”, especially the extent to which organizational strategies, culture, and HR practices create an environment where employees have the skills needed to turn diversity into a competitive advantage (Kochan et al., 2003, p.17). This is consistent with the approach of this report: diversity alone is not sufficient for creating or realizing the benefits of an inclusive workplace.

Horwitz and Horwitz (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of 35 peer-reviewed articles that were (a) related to team diversity and performance and (b) published between 1985 and 2006. One of the hypotheses tested in this study is the relationship between bio-demographic diversity and the quality of team performance. Bio-demographic diversity refers to observable trait categories such as an individual’s gender, age, race or ethnicity. In this study, quality of team performance refers to three outcome variables: a team’s decision making, creativity and innovation, and problem solving ability. Results based on an analysis of 14 independent correlations (specific to this hypothesis) revealed no significant relationship between bio-demographic diversity and the quality of team performance. Based on these findings, the authors note that “bio-demographic diversity may not actually affect team performance in any meaningful way” and that “the beneficial linkage between bio-demographic diversity and team performance suggested in the team literature has been overstated” (Horwitz and Horwitz, 2007, p.1006). However, the authors do clarify that “simply increasing the amount of diversity in teams is not an effective strategy” which underscores the difference between diversity and inclusion emphasized earlier in this report (Horwitz and Horwitz, 2007, p.1007).

Finally, Ely (2004) explored the relationship between group diversity, diversity education program participation, and performance. In this study, Ely examined the relationship between tenure, age, sex, and racial diversity and team performance. She also assessed whether or not participation in the company's diversity education program affected team performance outcomes. To test these relationships, archival data from 486 retail bank branches were used. Similar to the other two studies mentioned in this section, "Results were consistent with previous studies that found that diversity has no strong or consistent impact on performance, either positive or negative" (Ely, 2004, p. 773). Of note, there was also no significant relationship between participation in the company's diversity education program and team performance. Research that tests the relationships among diversity, inclusion, and organizational performance are mixed and requires further exploration.

MEASURING INCLUSION

A good measure of inclusion can be used to (a) test theoretical predictions (b) track and evaluate the impact of interventions, and (c) develop tools for accountability. However, current research provides only limited examples of how to effectively measure workplace inclusion. One widely used scale is Mor Barak's (2005) *Perception of Inclusion-Exclusion Scale* (developed from the scale presented in Mor Barak and Cherin, 1998) This 15-item scale evaluates an individual's sense of inclusion across five system levels: work group, organization, supervisor, higher management, and social/informal systems (Mor Barak, 2005, p.294). The individual's sense of inclusion is assessed in terms of access to and participation in decision making processes, information networks, and activities in the organization (Mor Barak, 2005, p.295).

Another tool for measuring workplace inclusion is McKay's et al. (2007) *Diversity Climate Perceptions Scale*. Participants rank their organization on a scale of 1 (well below expectations) to 5 (well above expectations). High scores indicate an organizational work climate that supports diversity and inclusion. Sample questions include "Recruiting from diverse sources", "Open communication on diversity," and "Top leaders visibly committed to diversity" (McKay, 2007, p. 27).

Roberson (2006) studied the meanings of the terms "diversity" and "inclusion" and examined 42 items that could be used to define these terms. Using the elements of her definition, inclusion could be measured in terms of equal access to opportunity, the extent to which systems are equitable, representation at various levels of the organization, leadership commitment to diversity, or the presence of diversity-related missions, goals and strategies (p.19).

Measures of organizational silence and voice could also help managers understand the extent to which employees feel that their workplace is inclusive. For example, Milliken et al. (2003) investigated situations in which employees choose to remain silent rather than voice their concerns. In this study, the top three reasons that employees kept silent were: (1) individual characteristics such as lack of experience or tenure; (2) fear of being labeled or viewed negatively; (3) organizational characteristics such as hierarchical structure or unsupportive culture (Milliken et al., 2003, p. 10). All three of these reasons could relate back to the employee's sense of inclusion in the organization. Additionally, Bowen and Blackmon (2003) explored how fear of threat and isolation can cause individuals to hide "invisible" identities (such as LGBT status) which can then inhibit speaking up, even when the individual has something valuable to contribute. Both studies suggest that an individual's willingness to use his/her voice in different organizational contexts could be an indirect measure of workplace inclusion,

and more research is needed to test this relationship. There is clearly a need for effective measures of inclusion, and this report offers some potential starting points for future tool development.

Chapter 3: A Model for an Inclusive Public Sector Workplace

EXISTING WORKPLACE INCLUSION MODELS

In his seminal work on the topic, Cox (1991) describes three types of organizations—monolithic, plural, and multicultural—that fall on a spectrum of inclusion. A multicultural organization is characterized by six features: pluralistic acculturation, full structural integration, full integration into informal networks, no cultural bias, no majority-minority gap in level of organizational identification, and low degree of intergroup conflict (Cox, 1991, pgs. 37, 41). See Appendix A for examples of these six features.

More recently, Mor Barak (2000) proposed an inclusive workplace model geared towards private sector organizations. Using an ecosystems approach, this model spans four system levels.

Table 5: Mor Barak’s Inclusive Workplace Model

	System Level	Brief Description
Level 1 (Micro)	Individuals and groups	“values and uses individual and intergroup differences within its workforce”
Level 2	Organizations and communities	“cooperates with and contributes to its surrounding community”
Level 3	State and federal government	“alleviates the needs of disadvantaged groups in its wider environment”
Level 4 (Macro)	International	“collaborates with individuals, groups, and organizations across national and cultural boundaries”

Source: Mor Barak (2000), pgs. 339-344

In Level 1, inclusion is examined through relationships between individuals and groups inside the organization and can be manifested in a variety of policies and practices at the organizational level (Mor Barak, 2005). One example might be an inclusive

recruitment strategy that targets women, or leadership development opportunities designed for traditionally underrepresented employee groups. In Level 2, inclusion is examined through “corporate-community collaborations” and “relates to the organization’s sense of being a part of its surrounding community and the reciprocity embedded in this relationship” (Mor Barak, 2005, p. 244-245). Level 2 inclusion might be seen in a corporate social responsibility initiative that collects and donates goods to a local community nonprofit organization.

The third level of inclusion acknowledges the fact that all organizations operate in an environment where disadvantaged populations and community need exist. Level 3 inclusion “refers to companies’ involvement with programs aimed at helping disadvantaged groups obtain jobs or move on to better jobs” (Mor Barak, 2005, p. 260). Workplace inclusion at this level treats disadvantaged populations “as potentially stable, upwardly mobile employees” and could be seen in a job training program in which traditional employment barriers (such as lack of child care or transportation) are acknowledged and addressed (Mor Barak, 2005, p. 261). The fourth level in this model views inclusion through the lens of international collaboration. At this level “the inclusive workplace sees value in collaborating across national borders, being pluralistic, and identifying global mutual interests” (Mor Barak, 2005, p. 272). An example of Level 4 inclusion is a U.S.-based company that creates a job training program for women in one of their African regions. The program provides mentorship, skill development, and job placement so that participants not only attain employment when they graduate, but they can use what they learned to train other women in their local community.

A NEW MODEL FOR THE PUBLIC SECTOR CONTEXT

Mor Barak’s (2000) model is adapted to a private sector context and may not account for three public sector features: (1) the impact that the rule of law has on public sector organizational structures, including procedures that require interactions with legislative bodies; (2) the extent to which public sector organizations must demonstrate transparency in their operations; and (3) the extent to which public organizations are accountable to the public at large, which requires cooperation and coordination among different public sector entities. The table below illustrates a potential model for conceptualizing inclusion in the public sector.

Table 6: Model for an Inclusive Public Sector Workplace

	System Level	Examples
Level 1 (Micro)	Individuals and groups inside the organization	Individual employees or groups of employees in a particular department or subunit
Level 2	Individuals and groups outside of the organization	Legislative bodies, constituents, or client groups within an agency’s service area or jurisdiction
Level 3	Public sector organizations	A county government agency’s relationship to its city and state counterparts, could be domestic or international
Level 4 (Macro)	Private and non-profit sector organizations and community at large	The neighborhood where the office is physically located or collaborations with other private or nonprofit sector entities, could be domestic or international

In this public sector inclusion model, Level 1 pertains to individuals and groups inside of the organization. Like Mor Barak’s model, an example of Level 1 inclusion is performance evaluation measures that take into account diversity goal achievement, such as gender balance or minority representation in senior level positions. Level 2 inclusion relates to individuals and groups that are external to the public sector organization. This

level could be used to describe inclusion in terms of the public sector organization's relationship with legislative bodies or with the constituents and clients served. Examples of Level 2 inclusion are culturally sensitive processes and materials that ensure maximum access to the organization's services and resources. Inclusion at this level might also consist of educational programs that explain legislative processes, opportunities for civic participation, or community outreach efforts that promote and publicize available services to those who are eligible but not currently using them. Inclusive practices can enhance the transparency of agency operations when individuals use the services more, and have a better understanding of how programs actually work.

A single person is served and affected by government organizations at local, state, federal, and international levels. Public sector organizations operate within a multi-layer web of organizational relationships, and Level 3 captures the relationships among public sector entities. A county level government agency, for example, must interact with city level and state level government entities. State agencies must interact with each other as well as with federal entities. Federal agencies operate within the context of their own country as well as other international governmental entities, such as departments in the countries that border them geographically. An example of Level 3 inclusion could be a roundtable with participants from different levels of government who meet to discuss best practices for employee wellness programs.

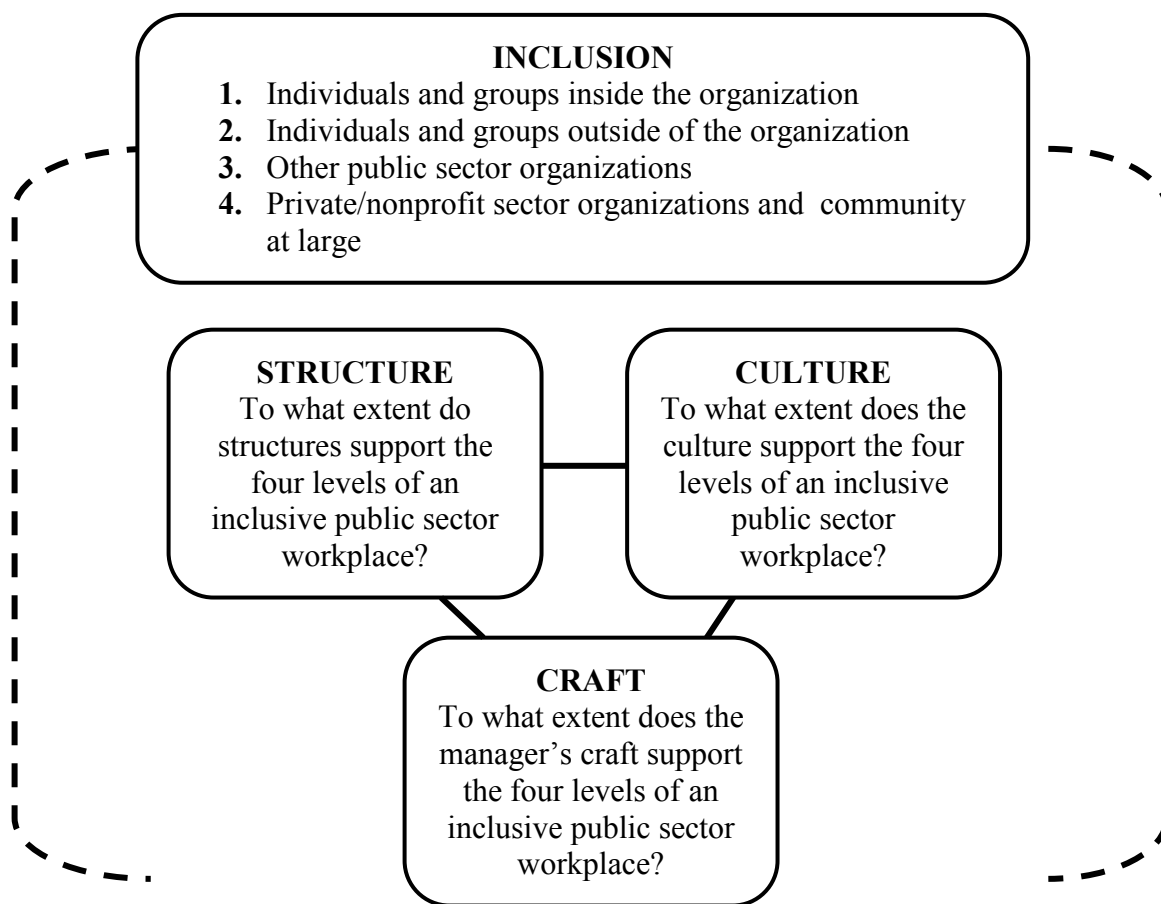
In this model, Level 4 aims to describe inclusion in the larger context within which public sector organizations function. In addition to relationships with other government entities as discussed in Level 3, public sector organizations interact with their communities (i.e. where the office is located or the agency's service area) as well as other organizations in the private and nonprofit sectors (i.e. lobbyists or other agencies who serve the same client population). This last level of the inclusive public sector

workplace model is a broad category that encompasses the external, non-public sector work environment.

RELATIONSHIP TO THE THREE DIMENSIONS OF PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

Figure 3 illustrates how inclusion could be integrated into Hill and Lynn's (2009) three-dimensional approach.

Figure 3: Inclusion and the Three-Dimensional Approach



POTENTIAL STRENGTHS OF AN INCLUSIVE PUBLIC SECTOR WORKPLACE MODEL

- ***Improved organizational effectiveness and performance.*** These two strengths go hand-in-hand and encompass a variety of potential benefits. For example, fostering workplace inclusion can reduce turnover which minimizes the costs and disruption to operations associated with employees leaving the organization (Hubbard, 2004 and Mor Barak, 2005). Inclusive practices that make employees feel valued, motivated, and satisfied with their jobs can enhance productivity (Catalyst, 2002). Additionally, inclusive practices could help a public sector organization better tap into all of the available qualified talent (Mor Barak, 2005 and Catalyst, 2002). These benefits are described in more depth in Chapter 3.
- ***Improved relationship between public sector organizations and the communities they serve.*** As the model illustrates, inclusion is not just about what is happening inside the organization. Integrating inclusion into public management practice can allow the organization to interact more with outside individuals, groups, organizations, and communities—and in different ways. Inclusive organizational practices have the potential to facilitate a more nuanced understanding of unique client/constituent situations and diverse stakeholder perspectives, which could improve communication between agency staff and members of the public.

An inclusive workplace may also attract new program participants and improve the organization's image (Catalyst, 2002, Hubbard, 2004, and Mor Barak, 2005). Inclusion could lead to increased access to services and better quality of services as organizations and communities work together to address shared, complex problems. Furthermore, an improved relationship between public sector organizations and the communities they serve could lead to increased civic

participation and financial investment as individuals better understand and trust the government agencies they work with.

- ***Demonstrates responsiveness to changing labor demographics and population characteristics.*** Workplace inclusion allows public sector organizations to capitalize on the benefits of changing labor demographics and population characteristics in terms of (a) the diversity of their own workforce, and (b) the diversity of clients who use government services (Maltbia and Power, 2009). For example, the proportion of older adults in the United States is growing. This means that older adults are leaving the workforce, are working fewer hours, or are looking for supplemental work after retirement. This also means that a larger number of older adults will be eligible to use services offered by public sector organizations. Inclusive practices that accommodate diverse needs can help an organization adapt to and benefit from these types of demographic changes.

CONSIDERATIONS WHEN IMPLEMENTING AN INCLUSIVE PUBLIC SECTOR WORKPLACE MODEL

- ***Ambiguity or lack of consensus around the term “inclusion”.*** Defining the term inclusion can be difficult as it implies a value system as well as a way of doing business. Increased ambiguity and the potential for miscommunication arise if workplace inclusion policies or programs are not clearly explained (Catalyst, 2002). Managers not only have to get buy-in around the concept of inclusion but they also have to operationalize the term so that people understand how “inclusion” will affect the everyday workplace experience (Prime et. al, 2010).
- ***Perceptions of unfairness.*** Depending on how inclusion is integrated into the public manager’s practice—and the subsequent effect that this has on the way that the organization functions—individuals or groups may be affected differently.

Perceptions of unfairness can arise when initiatives that support workplace inclusion are seen to benefit certain employee groups more than others (Mor Barak, 2005). Articulating why workplace inclusion is important to the organization's ability to fulfill its mission will be key in these situations.

- ***Hesitance to invest upfront for long-term results.*** All organizations feel pressure to show short-term results, and government entities are no different. Legislative cycles, public scrutiny, and the fact that taxpayer dollars are being used to support agency operations put pressure on public managers to show mission achievement. Fostering an inclusive workplace takes time and could even slow down operations temporarily as new initiatives are being implemented. The willingness to invest upfront resources for long-term results can make inclusion initiatives unattractive to some managers (Mor Barak, 2005). Since financial resources are scarce in public sector organizations, it is imperative that the manager effectively makes the business case for workplace inclusion and identifies ways to implement inclusive practices in cost neutral ways.
- ***Structural limitations.*** Public managers are limited by external and internal constraining structures (Hill and Lynn, 2009). Integrating inclusion into public management practice is not something that a manager can do on his/her own. It will require cooperation with other individuals or government entities and the ability to successfully navigate existing structural barriers (such as requirements for legislative approval). Furthermore, time is limited and figuring out how to merge workplace inclusion with existing structures could get in the way of the public manager's day-to-day workload.

- ***Difficulty measuring impact.*** Integrating inclusion into public management practice will require rigorous testing of policies, practices, and programs that are specific to the public sector environment and the organization's unique needs. Furthermore, research is still lacking in terms of how best to measure the relationship between workplace inclusion and performance. The current lack of inclusion-related measurement and evaluation tools could pose a serious challenge to managers who want to make a case for investing limited agency resources in these types of initiatives.

Chapter 4: Case Example

INCLUSION IN THE NEWS

In February of this year, Yahoo CEO Marissa Mayer made headlines for banning the company's telecommuting policy that allowed employees to work from home. Employees either had to agree to work in the office by a certain date or leave Yahoo (Slaughter, 2013). The memo sent out to staff reportedly stated:

To become the absolute best place to work, communication and collaboration will be important, so we need to be working side-by-side. That is why it is critical that we are all present in our offices. Some of the best decisions and insights come from hallway and cafeteria discussions, meeting new people, and impromptu team meetings. Speed and quality are often sacrificed when we work from home. We need to be one Yahoo!, and that starts with physically being together (Goudreau, 2013).

Critics characterize this decision as taking a step backward and express disappointment that as a new mother herself, Mayer should have used her platform as CEO to champion "modern family-friendly workplaces" (Belkin, 2013). Supporters claim that Mayer is "CEO first and a woman second" and the work from home ban is an acceptable choice if it means saving the company and retaining jobs for current employees (Slaughter, 2013). This scenario is used to illustrate two applications of inclusion: (1) work from home policies as an example of an inclusive workplace practice, and (2) how inclusion could be integrated into the three-dimensional approach to enhance decision-making.

BACKGROUND ON WORK-LIFE BALANCE INITIATIVES

Work-family conflict (WFC) "refers to the situation in which the responsibilities and expectations of an individual's work roles interfere with the performance of his or her family roles—or vice versa" (Grzywacz, 2009, p.490). In their seminal work on the topic, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) describe three sources of conflict between work and family roles: time, strain, and behavior. According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), time-based

conflicts occur when there is not enough time for both family and work activities so one takes precedence over—and prevents engagement in—the other. Strain-based conflicts occur when the stress, fatigue and anxiety of one role hurts performance in the other. Finally, behavior-based conflicts arise when behavioral expectations in one role are not compatible with what is expected in the other. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) give the example of a man who must act self-reliant, aggressive and emotionally restrained at work, but is expected to be nurturing, emotionally expressive, and warm at home (pgs. 81-82).

The antidote to work-family conflict is work-life balance. Work-life balance can improve the functioning of individuals, families, and organizations. It is defined as:

the precarious art of men's and women's balancing act of their multiple roles and responsibilities associated with engagement in paid work and unpaid activities, such as family care, community service, professional development, and self-care. This also involves mechanisms that employers enact to help employees effectively handle work/life pressures so that they can be more productive and achieve their goals (Vancour, 2011, p.1591).

Work-life balance initiatives can take the form of flexible work schedule arrangements including flexible start and end times, telecommuting, working from home, part-time assignments, or job share options (Mor Barak, 2005, p. 230). Work-life balance can also take the form of support services such as childcare, eldercare, paid leave, health education and programming, or tuition reimbursement (Vancour, 2011, p. 1593).

HOW WORK-LIFE BALANCE INITIATIVES CAN FOSTER INCLUSION

Work-life balance initiatives foster inclusion in the workplace because they recognize and accommodate different employee preferences and needs, role obligations, and lifestyle choices. As a result, diverse populations have access to jobs and can find a

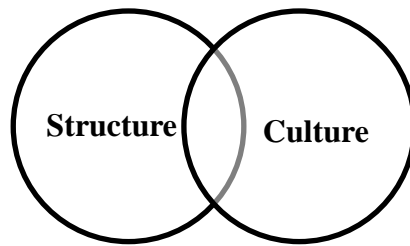
meaningful place in an organization. Catalyst refers to work-life balance as “work-life effectiveness” and notes that:

Work-life effectiveness (WLE) is an important tool to help organizations create more inclusive work environments...WLE helps organizations and individuals to challenge old assumptions about work and who/what constitutes the “ideal employee,” allowing for a broader range of work behaviors and styles (Work-life prevalence, 2012).

Work-life balance initiatives can result in increased job satisfaction and reduced staff turnover (Work-life prevalence, 2012). Work-life balance initiatives can also attract larger talent pools including younger employees who place a high value on controlling their own time and schedules, older adults who are nearing retirement and may not want full-time employment, employees who can benefit from working at home (including people with physical disabilities or those who are geographically removed), and employees who have significant care giving responsibilities (Levey, Kaplan and Horowitz, 2008).

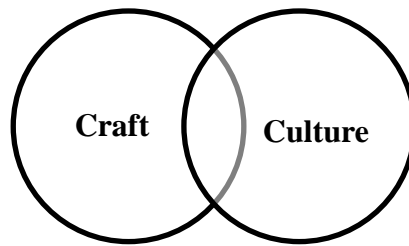
INCLUSION AND REAL WORLD DECISION MAKING

Yahoo CEO Marissa Mayer chose to ban the company policy that allows employees to work from home. This section illustrates how a public sector manager could integrate inclusion into the three-dimensional approach when considering this type of organizational policy change. Understanding how each dimension could be affected by the proposed initiative and the dynamic interplay among the dimensions can inform the public manager’s actions and approach, and affect the likelihood that the decision will be successfully implemented. When thinking about whether or not to allow employees to work from home, a manager might consider the following relationships.

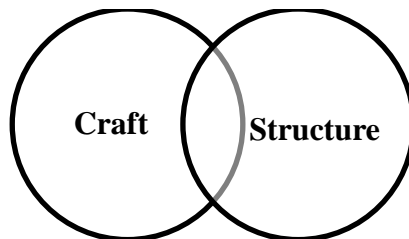


Structure and culture can influence each other in both positive and negative ways. When considering an organizational change, a manager might consider how existing structural elements affect the culture and relationships among employees and managers. For example, do organizational structures typically make employees feel constrained or limited? In the Yahoo case, perhaps employees who worked from home felt more freedom and control over their ability to structure and prioritize work. Do employees feel supported by existing structures, or are structures typically viewed as a neutral element of the work environment for most employees? Perhaps working from home is only important to a relatively small number of Yahoo employees, so this type of structural change would not alter the current organizational culture to a great extent. However, if this type of work arrangement is highly valued, individuals who do not support the change may no longer feel like the organization is a good fit with their values and preferences. Additionally, the change could also affect people who placed value on this organizational structure and are considering Yahoo as their future place of employment.

Managers might also consider whether or not employees feel like they have a voice in organizational structure-related decisions. This type of consideration could help a manager assess how the decision around a work from home policy could be received and how best to communicate the change to employees. Engaging in dialogue with those potentially affected by the policy change could provide important insights into the real relationship between physical proximity and on-the-job performance.



The way that a manager has exercised his/her craft in the past can shape the culture and the way that employees might feel about new ideas or initiatives that the manager presents. A manager might consider how his/her leadership style has influenced relationships in the organization. Are employees typically supportive or resistant to the manager's directives? Does the manager include employees in decision making, especially regarding decisions that could have a direct impact on the employees' ability to perform job functions? What cultural assets can the manager capitalize on when introducing a new program (i.e. trust, sense of collaboration, tolerance of change)? In the Yahoo example, Mayer may have considered other company-wide changes she has made during her tenure, how they were communicated, and how supportive or resistant employees were to the proposed change.

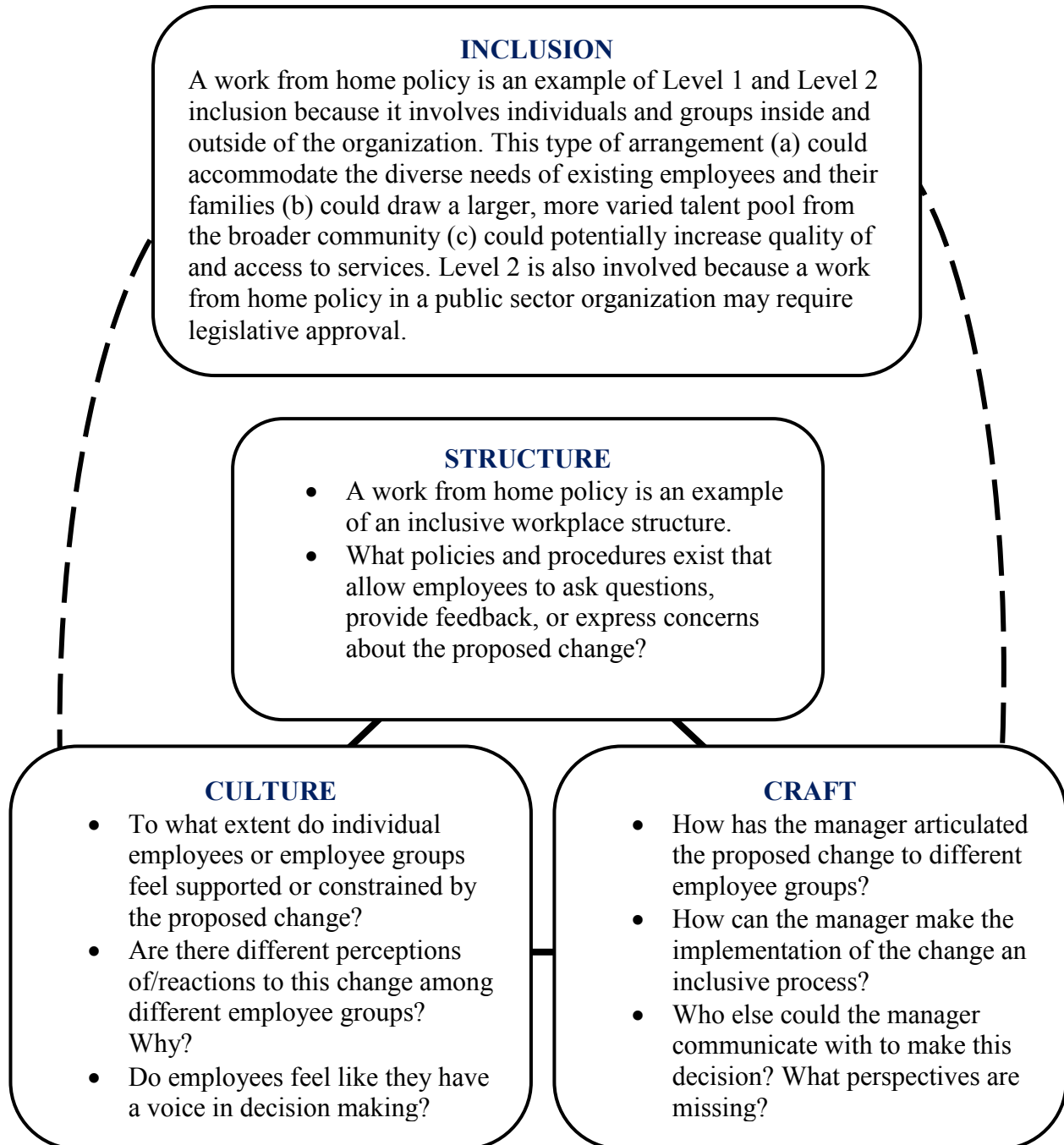


A manager's craft is also shaped by organizational structures. How much discretion and decision making power does the manager currently have around the proposed change? In the Yahoo example, Mayer had total discretion over the company's policy. Public sector managers are more likely to be constrained in this type of situation. What structural barriers currently exist and what kind of approval does a manager need to

make the policy decision? Are there existing structures that could be an asset to the manager as he/she implements a new program (i.e. communication processes that could make it easier to explain the new program)? How adept is the manager at navigating organizational structures? Figure 3 visually depicts how inclusion could be integrated into the three-dimensional approach to enhance a public manager's decision-making capability.

Many factors go into the type of decision that Yahoo CEO Marissa Mayer made when she banned the company's work from home policy. Figure 4 shows how the concept of inclusion can be integrated into structural, craft, and cultural considerations to help a manager make a decision about an organizational policy change.

Figure 4: Integrating Inclusion and the Three-Dimensional Approach to Enhance Decision Making Capability



Chapter 5: Creating an Inclusive Public Sector Workplace

MANAGING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE TO CREATE A MORE INCLUSIVE WORKPLACE

Managing organizational change can be an inclusive process. When making a decision that impacts employees' day-to-day experience on the job and the way that work is structured, it might be beneficial to consider how people in the organization could meaningfully participate in the decision making process (Prime et. al, 2010). If there is no room for employee input in the decision, then inclusion can come into play when implementing the new policy. Managers can look for ways to include employees in (a) deciding how best to implement the change; (b) providing feedback about the success and challenges of implementation; and (c) voicing concerns or complaints about the effect that the new policy has on their work experience (Prime et. al, 2010).

Organizational change basics

If a public manager wants to integrate inclusion into structure culture, and craft, he/she will have to manage a process of change. Organizational change is difficult, complex, and dynamic. Young (2009) completed a meta-analysis of organizational change related literature and identified a basic process of change that includes an existing pre-change condition, stimulus, consideration of multiple perspectives, validation of the need for change, preparing and committing to act, and transitioning to a “new normal.” The common themes of this change process are described in more detail in Appendix B.

Zell (2003) offers another perspective, and likens organizational change to the grief process. Using Kubler-Ross's stages of grief—denial, anger, bargaining, depression, and acceptance—Zell (2003) suggests that organizational change can resemble the grief process as people give up what they previously knew and accepted to move forward with “organizational rebirth” (p. 87). In another approach to organizational change, Prochaska

et.al (2001) focus on individual behavior change as a mechanism for changing the organization as whole. Their “transtheoretical approach” to change includes five stages: pre-contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance. Employees can be at different stages in terms of readiness to change and matching the intervention to employee readiness can reduce resistance and increase the likelihood that the change will be successfully implemented (Prochaska et. al, 2001). If for example, most employees are still at the “contemplation” stage, pushing action might not be well-received and instead, the manager can focus on articulating the proposed change and why it is relevant to the shared goals of the organization.

During the organizational change process, a manager plays an integral role in (1) articulating the change (2) communicating the rationale for the change (3) gaining buy-in and commitment to act (4) preparing for the change (5) facilitating action and implementation, and (6) monitoring, revising, and maintaining the new status quo (Prime et. al, 2010). As a manager considers an organizational change, he/she can consider how inclusion could interact with the other three dimensions to facilitate the change process. This information can provide insight into the organization’s readiness for change, prepare the manager for potential obstacles, and highlight potential assets that could be leveraged during implementation.

This chapter also uses the decision of whether or not to implement a work from home policy as an example. In addition to the three dimensions of public management, inclusion can be integrated into a public manager’s deliberation and decision making processes. Rather than hypothesize what this would look like for the duration of an entire change process, this example focuses on decision making during the preparation stage of change. In this stage, the change has been decided upon and communicated, but no action has been taken yet.

Figure 5: Inclusion, the Three Dimensions, and Organizational Change

Preparation Stage	
STRUCTURE	<p><u>Potential management considerations:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What structures are currently in place to support this change? • What structural barriers currently exist? • What additional resources are needed to implement the change?

Preparation Stage	
CULTURE	<p><u>Potential management considerations:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do people generally accept the proposed change at this time? • What are points of resistance among employees? • Are there differences in perceptions of and reactions to the proposed change among different employee groups or in different levels of the organization? Why? • How is leadership involved in preparing for the change effort?

Preparation Stage	
CRAFT	<p><u>Potential management considerations:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What have I (as the manager) done so far to explain the change and why it is important? • How can I use my leadership style to move this change from the preparation stage to action? • What decisions need to be made at this stage and what are my decision making criterions?

Preparation Stage	
INCLUSION	<p><u>Potential management considerations:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How has this program been articulated in terms of inclusion? • Is there consensus about what “inclusion” means and why it is important to the organization? • What groups are included or excluded by the change? • To what extent can employees participate, ask questions, and share ideas or concerns as the change is implemented? • What other individuals, groups, or organizations do I need to communicate (or collaborate) with to prepare for this change?

As this example illustrates, a manager can assess how inclusion and the three dimensions might hinder or support the proposed change. Integrating inclusion into the three-dimensional approach can be a tool for change management, and can help to ensure that the initiative is well received and sustainable.

Key change drivers

In a recent Catalyst report, Prime et al. (2010) reviewed and analyzed existing literature starting from the 1980s, practice-based publications from diversity and inclusion consultants and professionals, and Catalyst benchmarking surveys and award assessments. The purpose of this review is to identify the change drivers necessary to successfully implement an inclusion-related initiative. These “key success factors for managing change” include: leadership, systemic integration, job-level impact, change commitment, and behavioral support (Prime et. al, 2010, p. 2). Appendix C describes these five drivers of organizational change in the context of workplace inclusion.

Conclusion

Being an effective manager is difficult in any context. The public sector is of particular interest to this author because of the types of services provided, populations served, and people employed by government agencies. Structural constraints, high expectations of transparency, and broad accountability to the public at large also make public sector organizations a unique management setting. There is currently a gap in workplace inclusion research that is tailored to a public sector context.

Inclusion is a topic that transcends disciplines and can be applied to a variety of management settings. Inclusion can be a medium for cross-discipline dialogue among scholars and practitioners in the fields of social work, business, and public management. Integrating workplace inclusion into public management practice has the potential to positively affect the people who work in public sector organizations, as well as the people served by them. This author saw a gap in the current research and attempts to integrate two existing approaches to create a model of inclusion that is adapted to the features of the public sector work environment.

There are many aspects of the inclusive public sector workplace model that should be tested. Areas of potential research include (a) defining inclusion in public sector organizations (b) measuring inclusion in public sector organizations, and (c) demonstrating the relationship between inclusion and performance. Appendix D illustrates specific research questions that can be used to test and improve the viability of this model. The overarching goal of this report is to start a conversation about how public sector workplace inclusion can be used to mitigate social injustice at the organizational level and enhance an agency's ability to fulfill its mission. The author hopes to use this report as the foundation for future research.

Appendix A: Features of a Multicultural Organization

Feature	What this looks like in an organization
Pluralistic acculturation	There is two-way socialization when adapting to or creating cultural norms (as opposed to full assimilation to dominant culture when a new employee arrives); employees freely exchange ideas and learn from each other
Full structural integration	There is no correlation between a person's identity (i.e. race or gender) and job status (i.e. function or level)
Full integration into informal networks	There are no barriers to joining or participating in the organization's informal networks
No cultural bias	The work environment is free from discrimination and prejudice
No majority-minority gap in level of organizational identification	There is no correlation between identity and how much a person identifies with the organization (i.e. loyalty, sense of belonging or commitment)
Low degree of intergroup conflict	There is a low level of friction and tension between different groups within the organization

Source: Cox (1991), pgs. 37, 41

Appendix B: Themes from Young's Meta Model of Change

Theme	Description
(1) Existing pre-change situation	<i>"The nature of the existing, or "pre-change" situation will determine the manner in which the potential need for change will be discovered and subsequently perceived" (p. 530).</i>
(2) Stimulus	<i>A stimulus provides the impetus for change.</i>
(3) Consideration from multiple perspectives	<i>"...articulating a compelling case for change in a manner which allows each individual or group to recognize that their perspective and needs have been accommodated will maximize the likelihood of their engagement" (pgs. 531-532).</i>
(4) Validation of the need for change *decision point*	<i>"...the stimulus must be accepted as sufficiently valid and legitimate to overcome the allure of the status quo and proceed to a planning stage" (p. 532).</i>
(5) Preparation	<i>"...whilst plans are needed to effectively prepare for the use of inanimate resources, humans will need to be engaged in a vision to emotionally arouse them for the change" (p. 534).</i>
(6) Commitment to act *decision point*	<i>"The decision to act is a function of commitment to and acceptance of the planned intervention" (p. 534).</i>
(7) Transition (do-check-act)	<i>"...it is important to recognize the importance of accepting responsibility and harnessing learning in order to be able to frame and reframe the vision as needs evolve..." (p. 534).</i>
(8) Specific result	<i>The change might not have been what was originally expected, but there is a result that is the "active product" of the change intervention" (p. 535).</i>
(9) The new normal	<i>This phase captures the benefits that are the "enduring by-product" of the change effort. "Enduring benefit comes from the emergence of a culture of continuous adaptation and improvement both for processes and people" (p. 537).</i>

Source: Young, (2009), pgs. 530-537

Appendix C: Five Change Drivers for Creating an Inclusive Workplace

Change Driver	Summary from the Catalyst report
Leadership	Critical change leadership skills: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to communicate change in an interactive way • Ability to create influential coalitions to drive the change • Ability to engage and empower those affected by the change • Ability to negotiate conflict associated with the change
Systemic Integration	For the change to stick, the organization’s processes and structures must support it, and systemic integration is more likely to happen when senior leaders are involved.
Change Commitment	An individual’s willingness to commit to the change requires (a) a belief in the proposed change; (b) acknowledgment that not changing will result in negative consequences; (c) a feeling of obligation to carry out the change. Inspiring change requires “high levels of change commitment, cooperation, and championing behavior” on the part of the leader.
Job-level Impact	It is important to monitor how the change will affect employees’ ability to do their jobs. Reducing on-the-job disruption can be done through “coaching and training, sharing information, holding problem-solving forums.”
Behavioral Support	Appropriate behavioral support will result in compliance, cooperation, and championing among individual employees. Catalyst suggests creating Communities of Practice where individuals can share success and small wins around implementation of the change.

Source: Prime et. al, (2010), p. 4

Appendix D: Ideas for Testing the Inclusive Public Sector Workplace Model

General Research Area	Potential Research Questions
Defining inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do individuals and groups in public sector organizations currently perceive the concept of workplace inclusion? • What are strategies for helping public sector managers turn concepts of inclusion into feasible action items?
Measuring inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are potential tools for measuring inclusion as it relates to people inside the public sector organization and people served by the public sector organization? • How can measures of inclusion be integrated into a public manager’s existing evaluation and accountability processes?
Relationship between inclusion and performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the most important variables that determine whether or not inclusive practices lead to positive organizational outcomes? (i.e. size of organization, populations targeted by the initiative, type of program, etc.) • What kinds of inclusive practices result in the strongest organizational performance improvements? Are there some inclusive practices that actually hinder performance? • What is the “business case” for inclusion in the public sector using data collected from different types of government entities?

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