Human Resource Development Review

http://hrd.sagepub.com

Why Organizations Choose to Manage Diversity? Toward a Leadership-Based Theoretical Framework

Eddy S.W. Ng

Human Resource Development Review 2008; 7; 58
DOI: 10.1177/1534484307311592

The online version of this article can be found at:
http://hrd.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/7/1/58

Published by:
SAGE
http://www.sagepublications.com

On behalf of:

Academy of Human Resource Development

Why Organizations Choose to Manage Diversity? Toward a Leadership-Based Theoretical Framework

EDDY S. W. NG
California State Polytechnic University, Pomona, California

Research suggests that equal employment opportunity (EEO) legislation and affirmative action programs (AAPs) have been only partially successful in promoting women and minorities in the workplace. Firms are voluntarily pursuing diversity management, but only when business objectives coincide with the needs of women and minorities. Thus, the question of what factors are needed to help women and minorities advance in the workplace merits further investigation. Although top executive support is believed to be crucial to managing diversity, few studies have linked CEO commitment to diversity outcomes. This article proposes a theoretical framework for linking CEO commitment to diversity practices. Specifically, CEO commitment is expected to mediate the relationships between the leader's demographic characteristics and personal factors—consisting of values, cognition, and leadership styles—and a firm's strategic orientation toward managing diversity. This article further argues that without CEO commitment, institutional and environmental factors (e.g., legislation) are limited in promoting workplace diversity. Implications for research and practice are discussed.

Keywords: *CEO commitment; managing diversity; strategic choice*

Introduction

Projections from census data in the United States, Canada, and elsewhere suggest that women and racial minorities will make up the majority of new

AUTHOR'S NOTE: Preparation of this article is supported in part by Trent University and the California State Polytechnic University, Pomona. The author would like to thank Stan Abraham, Kemi Sawyer, Cheryl Wyrick, and the three anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments and suggestions.

Human Resource Development Review Vol. 7, No. 1 March 2008 58-78
DOI: 10.1177/1534484307311592

workforce entrants (Conference Board of Canada, 2004; Corporate Leadership Council, 2005a, 2005b). As the workforce becomes increasingly diverse, organizations are challenged with managing diversity, both from a human resource and an organizational perspective (Ross-Gordon & Brooks, 2004). Many governments have responded with equal employment opportunity (EEO) legislation and affirmative action programs (AAPs) to remove barriers in employment and advancement for women and racial minorities (Jain, Sloane, & Horwitz, 2003). However, experience suggests that EEO legislation has been only partially successful for the increase of women and minorities in the workplace (Stainback, Robinson, & Tomaskovic-Devey, 2005). For example, research studies have shown that EEO in the United States only helps women and African-Americans move into the bottom ranks of management (Kalev, Dobbin, & Kelly, 2006). In Canada, only 19.1% of women and 3.2% of racial minorities—compared with their availability rates of 46.4% and 10.3% respectively—have progressed through senior management levels (Agocs, 2002). Organizations are voluntarily pursuing diversity management, but do so only when business objectives coincide with the needs of women and racial minorities (Dickens, 1999; Giscombe & Mattis, 2002). Thus, the question of what factors are needed to advance women and racial minorities in the workplace merits further investigation (Henderson & Provo, 2006; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1998).

Recent literature on promoting women and racial minorities has focused on the effects of EEO and AAPs (e.g., Harrison, Kravitz, Mayer, Leslie, & Lev-Arey, 2006; Jain & Lawler, 2004; Leck, 2002; Naff & Kellough, 2003), and organizational best practices in managing diversity (e.g., Kalev et al., 2006; Kellough & Naff, 2004; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 2000). Although top executive support is believed to be crucial to managing diversity (Cox & Blake, 1991; Daas & Parker, 1996; Morrison, 1992; Richard et al., 2002; Rynes & Rosen, 1995), very few studies have linked diversity management to CEO commitment (see Rynes & Rosen, 1995, and Zane, 2002). Two things missing in the literature are an organizing framework for integrating the factors that promote workplace diversity practices, and an understanding of CEOs' perspectives on managing diversity. The purpose of this article is to propose a leadership-based theoretical framework for linking CEOs' commitment to diversity practices in organizations. It is expected that by linking CEOs' perspectives and priorities to workforce diversity, the framework will add to our understanding of the reasons why organizations choose to manage diversity.

This article integrates issues of diversity into the theories of leadership and organizational behavior and argues that although institutional and environmental factors, such as legislation, organizational size, type, age, industry, and location (Blum, Fields, & Goodman, 1994; Jain & Lawler, 2004; Mighty, 1996), may pressure organizations into implementing EEO and AAPs, top executives exercise discretion in the adoption of diversity practices. The theoretical framework and resulting propositions will enable future researchers to answer other important questions such as: How do CEOs' characteristics, values, and leadership styles affect their commitment to managing diversity? Does

the impact of legislation, union, and globalization matter to CEOs' commitment to managing diversity? In short, exploring the antecedents to CEOs' commitment to managing diversity may serve as a prerequisite to understanding why organizations manage diversity.

Diversity management includes a range of diversity practices such as diversity policy statements, active recruitment, training and development, compensation, management accountability, and community support, all of which are considered to be essential in the advancement of women and minorities (Blanchard, 1989; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995). Research studies have shown that the numbers and types of diversity practices do affect the employment outcomes for women and minorities. For example, Holzer and Neumark (2000) reported that the number of affirmative action practices used by employers increased the hiring of women and minorities into organizations. Similarly, French (2005) and Konrad and Linnehan (1995) found certain HRM practices were associated with positive employment outcomes for women and minorities.

From an organizational perspective, workforce diversity, when effectively managed, can lead to more positive organizational climate for women and minorities, which in turn benefits the organization. For example, racial minorities reported greater commitment to the organization (Hopkins, Hopkins, & Mallette, 2001) and lower turnover intentions (McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007) when management was committed to diversity. At the group and organizational levels, firms benefit from a greater range of perspectives (Watson, Kumar, & Michaelsen, 1993), more creative solutions (McLeod & Lobel, 1992), increased employee productivity (Richard, 2000), and greater financial profits (Ng & Tung, 1998) resulting from a well-managed diverse workforce.

Why Organizations Manage Diversity

This article contributes to the on-going debate between competing explanations of organizational responses and behavior to workplace diversity issues, from a deterministic and managerial free-will perspective (Gopalakrishnan & Dugal, 1998). The determinists are of the opinion that the environment dictates the structures and organizations of firms, and that managerial behavior is severely constrained by the external environment (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Hannan & Freeman, 1977; Meyer & Rowan, 1977). On the other hand, strategic choice proponents believe that managers possess considerable free will in charting their own courses of action (Child, 1972; Hambrick & Mason, 1984). Although it is acknowledged that there are interactions and tensions between these two perspectives, this article argues that managerial free will is more predominant than the environment in an organization's choice to manage diversity.

Strategic Choice Theory

Strategic-choice theorists argue that top executives make decisions that influence organizational outcomes and performance (Child, 1972; Dean &

Sharfman, 1996; Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Hrebiniak & Joyce, 1985). The strategic-choice perspective is rooted in action theory, where organizational structures and responses are fashioned after the people in power (Astley & Van de Ven, 1983). This perspective focuses attention on the power holders to explain organizational processes. Effective strategic choice requires the exercise of power and that organizational actors possess the discretion to act in their own free will. Thus, CEOs are assumed to have substantial leeway in shaping their organizations (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996). The voluntary adoption of diversity management practices is an example of strategic managerial choice. For example, although institutional factors may pressure organizations to implement EEOs and AAPs, organizational decision-makers exercise discretion as to whether and how to manage diversity (Mighty, 1996).

Miles and Snow (1978) identified three characteristics of the strategic-choice perspective. They concluded that this perspective views managerial or strategic choice as the primary link between the organization and the environment; focuses on management's ability to create, learn about, and manage the organization's environment; and encompasses the multiple ways that organizations respond to environmental conditions. Gopalakrishnan and Dugal (1998) provided evidence that leaders can play a more significant role in affecting meaningful organizational outcomes, select the environment that they want to operate in, and bring in new structures and strategies to change organizational outcomes (see Gopalakrishnan & Dugal, 1998, for a review).

In summary, advocates of strategic choice reject the notion of environmental circumstances in determining organizational adaptation, and emphasize the role of leaders in determining how organizations respond to institutional pressures (Bourgeois, 1984). This article argues that although institutional forces may pressure organizations to implement employment equity, organizational decision-makers exercise strategic choice in the way they respond to these pressures.

Leadership Behavior and Decision-Making

Strategic-leadership theory seeks to understand the impact of individuals or top executive teams on firms. Early theorists (e.g., Cyert & March, 1963; March & Simon, 1958) have recognized that perceptual and evaluational processes of managers play a role in strategic decisions. They argue that complex decisions are largely the result of behavioral factors, and that bounded rationality, multiple and conflicting goals, and ill-defined options are derived from the decision-makers' beliefs and values. As a result, managers do not follow a totally rational model in decision-making and instead rely on cognitive models to make strategic decisions (Hambrick & Mason, 1984).

This theory has spurred numerous empirical studies on the association between managerial characteristics and firm outcomes. For example, Miller,

Kets de Vries, & Toulouse (1982) built on psychological theories to investigate the relationship between CEO personality and his or her strategic-making behavior. To date, research on workplace diversity has not yet been linked to leadership theory or strategic management. If CEOs' characteristics are associated with systematic variations in organizational strategy and performance, then a similar link to diversity management should also exist.

It is important to stress that the focus of strategic choice in this article is on top executives (i.e., CEOs). The focus on CEOs was selected because they are significant actors in the choice of social policies and programs adopted and executed by the organization. CEOs bear the final authority and responsibility for setting and maintaining an organization's strategic course. A recent *National Post Business* article describes the CEO:

> the person most responsible for a corporation's success or failure. The CEO always functions at a macro level, setting general direction and strategy, and sometimes driving a company's basic culture and philosophy. In recent years, the CEO has also become the public face of the corporation. (*National Post Business*, April 2003, p. 19)

A poll conducted by the Corporate Leadership Council (2002) confirms that CEOs are instrumental in championing diversity initiatives and affecting the long-term success of such efforts. Champions of diversity are required to take personal stands on the need to change, act as a role model for the behaviors required for change, and assist with the work of moving the firm forward. In light of this, investigations of human actors and their shaping of corporate responses to workplace diversity should begin with CEOs as power holders of the organization.

Upper-Echelon Theory

The upper-echelon theory proposed that an organization is a reflection of its top executives, and that CEOs' characteristics can be used to predict organizational outcomes (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). These characteristics include age, functional tracks, other career experiences, education, socioeconomic roots, financial position, and group characteristics. Demographic variables offer several distinct advantages. First, demographic variables are readily observable, unobtrusive, and convenient to measure (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998; Milliken & Martins, 1996; Wiersema & Bantel, 1992). As such, they possess the advantages of objectivity, parsimony, comprehensibility, logical coherence, predictive power, and testability (Wiersema & Bantel, 1992). Second, the efficacy of the demographic approach has been demonstrated in numerous research studies of the relationship between managerial characteristics and organizational outcomes (Wiersema & Bantel, 1992). Pfeffer (1983) argued that "demography is an important causal variable that affects a number of intervening variables and processes and, through them, a number of outcomes." Third, some background

characteristics of *a priori* interest (e.g., tenure and functional background) do not have close psychological equivalents (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996). Thus, the use of demographic data appears to be a logical choice and is consistent with previous research in strategic-leadership.

Therefore, in following the upper-echelon tradition, the following research variables and resulting propositions are suggested:

Age

According to George and Yancey (2004), age is expected to correlate with attitude toward diversity. For example, younger managers are more likely to hold positive attitudes toward diversity because of their socialization and acculturation in an era that is more tolerant of diversity than older generations (Sawyer, Strauss, & Yan, 2005; Schwartz, 1992). Oppenheimer and Wiesner (1990) found that today's students, who will become tomorrow's leaders, are "raised in a society that increasingly values equality among all individuals . . . and exposed to messages from both media and schools in favour of equal treatment of all." Younger managers are also more likely to have attended school in a more diverse environment, or worked with minority groups at some point during their careers. Attitudes of prejudice and discrimination are therefore less embedded in their mindsets than those of older CEOs. Moreover, younger CEOs are more likely to have greater learning capabilities, are more recently educated, and thus are more likely to be more risk-taking, flexible, and innovative (Hitt & Tyler, 1991; Kitchell, 1997; Wiersema & Bantel, 1992). In light of the characteristics typifying younger CEOs, younger CEOs are more likely than older CEOs to be committed to diversity.

Gender

According to the strategic-choice perspective, strategic decisions are often based on the decision-maker's perceptions and values. Research on reactions to affirmative action suggests a link to gender differences. For example, women were more likely than men to endorse the idea of affirmative action (Beaton & Tougas, 2001; Harrison et al., 2006). One possible explanation for this finding is that identification with one's social group influences the formation of attitudes such as in-group favoritism and self-interest (Kanter, 1977; Kravitz & Platania, 1993). The self-interest hypothesis (Bell, Harrison, & McLaughlin, 1997) suggests that an individual's attitude will be shaped largely by positive expected outcomes that satisfy one's self-interests. Mighty (1996) also suggested that female leaders are also more likely to have experienced systematic discrimination themselves or to be more aware of the disadvantages women face in employment because of their gender. Although it is possible for women who have gained prominence in management ranks to deny that there was systemic discrimination against women, a phenomenon known as the "queen bee syndrome," and are consequently reluctant to assist

other women (Rindfleish, 2000), research studies have concluded that a majority of women do not hold such views. For example, Burke (1994) found that women on corporate boards were functioning as champions for change on women's issues. Since a leader's gender identity may shape their attitudes toward diversity, it is expected to play an important role in firm diversity practices. Thus, female leaders are expected to be more proactive in embracing diversity practices than male leaders.

Race

Racial identifications of a leader also affect several leadership cognitions, including leadership attitudes, behavior, and performance (Bartol, Evans, & Stith, 1978). In the context of growing social awareness of truly multicultural origins of a majority of immigrants, managers cognizant of their own non-White race are expected to be more tolerant of diversity (Mighty, 1996). It is expected that managers who identify themselves as non-White are more likely to have experienced some disadvantages associated with nondominant or minority status. Therefore, they would be more likely to choose conforming strategies and to lead firms that exhibit broad diversity practices.

Additionally, the similarity-attraction paradigm suggests people are more attracted to and prefer to associate with people whom they see as similar to themselves. Pfeffer (1983) argues that demographically similar organizational members appear to enjoy important benefits that less similar individuals are less likely to enjoy. For example, top-management teams with similar attributes and experiences benefit from improved communication, greater social circles, and access to networks, which in turn can affect their career outcomes (Ibarra, 1995). Kalev et al. (2006) reported that race (and gender) composition on top management teams predicted race (and gender) composition of the management workforce in general. Thus, racial identification and demographic similarity arguments suggest that CEOs who are members of a racial minority group are more likely to be committed to diversity.

Educational Background

Hambrick and Mason (1984) argued that managers' educational background provides an indication of their personal values and cognitive preferences. Drawing on cognitive theories, Bantel and Jackson (1989) suggested that since education and cognitive abilities are related, more highly educated managers are better able to generate creative solutions. This may explain why better-educated people are more receptive to innovation (Kitchell, 1997). This is also supported by Miville, Gelson, Pannu, Liu, Holloway, and Fuertes (1999) who found racially tolerant attitudes to be associated with certain aspects of intellectual functioning, or those who are more racially tolerant were simply more cognitively sophisticated. Mighty (1996) suggested that managers with higher levels of education have likely had greater exposure to

diverse views, acquired more knowledge about different peoples, developed greater analytical skills, and become more flexible, tolerant, and open to diversity. Consequently, they are more likely to understand and appreciate the implications of a diverse workforce and, thus, choose more conforming strategies for dealing with diversity. Consistent with this argument, CEOs with higher levels of education are more likely than those with lower levels of education to be committed to diversity.

Based on the foregoing and in following the lead of Hambrick and Mason (1984), CEOs' demographic characteristics such as age, gender, race, and educational background are thought to affect their strategic orientation toward diversity.

Proposition 1. Holding all else constant, a firm's diversity practices are related to its CEO's demographic characteristics. CEOs who are younger, female, a racial minority, and better educated are more likely to lead firms with a greater number of diversity practices. This relationship is mediated by the CEO's commitment to diversity.

Although many advantages are associated with the use of demographic variables, Lawrence (1997) argued that demographic variables lack conceptual clarity and that "many theoretical concepts are loosely specified and unmeasured, leaving robust and interesting relationships a black box." For example, a person's educational background may serve as a muddied indicator of socioeconomic background, motivation, cognitive style, risk propensity, and other underlying traits (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). There is also growing awareness of the shortcomings in using demographic characteristics and a move to differentiate between surface-level and deep-level characteristics (Harrison, et al., 1998; 2006). Recent research has focused on the values, beliefs, and attitudes in support of workplace diversity. For example, Ng and Burke (2004) found cultural values to be related to attitudes toward equality, while Chen and Hooijberg (2000) found ambiguity tolerance to be associated with valuing diversity intervention. Additionally, Mighty (1996) found no support for demographic characteristics as a predictor of school board diversity practices. Thus, the framework proposed in this article extends previous research by considering the psychological constructs in predicting the antecedents of CEOs' commitment to managing diversity. It is hoped that the psychological constructs proposed here will uncover the intervening process explanations of demographic variables suggested by Lawrence (1997). They include executive values (Beyer, 1981; Hambrick & Brandon, 1988), cognition (Mervis & Rosch, 1981; Rosch, 1978), leadership styles (Burns, 1978; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996), and commitment (Hopkins, Hopkins, & Mallette, 2001; Salancik, 1977a, 1977b; Schwenk, 1984), all of which are proposed to affect the cognitive processes in commitment to diversity.

Values

Values are guides and determinants of social attitudes, ideologies, and social behavior (Rokeach, 1973). A relatively small number of values are conceived to determine several or many attitudes, and a given attitude is determined by several or many values. Thus, knowing an individual's values should enable us to predict how the individual will behave in various experimental or real-life situations. For example, religious values should best predict differences in religious behavior; political values should best predict political behavior, and so on.

Rokeach (1973) classified values into a typology[1] consisting of social, moral, personal, and competence values. Social values include such qualities as *freedom*, *equality*, and *world peace*, and morality-based values include qualities such as *politeness*, *helpfulness*, *affection*, and *forgiveness*. These types of values imply social interaction with others. Personal values include qualities such as *self-respect*, *broad-mindedness*, and *courage*, and competency-based values include such qualities as *logic* and *competence*. These two types of values are more centered on the individual and do not necessarily imply a broader social or societal perspective.

Social and morality-based values are theoretically most closely related to civil rights or discrimination against persons of different race or ethnic background. For example, Rokeach (1973) found "equality" (social) to be strongly related to joining a civil-rights organization, participating in a civil-rights demonstration, and making eye contact with persons of another race. Concern for the poor was also associated with "equality" (social) and "national security" (social), while those who were least concerned for the poor placed a higher emphasis on "a comfortable life" (personal). Additionally, when asked about civil rights for Black Americans, more racist respondents ranked "a comfortable life" (personal), "family security" (personal), "happiness" (personal), and "pleasure" (personal) among their top values (Rokeach, 1973). Thus, personal and competency-based values are expected to be negatively correlated with or unrelated to diversity.

Within organizational settings, Agle, Mitchell, and Sonnenfeld (1999) found "helping" (moral), "compassion" (moral), "equality" (social), and "loving" (moral) to be linked to executive regard for employees. In contrast, the researchers found "a comfortable life" (personal), "wealth" (personal), and "pleasure" (personal) to be related to executive self-interest. Based on these observations, CEOs who are other-regarding are more likely than those who are self-regarding to be committed to diversity. In addition, CEOs who hold social and moral values are more likely to be committed to diversity than those who hold personal and competence values.

Proposition 2. Holding all else constant, a firm's diversity practices are related to its CEO's values. CEOs scoring higher on social and moral values

are more likely to lead firms with a greater number of diversity practices than CEOs scoring higher on personal and competence values. This relationship is mediated by the CEO's commitment to diversity.

Cognition

Carnegie School theorists argued for bounded rationality where top executives are confronted with far more stimuli than they can possibly comprehend. Cognitive categorization theory, as an attempt to link individual cognitions to organizational actions, offers an explanation of how decision-makers' cognitions and motivations systematically affect the processing of issues and the types of organizational actions taken in response to them (Dutton & Jackson, 1987; Schwenk, 1984). Categorization, which is a part of cognitive theories, is used to understand cognitive representations of the world (Mervis & Rosch 1981; Rosch, 1978).

Some of the ill-defined events and trends confronting CEOs represent possible strategic issues for an organization because they are perceived as having the potential to affect the achievement of organizational objectives. CEOs selectively attend to some of these emerging issues, while ignoring others. Those selected are subsequently interpreted and infused with meanings and labels (Dutton & Jackson, 1987; Thomas, Clark, & Gioia, 1993). Thus, when decision-makers use particular labels to describe a given issue, the labels initiate a categorization process that affects subsequent cognitions and motivations of the decision-makers. CEOs rely on categorization because it reduces the complexity of the stimulus world by organizing events into meaningful groups. Identifying and labeling strategic issues also helps decision-makers impose order on the environment.

Two of the most common labels on strategic issues are "opportunity" and "threat" (Jackson & Dutton, 1988; Mintzberg, Raisinghani, & Theoret, 1976). Dutton and Jackson (1987) confirmed that decision-makers evaluate an issue in positive or negative terms, and see it as representing a potential gain or loss for their organizations. Workforce diversity, as a strategic issue, is a double-edged sword and can be perceived as having a positive or negative impact on group processes and organizational outcomes (Milliken & Martins, 1996). Those who hold a resource-based view (e.g., Cox & Blake, 1991; Richard, 2000) see diversity as an opportunity that enhances creativity and performance, while those who hold a social-contact perspective see increasing diversity as a source of inter-group conflict (e.g., Greenwood, 1999; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992) and a threat to organizational effectiveness.

Drawing on cognitive categorization theory (Dutton & Jackson, 1987; Mervis & Rosch, 1981), individuals form cognitive categories based on their observations of the features or attributes of issues. Once an issue has been cognitively categorized as an opportunity, involvement in the process of attending to the issue will be greater. Resource dependency theory emphasizes the overriding importance of

material, monetary, and market resources for organizational survival (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). In this view, organizations develop and adopt strategies to increase the control over supplies of needed resources, or increase dominance in the market for needed resources. Thus, an organization's managers will take actions perceived to acquire resources essential for survival. For example, firms needing managers in certain computer applications may find that women dominate the supply of candidates with the desired experience levels, even though most existing managers are men. Resource dependence suggests a firm would increase the percentage of management jobs filled by women as they dominate the supply. This view is supported by Salancik (1979) who found that U.S. defense contractors were most responsive to affirmative action when they were dependent on government contracts. Thus, CEOs are likely to devote attention to diversity issues when they hold positive beliefs about diversity and have a need for resource acquisition (Daas & Parker, 1996; Robinson & Dechant, 1997; Rynes & Rosen, 1995). Taken together, cognitive categorization and resource dependency theories suggest that CEOs' commitment toward diversity is positively related to their cognition of diversity as a strategic opportunity.

Proposition 3. Holding all else constant, a firm's diversity practices are related to its CEO's cognitive categorization of diversity. CEOs who hold positive beliefs (e.g., resource-dependency view) about diversity are more likely to lead firms with a greater number of diversity practices, than CEOs that hold negative beliefs (e.g., social contact perspective) about diversity. This relationship is mediated by the CEO's commitment to diversity.

Leadership Styles

Beyond executive values and cognitions, other executive facets such as leadership styles are also thought to affect organizational outcomes. For example, Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) argued that particular organizational configurations reflect the leadership styles of their top executives. Several common leadership traits such as flexibility, need for achievement, and locus of control of chief executives are said to be central in determining the strategies and structure in many organizations (Miller & Toulouse, 1986). Other leadership styles that were focused on executives include tolerance for risk and ambiguity (Gupta & Govindarajan, 1984).

Burns (1978) proposed that leadership style is either *transactional* or *transformational*. Transactional leadership is based on bureaucratic authority and legitimate power in the firm. Transactional leaders emphasize task assignments, work standards, and employee compliance. These leaders rely on rewards and punishment to influence employee behavior. On the other hand, transformational (or charismatic) leadership is a process that motivates followers by appealing to higher ideals and moral values. Charismatic leaders are able to define and articulate a vision for a firm and then inspire followers to

carry it out. Charisma represents one of the defining features of transformational leadership. Charisma is important because it evokes strong responses from followers. These responses include performance beyond expectations, changes in fundamental values held by followers, devotion, loyalty, reverence toward the leader, and willingness on the part of subordinates to sacrifice their own personal interests for the sake of a collective goal (cf. Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996).

An organization's (ethical) orientation has also been linked to leadership style. Specifically, transformational leaders are most closely connected to deontology, while transactional leadership is more related to teleological ethics[2] (Aronson, 2001; Kanungo, 2001). Transformational leaders are able to convince their organizations that managing diversity is a business imperative and moral obligation, and not simply a government mandate (Gilbert, Stead, & Ivancevich, 1999). Transformational leaders have also been associated with higher perceived integrity (Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002), and tend to exhibit more pro-environmental behaviors (Egri & Herman, 2000). It follows that if transformational leaders are more likely to engage in good citizenship behavior, then a similar link to managing diversity should also exist. Thus, a CEO's leadership style serves to communicate and exhibit values that can lead to a plural orientation in an organization.

Proposition 4. Holding all else constant, a firm's diversity practices are related to its CEO's leadership style. CEOs who display a transformational leadership style are more likely to lead firms with a greater number of diversity practices than CEOs who display a transactional leadership style. This relationship is mediated by the CEO's commitment to diversity.

CEO Commitment

The concept of commitment has been used in a variety of ways. Some researchers have focused on commitment to an organization (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1997), while others emphasized commitment to policy decisions (e.g., Salancik, 1977a, b; Staw & Ross, 1978). Commitment can be defined as "a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his (or her) own involvement" (Salancik, 1977a, p. 62). A CEO's commitment to diversity management is important for a number of reasons. First, a CEO is an organization's substantive leader that possesses the discretion and ability to set the strategic course that can influence organizational outcomes (Pfeffer, 1981). CEOs are required to set the corporate agenda, make decisions, and allocate resources required for managing diversity (Cox & Blake, 1991). CEOs are also an organization's symbolic leaders that take personal stands on the need to change, act as role models for the behaviors required for change, and assist with the work of moving the organization forward (Pfeffer, 1981). Moreover, diversity management often requires long-term efforts (Robinson & Dechant,

1997), and many of the benefits (e.g., creativity and innovation) are not immediately realized (Watson et al., 1993). Thus, CEOs' commitment is important to keep the mental and financial support focused on diversity management for periods of years (Gilbert et al., 1999). In light of this, CEOs' commitment is crucial because it "makes us do what we do and continue doing, even when the payoffs are not obvious" (Salancik, 1977a, p. 62). Commitment molds an individual's attitudes and maintains the behavior even in the absence of positive reinforcements and tangible rewards.

Cox and Beale (1997) contended that leaders must be aware of and recognize that diversity has an impact on organizational performance, to initiate changes through personal and organizational action. Hopkins, Hopkins, and Mallette (2001) have provided a crucial link between managers' values and beliefs and an organization's commitment to diversity. Therefore, consistent with the upper echelon theory and the strategic choice perspective, a leader's (demographic) characteristics, values, and beliefs are expected to translate into commitment to action, which is essential to mobilize a firm's resources into managing diversity. Examples of these abound. For instance, Dansky, Weech-Maldonado, DeSouza, and Dreachslin (2003) found leaders who were more sensitive to diversity were significantly more likely to engage in diversity practices. In a similar vein, Leo and Barton (2006) documented how senior leaders in a secondary school practiced their commitment to moral values of inclusion to diversify the school's students' and teachers' profiles and diversity.

Proposition 5. Holding all else constant, the number of diversity practices in a firm is related to its CEO's commitment to diversity. CEO's commitment mediates the relationships between CEO observable demographic characteristics, values, cognitive categorization, and leadership styles (see propositions 1, 2, 3, 4 above) and the number of diversity practices in a firm.

Figure 1 summarizes the various propositions and outlines the organizing framework consisting of the strategic-choice factors promoting firm diversity practices. A CEO's personal demographic characteristics and psychological attributes such as values, cognition, and leadership styles predict his or her commitment to diversity. That commitment in turn affects the management of diversity, as evidenced by the number of diversity practices in the organization, in which the CEO leads.

Discussion

This article seeks to link CEOs' characteristics and commitment to their firms' diversity practices. Specifically, two sets of variables are considered: observable demographic characteristics and the psychological attributes of CEOs. The demographic characteristics considered are a CEO's age, gender, race, and educational background. These variables are selected because they are thought to have the greatest impact on leadership behavior and decision

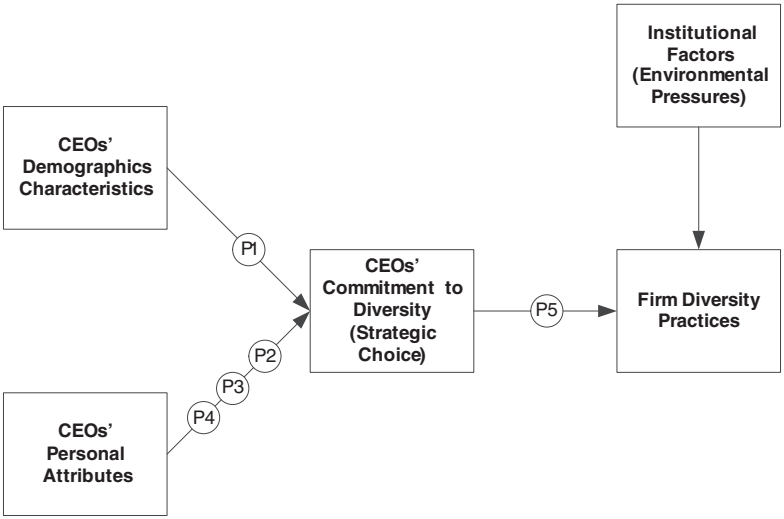

FIGURE 1: Organizing Framework of the Institutional and Strategic Choice (CEO Commitment) Factors Affecting a Firm's Diversity Practices

making (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). Despite the shortcomings of the demographic predictors raised by Lawrence (1997), the efficacy of the demographic approach has been demonstrated in numerous research studies of the relationship between executive characteristics and organizational outcomes (Wiersema & Bantel, 1992).

Beyond demographic predictors, CEOs' psychological attributes are also predicted to have an impact on their leadership behavior and decision-making. For example, CEOs' values, cognition, and leadership styles are proposed to contribute to managers' personal investment and commitment, and they play an important role in the issue-management process (Greening & Gray, 1994; Sharfman, Pinkston, & Sigerstad, 2000). Thus, it is anticipated that both observable and unobservable CEO characteristics will account for a CEO's commitment to managing diversity.

Furthermore, the framework proposed here essentially argues that in the absence of managerial strategic choice, environmental factors alone are limited in their effectiveness in promoting women and minorities in the workplace (Taggar et al., 1997). For example, legislation and resource dependency may force organizations to comply with EEO/AAPs (Salancik, 1979); however, the proactive management of diversity requires leadership commitment (Cox & Blake, 1991). The number of diversity practices adopted by a firm is expected to vary with its CEO's commitment to diversity. In other words, when CEO commitment to diversity is high, the number of diversity practices in the firm

is also expected to be high, and vice versa. The number and intensity of these practices, in turn, predict the employment outcomes for women and minorities (French, 2005; Holzer & Neumark, 2000; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995).

While other factors might influence a CEO's commitment to diversity and consequently affect a firm's diversity practices, the intent of the research framework proposed here is to describe, in part, the contribution of CEO commitment to a firm's management of diversity. It is not intended to be a comprehensive model of all the antecedents of a CEO's commitment, nor does it pretend to take into account all the possible variables that are likely to affect a firm's diversity practices.

Although CEOs recognize the importance of diversity, there are usually more tangible and compelling business issues that will take priority in the short run (Robinson & Dechant, 1997). Diversity management requires a long-term commitment, and the payback is not often as tangible or predictable as, say investing in product development.

Thus, CEO commitment is particularly important because the top executive determines and prioritizes a firm's time and resources. The top office is also the individual most likely to possess discretion (Hambrick & Finkelstein, 1987) with least restrictive oversight and hence have the ability to manifest personal preferences and energies into organizational outcomes (Norburn, 1989). If there is little or no CEO commitment, it is unlikely that firms will provide the necessary human, financial, and technical resources, set the agenda, change the human resource management systems (e.g., goal-setting and performance appraisal), and commitment to keep mental effort and financial support focused on diversity efforts for a period of years.

Conclusion and Implications

The research framework proposed here suggests that research on diversity must take into account the underlying strategic-choice factors that can impact a firm's response to workplace diversity. As previously discussed, although environmental forces may pressure firms to implement employment equity, organizational decision-makers exercise strategic choice in the way they respond to these pressures. Thus, the framework calls for a greater understanding of the perspectives and priorities of CEOs to help explain a firm's strategic orientation toward the firm's management of diversity.

This article and the proposed framework have several important practical implications. First, changing demographics and worker immigration are prompting firms to respond with employment equity or diversity initiatives. However, in the absence of leadership support, it is unclear whether equal employment opportunity (EEO) legislation and affirmative action programs (AAPs) alone are sufficient for advancing women and minorities. Second, existing literature on diversity has focused on the effects of a diverse workforce, or reactions toward EEO and AAPs. The framework links diversity practices to the strategic-leadership literature,

supplemented by psychological constructs to help us understand why organizations manage diversity. Third, although CEO commitment is critical for the firm's management of diversity, no empirical evidence supports this notion. The research propositions suggested in the framework can be tested to provide the empirical support on linking leadership commitment to diversity outcomes. From a HRD perspective, workforce diversity can affect a firm's performance in terms of productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. Thus, future research can explore the link between CEO commitment to diversity in the presence and absence of the business case for diversity.

Notes

1. Rokeach (1973) classified values into *social*, *personal*, *moral*, and *competence* value schemes. Social values include freedom, equality, world peace; moral values include politeness, helping, affection, forgiveness; personal values include self-respect, pleasure, comfortable life; and competence values include ambitious, logical, and capable.

2. *Deontology* is derived from a Greek term that refers to the duties or moral obligations of an individual. What is morally right is not dependent on producing the greatest good, but rather by the behavior itself. The moral worth of an action cannot be dependent on the outcome because these outcomes are so indefinite and uncertain at the time decision is made. Instead the moral worth of an action depends on the intentions of the executive. Personal intentions are translated into personal duties because an individual will always act in certain ways to ensure the best for others, and those ways become duties rather than choices. The deontological perspective is also termed *universalism*, because of the universal nature of personal duties. Such duties include respecting individual rights, justice, and natural laws (Helms & Hutchins, 1992).

The instrumental or teleological perspective places emphasis on the outcome, rather than the intent of individual actions. *Teleology* is derived from a Greek term meaning outcome or results, and holds that the moral worth of personal conduct can be determined solely by the consequences of that behavior. The criterion of what is ethically right is the nonmoral value that is created. The teleological perspective is also termed *utilitarianism*, suggesting that the pursuit of egoist self-interest is the motive driving efficient economic outcomes. The basic premise of the utilitarian principle is to maximize the satisfaction of a firm's shareholders. The executive performs a cost-benefit analysis and pursues socially desirable activities only when the total benefits exceed the total costs (Helms & Hutchins, 1992).

References

Agle, B. R., Mitchell, R. K., & Sonnenfeld, J. A. (1999). Who matters to CEOs? An investigation of stakeholder attributes and salience, corporate performance, and CEO values. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*(5), 507-525.

Agocs, C. (2002). Canada's employment equity legislation and policy, 1987-2000. *International Journal of Manpower, 2223*(3), 256-276.

Aronson, E. (2001). Integrating leadership styles and ethical perspectives. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 18*(4), 244-256.

Astley, W. G., & Van de Ven, A. H. (1983). Central perspectives and debates in organizational theory. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 28*, 245-273.

Bantel, K. A., & Jackson, S. E. (1989). Top management and innovations in banking: Does the composition of the top team make a difference? *Strategic Management Journal, 10,* 107-124.

Bartol, K. M., Evans, C. L., & Stith, M. T. (1978). Black versus White leaders: A comparative review of the literature. *Academy of Management Review, 3*(2), 299-304.

Beaton, A. M., & Tougas, F. (2001). Reactions to affirmative action: Group membership and social justice. *Social Justice Research, 14*(1), 61-78.

Bell, M. P., Harrison, D. A., & McLaughlin, M. E. (1997). Asian American attitudes toward affirmative action in employment: Implications for the model minority myth. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 33*(3): 356-377.

Beyer, J. M. (1981). Ideologies, values, and decision making in organizations. In P. C. Nystrom & W. H. Starbuck (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational design: Vol. 2.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Blanchard, F. A. (1989). Effective affirmative action programs. In F. A. Blanchard & F. J. Crosby (Eds.), *Affirmative Action in Perspective* (pp. 193-208). NY: Springer-Verlag.

Blum, T. C., Fields, D. L., & Goodman, J. S. (1994). Organizational-level determinants of women in management. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(2), 241-268.

Bourgeois, L. J., III. (1984). Strategic management and determinism. *Academy of Management Review, 9*(4), 586-596.

Burke, R. J. (1994). Women on corporate boards of directors: Forces for change? *Women in Management Review, 9*(1): 27-31.

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership.* NY: Harper & Row.

Chen, C. C., & Hooijberg, R. (2000). Ambiguity, intolerance and support for valuing-diversity interventions. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 30*(11), 2392-2408.

Child, J. (1972). Organizational structure, environment, and performance: The role of strategic choice. *Sociology, 6*, 1-22.

Conference Board of Canada. (2004). *The voices of visible minorities: Speaking out on breaking down barriers.* Ottawa.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1987). Toward a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review, 12*(4), 637-647.

Corporate Leadership Council. (2002). *The role of leadership in diversity efforts.* Washington, DC: Corporate Executive Board.

———. (2005a). *State of the workforce 2005: United States*. Washington, DC: Corporate Executive Board.

———. (2005b). *State of the workforce 2005: United Kingdom*. Washington, DC: Corporate Executive Board.

Cox, T., & Beale, R. L. (1997). *Developing competency to manage diversity: Readings, cases, and activities.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Cox, T. H., & Blake, S. (1991). Managing cultural diversity: Implications for organizational competitiveness. *Academy of Management Executive, 5*(3): 45-56.

Cyert, R. M., & March, J. G. (1963). *A behavioral theory of the firm.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Daas, P., & Parker, B. (1996). Diversity: A strategic issue. In E. Kossek & S. Lobel (Eds.), *Managing diversity: Human resource strategies for transforming the workplace.* Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.

Dansky, K. H., Weech-Maldonado, R., DeSouza, G., & Dreachslin, J. L. (2003). Organizational strategy and diversity management: Diversity-sensitive orientation as a moderating influence. *Health Care Management Review, 28*(3), 243-253.

Dean, J. W., Jr., & Sharfman, M. P. (1996). Does decision process matter? A study of strategic decision-making effectiveness. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*(2), 368-396.

Dickens, L. (1999). Beyond the business case approach: A three-pronged approach to equality action. *Human Resource Management Journal, 9*(1), 9-19.

DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. W. (1983). The iron cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields. *American Sociological Review, 48,* 147-160.

Dutton, J. E., & Jackson, S. E. (1987). Categorizing strategic issues: Links to organizational action. *Academy of Management Review, 12*(1), 76-90.

Egri, C. P., & Herman, S. (2000). Leadership in the North American environmental sector: Values, leadership styles, and contexts of environmental leaders and their organizations. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(4), 571-604.

Finkelstein, S., & Hambrick, D. (1996). *Strategic leadership: Top executives and their effects on organizations.* St. Paul, MN: West.

French, E. (2005). The importance of strategic change in achieving equity in diversity. *Strategic Change, 14,* 35-44.

George, D., & Yancey, G. (2004). Taking stock of America's attitudes on cultural and diversity: An analysis of public deliberation on multiculturalism, assimilation, and intermarriage. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 35*(1), 1-19.

Gilbert, J. A., Stead, B. A., & Ivancevich, J. (1999). Diversity management: A new organizational paradigm. *Journal of Business Ethics, 21*(1), 61-76.

Giscombe, K. & Mattis, M. C. (2002). Leveling the playing field for women of color in corporate management: Is the business case enough? *Journal of Business Ethics, 37*(1), 103-119.

Gopalakrishnan, S., & Dugal, M. (1998). Strategic choice versus environmental determinism: A debate revisited. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 6*(2), 146-164.

Greening, D. W., & Gray, B. (1994). Testing a model of organizational response to social and political issues. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(3), 467-498.

Greenwood, T. (1999). Testimony submitted to the Commission on the Advancement of Women and Minorities in Science, Engineering, and Technology Department, Public Hearing, Bellevue/Seattle, WA.

Gupta, A. K,. & Govindarajan, V. (1984). Business unit strategy, managerial characteristics, and business unit effectiveness at strategy implementation. *Academy of Management Journal, 27*(1), 25-41.

Hambrick, D. C., & Brandon, G. L. (1988). Executive values. In D. C. Hambrick (Ed.), *The executive effect: Concepts and methods for studying top managers.* Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Hambrick, D. C., & Finkelstein, S. (1987). Managerial discretion: A bridge between polar views of organizational outcomes. In L. L. Cummings and B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior, 9,* (pp. 369-406). Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. (1984). Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. *Academy of Management Review, 9*(2), 193-206.

Hannan, M. T., & Freeman, J. (1977). The population ecology of organizations. *American Journal of Sociology, 82,* 929-963.

Harrison, D. A., Kravitz, D. A., Mayer, D. M., Leslie, L. M., & Lev-Arey, D. (2006). Understanding attitudes toward affirmative action programs in employment: Addressing reactions to redressing discrimination. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(5), 1013-1036.

Harrison, D. A., Price, K. H., & Bell, M. P. (1998). Beyond relational demography: Time and the effects of surface- and deep-level diversity on work group cohesion. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*(1), 96-107.

Helms, M. M., & Hutchins, B. A. (1992). Poor quality products: Is their production unethical? *Management Decision, 30*(5), 35-46.

Henderson, G. M., & Provo, J. (2006). A new world ahead – Are we ready? *Human Resource Development Review, 5*(2), 274-277.

Hitt, M. A., & Tyler B. B. (1991). Strategic decision models: Integrating different perspectives. *Strategic Management Journal, 12*, 327-351.

Holzer, H. J., & Neumark, D. (2000). What does affirmative action do? *Industrial & Labor Relations Review, 53*(2), 240-271.

Hopkins, W. E., Hopkins, S. A., & Mallette, P. (2001). Diversity and managerial value commitment: A test of some proposed relationships. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 13*(3), 288-306.

Hrebiniak, L. G., & Joyce, W. F. (1985). Organizational adaptation: Strategic choice and environmental determinism. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 30*, 336-349.

Ibarra, H. (1995). Race, opportunity, and diversity of social circles in managerial networks. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(3), 673-703.

Jackson, S. E., & Dutton, J. E. (1988). Discerning threats and opportunities. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 33*(3), 370-387.

Jain, H. C., & Lawler, J. L. (2004). Visible minorities under the Canadian Employment Equity Act: 1987-1999. *Relations Industrielles, 59*(3), 585-611.

Jain, H. C., Sloane, P. J., and Horwitz, F. M. (2003). *Employment equity and affirmative action: An international comparison.* Armonk: NY: M.E. Sharpe.

Kalev, A., Dobbin, F., & Kelly, E. (2006). Best practices or best guesses? Assessing the efficacy of corporate affirmative action and diversity policies. *American Sociological Review, 71,* 589-617.

Kanter, R. M. (1977). *Men and women of the corporation*. NY: Basic Books.

Kanungo, R. N. (2001). Ethical values of transactional and transformational leaders. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 18*(4), 257-265.

Kellough, J. E., & Naff, K. C. (2004). Responding to a wake-up call: An examination of federal agency diversity management programs. *Administration & Society, 36*(1), 62-90.

Kets de Vries, M. F. R., & Miller, D. (1986). Personality, culture, and organization. *Academy of Management Review, 11*(2), 266-279.

Kitchell, S. (1997). CEO characteristics and technological innovativeness: A Canadian perspective. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 14*(2), 111-125.

Konrad, A. M., & Linnehan, F. (1995). Formalized HRM structures: Coordinating equal employment opportunity or concealing organizational practices? *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(3): 787-820.

Kravitz, D. A., & Platania, J. (1993). Attitudes and beliefs about affirmative action: Effects of target and of respondent sex and ethnicity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(6), 928-938.

Lawrence, B. S. (1997). The black box of organizational demography. *Organization Science, 8*(1), 1-22.

Leck, J. (2002). Making employment equity programs work for women. *Canadian Public Policy, 28,* 85-100.

Leo, E., & Barton, L. (2006). Inclusion, diversity, and leadership: Perspectives, possibilities, and contradictions. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 34*(2), 167-180.

March, J. G., & Simon, H. A. (1958). *Organizations.* NY: Wiley.

McKay, P. F., Avery, D. R., Tonidandel, S., Morris, M. A., Hernandez, M., & Hebl, M. R. (2007). Racial differences in employee retention: Are diversity climate perceptions the key? *Personnel Psychology, 60,* 35-62.

McLeod, P. L., & Lobel, S. A. (1992). The effects of ethnic diversity on idea generation in small groups. *Academy of Management Best Paper Proceedings,* 227-231.

Mervis, C. B., & Rosch, E. (1981). Categorization of natural objects. *Annual Review of Psychology, 32,* 89-115.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Meyer, J. W., & Rowan, B. (1977). Institutionalized organizations: Formal structure as myth and ceremony. *American Journal of Sociology, 83*(2), 340-363.

Mighty, E. J. (1996). Factors affecting the adoption of employment equity: An example from Canada. *Equal Opportunities International, 15*(5), 1-27.

Miles, R. E., & Snow, C. C. (1978). *Organizational strategy, structure, and process.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Miller, D., & Toulouse, J. M. (1986). Chief executive personality and corporate strategy and structure in small firms. *Management Science, 32*(11), 1389-1409.

Miller, D., Kets de Vries, M. F. R., & Toulouse, J. M. (1982). Top executive locus of control and its relationship to strategy making, structure and environment. *Academy of Management Journal, 25*(2), 237-253.

Milliken, F. J., & Martins, L. L. (1996). Searching for common threads: Understanding the multiple effects of diversity in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal, 21*(2), 402-433.

Mintzberg, H., Raisinghani, D., & Theoret, A. (1976). The structure of "unstructured" decisions. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 21*, 246-275.

Miville, M. L., Gelso, C. J., Pannu, R., Liu, W., Holloway, P., & Fuertes, J. (1999). Appreciating similarities and valuing differences: The Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 46*(3), 291-307.

Morrison, A. M. (1992). *The new leaders: Guidelines on leadership diversity in America*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Naff, K. C., & Kellough, J. E. (2003). Ensuring employment equity: Are federal diversity programs making a difference? *International Journal of Public Administration, 26*(12), 1307-1336.

National Post Business. (2003). FP 500 Canada's largest corporations, June.

Ng, E. S. W., & Burke, R. J. (2004). Cultural values and predictors of attitudes towards equality and diversity: A Canadian experience. *Women in Management Review, 19*(6), 317-324.

Ng, E. S. W., & Tung, R. L. (1998). Ethno-cultural diversity and organizational effectiveness: A field study. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 9*(6), 980-995.

Norburn, D. (1989). The chief executive: A breed apart. *Strategic Management Journal, 10,* 1-15.

Oppenheimer, R. J., & Wiesner, W. H. (1990). Sex discrimination: Who is hired and do employment equity statements make a difference? *Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Administrative Sciences Association of Canada – Personnel and Human Resources Division*, *11*(9), 127-135.

Parry, K. W., & Proctor-Thomson, S. B. (2002). Perceived integrity of transformational leaders in organizational settings. *Journal of Business Ethics, 35,* 75-96.

Pfeffer, J. (1981). Management as symbolic action: The creation and maintenance of organizational paradigms. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior, 3* (pp. 1-52). Greenwich, CT: JAI.

———. (1983). Organizational demography. In L. L. Cummings and B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior, 5* (pp. 299-357). Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Pfeffer, J., & Salancik, G. R. (1978). *The external control of organizations*. New York: Harper & Row.

Richard, O. C. (2000). Racial diversity, business strategy, and firm performance: A resource-based view. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(2), 164-177.

Richard, O. C., Kochan, T. A., & McMillan-Capehart, A. (2002). The impact of visible diversity on organizational effectiveness: Disclosing the contents in Pandora's black box. *Journal of Business and Management, 8*(3), 265-291.

Rindfleish, J. (2000). Senior management women in Australia: Diverse perspectives. *Women in Management Review, 15*(4), 172-183.

Robinson, G., & Dechant, K. (1997). Building a business case for diversity. *Academy of Management Executive, 11*(3), 21-31.

Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. NY: Free Press.

Rosch, E. (1978). Principles of categorization. In E. Rosch & B. Lloyd (Eds.), *Categorization and cognition* (pp. 24-47). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Ross-Gordon, J. M., & Brooks, A. K. (2004). Diversity in human resource development and continuing professional education: What does it mean for the workplace, clients, and professionals? *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 6*(1), 69-85.

Rynes, S., & Rosen, B. (1995). A field survey of factors affecting the adoption and perceived success of diversity training. *Personnel Psychology, 48*(2), 247-270.

Salancik, G.R. (1977a). Commitment is too easy. *Organizational Dynamics, 6*(1), 62-80.

———. (1977b). Commitment and the control of organizational behavior and belief. In B. M. Staw & G. R. Salancik (Eds.), *New directions in organizational behavior*. Chicago: St. Clair.

———. (1979). Interorganizational dependence and responsiveness to affirmative action: The case of women and defense contractors. *Academy of Management Journal, 22*, 375-394.

Sawyer, O. O., Strauss, J., & Yan, J. (2005). Individual value structures and diversity attitudes: The moderating effect of age, gender, race, and religiosity. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 20*(5/6), 498-521.

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the structure and content of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology*, vol. 25, Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Schwenk, C. R. (1984). Cognitive simplification processes in strategic decision-making. *Strategic Management Journal, 5*, 111-128.

Sharfman, M. P., Pinkston, T. S., & Sigerstad, T. D. (2000). The effects of managerial values on social issues evaluation: An empirical examination. *Business & Society, 39*(2), 144-182.

Stainback, K., Robinson, C., Tomaskovic-Devey, D. (2005). Race and workplace integration: A politically mediated process. *American Behavioral Scientist, 48*(9), 1200-1228.

Staw, B. M., & Ross, J. (1978). Commitment to policy decision: A multi-theoretical perspective. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 23*(1), 40-64.

Taggar, S., Jain, H. C., & Gunderson, M. (1997). The status of employment equity in Canada: An assessment. *International Industrial Relations Association 49th Annual Proceedings*.

Thomas, J. B., Clark, S. M., & Gioia, D. A. (1993). Strategic sensemaking and organizational performance: Linkages among scanning, interpretation, action, and outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*(2), 239-270.

Tsui, A. S., Egan, T. D., & O'Reilly, C. A., III (1992). Being different: Relational demography and organizational attachment. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 37*, 549-579.

Watson, W. E., Kumar, K., & Michaelsen, L. K. (1993). Cultural diversity's impact on interaction process and performance: Comparing homogeneous and diverse task groups. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*(3), 590-602.

Wentling, R. M., & Palma-Rivas, N. (1998). Current status and future trends of diversity initiatives in the workplace: Diversity experts' perspectives. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 9*(3), 235-253.

———. (2000). Current status of diversity initiatives in selected multinational corporations. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 11*(1), 35-60.

Wiersema, M. F., & Bantel, K. A. (1992). Top management demography and corporate strategic change. *Academy of Management Journal, 35*(1), 91-121.

Zane, N. C. (2002). The glass ceiling is the floor my boss walks on: Leadership challenges in managing diversity. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 38*(3), 334-354.

Eddy S. W. Ng is an assistant professor at California Sate Polytechnic University, Pomona. He was previously on faculty at Trent University in Canada. His research is focused on employment equity, affirmative action, workplace diversity, work values, and organizational effectiveness.