# The Moderating Effect of Diversity Strategy on the Relationship Between Racial Diversity and Organizational Performance

George B. Cunningham[1]
*Laboratory for Diversity in Sport*
*Texas A&M University*

The purpose of this study was to examine the degree to which a proactive diversity-management strategy moderated the relationship between racial diversity and organizational performance. Data were gathered from 75 NCAA athletic departments. Hierarchal regression analysis indicated that, after controlling for the department expenditures and department size, racial diversity was positively associated with objective measures of overall performance. These effects were qualified by the moderating effects of a proactive diversity-management strategy, as departments that were racially diverse and followed a proactive diversity-management strategy had the greatest performance. The total model explained 68% of the variance in the department's performance. Results are discussed in terms of contributions and implications.

Diversity represents one of the most significant issues confronting persons in sport and sport organizations today (Cunningham & Fink, 2006). Changing national demographic trends have resulted in a more heterogeneous workforce, as have legal mandates (e.g., Title VII) and various social pressures (e.g., the sense of a moral obligation for diversity in organizations). In addition to these factors, managers and academics have advocated organizational diversity because of the perceived value it can bring to the workplace. Robinson and Dechant (1997), for instance, argued that diversity allows for optimal utilization of talent, a better understanding of the marketplace, and enhanced problem solving and creativity within groups.

There is empirical support for their claims. Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) found that increases in a coaching staff's racial and tenure diversity resulted in greater performance for that team. These findings are consistent with those outside the sport and leisure context, showing that diverse groups, relative to their homogeneous counterparts, arrive at more creative decisions (McLeod, Lobel, & Cox, 1996), have more discussions and constructive

disagreements pertaining to the task at hand (Lovelace, Shapiro, & Weingart, 2001), and enjoy the benefits that accompany access to outside resources and perspectives (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992). Given these positive effects, it is not surprising that the "value in diversity" perspective (Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 1991) has often been cited as a chief reason to embrace diversity and diversity initiatives.

While the positive effects of diversity have often been cited in making the case for workplace diversity, there are studies showing null or negative effects. For instance, women, racial minorities, sexual minorities, and religious minorities continue to face antagonistic environments and limited opportunities in sport organizations (Cunningham & Sagas, 2005; Fink, Pastore, & Riemer, 2001). Further, although group diversity can be associated with performance gains in some cases, it has also been shown to influence performance negatively in others (Timmerman, 2000) and also to have a deleterious impact on communication patterns (Knoppers, Meyer, Ewing, & Forrest, 1993) and commitment to the occupation (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a). These findings are consistent with recent qualitative and quantitative reviews of the diversity literature, which suggest that diversity can have a negative influence on employee attitudes and behaviors, group processes, and overall performance (Jackson, Joshi, & Erhardt, 2003; Mannix & Neale, 2005; Webber & Donahue, 2001; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998).

Equivocal results have suggested that moderating variables might influence the relationship between group diversity and subsequent outcomes (see also Mannix & Neale, 2005; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Left unmanaged, or when managed poorly, diversity can result in poor group processes and outcomes. Research has suggested, however, that there are certain conditions that allow for the potential benefits of diversity to be realized. For instance, groups that actively debate issues (Simons, Pelled, & Smith, 1999), whose members feel free to express doubt as to the efficacy of the adopted approach (Lovelace et al., 2001), and who work in cooperative interdependence (Lovelace et al., 2001) are likely to likely to capitalize on diversity's positive effects (see also van Knippenberg, DeDrue, & Homan, 2004).

Collectively, this research suggests that diversity is likely to benefit the group or organization when set in a context that allows for the positive effects of diversity to materialize; that is, when effective diversity-management strategies are in place. Unfortunately, examination of these possibilities has been the exception, not the norm. The purpose of the current study, therefore, is to examine the influence of an organization's diversity-management strategy on the overall performance of that entity.

It is expected that the positive relationship between racial diversity and organizational performance will be moderated by the presence of a proactive diversity-management strategy. The focus on racial diversity was made for

several reasons, including (a) the saliency of racial diversity in research and policymaking in the sport context (Long, Robinson, & Spracklen, 2005); and (b) evidence from past research demonstrating that the effects of racial diversity on performance are potentially stronger than are the effects of other diversity forms (see Mannix & Neale, 2005).

## Theoretical Framework

If diversity is to increase an organization's performance, it is likely to do so through the increased number of perspectives and decision-making capabilities. This is the crux of the information/decision-making perspective (Gruenfeld, Mannix, Williams, & Neale, 1996; Phillips, Mannix, Neale, & Gruenfeld, 2004). Specifically, diverse entities are comprised of people from varied backgrounds, who have different life experiences, and who are likely to view problems and issues in various ways. They might also possess different sources of information and expertise. To the degree that these new and varied perspectives are voiced and valued in the decision-making process, the overall performance of the group should improve.

Many of the managers and scholars who hail the positive effects of diversity draw from this perspective. For instance, Ron Stratten, NCAA Vice-President for Education Services, noted that diversity and inclusion result in "*a quality of thinking*" (as cited in Brown, 2004, emphasis added) at both the individual and organizational levels. Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) put forth similar arguments in their study of intercollegiate athletics coaching staffs. These authors argued that increased diversity would result in greater decision-making capabilities (e.g., more options, better decisions) for the staff, primarily because of the "mix of talents and perspectives" (p. 7) of the coaches. The value of diversity was thought to be sustainable because it is both rare and difficult to imitate. Their results supported this theorizing, as they found that racial diversity was positively associated with objective measures of performance. Similar findings have also been observed in experimental studies (see McLeod et al., 1996; Sargent & Sue-Chan, 2001). Based on this literature, the following is hypothesized:

> *Hypothesis 1*. Racial diversity will be positively associated with organizational performance.

The problem with many sport organizations, however, is that the aforementioned conditions—that is, being able to voice different perspectives and having those perspectives valued and implemented—are not always present. Hence, there is the need for diversity management, or as Hayes-Thomas (2004) indicated, "the purposeful use of processes and strategies that make

. . . differences among people into an asset rather than a liability for the organization" (p. 12). Effective diversity-management strategies are management-initiated (Fink & Pastore, 1999; Hayes-Thomas, 2004), aimed at improving the interactions among persons within diverse social units (Lorbiecki, 2001), and strategic in nature, such that the action is aimed at maximizing the benefits that diversity can bring to the social unit (Cox & Beale, 1997; Fink & Pastore, 1999; Hayes-Thomas, 2004).

Several diversity-management strategies have been proposed in the sport literature (Chelladurai, 2005; DeSensi, 1995; Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Fink & Pastore, 1999), but only Fink and Pastore's strategy has been empirically tested and supported (Fink et al., 2001; Fink, Pastore, & Riemer, 2003). Thus, their framework was utilized for this study. While these authors articulated four diversity-management strategies—noncompliance, compliance, reactive, and proactive—it is the last strategy that is most desirable and that has been most strongly linked with organizational performance indexes (Fink et al., 2001, 2003). Thus, the focus here is on proactive diversity-management strategies.

Organizations that follow a proactive diversity-management strategy are likely to (a) take a broad, gestalt view of diversity (Golembiewski, 1995; Holladay, Knight, Paige, & Quinones, 2003); (b) value diversity and incorporate diversity initiatives into the mission statement, policies, procedures, and practices (Allen & Montgomery, 2001; Thomas, 1991, 1996); (c) have open lines of communication and multicultural leadership teams, with diverse individuals holding key power and decision-making positions (Cox, 1991; Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Ely & Thomas, 2001); and (d) be proactive in anticipating the potential pitfalls of diversity and take steps to alleviate such concerns (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Fink & Pastore, 1999). Research has suggested that organizations adopting such diversity-management strategies are likely to have quality group functioning, positive employee attitudes, and perceptions of high organizational performance (Fink et al., 2001, 2003).

While Fink et al. (2001, 2003) focused on the direct effects of a proactive diversity-management strategy, this study examines the degree to which a proactive strategy interacts with racial diversity to influence performance. As previously argued, if left unmanaged, racial diversity can have negative effects on subsequent outcomes. However, when coupled with an effective diversity-management strategy, such as the proactive strategy described by Fink and Pastore (1999), racial diversity should translate into increased workplace productivity. Doherty and Chelladurai (1999) proffered similar arguments, such that absent a culture of diversity (i.e., a proactive diversity-management strategy), the positive effects of workplace diversity were unlikely to be fully realized. In fact, organizations that are racially diverse but

that have poor diversity-management strategies are likely to have considerable conflict, infighting, and performance decrements (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999).

Though the research is limited, there is some empirical support for these arguments. Kochan et al. (2003), in their multi-firm study, found that racial diversity was positively associated with performance in organizational environments that fostered an understanding of diversity. However, absent such cultures, the effects of racial diversity were largely negative. In a similar way, Ely and Thomas (2001) found that although various diversity-management strategies could be used to diversify a staff effectively, only their integration and learning perspective (i.e., a proactive strategy) provided the culture necessary for sustained benefits. These findings are similar to those of Richard (2000), who found that a bank's business strategy interacted with the racial diversity of its workforce to predict financial performance. Together, these studies suggest that an organization's diversity-management strategy is likely to interact with its workforce diversity to predict subsequent outcomes. This reasoning led to the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 2*. The positive association between racial diversity and organizational performance will be moderated by the presence of a proactive diversity-management strategy.

## Method

### Participants

Data were collected from 75 of the 117 NCAA Division I-A athletic departments by way of both archival sources and survey method. With respect to the latter data-collection method, 222 (140 male, 82 female) senior-level administrators (i.e., athletic directors, associate athletic directors, assistant athletic directors) completed questionnaires. The sample consisted primarily of males (62.8%) and was mostly White ($n = 177$; 79.0%). Participant ages were relatively evenly distributed among 31–40 years ($n = 61$; 27.2%), 41–50 years ($n = 66$; 29.5%), and 51–60 years ($n = 67$; 29.9%). Finally, the administrators in the sample had a mean organizational tenure of 9.87 years ($SD = 8.70$) and a mean occupational tenure of 17.49 years ($SD = 10.42$).

### Measures

*Department diversity.* Administrators were asked to provide the proportion of athletic department personnel who were categorized into six different

racial groups: African American, Asian, Hispanic, Native American, White, and "Other." Response options for each category ranged from 1 (*0–10%*) to 10 (*91–100%*). The proportion of White departmental employees was used as the measure of diversity. Responses were reverse-scored such that higher values were indicative of a greater proportion of racial minorities within the department.

*Diversity-management strategy.* Past research adopting Fink and Pastore's (1999) framework have used a multi-item scale (25 items in Fink et al., 2001; 26 items in Fink et al., 2003) to assess the department's strategy. As an alternative, business strategy research has also demonstrated the efficacy of using vignettes to assess an organization's general business strategy (see Cunningham, 2002; Snow & Hrebiniak, 1980). This approach has been shown to be as reliable and valid as using multi-item scales (Snow & Hrebiniak, 1980), while cutting down considerably on the time commitment and mental fatigue entailed in completing long questionnaires. Such an approach was adopted in the current study. Specifically, a vignette was developed, based on Fink and Pastore's framework and their subsequent empirical work (Fink et al., 2001, 2003) to capture an "ideal" proactive athletic department.

The vignette was then reviewed by a panel of experts, including the first author of Fink and Pastore's framework. Based on their recommendations, slight changes were made to the original vignette. The final vignette asked administrators to indicate "how similar your department is to the one in the scenario." The vignette read as follows:

> This department has flexible work hours and schedules, and attempts to make everyone feel as if they contribute to the department. Building and managing diversity is included in the department's mission, and there are open lines of communication aimed at gleaning the advantages of diversity. Strategies, policies, and procedures are in place in order to capitalize on individual differences. The department also manages diversity by anticipating problems and initiating incentives to prevent problems.

Participants then rated how similar their departments were to the one described in the vignette on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*very different*) to 7 (*very similar*).

*Organizational performance.* Athletic department performance was assessed through NACDA Director's Cup points (see www.nacda.com). This is an award given annually to the top-performing athletic department. Points are based on the performance of an athletic department's men's and women's teams. NACDA Director's Cup points have also been used as measures of

success in past studies (e.g., Cunningham, 2002, 2003). Using this award as a measure of performance is further illustrated by the fact that many athletic directors and, thus, athletic departments, are evaluated in large part based on their placement in the Director's Cup (Charlotte Westerhaus, NCAA Executive, personal communication, January 15, 2007).

*Controls.* Two controls were incorporated into the study: total expenditures and number of head coaches. Total expenditures were included because of the positive association found between such spending and athletic success of the department (Cunningham, 2003). Expenditure data were gathered from the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act website (http://ope.ed.gov/athletics/). Similarly, the size of the department could influence overall performance and the ability to implement certain strategies. Thus, the number of head coaches was used as a surrogate measure of the department's size.

*Procedure*

Questionnaire packets—which included a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, a questionnaire containing the vignette and the demographic items, and a postage-paid return envelope—were distributed to 680 senior-level administrators from the 117 NCAA Division I-A institutions. Names and addresses of the top six administrators within each department were gathered from the NCAA website. After the first round of data collection, 205 administrators responded. A subsequent questionnaire was sent to nonrespondents 6 weeks later, and another 55 responded, for a total response rate of 38.3%. Early and late respondents did not differ in their ratings of their departments' diversity-management strategy, thereby suggesting that nonresponse bias is likely not a substantial concern (Dooley & Linder, 2003).

Because the study hypotheses were concerned with the department as a whole, rather than individuals within it, the data were aggregated to the department level of analysis (for a discussion of aggregation, see Dixon & Cunningham, 2006; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). This meant first reducing the data set to include only those schools with two or more respondents—a process that reduced the sample to 222 respondents from 75 athletic departments, or 64.1% of the total number of departments. Participants' responses were then aggregated to the department level, a process statistically justified: department diversity ($\eta^2 = .54$, $r_{WG} = .77$) and proactive diversity management ($\eta^2 = .33$, $r_{WG} = .67$). These results demonstrate agreement among the multiple respondents at each university and sufficient variance among the universities in the sample.

Table 1

*Means and Bivariate Correlations*

| Variable | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Total expenses | 21036561.80 | 9858986.04 | — | | | |
| 2. Number of coaches | 14.67 | 4.18 | .63*** | — | | |
| 3. Department diversity | 2.73 | 1.15 | .03 | .03 | — | |
| 4. Proactive strategy | 4.69 | 0.91 | .15 | .04 | .15 | — |
| 5. Performance | 537.26 | 282.12 | .71*** | .48*** | .32* | .47** |

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

## Results

Means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations are presented in Table 1. As expected, department performance (Director's Cup points) was positively associated with total expenditures, number of coaches in the department, proactive diversity management, and department diversity. Interestingly, proactive diversity management and department diversity were not associated with one another.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that racial diversity would be positively associated with departmental performance. As can be seen in Table 1, the two variables held a significant bivariate association ($r = .32$, $p < .05$). These effects held after accounting for the controls (see Table 2). Specifically, hierarchical regression analysis indicates that, after accounting for the effects of total expenditures ($\beta = .62$, $p < .001$) and total number of coaches ($\beta = .14$, $p = .28$), racial diversity was still significantly associated with department performance ($\Delta R^2 = .09$, $\beta = .31$, $p < .01$), a moderate to large portion of variance explained. Thus, Hypothesis 1 received support.

Hypothesis 2, which predicted that a proactive diversity-management strategy would moderate the positive relationship between racial diversity and organizational performance, was tested through moderated regression following Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken's (2003) guidelines. Racial diversity and proactive diversity management were then centered to the mean and entered in the second step. The Racial Diversity × Proactive Diversity-Management Strategy product term was then entered in the third step. As can be seen in Table 3, the controls accounted for 50% of the variance ($p < .001$),

Table 2

*Effects of Racial Diversity on Organizational Performance*

| | B | SE | β | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Step 1 | | | | .50 | .50*** |
| Total expenditures | 0.02 | 0.00 | .62*** | | |
| Number of coaches | 9.53 | 8.67 | .14 | | |
| Step 2 | | | | .59 | .09** |
| Racial diversity | 77.80 | 24.31 | .31** | | |

**$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 3

*Moderating Effect of a Proactive Diversity-Management Strategy on Relationship Between Racial Diversity and Organizational Performance*

| | B | SE | β | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Step 1 | | | | .50 | .50*** |
| Total expenditures | 0.02 | 0.00 | .62*** | | |
| Number of coaches | 9.53 | 8.67 | .14 | | |
| Step 2 | | | | .65 | .15*** |
| Racial diversity (R) | 70.77 | 22.91 | .28** | | |
| Proactive strategy (P) | 76.57 | 28.22 | .26** | | |
| Step 3 | | | | .68 | .03* |
| R × P | 57.06 | 28.80 | .17* | | |

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

and the first-order effects accounted for an additional 15% of unique variance ($p < .001$). After accounting for these effects, the product term was still significant ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, β = .17, $p < .05$). A summary of the interaction effects is shown in Figure 1.

When the department had a low level of racial diversity, the presence of a proactive strategy did not influence performance. However, when the department had high racial diversity, performance was greatly improved by the presence of a proactive diversity-management strategy. These results provide support for Hypothesis 2.
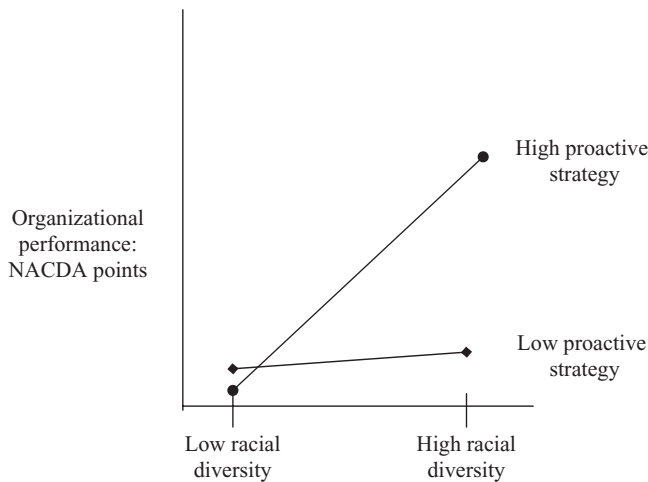
*Figure 1.* Moderating effect of a proactive diversity-management strategy on the relationship between racial diversity and organizational performance.

## Discussion

Though many have hailed the business case for diversity, both qualitative and quantitative literature reviews have consistently shown that diversity simply does not, under all conditions, result in better organizational performance (Jackson et al., 2003; Mannix & Neale, 2005; Webber & Donahue, 2001; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). When not considering contextual, cultural, and strategic factors, diversity is likely to have no impact—or even a negative influence—on subsequent processes and outcomes. However, all organizations are not the same: They do not have the same organizational cultures, and they do not have the same strategies for leveraging the positive impact diversity can bring. Therein lies the importance of considering the diversity-management strategy employed and how that strategy interacts with the organization's workforce diversity to influence overall effectiveness.

Results from the present study show that while racial diversity was directly related to departmental performance, the effects were qualified by the strategy employed. Specifically, the positive effects of racial diversity were increased when coupled with a proactive diversity-management strategy. Such a strategy is likely to allow for the conditions necessary to capitalize on the benefits of diversity: conditions such as active debate of issues (Simons et al., 1999), freedom to express doubt as to the efficacy of the adopted approach (Lovelace et al., 2001), and cooperative interdependence (Lovelace et al., 2001; for a further discussion, see van Knippenberg et al., 2004).

*Contributions and Implications*

This study makes several contributions. First, the study demonstrates the importance of considering both the diversity-management strategy employed and the overall diversity of the staff. Previous research in the sport context has considered one or the other, but not both (see Cunningham & Sagas, 2004b; Fink et al., 2001, 2003). The findings of this study are consistent with Doherty and Chelladurai's (1999) conceptual arguments that organizations are unlikely to realize maximally the benefits of a diverse workforce unless they also implement effective diversity-management strategies. This is also consistent with the information/decision-making perspective (Gruenfeld et al., 1996; Phillips et al., 2004), which holds that organizational diversity is beneficial because it brings together people who have a broad array of ideas, perspectives, and ways of knowing. Such differences are unlikely to translate into greater effectiveness, however, if the organization is not one where varying opinions and perspectives can be voiced and are valued. Organizations following a proactive diversity-management strategy have such cultures (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Fink & Pastore, 1999) and, therefore, are likely to enjoy the breadth of decision making and creativity that a diverse workforce brings.

That the hypotheses were tested in the field also represents a contribution to the extant diversity literature. Mannix and Neale (2005) noted that many of the positive effects of diversity on performance have been found in tightly controlled, laboratory settings (e.g., Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998), thereby leading some to question whether the findings were applicable to real-world settings. Findings from the present study suggest that diversity, when coupled with a proactive diversity strategy, can result in positive gains for the organization.

The study also opens the "black box" of diversity research (Lawrence, 1997; see also Cunningham, 2007) by considering moderating effects. Specifically, Lawrence argued that equivocal findings are often present in diversity research because researchers rely too heavily on testing diversity's direct effects on subsequent outcomes. Therefore, an unexplored black box exists between diversity and organizational outcomes, as mediators and moderators have seldom been included. Other authors have made similar calls for further examination into the black box (Mannix & Neale, 2005; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). This study contributes, then, to the general diversity literature by shedding light into that black box and showing that diversity strategy moderates the relationship between organizational diversity and organizational performance.

Findings from the study also contribute to the discussion of the case that academics and managers make for diversity. Various scholars have argued

that because it is not valid, the traditional business case for diversity—that diversity will automatically lead to better performance—needs to be altered (Kochan et al., 2003; Mannix & Neale, 2005). Kochan et al. argued for a more nuanced view. They suggested that

> Success is facilitated by a perspective that considers diversity to be an opportunity for everyone in the organization to learn from each other how better to accomplish their work and an occasion that requires a supportive and cooperative organizational culture as well as group leadership and process skills that can facilitate effective group functioning. (p. 18)

Findings from the present study support the spirit of Kochan et al.'s (2003) argument, and also suggest that the business case for diversity is likely to be realized when diversity is ingrained into the fabric of the organization, its mission, policies, and practices; when diverse persons hold positions of power; and when all people, irrespective of their individual differences, contribute to the organization's success. In other words, diversity is not likely to influence effectiveness positively in all cases; rather, diversity is more likely to influence the organization positively when a proactive diversity-management strategy is in place. In echoing Fink and Pastore's (1999) sentiments, such changes are likely to take place when athletic directors perceive the value that diversity can bring to the department, as illustrated in the current study.

*Limitations and Future Directions*

Though the present study makes several contributions to the extant literature, there are limitations. First, based on the information/decision-making perspective (Gruenfeld et al., 1996; Phillips et al., 2004), it was hypothesized that diversity, when properly managed, would bring value to the organization. It is worth noting, however, that the underlying processes (e.g., enhanced decision-making effectiveness) were not directly measured. Thus, the explanations for the positive influence of department diversity and diversity-management strategy on subsequent effectiveness are based on theory, not empirical evidence.

Second, only Division I-A athletic departments were surveyed; thus, it is unclear if a similar pattern of findings would hold in other sport and athletics contexts. There is some evidence that because other areas of athletics are considerably less diverse than are Division I-A departments, the value that diversity brings to the organization is augmented in those contexts (Fink et al., 2003). Researchers should consider exploring these possibilities in future studies.

These potential limitations, coupled with the findings of the study, give rise to several avenues for future research. While the current study demonstrated the effectiveness of advancing a proactive diversity-management strategy, it is also important to understand how such strategies were implemented and how the departments developed cultures of diversity. That is, researchers should focus on the means to achieve the desired diversity-related end. In a similar way, while the quantitative focus suited the needs of the current investigation, alternative approaches, such as conducting in-depth interviews, might also prove useful in understanding the effects of diversity and culture on sport organizations (see also Cunningham & Fink, 2006; Frisby, 2005). Future researchers should consider this possibility. Finally, future research is needed to understand how diversity impacts other areas of effectiveness, such as relations with essential stakeholders and brand management. Given the importance of diversity to an organization's overall effectiveness, such endeavors are likely to prove beneficial.

## References

Allen, R. S., & Montgomery, K. A. (2001). Applying an organizational development approach to creating diversity. *Organizational Dynamics*, *30*, 149–161.

Ancona, D., & Caldwell, D. F. (1992). Demography and design: Predictors of new product team performance. *Organization Science*, *3*, 321–341.

Brown, G. T. (2004). *New inclusion office to build on diversity*. Retrieved February 13, 2007, from http://ncaanews.org

Chatman, J. A., Polzer, J. T., Barsade, S. G., & Neale, M. A. (1998). Being different yet feeling similar: The influence of demographic composition and organizational culture on work processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *43*, 749–780.

Chelladurai, P. (2005). *Managing organizations for sport and physical activity: A systems perspective* (2nd ed.). Scottsdale, AZ: Holcomb-Hathaway.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cox, T. (1991). The multicultural organization. *Academy of Management Executive*, *5*(2), 34–47.

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

Cox, T. H., Lobel, S. A., & McLeod, P. L. (1991). Effects of ethnic group cultural differences on cooperative and competitive behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, *34*, 827–847.

Cunningham, G. B. (2002). Examining the relationship among Miles and Snow's strategic types and measures of organizational effectiveness in NCAA Division I athletic departments. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, *37*, 159–175.

Cunningham, G. B. (2003). Human resources as sources of competitive advantage: A resource-based view of the athletic department. *Applied Research in Coaching and Athletics Annual*, *18*, 37–58.

Cunningham, G. B. (2007). Opening the black box: The influence of perceived diversity and a common in-group identity in diverse groups. *Journal of Sport Management*, *21*, 58–78.

Cunningham, G. B., & Fink, J. S. (2006). Diversity issues in sport and leisure: Introduction to a special issue. *Journal of Sport Management*, *20*, 455–465.

Cunningham, G. B., & Sagas, M. (2004a). Group diversity, occupational commitment, and occupational turnover intentions among NCAA Division I-A football coaching staffs. *Journal of Sport Management*, *18*, 236–254.

Cunningham, G. B., & Sagas, M. (2004b). People make the difference: The influence of human capital and diversity on team performance. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *4*, 3–22.

Cunningham, G. B., & Sagas, M. (2005). Access discrimination in intercollegiate athletics. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, *29*, 148–163.

DeSensi, J. T. (1995). Understanding multiculturalism and valuing diversity: A theoretical perspective. *Quest*, *47*, 34–43.

Dixon, M. A., & Cunningham, G. B. (2006). Multi-level analysis in sport management: Conceptual issues and review of aggregation techniques. *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science*, *10*(2), 85–107.

Doherty, A. J., & Chelladurai, P. (1999). Managing cultural diversity in sport organizations: A theoretical perspective. *Journal of Sport Management*, *13*, 280–297.

Dooley, L. M., & Linder, J. R. (2003). The handling of nonresponse error. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *14*, 99–110.

Ely, R. J., & Thomas, D. A. (2001). Cultural diversity at work: The effects of diversity perspectives on work group processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *46*, 229–273.

Fink, J. S., & Pastore, D. L. (1999). Diversity in sport? Utilizing the business literature to devise a comprehensive framework of diversity initiatives. *Quest*, *51*, 310–327.

Fink, J. S., Pastore, D. L., & Riemer, H. A. (2001). Do differences make a difference? Managing diversity in Division I-A intercollegiate athletics. *Journal of Sport Management*, *15*, 10–50.

Fink, J. S., Pastore, D. L., & Riemer, H. A. (2003). Managing employee diversity: Perceived practices and organizational outcomes in NCAA

Division III athletic departments. *Sport Management Review*, *6*, 147–168.

Frisby, W. (2005). The good, the bad, and the ugly: Critical sport management research. *Journal of Sport Management*, *19*, 1–12.

Golembiewski, R. (1995). *Managing diversity in organizations*. Tuscaloosa, AL: University of Alabama Press.

Gruenfeld, D. H., Mannix, E. A., Williams, K. Y., & Neale, M. A. (1996). Group composition and decision making: How member familiarity and information distribution affect process and performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *67*, 1–15.

Hayes-Thomas, R. (2004). Why now? The contemporary focus on managing diversity. In M. S. Stockdale & F. J. Crosby (Eds.), *The psychology and management of workplace diversity* (pp. 3–30). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Holladay, C. L., Knight, J. L., Paige, D. L., & Quinones, M. A. (2003). The influence of framing on attitudes toward diversity training. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *14*, 245–263.

Jackson, S., Joshi, A., & Erhardt, N. (2003). Recent research on team and organizational diversity: SWOT analysis of implications. *Journal of Management*, *29*, 801–830.

Knoppers, A., Meyer, B. B., Ewing, M., & Forrest, L. (1993). Gender ratio and social interaction among college coaches. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, *10*, 256–269.

Kochan, T., Bezrukova, K., Ely, R., Jackson, S., Joshi, A., Jehn, K., et al. (2003). The effects of diversity on business performance: Report of the Diversity Research Network. *Human Resource Management*, *42*, 3–21.

Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Klein, K. J. (2000). A multilevel approach to theory and research in organizations: Contextual, temporal, and emergent processes. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 3–90). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

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

Long, J., Robinson, P., & Spracklen, K. (2005). Promoting racial equality within sport organizations. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, *29*, 41–59.

Lorbiecki, A. (2001). Changing views on diversity management: The rise of the learning perspective and the need to recognize social and political contradictions. *Management Learning*, *32*, 345–361.

Lovelace, K., Shapiro, D. L., & Weingart, L. R. (2001). Maximizing cross-functional new product teams' innovativeness and constrain adherence: A conflict communications perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*, 779–793.

Mannix, E., & Neale, M. A. (2005). What differences make a difference? The promise and reality of diverse teams in organizations. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, *6*, 31–55.

McLeod, P. L., Lobel, S. A., & Cox, T. H., Jr. (1996). Ethnic diversity and creativity in small groups. *Small Group Research*, *27*, 248–264.

Phillips, K., Mannix, E., Neale, M., & Gruenfeld, D. (2004). Diverse groups and information sharing: The effect of congruent ties. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *40*, 497–510.

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

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

Sargent, L. D., & Sue-Chan, C. (2001). Does diversity affect group efficacy? The intervening role of cohesion and task interdependence. *Small Group Research*, *32*, 426–451.

Simons, T., Pelled, L. H., & Smith, K. A. (1999). Making use of difference: Diversity, debate, and decision comprehensiveness in top management teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, *42*, 662–673.

Snow, C. C., & Hrebiniak, L. (1980). Strategy, distinctive competence, and organizational performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *25*, 317–335.

Thomas, R. R. (1991). *Beyond race and gender*. New York: AMACOM.

Thomas, R. R. (1996). *Redefining diversity*. New York: AMACOM.

Timmerman, T. A. (2000). Racial diversity, age diversity, interdependence, and team performance. *Small Group Research*, *31*, 592–606.

van Knippenberg, D., De Drue, C. K. W., & Homan, A. C. (2004). Work group diversity and group performance: An integrative model and research agenda. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*, 1008–1022.

Webber, S. S., & Donahue, L. M. (2001). Impact of highly and less job-related diversity on work group cohesion and performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Management*, *27*, 141–162.

Williams, K. Y., & O'Reilly, C. A., III. (1998). Demography and diversity in organizations: A review of 40 years of research. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 20, pp. 77–140). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.