Women in Nontraditional Jobs

September 1983

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Women in Nontraditional Jobs
--A Statement and Resource Guide by
  the Utah Advisory Committee to the
  U.S. Commission on Civil Rights

September 1983

ATTRIBUTION:

The information contained in this guide expresses the
opinions of the Utah Advisory Committee and the two
individuals invited to present papers to the Committee.
As such, it is not attributable to the U.S. Commission
on Civil Rights. This statement has been prepared by the
Advisory Committee for submission to the Commission.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

Utah Advisory Committee to the
U.S. Commission on Civil Rights
September 1983

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Dear Commissioners:

The Utah Advisory Committee, pursuant to its
responsibility to advise the Commission on civil rights
problems in the State, submits this guide on women in
non-traditional jobs. At a public forum in Salt Lake
City in August 1982, participants expressed the view
that many women experience barriers to employment in
jobs traditionally held by men, especially white males,
and often do not have access to resource information
which may facilitate their entry into or advancement in
profitable occupations.

The Advisory Committee is aware that many females want
to enter those positions traditionally considered the
domain of white males, because these jobs would make
more efficient use of their abilities, talents, and
faculties and would provide the monetary compensations
and satisfaction they require.

The purpose of this guide is to provide women with
resource information to facilitate their ability to
enter better paying, skilled jobs and to provide the
policymaker with information on the barriers to such
employment faced by these women.

We urge you to consider this report and make public
your reaction to it.

LINDA M. DUPONT-JOHNSON
Chairperson

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

The Utah Advisory Committee to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights intends this document for those individuals looking to improve their employment opportunities and for those groups responsible for job development and related employment planning in Utah. The purpose of this guide is both to provide policymakers witn information on barriers to women in non-traditional jobs and to provide individual women with resource information that may facilitate their entry into or advancement in profitable occupations.

The Utah Advisory Committee is cognizant of the fact that many women want to enter jobs traditionally held by men, because these jobs would make efficient use of their abilities and provide the satisfaction and monetary compensation they seek. Consequently it is also the purpose of this guide to provide individual women with resource information that may facilitate their entry into better paying skilled positions.

SECTION I: WOMEN AND THE LABOR FORCE IN UTAH

Nearly 51 million females 16 years of age and older were listed as part of the Nation's civilian workforce in 1979. That figure is 57 percent of the 89,536,000 women who are 16 and over,[1] a participation rate that has doubled since 1960.[2]

The proportion of women in Utah's labor force increased considerably during the last 11 years. Of Utah's total 1970 population of 1,059,273 (523,265 males and 536,008 females), there were 145,638 women 16 years of age and over in the civilian labor force, accounting for 36 percent of all workers.[3] Additionally, 2,076 girls between the ages of 14 and 15 were in Utah's labor force.[4]

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[1] U.S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1980 Census of Population and Housing: Provisional Estimates of Social, Economic and Housing Characteristics, PHC80-S-1-1 (March 1982), Table P-3, p. 25.

[2] "Women and Work, Looking for Jobs, Looking for Justice," National VOTER, Spring 1983, p. 1.

[3] U.S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, "General Population Characteristics-Utah," PC(1)-B46 (U.S. Government Printing Office: Washington, D.C.), Table 19, p. 39; U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, "Women Workers in Utah, 1970," March 1974, p. 1 (hereafter cited as Women's Bureau).

[4] In 1970 nearly 8,700 women workers were unemployed, creating a 5.9 percent unemployment rate for women. The unemployment rate then for men was 4.7 percent.

In 1981, Utah's total population was 1,520,000 (766,260 females).[5] Of that number there were 251,600 females in the civilian labor force. By 1982, the number had increased to 265,000.[6] From 1970 to 1982, the number of working females 16 years of age and older increased by 119,362. Females by 1982, then, represented 41 percent of the total number of workers in Utah compared to 36 percent in 1970. That year working males totaled 380,900.[7]

Marital Status and Children

Of all the married women in Utah in 1970, 90,000 (40 percent) were in the labor force. More than 62 percent of the women workers in the State were married and living with their husbands. Of the single, widowed, divorced, or separated women, 56,000 (44 percent) were workers.[8]

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[5] State of Utah, Department of Employment Security, Salt Lake City, Utah, Utah Affirmative Action Information, February 1982, Table 1, p. 15 (hereafter cited as Utah Affirmative Action).

[6] Information Services, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Denver, Colorado, telephone interview with RMRO staff, June 9, 1983.

[7] Ibid. By April 1983 there were 51,000 persons unemployed in the State (8 percent), with 13,700 of them females.

[8] Women's Bureau, p. 1.

In 1970, two-fifths of all mothers with children under 18 years of age were in Utah's labor force. Those mothers represented 44 percent of the female work force. Nearly 39,000 mothers with children six to 17 years of age (53 percent of all such mothers in the population) were in the labor force. Close to 25,000 mothers with children under six (29 percent of those in the population) were workers.[9]

Thirteen years ago about 20,000 Utah families (eight percent of the total number of families) were headed by women. More than half (52 percent) of the 5,804 women heads of household with children under six were workers. About 3,500 women with children under six headed households where incomes were below the poverty level. Thirty-five percent of those women were workers.[10]

In 1979 there were 49,346 working women with children under six in Utah. An additional 55,339 with children between the ages of six and 17 were working.[11] In 1981, 36,700 Utah households were headed by females, 11,600 (31.8

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9 Ibid. p. 2.
10 Ibid.
11 Census of Population and Housing, 1980, Summary Tape File 3A, p. 4. Provided by the Utah Department of Employment Security, Salt Lake City, Utah.

percent) of them lived under the poverty level.[12] Those female-headed households with children under the age of six numbered 11,700 with 6,870 (58.5 percent) of those below the poverty level. Of the total number of female heads of household in the State, 20,928 were employed with 3,677 (17.6 percent) of them living below the poverty level.[13]

Nationally, the 1980 annual median income in current dollars was $23,141 for a male-headed family and $9,320 for a female-headed family.[14] Although the median household per capita income has held fairly constant since 1969 for male-headed households, it has dropped from $14,900 in 1969 (40 percent) for households run by females.[15] The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights has pointed out:

> At one end of the scale, since 1947, 20 percent of the Nation's families have had to make do with only about 5 percent of the total national family income; at the other end, 5 percent of families have received about 16 percent of the total national family income.... In the United States, clearly, there is a disproportionate concentration

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[12] State of Utah, Utah Department of Employment Security, Salt Lake City, Utah, 1981 Poverty Status and Selected Characteristics of Utah Families Headed by Women, August 1982, n.p.

[13] Ibid.

[14] "A Portrait of America," Newsweek, January 17, 1983, p. 26.

[15] U.S., Commission on Civil Rights, Social Indicators of Equality for Minorities and Women (August 1978), p. 50 (hereafter cited as Social Indicators).

of total income in a small number of families, and there has been virtually no change in this pattern of inequality in the past three decades.16

Occupations

According to the Department of Labor's Women's Bureau a large number of working women in Utah in 1970 were employed as clerical workers (38 percent). Half as many (19 percent) were service workers outside the home, with 17 percent professional and technical workers. The fourth and fifth largest groups were operatives, including transport (9 percent), and sales workers (8 percent).17 In a further breakdown of percentages of female workers in Utah the Bureau states that in 1970 females in the State were:

> ...97 percent of the private household workers, 74 percent of the clerical workers, 58 percent of the service workers outside the home, 40 percent of the sales workers, and 35 percent of professional and technical workers.... [and] only 15 percent of all nonfarm managers and administrators, while their proportion was lowest (two percent) among transport equipment operatives.18

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16 Ibid., p. 48.
17 Women's Bureau, p. 2.
18 Ibid.

According to the Utah Department of Employment Security, in 1980 75.6 percent of the workers in Utah were employed in the private sector, an increase from 66.8 percent over 1970. In both public and private sector jobs, females are still overly represented in the clerical, secretarial, lower education, and medical/health worker fields and under-represented in the occupations traditionally held by men. According to 1981 figures, 81 percent of Utah's working females were in clerical positions.[19] Of the 36,523 sales workers, females represented 41 percent. Females represented 67 percent of the 75,318 service workers (cleaning, food, health, protective, and others).[20]

Under the heading of professional, technical and related occupations, of the 17,816 elementary and secondary teachers in Utah in 1981, women constituted 68 percent of the total while they numbered 63.4 percent of the medical and health workers. Figures on the number of women in the field of engineering are not available. Information is also lacking on the employment of women in the craft occupations-- construction, mechanics, repairmen, machinists, and metals.

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[19] Utah Affirmative Action, p. 51.
[20] Ibid.

However, females in 1981 represented 40 percent of the operatives--durable and non-durable goods manufacturing--and four percent of the transport equipment operatives. Additionally, they represented 24 percent of the non-farm managers and administrators in 1981.[21]

SECTION II: WOMEN IN NON-TRADITIONAL JOBS

Largely because of the modern woman's need to break out of low-paying, "sex-segregated" occupations such as teaching and typing, much attention has been focused on the barriers to job opportunities in the trades and vocations.

Sex-segregation or occupational segregation, as defined by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, "refers to the situation in which minorities and women have different occupations or types of jobs regardless of where or for whom they work."[22]

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[21] Ibid.
[22] Social Indicators, p. 39.

The Southwestern Assembly on Women and the American Economy, in its final report, stated that white male bonding has created a caste system of occupational segregation.[23] This segregation is based on sex and not on rational performance criteria.[24] The report comments:

> Individuals in the job market are often evaluated not by asking 'What can they do?' or 'How well can they do it?' but rather on the basis of such extraneous and functionally irrelevant considerations as their race or sex. Ample documentation shows that women suffer systematic discrimination in admission to certain occupations, in the salaries they are paid, and in their promotion.[25]

Former U.S. Secretary of Commerce Juanita Kreps confirmed this by observing:

> Stereotyping of work which formerly separated the sexes into market and nonmarket categories now tends to divide the labor market into men's jobs and women's jobs...with men occupying the professional and managerial positions, women the clerical and secretarial.[26]

The Economy and Sex-Segregation in Jobs

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23 The Southwestern Assembly on Women and the American Economy, Final Report (Dallas, Texas: Southern Methodist University, 1977), p. 1.

24 Ibid.

25 Ibid.

26 Ibid.

According to the Southwestern Assembly report, when the Nation's economy is expanding, absorption of women into positions which make full use of their skills and capabilities is possible. In a slow economy, such as the the Nation is presently experiencing, the barriers blocking women in the labor market are dramatically increased.[27] Policy analyst Heather L. Ross points out, however, that there is nothing in the nature of economic progress to assure all people benefit equally.[28] She observes:

> Indeed, one of the important factors of humane government policy is to correct major imbalances that occur when economic activity rewards some people much more than others. Those who concern themselves with this kind of public policy have been finding that, more and more, a key element determining who moves ahead in the economy and who does not is the family structure: husband-wife families are making progress in the white community and in the black community as well, but female-headed families are falling behind in both communities.[29]

According to 1980 Bureau of the Census statistics, 28 percent of all working women are in service positions. The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission defines a

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27 Ibid., p. 2.
28 Heather L. Ross, "Poverty," in Economic Independence for Women, ed. Jane Roberts Chapman (Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, Inc., 1976), p. 137 (hereafter cited as Economic Independence for Women).
29 Ibid.

service worker as an occupational category which includes
all employees in both protective and non-protective service
occupations.[30] Among other jobs the category includes
waitresses, cooks, and domestics. In 1968 nationwide, women
constituted 99 percent of all household workers, 73 percent
of all clerical workers, 63 percent of all service workers,
and only four percent of skilled craftsmen and foremen.[31]
Only one in every 60 working women was in a skilled trade.
Workers of both sexes held jobs, then, that were
sex-segregated.[32]

In 1970, of the 14,688,724 persons employed in various
industries, women numbered 6,708,802 or 46 percent. Of this
number, 3,080,503 or 46 percent of these females were
segregated in clerical and related positions. Of the total
number of employed males, 862,665 or 11 percent were

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[30] U.S., Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Employment
Profiles of Minorities and Women in the SMSA's of 20
Large Cities, 1971 (Washington, D.C.: Government
Printing Office, 1974), p. vii. See also U.S.,
Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census,
"Provisional Estimates of Social, Economic, and
Housing Characteristics," 1980 Census of Population
and Housing, PHC80-S1-1, Table P-3, p.25.

[31] Barbara M. Wertheimer, "Search for a Partnership Role," in
Economic Independence for Women, p. 185.

[32] Ibid.

employed in clerical and related positions. Women in
professional and technical fields were better represented
(13 percent) with men numbering 821,546 or 10 percent of all
working men. However, females largely predominated in
teaching positions other than college or university levels,
while men predominated in institutions of higher learning.
Managers and administrators among women numbered 80,350
or one percent of the total number of women in industry,
while men numbered 279,630 or 3.5 percent of the total
number of working men (or men working in private industry).
Female craftsmen totaled 74,980 or one percent of the number
employed, and men totaled 1,212,788 or 15 percent.[33]

Sociologist Pamela Roby reported that Gloria Johnson,
Director of the Women's Department of the International
Union of Electrical Workers, illustrated the principle of
discriminatory sex-segregation when she observed that women
steelworkers who had secured jobs traditionally held by men
since World War II were helped on the job by black men but
not by white ones.[34] According to Johnson, these black

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[33] U.S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1970
Census of Population, "Occupations by Industry,"
PC(2)-7C (U.S. Government Printing Office: Washington,
D.C. 1972), Table 1, pp. 17-20.
[34] Pamela Roby, "The Conditions of Women in Blue-Collar
Jobs," in Economic Independence for Women, p. 159.

steelworkers, because they were sensitized to fighting discrimination, helped female steelworkers, while the white men were known to harass them and even refused on numbers of occasions to teach them safety precautions. She stated:

> Harassment included foremen who made women (during their probationary period) carry excessive weights which tractors, rather than men, normally carry; male workers refusing to teach them even safety precautions which they have always taught new men; men telling women 'You wanted the job, now you can cope with it,' and foremen refusing women normal breaks and giving them the jobs of two men to perform....[35]

Nancy Smith Barrett, economist, explains that the history of the conflict between the sexes for male-oriented positions stems from the Industrial Revolution. When the home (cottage) economy shifted to the factory, since women had child-rearing responsibilities, men became the principal source of income. Money having become the important source of social status, the working male's activities predomi-nated. Household economic activity did not give the female economic status independent of her husband.[36] Since in the 19th century the factory system was physically and mentally debilitating, freeing the female from the factories was the

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35 Ibid.
36 Nancy Smith Barrett, "Women in Industrial Society: an International Perspective," in Economic Independence for Women, p. 79.

principal aim of the women's rights movement of the time. During the Victorian era, women were classified as the weaker sex and were viewed as needful of protection although vast numbers were nonetheless condemned to despairing lives in the mills and factories. For the upper rungs of society, the male's economic success was judged by his wife's frivolous and conspicuous consumption.[37]

This 19th century attitude, according to Barrett, is carried on today in the lower-middle class. Labor force participation rates of females has been lowest in that class. This fact suggests that pressures for women to stay home despite greater economic rewards are more prevalent in that group.[38]

Anthropologist Marvin Harris has stated that until World War II the proportion of married women participating in the workforce remained small. He says that only 15 percent of married women held outside jobs despite the Great

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[37] Ibid.
[38] Ibid.

Depression.[39] He further comments that by 1980 the

proportion of employed married women had risen to 50

percent.[40]

While economic growth has brought increasing labor force

participation among women and the direction of social change

is towards emancipation, the attitude towards women as a

"reserve army of labor" to be given the lowest priority in

hard times is prevalent and works to the detriment of

females wanting to move into white male-dominated positions,

especially those in energy-related fields. Harris points out

that during the Second World War the recruitment of women

for employment outside the home did not threaten the

livelihood of male workers. These jobs held by women were

of the kind traditionally held by females. Since the men

didn't want them and these jobs were often taken as a

temporary expedient with the husbands' approval, there was

no competition between the sexes. These dull, boring, and

dead-end jobs were women's fate, according to Harris, until

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[39] Marvin Harris, America Now: The Anthropology of a
    Changing Culture (New York: Simon and Schuster), 1981,
    p. 88.
[40] Ibid.

the feminist revolution in the 1960s.[41] Harris characterizes women of the 1960s as "being drawn through a pneumatic tube" where:

> At one end of the tube there was inflation squeezing them out of the home and into the job market; at the other end there was the expanding service-and-information job market, sucking them into a niche specifically designed for literate but inexpensive and docile workers who would accept 60 percent or less of what a man would want for the same job.[42]

According to Harris, the natural outcome manifested in the '60s was for women to kick over the traces, to rebel against the attitude on the part of husbands who wanted them to be in two places at once: to work for half a man's pay and for no pay at all at home and to remain submissive and obedient to sexist husbands who no longer supported them.[43] Another outcome was a push for employment in jobs traditionally held by men.[44]

Roby supports Barrett's view that little effort has been made to guide women into male-oriented, higher-paying positions, although the National Planning Association estimates that 20.1 million job vacancies will occur in such

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[41] Ibid.
[42] Ibid., p. 94.
[43] Ibid.
[44] Ibid.

positions by 1980. Of the 6.4 million women and girls enrolled in public vocational programs in 1972, one-half were trained in home arts and 30 percent in office practices, despite the fact that high school vocational courses serve as preparation for entry into energy-related jobs.[45]

Roby further comments that a number of people have asked her:

> How do you give women the confidence to break into a job traditionally held by men when they know about the job and their legal rights to it, and they believe they can do the job?[46]

Ellis Cose of the Joint Center for Political Studies states that, because of increasing resource development, the Federal Energy Administration projects that there will be increasing demands for engineers (mechanical, electrical, nuclear, and mining). In addition, earth and physical scientists, specialized technicians, and highly skilled mining and drilling personnel will be required.[47] Former

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[45] Roby, p. 165. As of July 1983 1980 Census data on this matter had not been released.

[46] Ibid., p. 172.

[47] Ellis Cose, "Energy Development in the Rocky Mountain West: Its Effects on Women, Blacks and the Disadvantaged" (paper presented to the U.S.Commission on Civil Rights at a consultation, "Resource Development in the Intermountain West," Denver, Colorado, November 2-3, 1978), p. 3.

Secretary of Commerce Kreps noted that 95 percent of the health courses and 79 percent of the business and commercial courses in vocational and technical schools are taken by females, while ninety-eight percent of technical, industrial, and trade subjects are taken by males.[48]

Women, then, have been steered into curricula which have not prepared them for jobs traditionally held by men. Many of these women are ill-prepared to assume these male-oriented jobs without additional training.

SECTION III: REMOVING BARRIERS FOR WOMEN IN NON-TRADITIONAL MANAGERIAL JOBS--TWO VIEWS

Despite projections of increased employment opportunities in Utah, research on the national level has indicated that employment opportunities for women and minorities and their relative economic status may actually

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[48] Juanita Kreps, "The Future for Working Women," Ms., March 1977, p. 57.

diminish in the 1980s.[49] For example, the U.S. Commission on

Civil Rights, in A Growing Crisis--Disadvantaged Women and

Their Children, said of working females:

> Recent studies have shown that millions of
> working Americans endure economic hardship, and the
> most disadvantaged of these are women. Bureau of
> Labor Statistics studies of poverty by employment
> and marital status in 1979 and 1980 are most
> revealing. Although no poverty rates are given by
> both race and sex, the rates are reported for women
> maintaining families alone and express the severity
> of their problems.[50]

The Commission report continues:

> Many fully employed women heading households
> are poor in spite of their work efforts. In 1980,
> 23 million women were fully employed, of whom 3.2
> million were heads of household. The poverty rate
> for the women heading their own families was 5.4
> percent, almost 2.5 times that for nuclear
> families, and twice the rate for men maintaining
> families with no spouse present....[51]

The Utah Advisory Committee maintains that many of these

fully employed women remain poor, despite their work

efforts, because they hold jobs which traditionally provide

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[49] Jane H. Lillydahl and Elizabeth W. Moen, "The Economic
Position of Women and Their Employment Opportunities in
Energy Boomtowns," in Energy Resource Development,
(Washington, D.C.: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights), n.d.,
p. 67.

[50] (May 1983), p. 15.

[51] Ibid., pp. 15-16.

little monetary compensation.

In its 1982 forum, "Employment of Women and Minorities in Utah's Energy Industry" held in Salt Lake City, the Utah Advisory Committee brought together people working for and interested in employment of women and minorities in energy-related, non-traditional jobs. The following presentations by two women knowledgeable in opportunities for women in non-traditional, administrative and managerial positions were made at that forum and selected by the Utah Advisory Committee for inclusion here. The Advisory Committee recognizes that the issues discussed in these two presentations do not reflect the full range of issues pertaining to women in non-traditional professional and blue collar employment. Additionally, the papers represent the conclusions and beliefs of their authors and not necessarily those of the Advisory Committee.

"UPWARD MOBILITY FOR WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT"

Dr. Kaye Coleman

Associate Director of the Office of Equal Opportunity

University of Utah

Salt Lake City, Utah

Elizabeth Katy Stanton said one century ago:

> The task of sheltering women from the fierce storms
> of life is the sheerest mockery, for they blow upon
> her from every point of the compass, just as they
> do on men, but with far more fatal results. For he
> has been trained to protect himself.

This statement is as appropriate today as it was 100 years

ago. Because of the training and socialization that a female

receives as a woman, she has a difficult task in overcoming

the barriers to success. Many women managers are caught

between fear of failure and fear of success. She also has

to overcome cultural conditioning that can create internal

conflict between her personal life roles, such as woman,

wife, mother, and her role as a manager aspiring to be

upwardly mobile. She will also probably have to deal with the stereotypes others have of women, their place in the world of work, and their traits when in positions of power.

Two general elements dealing with problems unique to women managers include: 1.) her own self image about her role and what her behavior should be and 2.) the stereotypic images others have of women. Being able to get the proper balance between assertive behavior and "feminine" qualities is directly related to understanding these two elements and the effect they have on women in management.

According to the U.S. Department of Labor 1980 statistics, over 42 percent of all paid workers in the U.S. were women. Most of them were in low-paying jobs. In fact, on the average, women were making less than 60 percent of what men were making. Only one percent of women workers were in jobs paying more than $20,000, while 13 percent of the men workers held such jobs. About 51 percent of all women over 16 were in the paid labor force in 1980. Although most of them were working because they wanted to, a large percentage were also the sole source of support of themselves or their families. In many cases, women's salaries raised the family out of the low-income level.

Unfortunately, women represent only 26 percent of the managers and administrators in the business world, but they are 80 percent of the clerical workers. Most women managers are stuck in the lowest managerial levels with little hope for upward movement. Although increasing numbers of women are in middle- and upper-management or aspire to top positions, they are still a very small minority. Women who move up from worker or trainee to supervision and management often find themselves in a rather lonely position. They are often the only women in either small or large meetings of managers. They may have difficulty fitting in with the groups. At the same time, they "can't go back" and be "one of the girls" among the female workers. In my training sessions I have talked to women who have moved up in the management ranks. They have said that, for example, when they walk into a cafeteria with they group they've sat with in the past, the old group moves somewhere else. Since these female managers are not included, they feel closed out of the old network and usually haven't developed a new network. Women managers must deal with preconceived attitudes about the woman boss. Because they are often the first women in their positions, they must also deal with

their own insecurities about the best approach to various situations. It's important to understand that about 95 percent of the top decision-makers in business organizations are men. Therefore, as woman manager, her first step is to accept the fact that, "for better or worse," she's going to be operating in a male culture where the norms have been established by men. Her second step is to learn the basic rules of the game. Then she can decide if she wants to be there.

In the past, the average American woman didn't realize how many years she would be a part of the work force. She thought of work as something she might do for a while until she got married or had children, or her husband's income was larger, or to give her something fulfilling to do after her children left home. She wanted some kind of marketable skill or knowledge just in case she ever needed to work, much like an insurance policy. I can't tell you how many women I've heard say that "I'm only coming back to school because, if something happened to my husband, I might have to work."

Times, of course, have really changed now in terms of economics. During childhood the female worker didn't think in terms of career goals as the average American male did. Therefore, she didn't prepare herself for a career but rather the role of wife or mother. Most men have fairly specific long-term career goals. Very few women have thought in these terms. Most of those who did only did so after working for 10 or 15 years. It's usually much more reactive for them. Then they realized suddenly that they liked their jobs and would probably be working for most of their lives. Only then did they get serious about their career goals. Most women are shocked to find out that the average single woman spends 45 years of her life working in paid positions and the average married woman spends 25 years. Isn't it time we started socializing our females to understand these very simple facts so that they can prepare in different ways for their future?

Opportunities for women in management have expanded in recent years. However, the number of women making it to the highest levels of corporate management is relatively small. The major reason is probably that the typical women between the ages of 25 and 35 have been busy raising children. That

is the decade in which most men put forth the greatest energy to establish themselves as "having what it takes." A second reason may be that there are fewer qualified women for high-level positions. Yet another reason might be that, while companies have been complying with affirmative action guidelines by placing women in positions of first-line supervisors, staff specialists, or even middle-managers, they have been excluded from having a mentor carefully guiding them into the career path that leads to top management. Their opportunities for advancement have been mostly unavailable for three important reasons that Rosabeth Kanter refers to in Men and Women of the Corporation:

--the pressures for conformity on managers to look
   and act alike;

--management's need for predictability about the
   actions and attitudes they can expect from those
   they bring into their inner circle; and

--the career path to corporate hierarchy seldom comes
   from secretarial positions where most women begin.

Because of these pressures, managers of the typical large corporations must look the part. The similarities in their appearance are obvious and reveal the extent of

conformity pressures on managers. Kanter found that the
manager of the typical corporation was usually white and
male with a certain "shiny, clean-cut look." Managerial
careers are not the only place where social conformity is
important. Studies show that leaders in many types of
situations are likely to show preference for socially
similar subordinates and help them get ahead. Clark Kerr
and his associates in Industrialism and Industrial Man found
that incumbents in the managerial hierarchy seek as new
recruits those whom they can rely on and trust. Demands are
made on newcomers to be loyal, accept authority, and conform
to prescribed patterns of behavior. Conformity pressures
and the development of exclusive management circles closed
to outsiders are closely related to the degree of
uncertainty found in all organizations. Managers are
searching for all the security they can find. They are
reluctant to give up some control and turn over some of
their powers that they have held in the organization to
people they are uncertain about. Therefore, they tend to
produce themselves in kind. Women are occasionally included
in the inner circle when they are part of an organization's

ruling family. In most cases, however, this system leaves women out, along with other people who are socially different.

Some common myths about women also lead to exclusion. For many managers, one must exhibit total dedication and complete loyalty to gain trust. This perception tends to limit female workers who are seen as incapable of totally focusing on work. Many managers believe women generally don't have confidence in their ability to become a manager and they aren't driven to achieve the position. Although this view of women has some basis, the causes stem more from the positions of traditional female roles in the organization than in innate feminine characteristics. When on the secretarial ladder, typically women's roles have revolved around the secretarial functions, and this has had a powerful effect on women's self-concept and aspirations. In most organizations, the secretarial ladder is short and rank is usually determined by the boss's status. In other words, secretaries derive their formal rank and level of reward not from the skills they have and the tasks they perform, but from the formal rank of their boss. It takes an unusual secretary who is able to avoid the stereotyped

view so often attached to her: "Once a secretary always a secretary." When a secretary manages to move into management ranks usually it's because she has had a generous boss who allows her to develop managerial skills.

In addition to dealing with preconceptions about what a manager should be, women must also belie several myths about their typical behavior and abilities. In order to utilize the talents of the best and the brightest of the females in the work force, management needs to be aware of the differences in male and female styles and adopt training strategies to build on these differences.

First, the age span for the development of a junior executive female must be extended. Men with potential for management are usually identified in their 20s. In some professions, such as engineering, men are thought to be topped out and on the downhill side after 32 years of age. This simply is different for most women. The age of the average women when her last child enters school is 34 years. At this point she begins to turn full attention toward her career. Because of this, management necessarily will need to be willing to invest time and money in women with potential, even though they are older than has been thought

to be a worthwhile beginning place. A woman in her thirties, however, does bring a good deal more of life experience and maturity to the training positions. Accordingly, her development can be escalated. Often her capacity for intensity is exceeded only by her enthusiasm. Her commitment to work is heightened rather than declining.

If management decides to focus on adding women to their executive ranks in any significant numbers, then, in addition to hastening the developmental experiences of able females, the content of the experiences in training needs to be examined. To begin with, the skills most women possess (ability to communicate, collaborate, cooperate, and nurture) need to be affirmed and valued. Upon this foundation, self-concept can be strenghtened and an increase in their confidence should allow rapid progress into more demanding situations.

In spite of an egalitarian ideal in which the contributions of each sex are declared equal and complementary, both men and women value masculine qualities and achievements. Women often abandon the most participative behaviors rather readily, because they do not trust them to be effective. As long as women are defined as non-male,

meaning "not as good as," they will feel confused about how to deal effectively. In addition to the affirmation of the skills they have, women will need to obtain challenging management positions at a much later time--later than is now customary in business and industry.

A study of 2500 engineers showed that the most complex jobs went to individuals in their late 20s, while those over 40 had jobs in the bottom half of the complexity scale. This is the case in many job situations. The study also noted that job placement is the single most important variable in individual development. An analysis of job placement practices probably will show that the initial placement of females is a factor in their success. Females have the most support in jobs requiring people skills, the skills they are most able and most comfortable in applying. By building confidence through experiences in people skills positions, women could be moved into positions requiring the development of skills to deal with power, authority, do long-range planning, and cope with organizational politics.

The importance of a mentor while a woman is acquiring the qualities that make a good manager cannot be overstated. Dalton, Thompson, and Price state that the progress through

the first career stage is best facilitated by a mentor. This typically happens to white males when they get into organizations, and seldom happens to females. However, because of sexual taboos, working styles, and just plain inaccessibility, most women do not enjoy the additional help of sponsorship by a mentor.

No effort has been made to offer final solutions, but rather provide the basis for organizations and individuals to take new directions to broaden the managerial abilities of females. The richest talent bank for business and industry is the most gifted of both sexes. In order to reverse the trend of the underutilization and the inadequate demonstration of managerial abilities of females, management needs to assume a different perspective and pursue different policies in the employment and career development of managers. A setting must be provided where women can explore and differentiate between personality characteristics and ascribed sex roles. That is, the setting must examine why females with high achievement needs and high energy levels are not setting career goals earlier, if at all. People in

authority must provide a climate for the existence of discussion groups dealing with differences and similarities in male and female leadership roles.

"ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE: WOMEN AND ENGINEERING"

Dr. Kate Kirkham

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In my research with Paul Thompson at Brigham Young University, we have attempted to define what goes on once women and minorities are in an organization controlled by the white majority. We have sought to determine what their experiences in that organization are. Organizations, as we know, are the major vehicle for the opportunities and experiences of people. What we wanted to look at, then, were not laws but the actual experiences of people who differ yet attempt to work together.

During our research we interviewed managers and engineers who work in various organizations, both in Salt Lake City and in several other cities nationwide. Our findings, of course, are more representative of Utah, but are also indicative of what is going on in other engineering locations. We found that, nationally, demographics are quickly changing. In 1975, only 1.1 percent of employed engineers were women, and, in 1980, between 4.3 and 11.3 percent were women. An even greater increase is expected, since a number of women are entering engineering professions on the undergraduate and graduate levels.

Our research discovered that there are widely differing views on what the problems are inside a particular organization. Those differences of viewpoint are critical, both in issue awareness and application of skills of problem solving to address the issues. For example, one of the managers we interviewed stated: "We have no problems dealing with differences in this organization. We have no problems with women working here. In fact, a little girl is one of our best engineers." We determined, then and there, that we needed to talk with people in that organization. This manager was using assumptions in his expressions, i.e., "a

little girl," that indicated serious problems that would probably affect the promotional opportunities and the leadership opportunities of women working in that company.

Our challenge became: How do you address such a widely differing range in awareness and skills in an organization? The framework we developed for doing this looked at three different levels within an organization to address problems and to develop potential solutions. These levels are: interpersonal, intergroup, and organizational. The interpersonal level is where people who differ get along on a one-on-one basis. In other words, men and women working together, talking to each other, and using appropriate language when they have never associated before. The intergroup level is the area of identity impact within the organization. For example, some of the early Harvard studies on school segregation found that there is a critical mass phenomenon where a school or organization will be perceived as white until the critical mass changes. When that takes place perceptions change. If you have one or two women in an organization, they are isolated, often as tokens. Once there is a critical mass of women, the issues change and the stereotyping changes. Numbers of people then

are important. The institutional level is critical because our experience is that most organizations yet haven't found a way to monitor the outcomes of a policy. If we talk to people and ask them to tell us of the men and women who are different in that organization, they commonly say, "We have an EEO policy," "We have an EEO personnel person," or "We have an EEO organization." When we ask the out come of those policies, the response is "We have an EEO policy." They are, of course, focusing on intent. Although they have probably worked very hard to get together a policy statement, they have stopped there. They have assumed that the impact of that policy will automatically filter down into the organization.

These heads of organizations have not prepared their managers to integrate policy. They have not prepared the workers to respond to it. So often, the policy aborts at the level at which it was created, and the other people in the organization do not experience the outcome of that policy.

In our organizational work, we are attempting to help managers move beyond intent to look at critical issues and actual outcomes and experiences. At the interpersonal

level, the most frequent issue is language or references.
When the manager said that the "little girl" was one of his
best engineers, he was indicating that he was not prepared
to work with someone who was different. Are people aware of
the impact of their individual behavior? Do they use
offensive remarks? Do they tell jokes that are not
appropriate in the context of the organization? Do they
participate in rumor and innuendo?

On the intergroup level, the biggest problem we are
finding is the issue of stereotypes. Dr. Coleman referred
to some of these in her statement. Some managers, for
example, have stated quite sincerely that they would not
give a particular woman an assignment because it might
prevent her from going home to prepare dinner. That
assumption is going unchecked in the organizations. Managers
are operating on a stereotype about women which blocks
effective intergroup relationships. One woman we
interviewed stated when asked about her work relationships:

> Working here is so different from college,
> because in college I worked with men as co-students
> who worked a lot with women. Here, most of the men
> I'm working with haven't had a female colleague in
> their entire time in the organization.

Here is a group of men who have never worked with women, and here is a woman wanting to be a peer and a leader in the organization and finding it difficult to integrate.

Another issue at the intergroup level is one that explains the emotionality that occurs in organizations when they experience diversity. This is "collective identity." A woman in an organization can have a series of experiences that are so repetitive and so frustrating that her emotional energy is greater than that of the man not suffering under that collective impact. There are strategies to address that problem. When I am working with a person from another racial background or ethnicity, their experience in the organization may be quite different from mine, based on accumulated intensity of experience. It is not a question, then, of the minority person or woman being "too sensitive." It is a question of not understanding the dynamics that occur when work-force demographics change.

At the organizational level, the most pressing issue is the inappropriate use of discretionary power. Many circumstances in an organization are affected by the discretion of the manager. This power is expression of the decision-making process interpreting policy or providing

individual experiences. For example, one of the engineers we interviewed wanted to take his entire project team to look at a construction model currently being worked on. He went to the manager and said, "I want to take the team down to look at the project and let them see the experience going on." The manager replied, "You can take all the team members except the women." He was, of course, serious and applied his discretionary power. Fortunately, the engineer understood the implications of the decision and helped the manager see and understand the negative impacts possible from that decision. He was a rare individual. Most people allow that discretion to go unchallenged in the organization.

The other problem at the institutional level is over-reliance on EEO people who are charged with the legal and technical aspects of EEO. Some of the managers we interviewed said that they didn't do anything about diversity unless there was a severe problem. Then they called the EEO person. The exercise of discretion prevents problem solving at a level where it could be integrated into the operation of a team or a staff meeting and handled more effectively than waiting until need for EEO help. We found

that if we can help people differentiate the levels of work experiences that would greatly assist problem solving. If a manager wants to correct interpersonal skill deficiencies, they must work in some kind of seminar format, some kind of dialogue. If one wants to correct intergroup stereotypes, one has to do that with groups of people in the organization not at the one-on-one level. If monitoring policy and practice is the goal, then one has to look at institutional dynamics.

An example of monitoring policy and practice (or the lack thereof) occurred in a company of which I am familiar. After a year and a half of excellent performance in an organization, a female engineer wanted to go on a year's leave of absence for maternity leave. The manager requested from upper management that leave be granted. The director replied that the organization had no such policy and refused to grant leave. He refused to monitor, to look at the fact that the population was changing, and that other people would be asking for maternity leave when they entered the workforce. The director, of course, lost that engineer.

This issue was not a question of personal bias but a failure to look at the impact of what was going on in the organization.

Two issues that stand out across all three levels discussed here are feedback in the organization and job assignment. The problem with feedback is not only expectations but access. A number of the male engineers we talked to receive a good deal of feedback informally from their male colleagues during the course of a particular project, a basketball or raquetball game, or some other event. Many of the female engineers we talked to were not exposed to that informal feedback. Since the women were frequently requesting feedback, managers began to project that the problems lay with the women rather than with the structure of the organization. There is, then, a real need on the part of top-level managers to pay close attention to feedback on performance in the organization.

The issue of job assignment, in our research, was reflected in the frequent denial of travel assignments to women because of the assumption on the part of male managers that these women would not be ready for or want those experiences. The manager must really understand the

necessity of changing structural organizational arrangements and not leaving all issues at the interpersonal level. They must help people who differ to work together by allowing more group-to-group interaction. They must review policies with the end-result being creation of new structures. A top manager ought to understand the culture of the organization. For example, we have discovered in our research that engineers perceive their work differently from issues of discrimination, sexism, and racism. Our most successful experiences in seminars have been helping people move from thinking in the kind of absolute quantifiable way that engineering requires to the abstract, reflective, and behavioristic way that management requires.

When the populations change in an organization, the majority and minority groups need special attention. Traditionally, managers have looked at the minority groups to see if they are prepared and ignore the preparation levels of the majority. Preventative work with the majority group in the organization gives skills and insight allowing for productive work with people who differ.

SECTION IV: EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

Utah's population is projected to increase 60 percent by the year 2000. Reports from the State Employment Security Office projecting Utah's future job potential predict that by 1990 Utah will reach a population of over two million.[52] Utah's Office of the State Planning Coordinator states:

> Utah may be reaching the point where the labor force can no longer be increased from people who in the past had chosen not to seek employment. Under these conditions, and in a growing economy as depicted by the baseline assumptions, in-migration can be expected to continue to increase.[53]

Susan Croft Bernstein, a native Utahn writing for American Demographics, points out that the Utah workforce swelled by 61 percent over the last decade, compared with 33 percent increase nationally.[54] The report from the State Employment Security Office projects Utah's new jobs will be growing at about 60,000 per year by 1990.[55] Brad Barker,

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[52] Governor's Vocation Education Study Commission, Report 1979, p. 23 (hereafter cited as Governor's Report).

[53] Office of the State Planning Coordinator, Utah 2000: A High Development Scenario (Salt Lake City, Utah), March 1980, p. 3.

[54] "Unusual Utah," American Demographics, vol 4, no. 5, May 1982, p. 21.

[55] Governor's Report, p. 23.

economist with the State Planning Coordinator's Office, states that trade jobs will account for 23.2 percent of the available positions in Utah by 1990. Service occupations should then represent 19.4 percent of all jobs. Federal, State, and local government positions will account for 21.3 percent of Utah's jobs by the 1990s.[56]

SECTION V: LOCAL TRAINING AND SUPPORT PROGRAMS
FOR WOMEN

Local Training and Placment Programs

Lack of training and necessary education bars many women from jobs traditionally held by men. Women require entry level positions that provide gradual training or must look for formal training to employers, unions or educational systems. Below are listed programs which serve as avenues for women into non-traditional jobs.

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[56] Salt Lake Tribune, March 23, 1983, p. B-2.

Utah Apprenticeship Outreach Program
Carpenters Apprenticeship Training
2261 S. Redwood
Salt Lake City (972-5147)

A four-year training program for construction workers.
On-the-job training for journeyman carpenters.

★

Contractors Exam Preparation School
1406 S. 1100 E.
Salt Lake City (484-8555)

Offers a homestudy workbook, <u>Contractors Exam Preparation</u>,
at $95. This at-your-own-pace workbook prepares the student
for the State contractor's license examination.

★

Davis Area Vocational Center
411 Wasatch Dr.
Layton (546-2441)

A vocational school offering trade and office courses with
day and evening study opportunities. Does not prepare
directly for State trade licenses.

★

Technical Engineering Institute
2349 S. West Temple
Salt Lake City (487-1704)

A self-paced school teaching entry-level drafting,
electricity, mechanics, and architecture. Day and evening
classes.

★

Women in Non-Traditional Occupations
Utah Technical College
4600 S Redwood Rd.
Taylorsville (967-4111)
Salt Lake City (328-8521)

A technical school specializing in automobile mechanics, the building trades, and business areas. A women's resource center (967-4197) provides support and placement for women desiring to enter non-traditional jobs.

* * *

The Phoenix Institute
352 Denver St.
Salt Lake City (532-5080)

Assists women in developing their careers and helps them in job-finding methods on an individual basis. Interviewing and resume-writing techniques incorporated in the sessions. Classes in assertiveness and positive handling of anger through role-playing and group participation.
Stress management, organizational development, and financial management along with a network of resources for women, men, organizations, and businesses offered.

* * *

Salt Lake City, Opportunity Industrialization Center (OIC),Inc.
2900 S State, Suite 201
Salt Lake City (486-4351)

A vocational education program featuring a job club, a maintenance program, and clerical courses.

* * *

Utah State Apprenticeship Council
28 E 2100 S
Salt Lake City (530-6877)

Counsels prospective apprentices regarding requirements for job programs.

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Utah Federation of Business and Professional Clubs
2401 E 6475 South
Salt Lake City (298-6738)

A networking and support organization whose aim is to
improve opportunities for business and professional women.

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Women's Information Network
220 E 3900 South
Salt Lake City (268-9940)

Allies networks of women in business in order that they may
excel professionally.

Support Groups

Speaking of network support for women, developers of

Utah's Women's Index and Resource Guide comment:

> Men's networks tend to develop automatically
> as a result of traditional, informal systems already
> functioning for them in the business community.
> Women don't fit comfortably into these male networks
> and cultivating support systems of their own must
> become a conscious task.[57]

They continue by saying to women:

> ...networks are maintained to help you reach
> your goals and you get help from others because

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[57] Reba Keele and Christine Russell Jacobs, "Building
Personal and Professional Networks, "The Women's Index
and Resource Guide (Network Publications: Salt Lake
City, Utah, 1982), p. 119.

> they also want your help. Having and planning how to accomplish future goals is fundamental to both personal and professional growth.[58]

Below are listings of women's support groups which may be

helpful as women seek to move into and function well in

non-traditional occupations.

American Society of Women Accountants
P.O. Box 899
Salt Lake City (535-2908)

A professional association for women accountants or accounting students who want to gain further technical information in their field while building contacts among their peers.

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Consortium for Utah Women in Higher Education
Division of Continuing Education
University of Utah
Salt Lake City (581-7316)

An educational and advocacy organization for women in higher education.

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Division of Vocational Education
State Board of Education
250 E. Fifth St.
Salt Lake City (533-5371)

Provides information on educational opportunities and standards.

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[58] Ibid., p. 120.

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Executive Women International
875 Chestnut St.
Salt Lake City (973-9063)

An international networking organization of women employed
in executive, administrative, or secretarial capacities.

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National Association of Bank Women
Continental Bank and Trust Co.
6940 S. Highland Dr.
Salt Lake City (534-6000)

A professional association of executive bank women.

***

National Association of Railway Business Women
1946 Wasatch Dr.
Salt Lake City (484-7972)

The largest women's organization of one industry in the U.S.

***

National Association of Women in Construction
Gate City Steel Corp.
P.O. Box 25607
Salt Lake City (973-9068)

For women who are actively employed. A support and
educational group providing placement within the
construction industry.

***

Utah Federation of Business and Professional Clubs
24091 E. 6475 South
Salt Lake City (298-6738)

A networking and support organization whose aim is to
improve opportunities for business and professional women.

Women's Center
Brigham Young University
Provo (328-0325)

Help for women students and staff of the university through
counseling services, training sessions, and community-State
information networks.

***

Women's Information Network
220 East 3900 South
Salt Lake City (268-9940)

Allies networks of women in business in order that they may
excel professionally.

***

Women's Resource Center
Univesity of Utah
Salt Lake City (581-8030)

Aid to non-traditional students and women at the university.
Provides information to women about community resources and
sponsors conferences, seminars, and training.

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LETTER FROM THE UTAH ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Dear Citizens of Utah:

    The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights is an independent,

bipartisan, factfinding agency of the Federal Government

with jurisdiction in respect to discrimination or denial of

the equal protection of the laws because of race, color, religion, sex, age, handicap, or national origin. We the members of the Utah Advisory Committee, who serve without compensation, advise the Commission of all relevant information concerning matters in Utah within the jurisdiction of the Commission and act as a clearinghouse for civil rights information.

At this time we urge those in policymaking positions in Utah to recognize and consider the employment needs of women as the State struggles to provide equal opportunity for all its citizens. We call upon the people of Utah to facilitate the employment of women in better-paying and non-traditional jobs as they become available. Opening the eyes of women to their potential for skilled trades, technical areas, and top management is essential. The Utah Advisory Committee believes that industry and, indeed, all of the Utah community will benefit by fuller utilization of its human resources.

Sincerely,

THE UTAH ADVISORY COMMITTEE
Linda Dupont-Johnson, Chair