

SEX DIFFERENCES AND WORK PATTERNS: A CASE STUDY

SEX DIFFERENCES AND WORK PATTERNS:

A CASE STUDY OF A COMMUNITY COLLEGE

By

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ABSTRACT

This thesis is an exploratory case study that examines the roles of women and men in one type of work organization, a community college. As in many other organizations, women are to be found predominantly in the lower levels of the organization. We document the extent to which structural variables, such as hiring procedures, cognitive variables, such as perception of discrimination, and socialization variables, such as views on responsibility and promotion, may affect men and women in different ways.

We consider the three major groups in the organization -- administrators, faculty, and support staff -- separately. Our data are derived from a questionnaire survey and from interviews with a sample of men and women. While the pyramidal structure of the organization, with few high level positions and many low level positions, is partly responsible for women's relatively poor advancement chances, our data show the importance of other structural, cognitive and socialization variables. We also explore the determinants of work satisfaction for men and women in the organization. We conclude that the structure of the organization and women's perceptions of their roles are not conducive to women's advancement. We also

find that groups at similar levels in the organization tend to have similar views in many areas regardless of sex.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

1. Introduction

The role of women in organizations has been a much neglected area of study. Early studies of the work place, such as those by Homans, Blau, Simon and others,¹ have concentrated specifically on the structure of organizations. Particular attention has been paid to the designing of efficient goals as seen through the eyes of higher officials in the organizations. These persons, most often men, were seen as the keepers of the organizations, while the lower level workers, mostly women, were seen as acting only in their own self interests. This supposedly rational model of organizations effectively eliminated women as a focal point for analyses. The human relations model of the 1930's and 1940's also assumed the need for "rational" male managers who could control. Workers again appeared as second-class employees who were unable to control their emotions. This conception of managerial rationality served to eliminate supposedly unfit women from power positions. Early theorists did not deliberately ignore women from their analyses. However, the limitations of these early models precluded their study. The masculine

ethic merely supported the male image of the tough-minded non-emotional, task oriented master. This ethic effectively elevated these characteristics as necessities for managers of organizations.

R. M. Kanter, in her article of 1976, notes the lack of research in the area of women and organizations:

The ways in which women have been connected to organizations and have operated within them, and whether these ways differ from those of men, have been underinvestigated in social research. While there is a relatively large and growing literature that documents the degree to which women are socialized to perform different kinds of activities from men (often activities with lower monetary reward), there has been less attention paid to these patterned relationships between women and men in organizations.²

Recent data on different kinds of roles played by men and women in work organizations are in sections of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women by the federal government³ and those of specific organizations. Because of certain political pressures, various universities, departments in the government itself, and some privately-owned companies have embarked upon studies of this type. These reports, along with a growing body of sociological research,⁴ have shed some light on this long-neglected area of research. Our research has evolved in the context of this work.

One particular organization was chosen for this

case-study. We further investigate a series of problems which add to this body of knowledge concerning the roles of men and women in organizations. Our research site was Lakeside, a community college in southern Ontario. Although we only investigate one particular organization, using a case study approach, the theoretical issues explored provide information concerning organizations as a whole. We examine the processes whereby women come to occupy relatively low positions in an organization.

2. Issues To Be Explored

The first area of research deals with the structural barriers which prevent women from being hired at high levels and from moving up. The second deals with the psychological barriers which keep women from advancing. We also investigate the extent to which men and women react differently to these structural and psychological barriers. We also review the determinants of job satisfaction for both sexes. We now discuss the concept of social structure and consider how sociologists define structural and cognitive factors.

a. Social Structure

T. B. Bottomore, in A Guide to Problems and Literature, reveals that "social structure is one of the central concepts of sociology, but it has not been

employed consistently or unambiguously."⁵ He remarks that Spencer was too concerned with biological analogies, Durkheim was vague and that Radcliffe Brown, an anthropologist, applied a very broad definition, which appeared to encompass the totality of society. Nadel, Gerth and Mills⁶ added the new dimension of role behaviour to the older definitions which included merely sets of relations between social groups. Bottomore notes the difficulties of sociologists who tend to study ideal systems rather than studying the social behaviours that actually occur.

Whyte, in his book Street Corner Society, in which he examines a gang, operationalizes the concept of social structure in his study. The people in Cornerville "conceive society as a closely knit hierarchical organization in which people's positions and obligations to one another are defined and recognized."⁷ The corner-gang structure arose from the habitual association of the members who had known each other from their youth. The structure of both the neighbourhood and of the gang was only questioned when there appeared to be some violation of the rules which were often clearly left unstated.

Another sociologist, F. C. Merrill, comments as follows on social structure:

Social structure is a basic element making for stability as men and women act in accordance with the expectations of their roles. In the course of events, each person learns to expect certain ordered responses from others in the roles each has been taught to play . . . these role-patterns are incorporated into the personality of every member, and it is this structural element that gives much of the stability to a society.⁸

Formalism of roles is necessary to the ordered functioning of society and it is this formalism of roles which will be investigated in the structural chapter of this study. Katz and Kahn, in their book The Social Psychology of Organizations, note the distinction between structures of rules and authority and internal structure. The internal structures include a coding system which filters input devices to ensure reliable performances and other structures which permit some flexibility.⁹ Katz and Kahn point out that it is the persons at the top of the organizational ladder who usually have the freedom to eliminate or alter these existing structures. The research should reveal that perceptions of existing structures in the organization would differ among persons in various hierarchical positions. For example, administrators would likely perceive rules regarding hiring policies differently than would support staff.

Several other aspects of the structures of organizations have been noted by Kerr, Dunlop and Harbison

in Industrialism and Industrial Man. The work force is structured in that there are rules regarding hiring, promotions, retirement and these rules will be applied differently according to a person's rank in the organization. It also again stresses the fact that the workers must accept tasks whose nature, time and method of accomplishment will be determined by management.¹⁰ Another sociologist, H. Falding, in his textbook The Sociological Task, summarizes the main reason for the existence of structures. "Structuring occurs because people demand to know what they are to expect."¹¹

Issues such as perceptions, hiring and promotion policies, awareness of salary, mobility and encouragement to advance were selected to be investigated as indicators of structural concerns. Since structural issues are different for different occupational groups, we treat issues affecting administrators, faculty, and support staff separately. We also study sex differences.

b. Cognitive

March and Simon, in their textbook, Organizations, define cognitive factors as follows: "Cognition enters into the definition of the situation in connection with goal attainment -- determining what means will reach desired ends."¹² The steps that lead a person to define a situation in a particular way involve a complex inter-

weaving of the affective and cognitive processes. What a person wants will influence what he/she sees, and what the person sees will affect what he/she comes to want. An actor's definition of the situation will vary from the objective situation because the objective situation is much too complex for an individual to perceive. People, in organizations and elsewhere, view events, behaviours, rules and regulations from their frames of reference. As March and Simon put it, "The definition of the situation represents a biased model of the objective situation and filtering affects all of the givens that enter into the decision process: knowledge or assumptions about future events, knowledge of consequences attached to alternatives, goals and values."¹³

Early theorists, such as Bernard, have even gone so far as to say that persons are non-logical but that organizations are characterized by "a co-ordinated relationship of individuals acting in terms of their own organizational personalities."¹⁴

It is the definition of the situation, in terms of values and beliefs, that is investigated in the chapter on the significance of cognitive factors as barriers to women's advancement. For example, although support staff might prefer hiring to be by committee including all levels of college personnel, it could be that, for this

occupational category, hiring occurs mainly by appointment. It is these preferences, which may be contrary to organizational structure, which will be examined. Theory would suggest that not only do individuals' cognitions vary, so will persons in various occupational groups find their beliefs, values varying. Again, this leads us to examine occupational groups of men and women workers separately.

3. The Major Hypotheses

We now present our major hypotheses, and show the ways in which structural, cognitive and socialization variables were operationalized. We then review the recent literature on the occupational segregation of women, on structural patterns, and on cognitive and socialization factors as they affect women at work and as members of organizations.

As we show below, research on women in employment suggests that combinations of socialization factors, cognitive factors and structural factors inhibit their advancement. Sociological research shows sex differences in socialization patterns. We explore the extent to which the sexes differ in work goals and in views on promotion. Attitudes resulting from earlier socialization play some part in determining behaviour in the organization. Cognitive variables relate to individuals' perceptions of

that more women than men will perceive hiring policies as unclear. We also hypothesize that administrative and faculty women will be more likely than support women to perceive these organizational policies in a similar way to their male counterparts. Beliefs and values relating to these perceptions have been previously defined as cognitive variables. In addition, we hypothesize that early and work socialization variables will also act as barriers to advancement for women, particularly support women, more so than for men or faculty and administrative women in the organization. This first chapter, in which we review the relevant sociological literature will clearly outline reasons why we hypothesize that women, particularly those in the clerical groups, are faced with many more barriers to their advancement than are men.

4. Review of Literature

We now document the extent of occupational segregation, describe female employment patterns and review recent sociological research on such structural factors affecting women in the workforce, on cognitive factors, such as sex role stereotyping, and on socialization factors such as the moulding of womens' ambitions. While structural, cognitive and socialization factors are, of course, interrelated, we deal with them separately for ease of

presentation.

a. Job Segregation and Female Participation Rates

Despite changing attitudes to women's work and despite the substantial growth in the labour force participation of women, occupational segregation stays virtually unchanged between 1941 and 1971. Most working women remain concentrated in a few jobs, jobs which are dominated by female workers.¹⁵

Table 1-1, below reveals the ten occupations with the most female workers for which data were available from the periods 1941-1961, and includes the number of women in a given occupation as a percentage of all workers in the occupation and as a percent of all women workers. Although there appears to be a high concentration of women in these jobs, it has decreased from 62.1% of all women in 1941 to 52.8% in 1961. This can be accounted for by the reduction of domestics in that period. Table 1-2¹⁶ reveals the drop in the percent of women working in personal service from 1901-1961 and the rise in percent of women working in clerical fields.

Table 1-3¹⁷ reveals similar characteristics for the year 1971. The table shows a 7% decrease in concentration of women's jobs from 1961-1971. Armstrong and Armstrong again explain this as resulting in part from a decrease in concentration in the domestic area. They argue that the concentration of women in the few jobs listed, has

Table 1-1
LEADING FEMALE OCCUPATIONS, 1941-61*

Occupation	1941		1951		1961	
	Female percentage of occupation	Percentage of all women workers	Female percentage of occupation	Percentage of all women workers	Female percentage of occupation	Percentage of all women workers
Stenographers and typists	95.9	9.4	96.4	11.6	96.8	12.2
Sales clerks	41.4	6.8	52.9	8.3	53.6	7.8
Babysitters, maid, & related service workers+	96.1	22.8	90.8	9.3	88.9	7.7
School teachers	74.6	7.8	72.5	6.5	70.7	6.9
Tailoresses, furriers, & related workers** ++	67.8	6.2	73.7	6.4	76.2	4.5
Waitresses & bartenders+	62.5	2.8	66.7	3.5	70.5	3.6
Graduate nurses	99.4	3.2	97.5	3.0	96.2	3.4
Nursing assistants & aids	71.0	1.0	72.4	1.6	78.9	2.9
Telephone operators	92.6	1.5	96.5	2.6	95.2	2.0
Janitors & cleaners	19.7	0.6	27.5	1.2	31.5	1.5
Totals	74.3	62.1	73.7	54.0	73.6	52.8

* "Leading" refers to the 10 occupations with the most female workers for which comparable data are available from the 1941, 1951 and 1961 censuses. They are listed in the order of their 1961 size and according to the 1961 occupational classification. They are not however necessarily 1961 occupation classes, the most detailed level at which the data are presented. In several cases 1961 classes have had to be combined to provide comparability. But with one exception (tailoresses, furriers, and related workers,) the occupations listed here were occupation classes, even if somewhat differently defined, in the 1941 Census.

+ The occupational titles used for female workers are employed here. While the male equivalents "tailor" and "waiter" are unremarkable, the replacement of "maid" by "kitchen helper" is perhaps more noteworthy.

** Does not include upholsterers

Source: Hugh Armstrong and Pat Armstrong, The Segregated Participation of Woman in the Canadian Labour Force, 1941-1971, Rev. Canad. Soc. & Anthro./Canad. Rev. Soc. & Anthro., 12(4) Part I, 1975, p. 372.

Calculated from 1961 Census, Labour Force: Occupation and Industry Trends 1966 (Cat.94-5551), Tables 1, 8, and 8b.

remained steady for 30 years.

The tremendous growth between 1941 and 1971 in clerical jobs for women, while associated with an increased division of labour within the office, did not entail the desegregation of women's work.¹⁸

Table 1-4, below shows the larger number of women employed in the clerical, sales and service fields in 1974.

There has also been a steady increase in the number of women joining the work force. Tables 1-5,¹⁹ 1-6,²⁰ and 1-7²¹ note the gradual increase in this participation rate of women from 1881 up to 1974.

Research studies by Armstrong and Armstrong show the small proportion of women in professional technical and managerial positions. Armstrong and Armstrong note:

Professional and technical women still accounted for only a small proportion of the female labour force, especially if two-thirds of them in elementary and secondary teaching and nursing are excluded.²²

Table 1-8²³ notes the sex typing of jobs in technical and professional areas as well. Armstrong and Armstrong also note the lack of change in this area of sex-typed jobs between 1941 and 1961.

Marchak notes that "13% of all managerial workers are women, but 71% of all clerical workers are women."²⁴ It is apparent that the jobs women have held, in the past and in the present, are limited in number and in type. Women have predominated in jobs which are essentially

Table 1-4

Employed labour force in occupational categories, by sex, women as percentage of the total employed labour force, and percentage distribution of women and men by occupation, Canada, 1974

Occupation	Women	Men	Women as percentage of the total employed in labour force	Percentage distribution	
				Women	Men
	'000	'000	% 1974	%	%
Managerial and administrative	86	452	16.0	2.7	7.6
Natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	24	264	8.4	0.8	4.4
Social Sciences	46	60	43.4	1.5	1.0
Religion	*	21	*	*	0.4
Teaching	220	174	55.7	7.0	2.9
Medicine and health	292	104	73.9	9.2	1.7
Artistic, literary and recreational occupations	34	72	32.1	1.1	1.2
Clerical	1,119	414	72.9	35.4	6.9
Sales	318	668	32.3	10.1	11.2
Service	568	536	51.4	18.0	9.0
Farming, horticultural and animal husbandry	73	423	14.7	2.3	7.1
Fishing, hunting and trapping	*	24	*	*	0.4
Forestry and logging	*	64	*	*	1.1
Mining and quarrying	*	52	*	*	0.9
Processing	66	347	15.9	2.1	5.8
Machining	15	256	5.5	0.5	4.3
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing	215	685	23.9	6.8	11.5
Construction trades	*	656	*	*	11.0
Transport equipment operation	11	381	2.8	0.3	6.4
Materials handling	44	213	17.1	1.4	3.6
Other crafts and equipment operating	18	108	14.3	0.6	1.8
All occupational categories	3,161	5,976	34.6	100.0	100.0

* Figures too small to be reliable

Source: Facts and Figures, Labour Canada, Women's Bureau, Information Canada, Ottawa, 1975, p. 49.

From: Data from Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division.

extensions of the home (i.e., personal service) to clerical sales and service fields. Even within the professions and semi-professions, women gravitate to the sex-role stereotyped jobs of elementary teacher and nurse.

It is also interesting to study women's wages. In every job category women's wages are much lower than those of men, although the actual percentage difference varies within the occupational category studied. Armstrong and Armstrong discovered the largest pay inequity to be found in the janitor and sales clerk categories. Table 1-9²⁵ reveals these salary discrepancies in many occupations. Evidence reveals that the occupations with the lowest pay discrepancies between men and women are teaching and nursing and that the number of women entering these fields between 1961 and 1971 declined greatly.

According to Marchak:

The wages for shop clerks and secretaries are low compared to those earned by administrators and commission salesmen . . . the 1970 national figures show that men are paid more than women in 96% of all similarly described occupations, and the advantage for men runs between 10% and 15% on the average, but goes as high as 74% for some jobs.²⁶

Data collected by Statistics Canada (1973) show that women are paid less in every area of work except dishwashing. On the average, women with a certain level of education receive salaries amounting to 55% of those of their male counterparts.

McDonald, in the article, "Wages of Work," noted:

For Canada as a whole the gap in average income increased from \$2,694.00 in 1965 to \$4,716.00 in 1973, and the gap is greater than the average income for women . . . where average hourly earnings in manufacturing are reported clearly the gap is still substantial and growing. It actually doubled between 1955 and 1969.²⁷

The article also notes the reasons for the differing wages to be found in two main areas; one is due to women being paid less than men for the same work and the other is due to women occupying low paying positions. The previous section noted the concentration of women in low-paying jobs. "The proportion of women in managerial/administrative positions went from 15.7% in 1971 to 16% in 1974."²⁸

Both Armstrong and Armstrong and McDonald comment on strategies employed to keep women's wages low.

Rather than raise women's wages to match those of their male counterparts, employers may simply hire women only and pay them all at the same low rate.²⁹

Morley Gunderson, in his article in Opportunity for Choice feels that while 50-80% of the income gap may be due to differences in experience, education, and training of females and males, fully 10% of the difference can be attributed to sex-discrimination. For example, is it discriminatory to use supposed higher turnover rates of women as a basis for disallowing them jobs? Even using his conservative

definitions, he still admits that a 10% wage gap that is attributable to discrimination exists between men and women. The following graph, from the book by Bennett and Loewe, Women in Business, reveals a 45% wage gap between men and women. Very little of the differential can be explained by women's lesser qualifications.

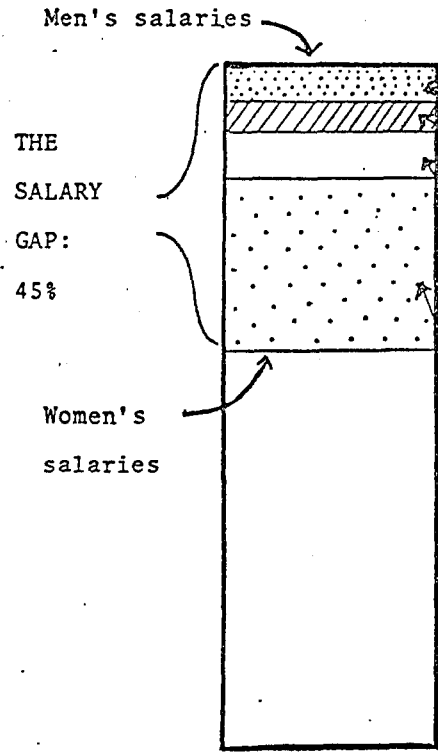
b. Variables Affecting Work Patterns of Women

Table 1-10³¹ reveals the increasing numbers of married women who have entered the work force between 1941 and 1971 and it is further supported by increasing percentages in 1974 found in Table 1-11.

Several studies have analyzed the reasons why married women work. Armstrong and Armstrong suggest that the steady increase in the labour force participation of women is due to economic necessity. They do also recognize that factors such as earning potential, age, social class values, presence of children and their ages as relevant factors. They note "the lower the husband's income, the higher the frequency of the labour force membership of wives."³²

Table 1-12 summarizes the key variables which affect women's labour force participation. (For example, the wife's education affects her participation in the work force, as does the number of children, their ages, and her

WHAT CAUSES
THE SALARY GAP . . .



THE PAY SCALE

LEGITIMATE PAY DIFFERENCES
ON IDENTICAL JOBS:
(Women paid less because
of less experience and skills.)

UNEQUAL PAY FOR IDENTICAL
JOBS:
(Women paid less, even
though experience and
skills are equal.)

UNEQUAL PAY FOR SUBSTANTIALLY
SIMILAR JOBS:
(Women paid significantly
less on jobs that have only
minor differences from
higher paying ones held
by men.)

OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION:
(Women have not advanced from
lower status and lower paying
jobs. At similar organiza-
tional levels, (women's jobs"
historically pay less than
"men's jobs.")

. . . AND HOW
TO ATTACK IT³⁰



Identify pay anomalies and
work with individual
supervisors to remove them.



Ensure job descriptions
are accurate and that job
evaluation plan treats
"women's jobs" and "men's
jobs" equally.



Undertake comprehensive
program to improve job
access:
More women in higher level
positions
Greater integration of the
sexes at lower levels

Table 1-11
 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WOMEN AND MEN IN THE
 POPULATION AND LABOUR FORCE, BY MARITAL
 STATUS, CANADA, 1964, 1969 and 1974

Marital Status	Population		Labour Force	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	<u>1964</u>			
Single	24.6	31.2	39.0	23.7
Married	64.5	65.4	51.1	74.4
Other*	10.9	3.5	9.9	1.9
Total Percentage	100	100	100	100
(Number in Thousands)	(6,466)	(6,351)	(1,972)	(4,961)
	<u>1969</u>			
Single	25.8	32.1	35.6	23.9
Married	63.1	64.6	55.8	74.1
Other	11.1	3.3	8.6	1.9
Total	100	100	100	100
(Number in Thousands)	(7,383)	(7,255)	(2,602)	(5,560)
	<u>1974</u>			
Single	25.9	33.2	33.8	26.9
Married	61.9	62.9	57.1	70.4
Other	12.2	3.8	9.1	2.7
Total	100	100	100	100
(Number in Thousands)	(8,368)	(8,194)	(3,324)	(6,338)

* Widowed, divorced or separated.

Source: Women in the Labour Force, 1975 edition, p. 31.

From: 1964 and 1969: Statistics Canada (D.B.S.),
 Labour Division, Labour Force Survey Section.
 Special Tables - 12 Month Averages.

Table 1-12

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF MARRIED WOMEN, HUSBAND PRESENT, BY AGE, EDUCATION, SCHOOL LEVEL OF CHILDREN, INCOME, EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF HUSBAND, AND RESIDENCE, CANADA, 1971

Variable	Age				
	15-24	25-34	35-44	54-64	15-64
<u>Education</u>					
Incomplete high school	40	34	38	35	36
Complete high school	64	46	47	47	50
Complete university	78	55	46	49	55
<u>Children</u>					
No children	76	78	62	39	57
Pre-school children only	30	30	27	25	30
School children only	50	47	45	37	42
Both pre-school and school children	24	26	25	23	25
<u>Family income less own wage:</u>					
\$3,000 or less	50	47	48	45	47
\$3,000-5,999	52	43	44	40	44
\$6,000-8,999	52	42	45	40	44
\$9,000-11,999	44	35	39	37	38
\$12,000-14,999	40	29	34	33	33
\$15,000 or over	42	26	27	26	27
<u>Husband's employment status:</u>					
Employed	51	39	41	38	41
Unemployed	41	37	38	36	38
<u>Residence</u>					
Urban	53	40	41	38	41
Rural non-farm	35	32	38	36	35

Source: M. Gunderson, "Work Patterns," in Opportunity for Choice, Gail C.A. Cook ed., Statistics Canada in Association with C. D. Howe Research Institute, Information Canada, Ottawa, 1976, p. 100.

From: Special 1971 Census tabulations from Statistics Canada.

own age. Pre-school children in the home act as an inhibiting factor to a woman working.)

Low income of husband is an important factor:

Almost one-half of the women whose family income is less than \$3,000.00 exclusive of the woman's contribution ("own wage") would participate in the labour force.³³

Many other features such as social attitudes have been examined. Gunderson uses multiple regression analysis to show regional variation in participation rates of women in the labour force (i.e., high in Ontario, low in the Maritimes). He feels the variation is not totally due to age structure, education, or marital status. He concludes that the variation in rates must be due to job availability or social attitudes which were not included in the regression analysis.

Age is a most interesting variable to analyze to determine participation rates of women in the work force. Tables 1-13³⁴ and 1-14³⁵ indicate a growth rate in work force participation rates of women in all age categories but especially in the middle-aged and older groups. It is important to note increased participation rates for the youngest and oldest groups, despite retirement and increased time spent on education. Kreps and Clark in Sex, Age and Work: The Changing Composition of the Labour Force, in the U.S. notes:

. . . married women in their thirties and older, often with school-age children, are in the labour force either because they have returned after a brief absence or because they never left.³⁶

Kreps and Clark also report that the older the cohort of women, the more likely they are to have larger families, come from a rural area and less likely they are to have an attachment to the labour force. Gunderson, and Tables 1-13 and 1-14 for Canada, support Ostry's findings that the second phase of a woman's life (after child-bearing has ceased) does not reach a peak, but levels off between the ages of 25 and 55.

In the U. S., Kreps and Clark report:

The impact of small children on women most likely to be in the labour force was negative; it lowered their participation rate from 73% to 52%.³⁷

Table 1-12 reveals an even greater differential between the participation rates in the work force of women without children and pre-schoolers, although the differential is less between women with school-age children and those with pre-schoolers.

Table 1-15³⁸ and 1-16³⁹ in Canada reveal details of the work patterns of women, married and single, with no children and with children of varying ages.

Studies have revealed the women's participation in the work force have not altered the time spent by husbands

on household chores:

The presence of children in the family increases the amount of time both husbands and wives spend in household tasks but their relative contributions remain the same.⁴⁰

Kreps and Clark note:

. . . when a child is under 6 and the family needs to provide almost continuous supervision, the responsibility usually falls to the mother; as a result she curtails her market activity. But once children are age 6 the school system begins to provide virtually free child care for most of the day . . . the inducement of additional income may entice her back into the labour force, giving her a dual-career thereafter.⁴¹

Most studies show that women work because of economic necessity. (Armstrong and Armstrong, 1975; Kreps and Clark, 1975; Bennett and Loewe, 1975)

For example, Spencer, in his report, Determinants of the Labour Force Participation of Married Women: A Micro-Study of Toronto Households, also showed that such factors as age, education, number of children, were important in determining a wife's participation in the labour force. From this study, based on 1600 interviews, it was concluded that there is a sharp decline in participation rate when women are in childbearing years (25-35), and that women with older children (over 11) were just as likely to be in the labour force than with no children. Also, there was strong support for the hypothesis that the higher the

income level of the husband, the less likely the women will be in the labour force. An interesting finding was the fact that women with university education were also especially likely to be in the labour force, especially those with degrees in technical areas (physical, social sciences) rather than in the arts and humanities. The availability of suitable jobs is probably a deciding factor for these women when they are considering joining the work force.

Armstrong and Armstrong make a further point with regard to the economic necessity for women's work. Leo Johnson has shown that there is a growing class disparity in incomes in Canada. Armstrong and Armstrong show that because of contributions (poorly paid though women may be), families are able to increase their incomes and keep the large income gap which exists between rich and poor workers in Canada from becoming greater, as it would do if the wives of poorly paid workers had not joined the work force.

Kreps and Clark present findings relating to family attitudes:

A woman's perceptions of her husband's attitude toward her working is an important determinant of the amount of time any wife spends in market activities. In their sample of women 30-44 years old, married white women whose husbands' attitudes were favourable toward market work were in the labour force nearly four times as long as those who reported unfavourable attitudes.⁴²

Employers' beliefs that women work for "pin money" has

already been refuted. Sheila Kieran, in The Working Wife, discusses a third type of woman who works; women who choose to work despite the fact that they are married and their husbands are relatively well paid. Research shows that these women often feel that they must convince their families that they work only for financial need. Perhaps these women would suffer guilt feelings if they admitted they work to get away from the home. Kieran also points out that financial need can be equated with rising expectations for the luxuries of life, for example, a cottage or a coloured television set.

c. Future of Women's Work Patterns

Stoll, in her book Sexism: Scientific Debates, suggests that improved contraception and changing views about family forms have caused some women to limit the size of their families:

A baby girl born in 1970 has a life expectancy of 74 years. Half of today's women marry by age 20, and more marry at age 18 than at any other age. On the average they will be in their mid-thirties by the time the youngest child is in school. The mother will have about one-half of her life ahead of her.⁴³

The same article points out that the woman who leaves the labour market will have difficulties in retraining and upgrading her skills in a labour market geared to the male

pattern of continuous employment.

With increased education, further urbanization, reduction of child rearing responsibilities through day-care and more equitable distribution of household responsibilities between husband and wife, there may be increased labour force participation by women in the future. Gundersen also notes that other factors may work against an increase in women working. These include a higher income by men alone and the larger number of baby-boom women now in childbearing ages, which reduces their participation in the work force.

Kreps and Clark speculate about the future of women's work:

. . . . if education levels continue to rise and fertility continues to decline, the worklife pattern for married women will come to resemble more closely than previously those of men and single women.⁴⁴

~~They also note that if sex differentials in wages are less,~~
then women's work will come to be seen as more valuable, and women will be compensated by a new division of household tasks.

There is also some speculation that, because all women (including married women with children) are entering the work force sooner and staying longer, that perhaps attitudes to working mothers will change, and that this will further allow more and cheaper day-care service.

Kreps and Clark discuss Bowen and Finegan's study concerning labour participation rates of men. "Family size was correlated with participation rate of married men over 55."⁴⁵ The study revealed that men delay retirement if there are children in the home. However, if more wives were to join the labour force, this could effectively change the participation rate of men.

Data relating to the timing of marriage and child-bearing are examined by both Kreps and Clark in the United States and by Boyd, Eichler and Hofley in Canada. There do appear to be some Canada - United States differences in marriage rates, age at marriage and in the proportions of marriages without children. American sources reveal a longer period exists now before singles marry although this is not supported by Canadian data. In Canada, however, couples are prolonging the time period before the birth of their children. The numbers of persons living in one-person households has also increased, (partly because of the increase in numbers of divorced and separated persons). If, as the data indicate for Canada, women are having fewer children, waiting longer to have them, and are marrying earlier, it might be appropriate to foresee some greater changes in the labour force participation rate of women in the future. If women are likely to be in the labour force without children (and they are), and if they are having fewer children, later in life, one could speculate that

women's participation rate in the work force will not only rise, but that women also will show a more continuous pattern of employment in the future. These changes might help alleviate some of the large salary differentials which are presently attributed to women's poorer qualifications and discontinuous careers.

We now discuss the structural, cognitive and socialization barriers to women's advancement in the world of work.

d. External Barriers

Structural

Marchak, in a study of 307 white-collar workers in British Columbia, cites evidence that refutes the commonly held notion that women workers are not committed to their jobs. She discovered that 55% would like jobs at even the lowest level of management, although only 28% felt they would have the possibility of being offered such a job.⁴⁶

Bennett and Loewe, drawing on research presented in a number of Financial Post articles, also support the finding that approximately one-half of the women would like to be promoted compared with two-thirds of the men.⁴⁷

"Researchers attribute the difference to women's scaling down their ambition to avoid disappointments."⁴⁸ Several studies have examined women and level of aspirations in the organizations:

Other evidence confirms that women in organizations, especially in the clerical class, limit their ambitions, prefer local and immediate relationships and orient themselves to satisfying peer relationships.⁴⁹

Women may be affected by structural factors. For example, there may well be no longer a group of peers for a woman to associate with who moves into a managerial position out of her present lower one. This is a feature of women's structural situation in organizations.

Kanter attributes women's lowered aspirations, lesser involvement with work and concern with peer relations as a response to limited or blocked mobility. Kanter's research supports the widely recognized conclusion that women face more discrimination than men and are more likely to find themselves at the bottom of both the power source and the opportunity structure. She uses data from organizational psychology to conclude that, "people at upper levels of organizations tend routinely to be more motivated, involved and interested in their jobs than those at lower levels."⁵⁰

Research on a major corporation revealed that men received more encouragement from superiors to improve and advance, but so did newer employees, and the better educated; concluding that sex was only one determinant in encouragement. Two thirds of the women in the sample were made up of secretaries. The study noted the short secretarial hierarchy with increased rank a reflection of

the status of the boss (rug-ranking) rather than the secretary's work.⁵¹

The report, Women in the CBC, carried out by the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation showed that in that organization, as elsewhere, secretarial work is, by its very nature, an extension of the work of someone else. This results in loss of pride in work and makes secretaries, generally women employees, perceive themselves to be unimportant.

A vicious circle can develop for non-promotable employees. These people begin to limit their aspirations and become even less likely to be promoted. In support of this structural explanation of low aspirations, Kanter reports studies of male blue-collar workers. These men indicate low work commitment and aspirations. "Almost four-fifths had at some time contemplated leaving; they dreamed of escape into their own small business."⁵²

Further study of peer relationships also notes:

When people face favourable advancement opportunities they compare themselves upward in rank, with one foot already out of the current peer group in the process he called anticipatory socialization.⁵³

Burns' study revealed differences in interpersonal orientations of low and high mobility men. The older men who were outside of the main advancement ladders formed cliques, oriented to reassurance and protection. Younger men,

however, formed groups which should increase their status:

As a member of a closed peer group, the individual is under further pressure to remain loyal to the immediate group of workmates and to see leaving the group as an act of disloyalty.⁵⁴

Bennett and Loewe, in their book Women in Business, discuss the possibility of a boss holding back the progress of a secretary by suggesting she may be unhappy, further increasing her guilt feelings about moving, or that bosses often wish to keep their secretaries in order to protect their own positions. Kanter, in her article "Women and the Structure of Organizations," also notes the history of the traditional work roles for women:

Women are part of a class rewarded for routine service, while men compose a class rewarded for decision-making rationality and visible leadership.⁵⁵

Kanter reviews various historical models of organizational theory which all reinforce the stereotype of the calm, rational manager (who would have to be male) and the unruly and emotional workers (more often women than men). She further looks at organizations by supporting the newer structuralist model which, she feels, enlarges the understanding of women's positions in organizations. This model notes that managers and clerical workers constitute two separate classes of workers, and one has the power and a group interest in keeping it, and the other has a service

function. She adds that little mobility occurs between the male managers and the female clerical workers.

We now explore cognitive factors relating to sex role stereotyping and attitudes to women leaders.

Cognitive

There are some myths concerning women's employment patterns. Women are supposed to have higher absenteeism and higher turnover rates due to restrictions imposed by children on working mothers. Table 1-17⁵⁶ reveals that only small sex differences exist in the patterns of absenteeism. Glazer points out that although women do lose more workdays, on the average, than do men for acute conditions, men lose more workdays due to chronic conditions such as heart condition.⁵⁷ In addition, The Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada notes the very slight sex difference in absenteeism rates: "Women are reported to be absent about two days more a year than men."⁵⁸

A study of the Federal Public Service showed that women's turnover rates were generally higher than men's but those who left were more likely to return than were men. Both American and Canadian studies reveal that the turnover rates are influenced more by the skill level of the job held, age of the worker, and length of service, than by sex.

It is also assumed that women are involuntarily immobile and that their residence is determined by their husband's occupation. A study carried out by the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation on its own organization, surveying 7,795 male employees and 2,650 female employees, revealed that, although more men than women are willing to relocate, the difference between single men and women is small. Increasing numbers of husbands do move to follow their wives. However, mobility is not always a factor in selection for advancement. The Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada revealed that 58% of the men and 76% of the women in senior and intermediate positions have never even been transferred.

A further suggestion concerning women's lack of mobility is related to special rules and regulations designed to protect women, which often reduce their effectiveness as competitors and serve to exclude them from potential employment. Rules regarding seniority and continuous employment can also effectively eliminate many female workers. Caplow, in his book The Sociology of Work, says "even where allowance is made for maternity, the life cycle does not allow women to compete successfully with men in terms of occupational continuity."⁵⁹

Most organizations have rules relating to nepotism.

Caplow notes the organizational rationale for disallowing close relatives to work in the same business setting. He feels that the motive of limiting competition by women who could compete effectively is involved, as well as the desire to prevent favoritism and growth of family cliques. Caplow notes that this can effectively stop the career of a woman who marries one of her colleagues, particularly in teaching or certain types of technical and managerial work.

Other myths which effectively limit a woman's aspirations and mobility deal with the assumptions that women need to be protected because of their smaller size, and that women are more people-oriented, have greater manual dexterity, are less mechanical and better at tedious, boring tasks than are men.⁶⁰

One law, supposedly designed to protect women, limited the weight that women could lift to fifteen pounds -- a weight exceeded by a three-month-old baby.⁶¹ Because both men and women vary in their capacities, laws concerning weight limits should not automatically exclude one sex. This change would eliminate one area of sex discrimination.

The study by the CBC of its own organization reports on the supposed inherent manual dexterity of women:

Of eight studies of inherent manual dexterity that we looked at, four found that men and three found that women had greater dexterity; one found no difference between the sexes. Manual dexterity is also, to a considerable extent, acquired through practice . . . 62

Macco by and Jacklin review research on sex differences and conclude that girls are no better than boys at either tasks requiring dexterity or tasks that are repetitive.⁶³ In fact, women's higher turn-over rates reflect their boredom with these kinds of tasks.

Bennett and Loewe conclude that there are no sex differences in capacity to cope with unstimulating jobs:

Studies have found that women and men holding identical unstimulating jobs, express equal dissatisfaction. Women quit these jobs at a greater rate than men.⁶⁴

Another myth which effectively limits women is the notion that women are too emotional, that they cry too frequently. Evidence reveals that socialization patterns vary for women and men; both men and women display their emotions in varying ways. It is the inabilities of the sexes to understand each other's reactions which explains their embarrassment, rather than a woman's supposed inept response in a crisis situation.

Another serious factor limiting promotion for women is their lack of visibility. Women are usually far removed from the power sources, and often occupy traditionally low-level female jobs.

If the employer relies on the "old-boy's network" for job promotion, there are other problems. Caplow argues that women are excluded from the male peer group:

The use of tabooed words, the fostering of sports and other interests which women do not share, and participation in activities which women are intended to disapprove of . . . all suggest that the adult male group is to a large extent engaged in a reaction against feminine influence, and therefore cannot tolerate the presence of women without changing its character entirely.⁶⁵

A last factor which often limits a woman's chances of moving up is the assumption that she does not have the necessary education and experience necessary for a job. Evidence in Canada reveals that more young people are staying in school longer, and:

between 1951-52 and 1971-72, the proportion of males in university undergraduate studies relative to the male population aged 18-21 more than doubled, while for females the proportion more than quadrupled . . . males still account for more than 60% of all university students.⁶⁶

Robb and Spencer speculate that educational choices for women are often made in conjunction with other choices, such as roles of wife and mother, and that the presumed low economic reward in the work force, even with increased numbers of years in school, will also deter women from staying longer. It is true, in some cases, that the lower educational qualifications, or discontinuous work pattern may prevent women from being promoted within an organization.

In conclusion, when viewing women's aspirations and mobility patterns it is necessary to consider background socialization factors and organization theory which both act to inhibit women's advancement.

Kanter notes that studies of leadership styles have rarely dealt with sex-role stereotyping. There appears to be a tendency for raters of leadership styles to reward sex-role appropriate behaviour. However, there are a large number of studies that show that neither men or women wish to work for women. Bennett and Loewe note that:

In a nationwide survey, the percentage of people expressing reluctance at the prospect of a female supervisor declined from 82% in 1954 to 45% in 1974. Men who have been supervised by a woman are 40% less likely to prefer a male supervisor than men who have not.⁶⁷

Stoll, in her book Sexism: Scientific Debates, remarks that men are likely to report that a woman supervisor would be a threat to their masculinity. Willett, in Women in Sexist Society, argues that men feel women derive their greatest satisfaction out of being needed and any women who has a job of some importance must be overly aggressive or has been placed in the position because of sexual favours she has given to her boss.

There is also evidence to suggest that women are also prejudiced against women. For example, 140 college girls were asked to evaluate identical articles which they

felt were either the work of a male or a female. The results revealed that "the girls found an article much more valuable, and its author more competent if the article bore a male name."⁶⁸ Even in traditionally female areas, the males were judged to be better. Goldberg concluded that the college women in the experiment were prejudiced against female professionals, regardless of their actual accomplishments.

Bennett and Loewe also report that in a Harvard Business Review study, identical resumes were given to respondents in response to a job of purchasing manager, except for the name, which in some cases was female and in others male. The results revealed that the male was chosen 50% more frequently than the female.

Caplow, in his book The Sociology of Work, published in 1964, also traces the following two themes in the history of organizations:

1. That it is disgraceful for a man to be directly subordinated to a woman, except in family or sexual relationships.
2. That intimate groups, except those based on family or sexual ties, should be composed of either sex but never of both.⁶⁹

Caplow argues that men do not accept female superiors easily and that most women in supervisory positions only supervise other women.

Staines, Tavis, and Jayaratne have developed a theory to help explain the behaviour of that small group of women who have achieved personal success within the system.

The term "Queen Bees" has been coined for certain women who show a certain set of characteristics and attitudes which are not supportive of the entry of more women into the higher levels of the organization. These women appear to be opposed to any changes in the traditional sex-roles. These women may have been hired precisely because they were seen by male superiors as being non-threatening and co-operative. Another explanation is that some of the few successful members of a group which is normally discriminated against, enjoy a privileged position which they will want to keep from others in the group who are threatening their hard-won positions. Another motive given for lack of sympathetic support is linked to fear of competition. These women may feel little animosity to a system which has permitted them to reach the top, and in which men praise them for being unique and for "looking so feminine, yet thinking just like a man."⁷⁰

Kanter discusses other possible reasons for a female supervisor's lack of effective leadership style and also supports Caplow's exclusion principle: "Even if she occupies a leadership position, then a woman may have less influence in the wider organizational situation because of her rarity and isolation."⁷¹ There is evidence to suggest that if a woman has a male sponsor who supports her , a

female leader has more chance of having a supportive following.

Kanter notes a study of high school department heads and teachers. The male department heads were more highly regarded, and morale was better in male-run rather than female-run departments. She also noted that there were no females in positions higher than department head in the county and that women in these positions were older, more experienced, and revealed little interest in further promotion. Kanter notes that Levenson (1961) discovered promotable supervisors often tried to control subordinates, seeing any efficient subordinate as a potential threat. Kanter concludes that any leader in a middle management position, regardless of sex, is likely to "take it out" on their subordinates in the form of increased control. She reports on a study of women who were promoted prematurely into supervisory positions at the outbreak of World War II. In this instance even others were complaining about the leadership styles of their new female supervisors. These women, because of the insecurity of their positions and high levels of surveillance from their own superiors, were demanding and over-critical of their subordinates. It is important to note that female supervisors also bring with them the socialization patterns of their past childhood as well, which also compounds the difficulties many of them

experience in their new positions. Kanter points out that men, who are also in positions of little power, would respond similarly. However, there are many more women than men who are likely to be placed in these low-power positions.

Kanter also described how the token woman is virtually alone in the world of male peers and supervisors:

Tokens . . . caused more talk and attracted more attention, usually for their physical attributes, than new male employees. The men tended to evaluate the women against their image of the ideal female rather than the ideal colleague, and the women, under relentless scrutiny, felt they could not afford to make mistakes.⁷²

She also mentions that other studies reveal that a lone person in a group is over-emphasized and characteristics which would not be noted in an integrated group are exaggerated. Apparently, tokens are not only noticed but often isolated and kept on the outskirts of the group. For example, male nurses report disguised hostility from women with whom they work. These women test their loyalty to the group. Kanter suggests that token people are often forced to play the stereotyped role expected of them. They also have to work especially hard in order to prove themselves. Kanter argues that change will come only from the breaking of these cycles of blocked opportunities and powerlessness. It will come not only from the changing of individual personalities, but rather from the changing of the structuring and patterns of functioning of

organizations. We now discuss the socialization of women as it relates to their performances in organizations.

External Barriers - Socialization Factors as Barriers to Women's Advancement

Socialization theorists argue that women's low aspirations are sex role linked. For example, Matina Horner's 1960 study of college women and men who answered a story completion test, revealed that women had:

strong fears of social rejection, fears about definitions of womanhood or denial of the possibility that any mere woman could be so successful. In contrast, less than 10% of the boys showed any signs of wanting to avoid success.⁷³

Horner also concluded that "Women will do better on test scores when they do not need to compete and least of all when they are competing with men."⁷⁴ This was not true of women with a strong anxiety about success. Horner noted that the girls who feared success were headed to more traditional careers despite high grades. Another study of women's ambitions, carried out by Ralph Turner in 1964, revealed some interesting results. Using over 1,400 high school senior women as a sample, he studied characteristics of male and female ambition. "There is consistent evidence that the ambition of women in the socio-economic realm is lower than that of men."⁷⁵

Turner recognizes the complexity of women's goals

and that some women will have career goals, others have occupational goals secondary to other goals and that some will have no career goals at all. Turner discovered that female ambition was lower educationally than males as well as at a material level. He also found that women's own educational and career aspirations had little relationship to material expectations, unlike their male counter-parts. A most interesting finding dealt with women and their choice of future roles. Most women were going to add the homemaker role to their work roles and were willing to leave the aspect of material level of living entirely up to their husbands. Their career would only serve to enhance intrinsic goals of enjoyment of music, art and books over making a good living. It should be noted, however, that this study refers to young people who have yet to experience both a career or marriage. Armstrong and Armstrong and others support the conclusion that women do work for money although they are often reticent to admit that they do.

If a woman student's plans for her future work life vary considerably from her actual work practices later on in life, perhaps this may affect her aspirations and mobility once employed in an organization. Caplow, in his book The Sociology of Work, notes the early socialization of women as a barrier to both participation in the labour force and to their advancement:

Men are trained to derive their principal ego-satisfactions from competitive performance and from the favourable opinions of their fellows. Women tend to find permanent gratification in their own personal characteristics and in the responses of affectional relationships.⁷⁶

Greenglass also notes the powerful psychological and social factors which inhibit women:

While attributes such as independence, aggressiveness, and competitiveness are rewarded and encouraged in males because there are the characteristics perceived as essential for success in traditionally male-dominated fields, dependence, passivity, and compliance are rewarded in females.⁷⁷

On the other hand, later studies on women's ambitions in organizations have taken a different perspective. Kanter argues that structural conditions stemming from the nature of the hierarchy, shape apparent sex differences in the workplace. She defines three variables, "the opportunity structure, the power structure, and the sex-ratio."⁷⁸

Several common ways of social typing exist. Social psychological research shows, for example, that if a high-ranking person types, usually the definition is acceptable.⁷⁹ It is also effective if there is a sense of violation of the rules. In addition, negative social typing is more acceptable than positive social typing. It also will be more readily accepted if the audience stands to gain from the new definition. The processes of the typing has one of three effects.⁸⁰ Consider the phenomenon of the self-fulfilling prophecy. The action the person takes

makes the typing real. Secondly, the whole group becomes type-cast in a similar way. In re-casting, the typer and the audience make clear the category in which the person is placed, but allow the person some opportunity to step out of the role. If uncommon events appear irregularly, there may be some strain created although the person may not be treated much differently than before. Typing will not be considered important if the sense of violation is weak, the type cannot be completely negative, the illegitimacy of the acts are of minimal consequence and a pattern of non-conforming behaviour cannot be sustained.

Although the cultures do change, most behaviour patterns show considerable continuity, especially general beliefs such as society's images of males and females. From a cultural value system, children learn acceptable occupational and family patterns. Depending on social class, race and sex, there appear to be few norms for a high achieving woman in a non-traditional field. According to Epstein, men appear to want women to be feminine but are uncomfortable working with feminine women.⁸¹ Epstein refers to a study by Goode of middle-class men who verbally announce equality for women. Their opinions are far more liberal than their actual behaviour suggests as measured by their demonstration of authority in the family.

Values can be redefined and reinterpreted to provide

a rationale for disparate types of behaviour. Women may have protection during pregnancy but it may also serve as a barrier to allowing them to enter certain fields. Since roles apply differentially, certain groups may depart from norms more easily than others. For example, a certain life style might be considered appropriate for one social class, but not another. In addition, as institutions and roles change, so does the value system and normative structure change. The transition period may cause stress as values change. A study by Rose indicates women may be unrealistic in their planning because they expect to fulfill all roles. Since expectations for women's roles appear somewhat ambiguous and varied, it would be interesting to know to what extent anticipation of problems and doubts act as a self-fulfilling prophecy. Their doubts could lead to less commitment to career goals or prolonged job training. The socialization of women may miscarry as they prepare for the specific types of work which are encouraged or tabooed. There is ambivalence in certain roles for certain statuses. Women especially face many contradictions of role which has obvious problems for determining future roles, work and otherwise. Female role models incorporating independence, objectivity, and assertiveness may violate society's common image of a female, which repel some men and women. The woman who is ambitious to work also bears the burden of

women's low evaluations of themselves. The research on minority groups suggests the minority group often accepts the stereotyped concept held by the dominant group.

Women frequently claim they dislike other women or would rather work for men. There may also be animosity between women who have chosen different life-styles. There is some research indicating that professional women are critical of women in their own field.⁸²

The traditional images of women have not been challenged until recently and, as a result, both women and men continue to accept traditional images, although the behaviour of women does not conform to them. "Women in male occupations or with male-typed aspirations fall prey to the label of castrating woman, or hear accusations that they are not feminine. The accusation is usually powerful and debilitating to woman."⁸³ "These limiting and self-limiting mechanisms operate not only at the earliest stages of women's career decisions, but throughout their lives."⁸⁴

Some statuses are more dominant than others. Certain ascribed statuses, such as sex, are central in controlling the choices of most persons. In addition to the status of sex, other statuses are closely linked. Around each of the female's statuses, a woman acquires a complex network of roles. One status of women most often acquired is that of wife. Women who choose career and

marriage often have difficulties apportioning time between their two major responsibilities. A man may find that being a husband supports his occupational role, which is dissimilar to the situation for women.

Many working women face pressures to remain occupied in the home. Husbands may be concerned about losing a wife's services. He may be worried about a wife out-ranking him. In addition, men are usually the final breadwinners. Husbands may feel threatened by sexual competition from men their wives may encounter. A wife may also feel threatened by the husband's female contacts. His associations on the job, however, have been normatively defined as necessary to his work. Housewives may see career women as personal threats; it may force the housewife to question her own choice of lifestyle. Children can exert pressures on working women, if they feel deprived relative to other children in the neighbourhood, whose mothers stay at home.

Sex-typing of jobs has also had several functions. Epstein reports that the more nearly a profession is made up of one sex, the less likely it will be to change its composition.⁸⁵ Sex typing also leads to the self-fulfilling prophesy. If an occupation has been defined as male, women who try to enter this field will be defined as deviant and subjected to social sanctions. Women, who are

found in these occupations, often will be discouraged from seeking advancement and could retreat from the occupational world to the family. By their choice of behaviour they succeed in supporting the status quo: that work and family are mutually exclusive.

FOOTNOTES

1. Issues of job effectiveness, motivation and satisfaction are discussed in the following books, although women are seldom the focus of attention: See P. Blau and W. R. Scott in Formal Organizations: A Comparative Approach, Chandler Publishing Co., New York: 1962; G. C. Homans in Social Behaviour, Its Elementary Forms, Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1961; J. G. March and H. A. Simon in Organizations, F. Wiley and Sons, New York: 1958 for further discussion of organizational matters.
2. R. M. Kanter, "Women and the Structure of Organizations: Explorations in Theory and Behaviour," in M. Millman and R. Kanter, eds., Another Voice, New York: Anchor Books, 1975, p. 35.
3. Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women, Ottawa: Sept. 28, 1970.
4. A number of organizations have embarked upon studying the status of women in their particular setting. Some of these reports include: Ontario Secondary School Teachers Federation Task Force on Women Report, The Effect of Sexism on the Career Development of Teachers, Nov. 29, 1975; Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, Women in the CBC: Report of the Task Force on the Status of Women, CBC, Toronto, 1975; Canadian National, Task Force Report on the Status of Women, CN, 1975; University of Guelph, Report of the President's Task Force on the Status of Women at the University of Guelph, June 26, 1975; City Hall, Status of Equal Employment Opportunities for Male and Female Employees, London, Ontario, 1975.
5. T. D. Bottomore, A Guide to Problems and Literature, New York: Vintage Books, Random House, 1972, p. 113.
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9. D. Katz and R. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966, p. 309.
10. C. Kerr, J. T. Dunlop, F. Harbison, C. Myers, Industrialism and Industrial Man, London, England: Heineman Educational Books Ltd., 1962.
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13. Ibid. p. 155.
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15. H. Armstrong and P. Armstrong, "The Segregated Participation of Women in the Canadian Labour Force, 1941-1971," Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, 12(4) Part 1, 1975, p. 371.
16. See Appendix A, Table 1-2.
17. See Appendix A, Table 1-3.
18. Armstrong and Armstrong, p. 376.
19. See Appendix A, Table 1-5.
20. See Appendix A, Table 1-6.
21. See Appendix A, Table 1-7.
22. Armstrong and Armstrong, p. 376.
23. See Appendix A, Table 1-8.
24. M. P. Marchak, "The Canadian Labour Farce: Jobs For Women," in M. Stephenson, ed., Women in Canada, Toronto: New Press, 1973, p. 202.

25. See Appendix A, Table 1-9.
26. Marchak, p. 203.
27. Lynn McDonald, "A Widening Gap Between Women and Men," The Canadian Forum, (May, 1975), p. 1.
28. Ibid., p. 2.
29. Armstrong and Armstrong, p. 378.
30. J. E. Bennett and P. M. Loewe, Women in Business, A Financial Post Book, Toronto: Maclean-Hunter Limited, 1975, p. 62.
31. See Appendix A, Table 1-10.
32. Armstrong and Armstrong, p. 381.
33. M. Gunderson, "Work Patterns," in G. C. A. Cook, ed. Opportunity for Choice, Ottawa: Information Canada, 1976, p. 99.
34. See Appendix A, Table 1-13.
35. See Appendix A, Table 1-14.
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49. Kanter, p. 53.
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64. P. Loewe and J. Bennett, p. 54
65. T. Caplow, p. 239.

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67. Bennett and Loewe, p. 54.
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CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

1. The Research Site

Our research was carried out in a community college in southern Ontario. While college employees and members of the surrounding community are relatively affluent, the relative position of women in the organization is typical of that found elsewhere. Women occupy low status positions and, consequently, are paid relatively poorly.

A detailed description of the structure of the college, the mechanisms for hiring, promotion and salary determination for the different groups of employees, and the sex ratios within each group is provided in Appendix B.

Let us describe the representation of men and women at different occupational levels. Policy making positions are generally held by men. Furthermore, about two-thirds of the faculty are men. Below administrators and faculty falls a group of administrative support employees, about one-third of whom are men. These employees hold such positions as admissions officers, secretaries to deans and so on. This group has, in the past, been especially vulnerable. Faculty are unionized, as are the support staff group described below. Administrators are

subject to the Hay System described later in Chapter 3.

At the lowest level in the organization are the non-academic support staff, 41% of whom are male. This group is largely made up of maintenance and clerical workers. The student body on the other hand, is predominantly female, with women comprising 61% of all students.¹

Appendix B also indicates the history of hiring and hiring procedures in the college since its establishment in 1967, showing that the proportion of female faculty became substantial only in recent years. There is a tendency for males to have been in the organization longer than the females and to hold the more senior and the better-paid positions in all job categories.

We now discuss the methodology employed in our research and go on to consider the implications of structural, cognitive and socialization factors for men and women in administration, faculty and support positions.

2. Methods of Data Collection

Data were collected from college employees using a self-administered questionnaire. Further qualitative data relating to women were derived from interviews with a stratified sample. These means of data collection are described below:

a. Questionnaire Survey

Questionnaires were the major tool for data

collection.² The questionnaire was distributed to all employees of the college, both full-time and part-time. Faculty were surveyed if they taught over three hours per week and they had been employed for two years or more. Staff were surveyed if they worked at least 10 hours per week. A total of 636 employees were surveyed, 362 questionnaires were returned, 20 of these were rejected as incomplete, and 342 were used for analysis. Full-time employee response was as follows:

	Questionnaires Issued		Questionnaires Received	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Administrators	51	11	34 (69%)	3 (31%)
Faculty	150	90	67 (45%)	48 (55%)
Admin. Support	22	43	7 (31%)	30 (69%)
OPSEU Support	58	88	12 (20%)	71 (80%)
Part-time Employees		126	14 (29%)	34 (71%)

Time was to be allowed during working hours for employees to complete the questionnaires.

The employees' questionnaires were divided into

sections as follows:

200 questions for all employees

12 questions for part-time only

32 questions for faculty and administrators only

7 questions for support and administrative support

Structural, cognitive and socialization factors were operationalized in the following manner.³ Along with the structural factors we presumed would be important in affecting mobility and job satisfaction were the following: procedures relating to job evaluation and selection, experience, availability of information regarding remuneration, and availability of help and encouragement from superiors. Among the cognitive factors were conceptions regarding women's roles, both at work and at home, and perceptions of fairness in personnel decisions made at the college. Attitudinal differences between employees stemming from childhood socialization were gauged through questions relating to work goal and attitudes towards promotions. Job satisfaction was operationalized using questions relating to the employees enjoyment of her/his working day and the employees' perception of level of morale at the college. We also collected basic information on family status and on work and salary history.

Questionnaires were distributed to employees through the Centre for Women, and through the college

Personnel Department. Questionnaires were circulated by supervisors and anonymity was preserved. As with any survey, there may be bias due to the non-response pattern. Unfortunately, we could not check up on the characteristics of non-respondents. We can, however, compare the characteristics of the sample with the characteristics of the total population. There was, however, some difficulty in getting detailed information on the total population of college employees from administrators, who, understandably, often prefer to provide minimal material on salary. Comparisons were made with material supplied by the Ministry of Colleges and Universities. These are shown in Appendix B. While this approach may be adequate in an exploratory study, further research would require some investigation of whether those who did not respond differed from those who responded. If non-respondents are similar to respondents, no bias is introduced by non-response.

The data from completed questionnaires were coded and analysed. The main form of analysis was cross-tabulation. Responses were broken down by: (a) sex, and (b) position in the organization. We set the significance level at 5%. A regression analysis, presented in Appendix D, was carried out in order to show the determinants of college job satisfaction for employees.

b. Interviews

We also interviewed a stratified random sample (N = 40) of college personnel. The sample was chosen so as to represent four job categories and both males and females.

The college was divided into the four categories from a computer personnel listing and then a proportionate number of males and females in each of the four categories were randomly selected to be interviewed. In one category, female administrators, we interviewed all the women. This was because of the small number of women in the category and the special features of this group in terms of their attitudes and perceptions. The questions asked generally paralleled questions found in the questionnaire. However, a few areas, e.g., views on unions, were investigated more thoroughly.

3. Characteristics of Employees

Ministry and College data show that at every occupational category at Lakeside College salary levels are higher for males than for females.⁴ While we could not undertake a detailed analysis, there appear to be some salary discrepancies between men and women which could not be explained by education and years of experience. Gunderson, in Opportunity and Choice, and Bennett and Loewe,

in Women in Business, also recognize that salary discrepancies cannot adequately be explained by education and years of experience in other organizations as well.

Personal gross income levels indicated by respondents were as follows: 47% earned less than \$12,000 (80% of whom were women), and 44% were in the \$12-24,000 range, 9% earned over \$24,000, and of these 22% were women in faculty or administration.

Family income levels of respondents were also high. Twenty percent indicated a family income of under \$15,000, 55.3% were in the range \$15-30,000, and 24.6% had family incomes of over \$30,000.⁵ It is clear that Lakeside College employees are an especially well paid group of workers.

Questionnaire responses show that Lakeside employees have relatively limited family responsibilities and that many have working spouses. Two-thirds of the men and two-thirds of the women employees are married. Few employees (18%) have children under the age of four, and 45% report that they have no children dependent on them.

While most employees have working spouses, the most highly paid administrators have wives who did not work outside of the home. The administrative group reported the highest gross family incomes despite the fact that income was from themselves only. The support groups, with both spouses working, reported much lower gross family incomes. Females also reported themselves and a spouse employed

full-time more often than did males. This is in keeping with our knowledge of family income levels and reasons for women's participation in the work force.⁶

The ages of male and female employees are as follows: young and middle-aged women are disproportionately represented; of the one-quarter of respondents under 30, 82% are female and of the 16% over 50, 40% are female. Middle-aged women are also well represented in the sample (57%). This is in keeping with the national pattern.⁷ The turnover rate is highest among females in the support groups.⁸ Further data on the characteristics of respondents can be found in Appendix B.

FOOTNOTES

1. Information regarding student enrollments is to be found in another section of the Status of Women Report which was not included for study in this thesis.
2. The questionnaire is included in Appendix C.
3. The questionnaire items analyzed are included in the footnotes of each chapter.
4. Appendix B, p 64, and Tables B-13, B-17, B-18 and B-20.
5. Further information can be found in Appendix B, "Characteristics of Respondents."
6. Armstrong and Armstrong., Gunderson, Opportunity for Choice.
7. Kreps and Clark., Ostry and Spencer in Opportunity for Choice.
8. See Appendix B, p. 228.

CHAPTER III

BARRIERS ARISING FROM THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF THE ORGANIZATION

We now explore how barriers arising from the social structure affect the hiring and advancement of men and women at different levels in the organization. We consider factors relating to advancement: first, hiring and promotion practices; second, extent of knowledge available about remuneration; and third, encouragement of employees to advance.

As we have indicated above, there is often some overlap between structural and socialization factors. In this chapter, we focus on sex differences in perceptions and the effects of organizational practices on men and women. There is a general tendency for men to predominate in hiring, for men to have greater knowledge of conditions of work, and for men to receive more encouragement to advance. Some, but not all, of these differences disappear when the three occupational groups are treated separately.

1. Hiring and Promotion

We first explore practices relating to hiring and promotion. Practices with regard to the composition of

hiring committees, rules relating to the employment of relatives and practices with regard to the promotion of support faculty and administrative groups are all important in determining the structure of the organization and the location of male and female employees. We also explore the outcomes of these promotion practices and compare the extent to which males and females are upwardly mobile in the organization.

a. Selection

We now examine how hiring in administrative, faculty and support groups is perceived to take place. Our main hypothesis is that the selection procedures of predominantly male supervisors is a structural barrier more often faced by females than males. We also suggest that more support female employees will have been selected by male supervisors than will female faculty or administrative employees. These female employees, therefore, face more structural barriers than do female administration or faculty employees. We also hypothesize that women are more likely to be hired by supervisors rather than by committees.

We asked about selection procedures for the job held by the respondent.¹ Table 3-1 shows that almost all employees (87%) were selected for their jobs by a supervisor(s). It is also apparent from Table 3-2 that despite the limited use of committees, more males than

ITEM: What was the selection procedure for your job?

Table 3-1

SELECTION PROCEDURE ACROSS COLLEGE

Type of Selection	Percent
Supervisor	54.0%
Two or more supervisors	33.3
Committee of colleagues and supervisors	<u>12.7</u>
Total	100%
No. of cases: (342)	
Missing cases: (12)	

Table 3-2

SELECTION PROCEDURE BY SEX

Type of Selection	Male	Female
Supervisor	43.6% (54)	59.8% (19)
Two or more supervisors	37.0 (46)	31.2 (62)
Committee of colleagues and supervisor(s)	<u>19.4 (24)</u>	<u>9.0 (18)</u>
Totals	100% (124)	100% (199)

Table 3-3

SELECTION PROCEDURE BY POSITION

<u>Type of Selection</u>	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Supervisor	51.9% (14)	43.4% (56)	60.0% (18)	66.3% (65)
2 or more supervisor(s)	37.0 (10)	38.8 (50)	36.7 (11)	24.5 (24)
Committee of colleagues and supervisors	11.1 (3)	17.8 (23)	3.3 (1)	9.2 (9)
Totals	100% (27)	100% (129)	100% (30)	100% (98)

Table 3-4

SELECTION PROCEDURE FOR JOB BY SEX CONTROLLING FOR POSITION

	<u>Administration</u>		<u>Faculty</u>		<u>Admin. Supp.</u>		<u>Support</u>	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Supervisor	33.3 (6)	87.5 (7)	37.5 (21)	47.2 (34)	44.4 (4)	65.0 (13)	65.0 (13)	67.5 (52)
Two or more supervisors	55.6 (10)	0	35.7 (20)	41.7 (30)	44.4 (4)	35.0 (7)	30.0 (6)	22.1 (17)
Committee (Colleagues and supervisors)	11.1 (2)	12.5 (1)	26.8 (15)	11.1 (8)	11.2 (1)	0	5.0 (1)	10.4 (8)
N's	100% (18)	100% (8)	100% (56)	100% (72)	100% (9)	100% (20)	100% (20)	100% (77)

females were selected by such committees. This is explained by the fact that faculty and administrators are more likely to be hired by committees than are support staff.

When the selection procedure was tabulated against sex, controlling for position, it was apparent that more faculty and administration women were selected by committees than were support females.

It is interesting to note that the composition of the selection unit in almost all cases was made up of men (see Table 3-5).² Table 3-6 shows that men are selected almost totally by other men although women are occasionally selected by women.

Let us now discuss the findings. Our data clearly support the main hypothesis that women face the structural barriers of all male, non-committee selection for jobs. It is also apparent from the description of the college that ~~men have hired men throughout the existence of the college.~~

Kanter and others have noted how men may favour men when selecting new employees. The belief system held by many male supervisors concerning women's motivation and employment patterns also support the contention that male supervisors may discriminate against women. Caplow has argued that the "old-boys network" for job promotion effectively eliminates women from competing for jobs and promotions. Employees who do not feel policies concerning

Table 3-5

COMPOSITION OF SELECTION UNIT ACROSS COLLEGE

Composition	Percent
All male	62.8%
All female	15.2
Majority male/minority female	4.6
Majority female/minority male	2.8
Equal	<u>14.6</u>
Total	100%
Total number of cases (342)	
Missing number of cases (19)	

Table 3-6

COMPOSITION OF SELECTION UNIT BY SEX

<u>Composition</u>		<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>	
All male	83.9%	(104)	48.4%	(93)
All female	.8	(1)	25.0	(48)
Majority male/men female	6.5	(8)	3.6	(7)
Majority female/men male	1.6	(2)	3.6	(7)
Equal	7.2	(9)	19.4	(37)
Totals	100%	(124)	100%	(192)

employment are fair are also dissatisfied.³ If the structural constraints that face females are more apparent than those that face males, it is likely that job dissatisfaction will be higher among women than among men.

b. Faculty Hiring Procedures

Since faculty hiring procedures are somewhat different, we treat these separately. We suggest that existing procedures favour the hiring and promotion of men. We first present the general views on hiring, and in particular the hiring of women, that emerge from interviews regarding the hiring of women faculty. Reports from faculty members show disagreement, even within departments, regarding what are correct and standard hiring procedures. For instance, interview material on hiring showed a diversity in perceptions: "too clearly defined," "in terms of being at the right place and at the right time," or "like hires like," "~~clearly defined but not adhered to.~~"

The general female opinion was best summed up in one woman's comment, "In my area there are many women available for a job, but men are still hiring men."

The faculty of the School of Design expressed concern about the lack of females on their full-time faculty, "When jobs open up for faculty, females should be hired." Females have a different attitude, "An effort should be made to hire more males who aren't male chauvinists."

"There are qualified women in metal and wood." "Female students have to face an entire male faculty. They may feel that they are at a disadvantage." A man said, "In fields where there are more than one (qualified) top person, you should take the women"!

There was not nearly so much concern expressed by the faculty interviewed in English and Media Studies, although one did mention, "There seems to be more men than women in this department." Male Business faculty pointed out that there are many female business (not Secretarial) students entering Sheridan, however, there is only one female faculty member in the Business Division, apart from those in the Secretarial Science Department.

The vague sense that "women faculty can't get ahead" was expressed by a vast majority of the female faculty interviewed, while very few of the male faculty were aware of any bars to women's advancement. Some did point out, however, that some bars were internal; "that women did not apply." However, male attitudes, expressed by both administrators and male faculty, reflected the damaging stereotyped attitudes held generally in society. "There are ingrained differences in thought patterns resulting from our animal background." "There is some subconscious, residual, leftover, stereotyped reasons for not hiring women; things change when women enter the boardroom."

"Women are petty." "Many women in power positions have masculine attributes."

Given these kinds of unscientific attitudes among administrators and faculty, one can readily understand why "males hire males."

c. Regulations Regarding Nepotism as a Structural Constraint on Women's Advancement

Regulations designed to prevent nepotism have until recently been commonplace in educational organizations. We explore the extent to which college employees have been affected by both past and current practices regarding the hiring of relatives. However, as we show below, this is not a major issue for either men or women as only one employee in eight had ever applied to have a relative considered for employment at the college.

Rules against nepotism have more often resulted in discrimination against women than against men, and this occurred most often among faculty. Women who married men with a similar academic background found themselves unemployable if a community supported only one academic institution.

The women could not move and the male partner in the marriage usually held the faculty position. Hence the woman's qualifications, no matter how outstanding, were unmarketable. The Ontario Human Rights Commission has indicated that "several briefs have been submitted to the

Commission concerning anti-nepotism." A report submitted to the government in July, 1977, suggests "the onus is on the employer to prove just cause why a spouse may not be hired." Presently there is no law which states that relatives of employees must be hired if they have appropriate qualifications.

At Lakeside College, there was no written statement of college policy regarding the hiring of members of families of employees. There are, in fact, several instances of members of one family being employed at the college on a full-time basis. The replies to the questions pertaining to nepotism on the questionnaire showed that employees are uncertain about college policy on this matter.⁴ In spite of what is apparently an "unwritten policy" disallowing nepotism, Table 3-10 shows that 55% of those employees who made enquiry on application (to secure employment for a spouse or relative) were told it was not possible due to college policy. Table 3-10 also shows that 7% were told it was not possible due to other reasons. The balance (39%), however, were told it was possible.

Despite the ambiguous policy concerning hiring family members, Table 3-11 shows that 48% of college personnel felt it was an unfair policy.

d. Promotion Procedures

Having explored how the organization proceeds with

Table 3-7
APPLICATION FOR HIRING OF FAMILY
MEMBER BY PERCENT ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes		12.4%	(42)
No		87.6	(298)
Total number of cases	(342)	100%	
Missing cases	(2)		

Table 3-8
APPLICATION FOR FAMILY MEMBER TO JOIN THE COLLEGE BY SEX

		<u>M</u>		<u>F</u>
Yes	15.6%	(20)	9.3%	(19)
No	84.4	(108)	90.7	(186)
Total	100%	(128)	100%	(205)
chi ² = .1142				
df = 1				

Table 3-9
APPLICATION FOR SPOUSE OR OTHER RELATIVE
ACROSS COLLEGE BY PERCENT

Spouse		59.5%	(25)
Other relative		40.5	(17)
Total		100%	(42)
Total number of cases	(342)		
Missing cases	(300)		

Table 3-10

OUTCOME OF APPLICATION FOR HIRING BY SELF OF
FAMILY MEMBER BY PERCENT ACROSS COLLEGE

Not possible - college policy	54.9%	(23)
Not possible - other reasons	7.1	(3)
Possible - did not pursue	9.5	(4)
Not possible - no necessary qualifications	7.1	(3)
Possible - hired	<u>21.4</u>	<u>(9)</u>
	100%	
Total number of cases	(342)	
Missing cases	(300)	

Table 3-11

PERCEPTION OF FAIRNESS OF POLICY DISALLOWING HIRING
OF EMPLOYEES' FAMILIES IN ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS BY
PERCENT ACROSS COLLEGE

Never thought about it	14.3%	(48)
Unfair	47.6	(159)
Fair	13.1	(44)
Depends on closeness of relative	14.6	(49)
Other	<u>10.4</u>	<u>(35)</u>
	100%	
Total number of cases	(342)	
Missing cases	(7)	

Table 3-12

PERCEPTION OF COLLEGE POLICY DISALLOWING HIRING OF
EMPLOYEES' FAMILIES IN ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Never thought about it	11.6% (15)	16.1% (32)
Unfair	45.0 (58)	49.7 (99)
Fair	16.3 (21)	10.6 (21)
Depends on closeness of relative	12.4 (16)	16.1 (32)
Other	<u>14.7 (19)</u>	<u>7.5 (15)</u>
Totals	100% (129)	100% (199)

Table 3-13

PERCEPTION OF COLLEGE POLICY DISALLOWING HIRING OF
EMPLOYEES' FAMILIES IN ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Never thought about it	7.4% (2)	15.7% (21)	6.7% (2)	17.9% (17)
Unfair	33.4 (9)	53.0 (71)	33.3 (10)	46.3 (44)
Fair	25.9 (7)	14.9 (20)	20.0 (6)	7.4 (7)
Depends on closeness of relative	14.8 (4)	11.2 (15)	26.7 (8)	20.0 (19)
Other	18.5 (5)	5.2 (7)	13.3 (4)	8.4 (8)
Totals	100% (27)	100% (134)	100% (30)	100% (95)

regard to hiring, we now explore promotion practices within the organization. Procedures for the promotion of faculty are relatively straightforward in that seniority and merit are important factors. In addition, few faculty wish to be promoted into the administrative ranks. Promotion procedures are, however, important among support and administrative staff. Among the secretarial groups in the support staff, and in the administrative support group (for example, the secretaries to the deans) rug-ranking is a major issue. We also explore the very different features of promotion practices in the administrative ranks. There, under the Hay System, the job itself is evaluated. Interview remarks were the most important indicators of rug-ranking and reclassification concerns for the female support ranks.

"The practice of 'rug-ranking' means that the secretary's salary is determined by the organizational level of her boss rather than by an evaluation of her specific job duties."⁵ The practice of "rug-ranking" has been cited by secretaries as a major source of discontent in such organizations as the Federal Civil Service, the CBC, the CN, and the chartered banks. It is a source of discontent at Lakeside College too.

Many studies have been made about the "rug-ranking" practice indicating that:

There may be no job descriptions, as there are for managerial positions, that help match the person's skills to the job or insure some uniformity of demands across jobs, so that there are often no safeguards to exploitation, no standards for promotion other than personal relationships, and no way of determining if a secretary can be moved to another job (all barriers to mobility out of the secretarial ranks for women).⁶

The comments of interviewees about "rug-ranking" indicated this discontent. Here are some: "I'm at the top of my category. In order to move ahead, I have to become secretary to a dean. I think you should be paid for what you do, not who you do it for." "The responsibilities of a dean's secretary are often the same as responsibilities of other secretaries." "Titles are cheap. Often the job remains the same." "Rug-ranking exists."

The majority of the administrative support group of employees are not members of any union or bargaining association but they are eligible to join the Administrative Staff Association. As of February, 1976, fourteen of the 65 had joined the association. The questionnaire responses indicate that this group is one of the two most dissatisfied and discontent groups in the college.

The administrative support group showed discontent concerning reclassification: "It appears reclassification isn't something that just happens. You have to apply, particularly if you're a woman." "With regard to an opening for a new position, my supervisor commented that I either

wouldn't want the job or couldn't do it." "The college has already lost a lot of good people." "People reach the top of their classification and look for jobs elsewhere." "Without a good boss, you could be left without someone to go to bat for you."

Reclassification produces more expensive help and cannot be done economically, if, for example, only level 1 work is necessary. As one administrator pointed out, "Clerical workers don't need job enrichment. They will leave and new ones will replace them. If everyone is over-qualified, who will do the lower-paid jobs?" Clearly, the economic principle favours the college by replacing a support person earning a maximum salary with a new employee at minimum level. The economic principle is widely recognized. For example, one support employees, who subsequently left the college, said, "I applied for reclassification and was refused . . . it's probably better for the college to start a new employee and pay them less." This management principle, however economically justified, causes a great deal of dissatisfaction among employees. As Glaser's studies have proven,

The planning of succession may be disadvantageous . . . in that by making the criteria for advancement known and routinized, the organization generates an anticipation of mobility among those in the career: if this mobility is not achieved, an individual may feel that he/she has been cheated, and stop working to achieve the goals of the organization.⁷

In other words, if the steps from Technician 1 to Technician 2 are as clearly set out as they are in OPSEU contract, but the employee, on reaching maximum for Technician 1 does not get reclassified to minimum Technician 2, frustration and dissatisfaction develop, followed by a loss of efficiency. This type of dissatisfaction and frustration exists widely within the support groups, as evidenced by interviews. For example, "In order to get a raise, you have to be reclassified. I was told it was impossible to be reclassified." "I am at the top of my category and I haven't had a raise since 1974."

(Obviously this employee is referring to the lack of a merit increase and not "across the board" increases.)

Employees have suggested in the interviews that this argument of "no necessary skills for the advanced job" is one way that management blocks advancement. Examples were brought forward of jobs where some skills which were required when the job was advertised have not since been used. This arbitrariness of reclassification was one of the most repeated complaints among support staff and one of the serious sources of discontent.

The issue of reclassification raises the question of the nature of retraining programs offered to support employees. The employees themselves have stated, "I've heard I don't have the necessary education for this

new position. I think I have enough on-the-job training . . . I could see training on the job and earning no salary while I'm learning." Clearly some female employees are so anxious to improve their position that they are willing to forego salary.

As a group, the administrative support, particularly the females, reported unawareness of the grade categories and routes to promotion. For example, "I don't know if there is a position above Grade 3." "It appears you have to ask to know where you stand."

The Hay System is defined as follows:

The Hay system: A committee of Administrators evaluates each job (not the incumbent) and assigns points for the job. This point rating is confirmed or amended by a Provincial Committee. The points for the job determine the salary, within the range established.⁸

The system was explained as a point system which "evaluated a combination of background factors" and which depended on the "creation of job descriptions" and "supervisory approval." One interviewee commented, "You could merely take the points yourself and write up your own job description to fit the salary you would like."

The upward mobility of women within the administrative group would be greatly enhanced if: (a) the Hay points applicable to any vacancy were published when the vacancy is advertised, and (b) if at all possible, the salary range for every job advertised be published.

Perception of outright discrimination was cited by several female administrators as a barrier to advancement, e.g., "I wouldn't be able to move up into a dean's position because a man would get it." Or, "You can be discriminated against on the basis of doing a job too well." "A provincial committee has input, and the president has the final decision." One interviewee commented, "You have to have faith in top management at some point." while another noted, "I handed in a job description last November and it was evaluated . . . since then, nothing. There should be a form letter indicating reviews of salaries and ranges, etc."

We must conclude that the structure of the organization is such that high level predominantly male employees experience quite different types of practices with regard to promotion. Secretarial staff and administrative support staff are unionized, as we have described in Appendix B; the small group of administrative support staff do not have this protection and are one of the most vulnerable groups of employees.

e. Mobility

Given the location of men and women in the occupational hierarchy, and given the varied practices with regard to hiring and promotion, one would expect that fewer women than men would be upwardly mobile within the

organization. As we show below, women do experience far less mobility than men.

Women have, in fact, been less mobile than men. This may be because of women's lowered aspirations or because of other structural constraints, such as pre-selection or discrimination. We also hypothesize that more support women than faculty or administrative women will have been immobile. Requirements for promotion of faculty are more explicit than for other groups.

We also hypothesize that if women have moved since their arrival at Lakeside, it will be as a result of application. If men have moved since their arrival at Lakeside, it will be as a result of an appointment.⁹

More women in the support group will have moved as a result of application than will administrative or faculty women who will have moved as a result of an appointment. Table 3-14 shows that of all college employees, 65% indicated that they have not moved at all since their arrival at Lakeside. Table 3-17 shows that for those 35% of college personnel who have moved, 69% report that they were appointed to the new position rather than having applied. There has been the most mobility among the administrative group.

We now consider those who were immobile. Table 3-20 shows that of the 65% who indicated they had not moved

since their arrival at Lakeside, 51% of this group said they were not interested or were content to stay where they were. The next most important reasons given were that no positions for which the person was qualified (15%) were available, or the belief that the position already was filled before it was advertised (12%).

Table 3-21 shows that more men (42%) than women (25%) felt the position was already filled before it was advertised. More administration, than any other category, felt they were validly turned down, and more support staff than any other group felt the position was filled before it was advertised. As is clear from earlier findings, administrators tend to see the college as acting in a fair and just manner.

A further look at mobility patterns shows that the extent of movement relates to the length of time spent working at the college. As one would expect, the longer the time spent at the college, the more moves the person has made. After a six-year period, the number of moves drops slightly.

Despite the preference expressed by college personnel that jobs be filled by application (99%), Table 3-18 shows that the college policy appears to be filling positions by appointment. Since Table 3-19 reveals faculty have been appointed to new positions more often than any

Table 3-14

MOVE TO A HIGHER POSITION SINCE ARRIVAL
AT LAKESIDE BY PERCENT, ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes		35.1%	(119)
No		64.9	(220)
Total		100%	
Number of cases	(342)		
Missing cases	(3)		

Table 3-15

MOVE TO A HIGHER POSITION SINCE
ARRIVAL AT LAKESIDE BY SEX

		<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Yes		35.9% (46)	34.3% (70)
No		64.1 (82)	65.7 (134)
Totals		100% (128)	100% (204)

Table 3-16

MOVE TO A HIGHER POSITION SINCE
ARRIVAL AT LAKESIDE BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Yes	46.2% (12)	32.8% (44)	60.0% (18)	33.3% (33)
No	53.8 (14)	67.2 (90)	40.0 (12)	66.7 (66)
Totals	100% (26)	100% (134)	100% (30)	100% (99)

Table 3-17REASON FOR MOVE SINCE ARRIVAL AT
LAKESIDE BY PERCENT ACROSS COLLEGE

Appointed	68.9% (82)
Application	31.1 (37)
Totals	100%
Total number of cases	(342)
Missing cases	(223)

Table 3-18

REASON FOR MOVE SINCE ARRIVAL AT LAKESIDE BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Appointed	68.9% (31)	69.0% (49)
Applied	31.1 (14)	31.0 (22)
Totals	100%	100%

Table 3-19

REASON FOR MOVE SINCE ARRIVAL AT LAKESIDE BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Appointed	58.3% (7)	84.1% (37)	55.6% (10)	65.6% (21)
Applied	41.7 (5)	15.9 (7)	44.4 (8)	34.4 (11)
Totals	100% (12)	100% (44)	100% (18)	100% (32)

Table 3-20

REASON FOR NOT MOVING SINCE ARRIVAL
AT LAKESIDE ACROSS COLLEGE

Not interested	32.2%	(63)
Turned down because of sex	1.5	(3)
Turned down because of discrimination	4.1	(8)
Turned down validly	4.6	(9)
Felt position pre-selected	12.2	(24)
No position available qualified for	15.3	(30)
Content to stay in present position	29.6	(58)
Turned down, two income family	.5	(1)
Totals	100%	
Total number of cases		(342)
Number of missing cases		(146)

Table 3-21

REASON FOR NOT MOVING SINCE ARRIVAL AT LAKESIDE BY SEX

	<u>M</u>		<u>F</u>	
Not interested	42.2%	(30)	25.4%	(31)
Turned down because of sex	1.4	(1)	1.6	(2)
Turned down because of discrimination	1.4	(1)	5.7	(7)
Turned down validly	8.5	(6)	2.5	(3)
Felt position pre-selected	5.6	(4)	16.4	(20)
No position available qualified for	11.3	(8)	17.2	(21)
Content to stay in present position	29.6	(21)	30.4	(37)
Turned down, two income family	0	(0)	.8	(1)
Totals	100%	(71)	100%	(122)

Table 3-22

REASON FOR NOT MOVING SINCE ARRIVAL AT LAKESIDE BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>		<u>Faculty</u>		<u>Ad. Supp.</u>		<u>Support</u>	
Not interested	14.3%	(2)	37.4%	(31)	25.0%	(3)	25.5%	(15)
Turned down - sex	0	(0)	2.4	(2)	0	(0)	0	(0)
Turned down - other reasons	0	(0)	1.2	(1)	8.3	(1)	10.2	(6)
Turned down - valid reasons	21.4	(3)	2.4	(2)	8.3	(1)	5.1	(3)
Position pre-selected	0	(0)	12.0	(10)	8.3	(1)	20.3	(12)
No position available qualified for	7.1	(1)	13.3	(11)	16.7	(2)	18.6	(11)
Content to stay	57.2	(9)	30.1	(25)	33.4	(4)	20.3	(12)
Turned down-two income family	0	(0)	1.2	(1)	0	(0)	0	(0)
Totals	100%	(14)	100%	(83)	100%	(12)	100%	(59)

other group, a more thorough examination of promotion procedures for this category would be in order.

Collegiality and the "old-boys" network could very well be considered a more appropriate procedure for internal faculty promotions. Of the 65% of the college personnel who have indicated they have not moved since arriving at Lakeside, perhaps the 67% of the faculty indicate no interest in moving because they have believed that should the administration want them to be promoted, they will be promoted anyway. Rather more women (17%) than men (11%) indicate some uncertainty about appropriate qualifications, lending some support to the idea that women are not socialized to be confident.¹⁰ Women are also more likely to believe candidates have been preselected (males 6%, females 16%) and this may result in their perceiving barriers to promotion.¹¹

2. Extent of Knowledge Available to Employees

Hiring and promotion procedures are clearly important in determining level of employment and mobility in the organization. Another feature of the organization that affects the prospects of men and women is the extent of knowledge regarding organizational procedures available to men and women at different levels in the organization.

The literature suggests that women, both because of their low position in organizational hierarchies and their exclusion from informal male cliques, have less access to information. Epstein, when discussing the sponsor-protégé system, feels that the sponsor, most often a man, will have trouble accepting women as protégé. "Because of the woman's presumed lack of commitment and drive, the sponsor may be reluctant to present her to colleagues as a reliable candidate for their long-term enterprises."¹²

We explore this issue, taking access to information relating to salary as our indicator.¹³

a. Awareness of Salary

We hypothesize that lack of awareness of salary schedule is a structural and/or socialization barrier more often confronting women than men. Lack of awareness can be said to be a structural variable for those in the administrative support groups as there is no means whereby they can acquire this information. We also hypothesize that more men than women in all occupational categories reveal an awareness of being in a higher salary schedule.

Our findings were as follows: In all occupational categories, with the exception of the support staff group, more men than women reveal an awareness of salary schedules. However, differences between sexes are statistically significant in the case of faculty and administrative

Table 3-23

AWARENESS OF SALARY SCHEDULES ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes, upper range	31.1%
Yes, middle range	33.4
Yes, lower range	14.8
No, don't know	<u>20.7</u>
Total	100%
Total number of cases (342)	
Number of missing cases (4)	

Table 3-24
AWARENESS OF SALARY SCHEDULES

	<u>Administration</u>		<u>Faculty</u>		<u>Admin. Support</u>		<u>Support</u>	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Yes, upper	(7) 38.9%	(1) 12.5%	(24) 40.0%	(11) 15.1%	(4) 50.0%	(5) 25.0%	(9) 45.0%	(25) 32.9%
Yes, middle	(6) 33.3	(3) 34.5	(16) 26.7	(32) 43.8	(4) 50.0	(1) 5.0	(6) 20.0	(27) 35.5
Yes, lower	(0) 0	(1) 12.5	(9) 15.0	(12) 16.4	(0) 0	(0) 10.0	(3) 15.0	(18) 23.7
Yes, total	(13) 72.2%	(5) 72.2%	(49) 81.7%	(55) 75.3%	(8) 100%	(8) 40.0%	(18) 90.0%	(70) 92.1%
No	(5) 27.8	(3) 37.5	(11) 18.3	(18) 24.7	(0) 0	(12) 60.0	(2) 10.0	(6) 7.9
TOTAL (Yes + No)	(18) 100%	(8) 100%	(60) 100%	(73) 100%	(8) 100%	(20) 100%	(20) 100%	(76) 100%
N's	18	8	60	72	8	20	20	76
Chi ²	3.701		11.116		13.191		1.425	
SIGNIFICANT LEVELS	Not Significant		p < .05 df = 3		p < .05 df = 3		Not Significant	

support groups.

In all occupational categories more men than women reveal an awareness of higher salary schedules. Table 3-24 shows that faculty (75%) and support (92.1%) women appear to have a better knowledge of salary schedules than do administrative women (72%) or administrative support women (40%).

The interview responses indicated very little discontent with the levels of salary earned by female faculty. The general perception that "teaching has generally correlated age with ability" supports the profile of the college; and "if you get in on the ground floor you're better off (mostly men)" indicates that at least one female faculty member was aware of the hiring and promotion history of the college.

Several interviewees commented that faculty salaries were not comparable to those in private industry, "I took a drop in salary to come here" was a common response. A salary comparison (randomly selected) of 20 male and 20 female faculty was made. It was found that the formula for assessing value of previous experience and educational qualifications had been consistently applied throughout and that it appeared that no discriminatory practices had occurred.

The large salary differentials might be adequately

accounted for by the facts of older and more qualified males having been hired earlier in the life of the college.

We now discuss possible explanations for these patterns. We have already indicated that previous research suggested that women will have less access to information in an organization. We now suggest features specific to the college that limit awareness.

The very low awareness of salary schedules in the administrative support may result from their low levels of unionization. Our description of the college in Appendix B shows that few members of administrative support personnel belong to a negotiating body. It is apparent from the description in Chapter 2 that most of the females in the administrative support group fall at the lower end of the salary scale (see Appendix B). It could well be that the college administration has deliberately kept the lower-paid employees in this category (most of them women) uninformed of their salary schedules. Interview data also support the hypothesis that administrative support are not aware either of salary schedules or of routes to promotion.

Promotion depends on the recommendation of the supervisor, or the application for an internally posted job vacancy. Interviewees questioned the procedures surrounding promotion of administrative support with regard to a perceived "pre-selection" for a job by administration which

doesn't allow an open competition on the basis of either qualifications or seniority. "The hiring procedures are confusing. Jobs have to be posted. It seems unfair to post and interview people when you know the job is already taken." Another said, "Too many jobs are pre-selected. Posting becomes redundant."

Because women are often secondary wage earners, they are less concerned than men about salary levels. For example, support staff women made these comments about their low salaries in the female "job ghetto," "I wouldn't be at Lakeside if I was the major breadwinner." "I don't feel I receive a fair salary compared to other locations." "The pay could be better for the job I am doing." "I know in private industry my colleagues have got more for doing less."

Among the faculty, the slight differences in salary awareness by sex may be explained in several different ways. It may be that women's tendency to underestimate their competence may explain this lack of awareness in salary. It may also be that the women in faculty categories see themselves as fortunate as compared with women in other occupational groupings, and, because of socialization variables, are uninterested in further investigation of salary schedules. Women faculty may also be indicating that they have lower aspirations than do male faculty.

One further explanation of female faculty members' rather low awareness of salary could relate to the complexity of the step system which changes yearly when the union negotiates a new contract. Familial restraints could mean female faculty do not attend union meetings, and, therefore, are not abreast of current union policy with regard to salary schedules.

3. Encouragement to Advance

Research on organizations suggests that low ranking employees (many of whom are women) and women employees receive less encouragement than do higher level employees and men. This stems partly from the nature of the tasks at different levels in the organization, partly from the fact that informal male groups may tend to exclude women.

We asked employees in what ways (if any) they had been encouraged to seek advancement.¹⁴

a. Encouragement

We now examine the extent to which men and women experience encouragement. We hypothesize that more women than men will have faced the structural barrier of experiencing no encouragement to seek advancement. We also suggest that more support than administrative or faculty women will have faced this structural barrier.

Table 3-25

ENCOURAGEMENT TO SEEK ADVANCEMENT BY PERCENT ACROSS COLLEGE

Encouraged to apply	9.6%	(32)
Encouraged to take job related courses	8.1	(27)
Encouraged to take staff development	6.0	(20)
Additional work responsibilities	28.1	(94)
No encouragement	48.2	(162)
Total	100%	
Total number of cases	(342)	
Number of missing cases	(7)	

Table 3- 26

ENCOURAGEMENT TO SEEK ADVANCEMENT BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Encouraged to apply	12.7% (16)	7.9% (16)
Encouraged to take job related courses	7.1 (9)	8.4 (17)
Encouraged to take staff development	6.3 (8)	5.4 (11)
Additional work responsibilities	26.2 (33)	28.2 (57)
No encouragement	47.7 (60)	50.1 (101)
Total	100% (126)	100% (202)

Table 3-27

ENCOURAGEMENT TO SEEK ADVANCEMENT BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Encouraged to apply	28.0 (7)	8.2% (11)	10.7% (3)	7.1% (7)
Take job-related courses	12.0 (3)	11.2 (15)	7.1 (2)	6.1 (6)
Take staff development	8.0 (2)	8.2 (11)	3.6 (1)	3.0 (3)
Additional work responsibilities	24.0 (6)	25.4 (34)	46.4 (13)	28.3 (28)
Not encouraged	28.0 (7)	47.0 (63)	32.1 (9)	55.5 (55)
Totals	100% (25)	100% (134)	100% (28)	100% (99)

Table 3-25 shows that about half of college personnel (48%) feel that they have been given no encouragement to apply for promotions. Of those who were encouraged, the most common form of encouragement is the addition of extra work responsibilities. About half the women (50%) and half the men (47%) indicated they had received no encouragement to advance.

More than any other occupational category, administrators responded that they had been encouraged to seek advancement. Administrative support replied that they had been assigned additional work, as encouragement, more than any other group.

Our findings support the research of Kanter who indicates that persons at the upper levels of organizations tend to be more motivated, perhaps as a result of more encouragement to seek advancement. It is interesting to note, however, the high percentage (48%) of all college personnel who replied that they had received no encouragement to seek advancement. The "no-growth" position of the colleges at the present time could help to explain this finding. It was the administrators, dominantly male, who were encouraged to seek advancement more than any other group. Support, mostly female, reported the least amount of encouragement.

Kanter gives evidence suggesting that newer

employees and better educated employees also receive more encouragement than do others. Interview data also confirms the finding among administrative support that the assignment of additional work is often seen as an indicator of advancement. One interviewee reported that he didn't mind doing extra work because he felt the favour would be returned in the form of future job advancement.

4. Conclusion

The social structure of the organization is the set of existing relationships that link together certain human beings. In this chapter we have shown that features of the social structure such as practices relating to hiring and promotion, those relating to the flow of information among employees and those relating to encouragement of employees to advance vary sharply according to position in the organization and may also vary by sex among those at the same level in the organization. There is a tendency for men to predominate in hiring, and for men to have greater knowledge of conditions of work and for men to be subject to the less arbitrary types of promotion procedures.

We now move to a consideration of the beliefs and values of the employee. Beliefs and values regarding the roles of men and women affect not only actual hiring and promotion decisions but also the climate within which men and women work and are evaluated.

FOOTNOTES

1. What was the selection procedure for your job?
 1. supervisor
 2. two or more supervisors
 3. committee of colleagues and supervisor(s)
2. What was the composition of the selection unit?
 1. all male
 2. all female
 3. majority male/minority female mix
 4. majority female/minority male mix
 5. equal male/female mix
3. Kanter, R., Another Voice.
4. Have you ever enquired or made application to have a member of your family join the college as an employee?
 - a. yes
 - b. no

If you have made above application or enquiry, was it for:

- a. your spouse
- b. other relative

If you have made application or enquiry, what was the outcome of this application or enquiry?

- a. Was told it was not possible due to college policy
- b. was told it was not possible for other reasons
- c. was told it was possible but did not pursue the matter
- d. was told it was possible but the person did not hold the necessary qualifications
- e. was told it was possible and the person was hired

Some academic institutions have a policy which disallows hiring members of employees' families and/or employees' spouses. How do you feel about such a policy?

- a. have never thought about it
- b. feel it is unfair
- c. feel it is a fair policy
- d. it depends on the degree of closeness of relative
- e. other

- 5. Bennett and Loewe, p. 82.
- 6. Kanter, Another Voice, p. 41
- 7. L. M. Tepperman, Social Mobility, Toronto: McGraw Hill, 1975, p. 82.
- 8. President's memo dated July 28, 1976
- 9. Have you moved to a higher position since your arrival at Lakeside (excluding raises, reclassifications given to all)?
 - a. yes
 - b. no

If yes, was it:

- a. because I was appointed to one
- b. because I applied and was accepted as the best qualified for the job

If no to above, was it:

- a. because there wasn't one I was interested in
- b. I applied and was turned down, I believe because of my sex
- c. I applied and was turned down I believe because of discrimination
- d. I applied and was turned down validly, I believe
- e. I didn't apply; felt the position was already pre-selected
- f. there wasn't a position I felt I was qualified for
- g. I was content to stay where I was
- h. I applied, but was turned down, I believe because I am from a two income family

10. E. Greenglass, R. Turner .
11. R. Kanter, Another Voice.
12. Epstein, p. 170.
13. Are you aware of the salary schedules for your category?
 - a. yes, I am in the upper range
 - b. yes, I am in the middle range
 - c. yes, I am in the lower range
 - d. no, don't know
14. What is the most significant way you have been encouraged to seek advancement?
 - a. encouraged to apply to higher positions by employer
 - b. encouraged to take job related course by employer
 - c. encouraged to take staff development courses by employer
 - d. delegated additional work responsibilities by employer
 - e. have not been encouraged to seek advancement by employer

CHAPTER IV

COGNITIVE FACTORS

We now explore cognitive barriers to women's advancement. As we have outlined earlier, cognitive factors relate to such matters as beliefs, values and norms pertaining to the organization. We explore first, perceptions regarding the adequacy of women in managerial roles, second, the extent of sex role stereotyping in the organization, and third, perceptions of the degree of fairness in hiring. In the third section, we are, in fact, dealing with reactions to violations of the normative structure.

We have already seen that women fare less well than men in that they tend to be inhibited by structural factors relating to hiring and promotion, access to information in the organization and encouragement to advance. This is due, in fact, to their concentration in the lower levels of the organization. However, the extent of disadvantages often experienced by women due to the structure of the organization can only be fully understood by examining cognitive factors which may further inhibit them.

1. Attitudes Towards Women as Managers and as Workers

Existing research, reviewed in Chapter 1, shows that women working in organizations behave and are viewed rather differently from men. Kanter claims that the power structure of organizations -- with the generally male administrators having power over the largely female clerical groups -- encourages certain types of behaviours and interpretations of behaviours by men and women.

We explore the extent to which male and female college employees have worked for and are willing to work for women managers. We also consider the implications of those experiencing past supervision by women.¹ We show that the majority of respondents, some 60%, have worked under the supervision of both males and females. Of the balance, approximately five times as many have worked under the supervision of males only as under females only. Only 6% had ever worked for women supervisors only.

Table 4-3 shows that most respondents indicated that they would feel comfortable working for a man (93.5%), or for a woman (78.0%) (Table 4-4). There were no differences between male and female respondents in their relative willingness to work for males. However, significantly more females (86.3%) than males (65.1%) indicated willingness to work for women.

Previous experience, as well as sex, would seem

Table 4-1

PERCEPTION OF WORKING UNDER SUPERVISION ACROSS COLLEGE

Females only	5.9% (20)
Males only	33.9 (115)
Both males and females	<u>60.2 (203)</u>
Totals	100%
Number of cases	(342)
Number of missing cases	(3)

Table 4-2

PERCEPTION OF WORKING UNDER SUPERVISION BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Females only	.8% (1)	9.2% (19)
Males only	59.5 (75)	18.0 (37)
Both	<u>39.7 (50)</u>	<u>72.8 (150)</u>
Totals	100% (126)	100% (206)
chi = .0000	d.f. = 2	

Table 4-3PERCEPTION OF FEELING COMFORTABLE
WORKING FOR A MAN ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes	93.5% (319)
No	1.5 (5)
Undecided	<u>5.0 (17)</u>
Totals	100%
Number of cases	(342)
Number of missing cases	(1)

Table 4-4

PERCEPTIONS OF FEELING COMFORTABLE
WORKING FOR A WOMAN ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes	78.0%	(266)
No	11.1	(38)
Undecided	10.9	(37)
Totals	100%	
Number of cases	(342)	Number of missing cases (1)

Table 4-5

PERCEPTIONS OF FEELING COMFORTABLE
WORKING FOR A MAN BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Yes	92.3% (119)	94.6% (194)
No	2.3 (3)	1.0 (2)
Undecided	5.4 (7)	4.4 (9)
Totals	100% (129)	100% (205)

Table 4-6

PERCEPTION OF FEELING COMFORTABLE
WORKING FOR A WOMAN BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Yes	65.1% (84)	86.3% (177)
No	15.5 (20)	8.3 (17)
Undecided	19.4 (25)	5.4 (11)
Totals	100% (129)	100% (205)
chi = .0000 d.f. = 2		

to affect attitudes. Table 4-7 shows that employees who had previously worked for a woman indicated they would be comfortable working for a woman much more than those who had worked for males only. The majority of employees, regardless of sex, said they would feel comfortable working for women. Female supervisors are, in fact, rare at this college. They comprise 14% of the administrative group. Only seven of the 63 policy-making positions are occupied by women (see Appendix B). Interviews with women in supervisory positions also reveal the feeling of powerlessness among this group. As one first-line supervisor commented:

I wish I didn't always have to justify my expense account. Why can't I take someone out to lunch without having to account for every penny?

Kanter suggests that it is understandable that female supervisors, who are under increased surveillance from their bosses, often "take it out" on their subordinates, who are usually female.

Potential women managers appear to be blocked by lack of encouragement and the belief that women have little chance of promotion. Employees were asked to respond to the following statement.² When asked, "I feel that women tend not to enter competitions for managerial positions," respondents replied as follows: about half agreed, and one-quarter disagreed. Those who responded, "Yes," or "undecided" were asked to give reasons. The three most

Table 4-7

PERCEPTION OF FEELING COMFORTABLE WORKING FOR A WOMAN BY
PREVIOUSLY WORKING UNDER DIRECT SUPERVISION OF WOMEN ACROSS
THE COLLEGE

	<u>Females</u>	<u>Males</u>	<u>Both</u>
Yes	90.0% (18)	57.4% (66)	88.7% (180)
No	.0 (0)	20.9 (24)	6.9 (14)
Undecided	<u>10.0 (2)</u>	<u>21.7 (25)</u>	<u>4.4 (9)</u>
Totals	100% (20)	100% (115)	100% (203)

Table 4-8

PERCEPTION OF FEELING COMFORTABLE
WORKING WITH WOMEN ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes	89.7% (305)
No	6.2 (21)
Undecided	<u>4.1 (14)</u>
Total	100%
Number of cases	(342)
Missing cases	(2)

Table 4-9

PERCEPTION OF WOMEN TENDING NOT TO ENTER
MANAGERIAL POSITIONS ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes	55.3% (187)
No	25.8 (87)
Undecided	<u>18.9 (64)</u>
Total	100%
Number of cases	(342)
Missing cases	(4)

Table 4-10PERCEPTION OF WOMEN TENDING NOT TO
ENTER MANAGERIAL POSITIONS BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Yes	59.7% (77)	53.0% (107)
No	21.7 (28)	28.7 (58)
Undecided	18.6 (24)	18.3 (37)
Totals	100% (129)	100% (202)

Table 4-11PERCEPTION OF WOMEN TENDING NOT TO
ENTER MANAGERIAL POSITIONS BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Yes	61.2% (82)	66.7% (18)	50.0% (15)	49.5% (48)
No	21.6 (29)	14.8 (4)	26.7 (8)	30.9 (30)
Undecided	17.2 (23)	18.5 (5)	23.3 (7)	19.6 (19)
Totals	100% (134)	100% (27)	100% (30)	100% (97)

d.f. = 6

Table 4-12REASONS FOR WOMEN TENDING NOT TO ENTER
MANAGERIAL POSITIONS ACROSS COLLEGE

Not encouraged	34.3% (84)
Not interested	17.1 (42)
Not appropriate for a woman	8.2 (20)
No chance	24.5 (60)
Not qualified	6.9 (17)
Other	9.0 (22)
Totals	100%
Number of cases (342)	Number of missing cases (97)

Table 4-13

REASONS FOR WOMEN TENDING NOT TO
ENTER MANAGERIAL POSITIONS BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Not encouraged	25.3% (25)	38.6% (54)
Not interested	25.3 (25)	11.4 (16)
Not appropriate for a women	10.0 (10)	7.2 (10)
No chance	17.2 (17)	30.7 (43)
Not qualified	8.1 (8)	6.4 (9)
Other	14.1 (14)	5.7 (8)
Totals	100% (99)	100% (140)
chi ² = .0018	d.f. = 5	

Table 4-14

REASONS FOR WOMEN TENDING NOT TO ENTER
MANAGERIAL POSITIONS BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Not encouraged	33.7% (33)	34.8% (8)	19.0% (4)	36.6% (26)
Not interested	22.4 (22)	34.8 (8)	14.3 (3)	8.5 (6)
Not appropriate for a woman	14.3 (14)	.0 (0)	9.5 (2)	1.4 (1)
No chance	19.4 (19)	8.7 (2)	28.6 (6)	40.8 (29)
Not qualified	2.0 (2)	13.0 (3)	19.1 (4)	9.9 (7)
Other	8.2 (8)	8.7 (2)	9.5 (2)	2.8 (2)
Totals	100% (98)	100% (23)	100% (21)	100% (71)
chi ² = .0002	d.f. = 15			

frequently given were: "They are not encouraged to do so" (34.3%); "They would not have a chance" (24.5%); and "They are not interested in assuming the required responsibilities" (17.1%). Faculty and administrators, in particular, tended to give the "not encouraged" "women not interested" reasons, and support groups the "no chance" response.

While a substantial number of employees believe that women are not interested in assuming the responsibilities required for promotion to administration, our data, shown in Table 5-2, show that women are just as interested in such promotions as are men. Our research strongly suggests that women are handicapped not just because of structural features of the organization, but because of lack of encouragement and the belief that women have little chance of promotion.

2. Sex Role Stereotyping in the Organization

As discussed later, both men and women are equally interested in promotion. However, the stereotyped attitudes regarding the female role, held by both male and female supervisors, make routes to promotion very difficult for females. Comments made by supervisory personnel during interviews illustrate restrictive attitudes. The following comments are typical: "Women

will stretch excuses, like housework, so they don't have to do anything." "Women aren't prepared to make the necessary sacrifices in order to take on managerial positions."

It appears that men see women workers as likely to experience conflict between home and work roles.³ Table 4-15 shows that, although 62% of the employees felt that females might find it difficult to assume work duties because of their wife/mother role at least some of the time, fully twice as many males as females saw conflict all of the time. Twice as many females as males did not feel that conflict existed.

Interviews showed that other stereotyped attitudes which contribute to a general climate limiting women also existed. Typical comments were: "I actually like to work for a man, women are too emotional." "I've never noticed any great female architects. They seem to have had the more subtle role of moulding men." "Women have much more patience with tedious jobs, but I don't think women should be firemen because they just can't physically do the job."

Others said: "I think there are inherent aptitudes which make certain things easier or more difficult for a woman. I think locking machines together or manual dexterity is much easier for a man." "Girls don't mind detailed work." "It's not in their nature to be as aggressive as men."

Table 4-15

PERCEPTION OF DIFFICULTY OF WIFE/MOTHER ROLE ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes		20.9%	(71)
No		15.9	(54)
Sometimes		62.0	(21)
No opinion		1.2	(4)
Totals		100%	
Number of cases	(342)	Number of missing cases	(2)

Table 4-16

PERCEPTION OF DIFFICULTY OF WIFE/MOTHER ROLE BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Yes	30.5% (39)	15.1% (31)
No	10.9 (14)	19.0 (39)
Sometimes	57.8 (74)	64.4 (132)
No opinion	.8 (1)	1.5 (3)
Totals	100% (128)	100% (205)

Table 4-17

PERCEIVED DISCRIMINATION IN HIRING ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes		21.9%	(73)
No		42.8	(143)
Undecided		35.3	(118)
Total		100%	
Number of cases	(342)	Number of missing cases	(8)

One man remarked, "How can a woman have a career and raise children? One or the other is going to suffer. You can't put children in a day-care centre and expect them to be raised properly."

3. Hiring and Cognitive Factors

We now examine perceptions of discrimination.⁴ Our main hypothesis is that women, more than men, will perceive themselves to have faced discrimination in hiring. We also hypothesize that women, more than men, will perceive that there is discrimination in hiring in the college. Because of their position in the organization, support women, more than faculty or administrative women, will indicate perceived discrimination in hiring.

Table 4-17 shows that although only 22% of college personnel perceived discrimination in hiring, two-thirds were uncertain as to whether they did or did not perceive any discrimination in hiring. There was no significant differences by sex or by position in perceptions of discrimination in hiring practices.

We suggest that the large number of employees expressing uncertainty about discrimination may result from the fact that hiring practices are often kept confidential and college personnel may be unaware or uncertain of whether colleagues, or even they themselves were hired in a fair

way. One female interviewee expressed her uncertainty concerning discrimination and hiring. She stressed that budgetary restrictions are often used as a ploy to ensure that hiring for particular positions is not possible.

It is interesting to note that, although differences are not statistically significant, only 4% of administrators felt any discrimination existed, while approximately 25% of the respondents in all other occupational categories felt that some discrimination in hiring did exist. Administrators' beliefs may relate to the fact that most administrators have themselves achieved some degree of success in reaching college administration. They may also feel they have to support their organization.

The dominant ideology in Canada is a liberal one. Marchak, in her book Ideological Perspectives on Canada, notes that most Canadians are committed to the liberal conception that there exists equality of opportunity for all classes, races, and both the sexes.⁵ However, the available evidence does refute the idea that there is equality of achievement. It could be that this liberal philosophy is one of the reasons why most men and women alike do not perceive discrimination. Admitting to the existence of a non-equalitarian policy within an organization would mean refuting a dominant ideology which permeates the whole fibre of Canadian life.

We now explore the extent to which hiring procedures are seen as being clearly defined.⁶ We hypothesize that more women than men would perceive the hiring procedure not being clearly defined for themselves and others. And because of their position in the organization, more support women than faculty or administrative support women would perceive hiring procedures not being clearly defined for themselves and others. We found, however, that the perceptions of hiring procedures as clearly defined for people in their own category does not vary significantly either by sex or by position. Table 4-21 shows that large numbers (48%) of the women and of the men (42%) do perceive that hiring procedures are unclear for people in their own category. There are no clear differences between occupational groups.

Table 4-23 shows that many college personnel (54%) are undecided as to whether procedures are clearly defined in their own category. Perceptions of clarity in hiring procedures does not vary by sex. However, perceptions of clarity in hiring procedures for others does vary significantly by position. Table 4-25 shows that only administrators perceive that there is clarity in hiring procedures for others. Although almost all occupational categories suggest that hiring procedures for others are unclear, faculty are most often undecided (61%).

Table 4-18
PERCEIVED DISCRIMINATION IN HIRING BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Yes	22.2% (28)	21.9% (44)
No	43.7 (55)	42.3 (85)
Undecided	<u>34.1 (43)</u>	<u>35.8 (72)</u>
Total	100% (126)	100% (201)

Table 4-19
PERCEIVED DISCRIMINATION IN HIRING BY POSITION

	Admin.	Faculty	Ad. Supp.	Support
Yes	3.8% (1)	21.2% (28)	30.0% (9)	25.3% (25)
No	61.6 (16)	39.4 (52)	43.3 (13)	45.4 (45)
Undecided	<u>34.6 (9)</u>	<u>39.4 (52)</u>	<u>26.7 (8)</u>	<u>29.3 (29)</u>
Totals	100% (26)	100% (132)	100% (30)	100% (99)

Table 4-20
PERCEPTION OF CLEARLY DEFINED HIRING PROCEDURES
FOR OWN CATEGORY ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes	54.4% (178)
No	<u>45.6 (149)</u>
Total	100%
Total number of cases (342)	Missing cases (15)

Table 4-21

PERCEPTION OF CLEARLY DEFINED HIRING
PROCEDURES FOR OWN CATEGORY BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Yes	58.2% (71)	52.3% (104)
No	41.8 (51)	47.7 (95)
Totals	100% (122)	100% (199)

Table 4-22

PERCEPTION OF CLEARLY DEFINED HIRING
PROCEDURES FOR OWN CATEGORY BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Yes	61.5% (16)	49.2% (64)	53.6% (15)	55.1% (54)
No	38.5 (10)	50.8 (66)	46.4 (13)	44.9 (44)
Totals	100% (26)	100% (130)	100% (28)	100% (98)

Table 4-23

PERCEPTIONS OF CLEARLY DEFINED HIRING
PROCEDURES FOR OTHERS ACROSS COLLEGE

Yes	26.1% (88)
No	20.1 (68)
Undecided	53.9 (182)
Totals	100%
Total number of cases	(342)
Missing cases	(4)

Table 4-24

PERCEPTIONS OF CLEARLY DEFINED HIRING
PROCEDURES FOR OTHERS BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Yes	31.0% (40)	22.2% (45)
No	20.2 (26)	20.7 (42)
Undecided	<u>48.8 (63)</u>	<u>57.1 (116)</u>
Totals	100% (129)	100% (203)

Table 4-25

PERCEPTIONS OF CLEARLY DEFINED HIRING
PROCEDURES FOR OTHERS BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Yes	51.9% (14)	19.5% (26)	40.0% (12)	27.0% (27)
No	22.2 (6)	19.5 (26)	20.0 (6)	20.0 (20)
Undecided	<u>25.9 (7)</u>	<u>61.0 (81)</u>	<u>40.0 (12)</u>	<u>53.0 (53)</u>
Totals	100% (27)	100% (133)	100% (30)	100% (100)

Table 4-26

SUGGESTED SELECTION PROCEDURES FOR
COLLEGE POSITIONS BY PERCENT ACROSS COLLEGE

Advertised within and outside	43.1% (146)
Advertised only within	2.4 (8)
Advertised outside after inside interviews	54.2 (184)
Appointment	<u>.3 (1)</u>
Totals	100%
Number of cases (342)	Number of missing cases (3)

4. Beliefs about Hiring by Appointment and Hiring through Competition

Since women are less likely to be supervisors, to sit on hiring committees, or to be tied into "old-boy's networks," one would expect that women employees would favour open competitions for jobs and would see the practice of appointment without open competition as placing women at a disadvantage. These matters were probed through questions asking about preferences in hiring procedures, and in the composition of selection units.⁸

Our main hypothesis is that more women than men will perceive job selection by appointment to be a barrier to job advancement. We also expect that more support staff women than administrative or faculty women will perceive job selection by appointment to be a barrier.

Almost all employees felt college jobs should be filled by advertising (99.7%) rather than by appointment. Tables 4-27 and 4-28 show that the selection procedures suggested for the filling of college jobs did not vary significantly by sex or position. Table 4-29 shows that most persons felt the selecting body should consist of two or more people senior to the applicant (25%) or the supervisor(s) plus a person of similar rank (45%). While the sex differences are not statistically significant, it is interesting to note that only 40% of females wished to have

Table 4-27

SUGGESTED SELECTION PROCEDURES
FOR COLLEGE POSITIONS BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Advertised within and outside	45.3% (58)	41.5% (85)
Advertised only within	3.9 (5)	1.5 (3)
Advertised outside after inside interviews	50.8 (65)	56.5 (116)
Appointment	<u>0 (0)</u>	<u>.5 (1)</u>
Totals	100% (128)	100% (205)

Table 4-28

SUGGESTED SELECTION PROCEDURES
FOR COLLEGE POSITIONS BY OCCUPATIONAL POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Advertised within and outside	59.3% (16)	47.0% (63)	30.0% (9)	32.3% (32)
Advertised only within	0 (0)	2.3 (3)	0 (0)	3.0 (3)
Advertised outside after inside interviews	40.7 (11)	50.0 (67)	70.0 (21)	64.7 (64)
Appointment	<u>0 (0)</u>	<u>.7 (1)</u>	<u>0 (0)</u>	<u>0 (0)</u>
Totals	100% (27)	100% (134)	100% (30)	100% (99)

Table 4-29

SUGGESTED TYPE OF SELECTING BODY ACROSS COLLEGE

Two or more people senior to the applicant	24.8%	(82)
Two or more people senior to applicant plus person of similar rank	44.6	(147)
Supervisor only	22.1	(73)
Committee of similar rank	8.5	(28)
Total	100%	
Number of cases	(342)	Number of missing cases (11)

Table 4-30

SUGGESTED TYPE OF SELECTING BODY BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Two or more people senior to applicant	20.3% (25)	28.0% (56)
Two or more people senior to applicant plus person of similar rank	52.1 (64)	39.5 (79)
Supervisor only	19.5 (24)	24.0 (48)
Committee of similar rank	8.1 (10)	8.5 (17)
Totals	100% (123)	100% (200)

Table 4-31

SUGGESTED TYPE OF SELECTING BODY BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Two or more senior to applicant	30.8% (8)	18.6% (24)	33.3% (10)	28.9% (28)
Two or more senior to applicant plus person of similar rank	46.2 (12)	56.6 (73)	20.0 (6)	35.1 (34)
Supervisor only	19.2 (5)	13.2 (17)	43.4 (13)	27.8 (27)
Committee of similar rank	<u>3.8 (1)</u>	<u>11.6 (15)</u>	<u>3.3 (1)</u>	<u>8.2 (8)</u>
Totals	100% (26)	100% (129)	100% (30)	100% (97)

Table 4-32

SUGGESTED COMPOSITION OF THE
SELECTION UNIT ACROSS COLLEGE

All male	1.8%	(6)
All female	.6	(2)
Majority male/minority female mix	2.4	(8)
Equal male/female mix	30.3	(99)
Majority female/minority male mix	0	(0)
Doesn't matter	64.9	(212)
Total	100%	
Number of cases (342)	Number of missing cases	(15)

Table 4-33

SUGGESTED COMPOSITION OF THE
SELECTION UNIT BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
All male	4.0% (5)	.5% (1)
All female	.8 (1)	.5 (1)
Majority male/minority female	4.0 (5)	1.5 (3)
Equal male/female	18.5 (23)	34.8 (74)
Majority female/minority male	0 (0)	0 (0)
Doesn't matter	72.1 (90)	59.7 (117)
Totals	100%	100%

Table 4-34

SUGGESTED COMPOSITION OF SELECTION UNIT BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
All male	0% (0)	1.5% (2)	3.4% (1)	3.2% (3)
All female	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2.1 (2)
Majority male/minority female	3.8 (1)	2.3 (3)	6.9 (2)	1.1 (1)
Equal male/female	7.7 (2)	30.1 (40)	24.1 (7)	37.9 (36)
Majority female/minority male	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Doesn't matter	<u>88.5 (23)</u>	<u>66.1 (88)</u>	<u>65.6 (19)</u>	<u>55.7 (53)</u>
Total	100% (26)	100% (133)	100% (29)	100% (95)

peer group representation on selection bodies, as compared with 52% of the males.

The sex composition of the selecting body appeared to be relatively unimportant to two thirds of college personnel. Of those to whom it did make a difference, twice as many women (38%) as men (18%) would have preferred an equal mixture of men and women on the selection committee. More men than women felt that the sex ratio did not matter (men - 72%, women - 60%). More faculty and support personnel preferred an equal mixture of men and women to be represented on the selection committee and more administrators (89%) than any other group said the composition did not matter. It may be that faculty and support groups, because they are unionized, are especially aware of the dynamics of the hiring process. The relative lack of interest among women in female representation in hiring bodies may relate to a tendency among some women to lack confidence in women's capabilities.⁹

5. Conclusion

We have seen that beliefs and values relating to the female role may be leading women to underestimate themselves and to be underestimated by male co-workers. Men are less willing to work for women supervisors. It is also interesting to note that more women (83%) than men (65%)

indicated a willingness to work for women. This supports research by Bennett and Loewe showing that previous work experience will change attitudes concerning female supervisors by both men and women.¹⁰ Stoll and Willett give reasons for the males' reluctance in accepting the female in the role of supervisor.¹¹ Studies of women as a minority in managerial positions reinforces the stereotype of the ineffective female supervisor.¹²

A substantial group of employees doubt whether women have a chance in competitions for managerial posts. Male employees believe women co-workers are handicapped by family responsibilities. In fact, very few women employees have young children. There is widespread uncertainty among both sexes as to whether hiring procedures are fair, but women show no special interest in the sex composition of hiring committees.

FOOTNOTES

1. During my working career, I have worked under the direct supervision of:

1. Females only
2. Males only
3. Both males and females

During my working career, I have worked with staff at levels comparable to my own who were:

1. Females only
2. Males only
3. Both males and females

During my working career, I have had experience supervising:

1. Females only
2. Males only
3. Both males and females
4. Neither; no supervisory experience

Some people feel more comfortable working with and/or for a particular sex. The next few items will deal with this issue

I would feel more comfortable working with women at my level.

1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided

See Appendix C, items 48-76 also.

2. I feel that women tend not to enter competitions for managerial positions

1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided

If Yes or Undecided to above, this is: (List reasons

in order of importance, using the blocks provided below reasons)

1. Because they are not encouraged to do so
2. Because they are not interested in assuming the required responsibilities
3. Because they have learned that this is not appropriate for a woman
4. Because they feel that they would not have a chance
5. Because they feel that they are not qualified
6. Other reason

3. I feel that woman's role as wife and mother makes it difficult for her to assume work duties

1. Yes
2. No
3. Sometimes
4. No opinion

If Yes or Sometimes to above, this is (List reasons in order of importance, using the blocks provided below reasons)

1. Because her primary commitment is to her family
2. Because society in general does not provide adequate support to assist her
3. Because her spouse does not always give her adequate support
4. There are not adequate day-care facilities
5. Because of the tension a wife's working sometimes causes between she and her husband
6. Because she may feel her expected income will not meet her expenses (i.e., make it "worth her while")
7. Other reason

4. Do you feel there have been discriminatory hiring procedures at Lakeside?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided

If yes to above is it due to (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)

1. Age
2. Sex
3. Race

4. Religion
5. Appearance and/or deportment
6. Physical handicap
7. Marital status
8. Two-income family
9. Other

5. P. M. Marchak, Ideological Perspectives In Canada, Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson, Ltd., 1975.

6. Do you feel that the hiring procedures at Lakeside have been clearly defined for people in your category (i.e., OPSEU, formerly CSAO, Support or Admin. Support or Faculty or Administration)

1. Yes
2. No

Generally speaking, do you feel that the hiring procedures at Lakeside have been clearly defined for others (The three categories to which you do not belong)

1. Yes
2. No
3. Don't know

7. R. M. Kanter, Another Voice.

8. Do you think positions within the college should be:

1. Advertised within and outside the college so best candidate is selected
2. Advertised only within allowing for upward mobility within the ranks
3. Advertised outside the college only after candidates have been interviewed from within the college
4. Filled by appointment

How do you feel selection of applicants should be made?

1. A selection committee of two or more people senior to the applicant
2. A selection committee of one or two people senior to the applicant and a person of similar rank to the applicant
3. No selection committee; only the applicant's supervisor
4. A selection committee, composed of people similar in rank to the applicant.

Do you feel the selection unit should be:

1. All male
 2. All female
 3. Majority male/minority female mix
 4. Equal male/female mix
 5. Majority female/minority male mix
 6. Doesn't matter
-
9. P. Goldberg, p. 171.
 10. J. E. Bennett and P. M. Loewe.
 11. M. Suelzle.
 12. R. M. Kanter, "Why Bosses Turn Bitchy."

CHAPTER V

WOMEN'S SOCIALIZATION AS A BARRIER TO WOMEN'S ADVANCEMENT IN THE ORGANIZATION

In this short chapter we consider the extent to which socialization with regard to ambition and career planning inhibit women's advancement. We explore men's and women's views on the importance of promotion and on the extent of their career planning.

We assume that interest in promotion reflects past socialization patterns with regard to work. There is much evidence that women are not socialized to be as committed to work as are men.¹

Our main hypothesis is that fewer women than men will be interested in promotion. We also suggest that fewer support staff women than faculty or administrators who are women will be interested in promotions.

Table 5-1 shows the importance of promotions to college employees. Less than one third (31.5%) indicate that a promotion is important to them. Sex differences are not statistically significant, but it is interesting that 35% of the women indicate a promotion is important to them as compared with only 28% of faculty and 15% of the administrators. However, Table 5-4 shows that when

Table 5-1

IMPORTANCE OF PROMOTION ACROSS COLLEGE BY PERCENT

Don't want one	15.0% (51)
Not very important	53.4 (181)
Important	<u>31.6 (107)</u>
Total	100% (339)
Total number of cases (342)	Missing cases (3)

Table 5-2

IMPORTANCE OF PROMOTION BY SEX

	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Don't want one	11.8% (15)	17.1% (35)
Not very important	59.9 (76)	48.3 (99)
Important	<u>28.3 (36)</u>	<u>34.6 (71)</u>
Total	100% (117)	100% (205)
chi ² = .114	d.f. = 2	

Table 5-3

IMPORTANCE OF PROMOTION BY POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Ad. Supp.</u>	<u>Support</u>
Don't want one	11.1% (3)	20.9% (28)	3.4% (1)	10.1% (10)
Not very important	74.1 (20)	55.2 (74)	48.3 (14)	41.4 (41)
Important	<u>14.8 (4)</u>	<u>23.9 (32)</u>	<u>48.3 (14)</u>	<u>48.5 (48)</u>
Totals	100% (27)	100% (134)	100% (29)	100% (99)
chi ² = .0001	d.f. = 6			

Table 5-4

IMPORTANCE OF A PROMOTION BY SEX CONTROLLING FOR POSITION

	<u>Admin.</u>		<u>Faculty</u>		<u>Admin. Support</u>		<u>Support</u>	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Don't want one	11.1% (2)	12.5% (1)	15.0% (9)	26.0% (19)	0% (0)	5.0% (1)	10.5% (2)	10.1% (8)
Not very important	77.8 (14)	62.5 (5)	61.7 (37)	49.3 (36)	50.0 (4)	45.0 (9)	26.3 (5)	44.3 (35)
Important	11.1 (2)	25.0 (2)	23.3 (14)	24.7 (18)	50.0 (4)	50.0 (10)	63.2 (12)	45.6 (36)
Totals	100% (18)	100% (8)	100% (60)	100% (73)	100% (8)	100% (20)	100% (19)	100% (79)
Chi ² =	.6438		.2415		.8062		.3356	
	Not significant		Not significant		Not significant		Not significant	
	d.f. = 2		d. f. = 2		d.f. = 2		d.f. = 2	

importance of promotion is cross-tabulated with sex; controlling for position, there are no significant differences between the sexes.

Interest in promotion was cross-tabulated with present work goal. Table 5-5 shows that of those who were not interested in promotion, the majority were fairly satisfied, while those who were interested in promotion generally wished either to take on managerial responsibility (67%) or to move out (53%). Table 5-6 shows that almost 47% of the people who indicated promotion was important had taken on responsibilities that were not job-related. They were four times as likely to have done this as people who indicated that promotion was not important to them.

Although our results are not statistically significant, it is interesting to note that both the support and the administrative support groups are nearly twice as desirous of promotion, as are faculty or administration.

Wages are far lower in the support group. If wages are very important to women workers, as research by Armstrong and Armstrong, and Kreps and Clark² and others does suggest, then promotion may be seen as a route to higher wages. Faculty, in particular, are viewed with envy because of their long holiday, 10 weeks per year with pay. This could account for the relatively small percentage of

Table 5-5

IMPORTANCE OF PROMOTION BY PRESENT WORK GOAL ACROSS COLLEGE BY PERCENT

	Move Out	Decrease In Responsibility	Satisfied	Change	Non-managerial Responsibility	Managerial Responsibility	Total
No	6.7% (2)	50.0% (3)	26.0% (40)	11.8% (2)	6.3% (4)	.0% (0)	(51)
Not very important	40.0 (12)	33.3 (2)	65.6 (101)	52.9 (9)	49.2 (31)	32.8 (21)	(176)
Important	<u>53.3 (16)</u>	<u>16.7 (1)</u>	<u>8.4 (13)</u>	<u>35.3 (6)</u>	<u>44.5 (28)</u>	<u>67.2 (43)</u>	<u>(107)</u>
Totals	<u>100% (30)</u>	<u>100% (6)</u>	<u>100% (154)</u>	<u>100% (17)</u>	<u>100% (63)</u>	<u>100% (64)</u>	<u>(334)</u>

Chi² = .0000

d.f. = 10

Table 5-6

IMPORTANCE OF PROMOTION BY CARRYING OUT NON-JOB-RELATED
RESPONSIBILITIES ACROSS COLLEGE BY PERCENT

	<u>Yes, Carried Out Responsibilities</u>	<u>No, Not Carried Out Responsibilities</u>
No	12.3% (14)	16.4% (36)
Not very important	40.4 (46)	60.0 (132)
Important	<u>47.3 (54)</u>	<u>23.6 (52)</u>
Totals	100% (114)	100% (220)
chi ² = .0001		
d.f. = 2		

faculty men and women (24%) who consider promotion important, and the larger number in support who indicate promotion is important.

Table 5-5 shows the characteristics of people who consider promotion important. These people either want managerial responsibility (67%) or want to move out of the organization. Morse³ and others discovered that those persons with high aspirations often appeared the most discontent and indicated their interest in leaving the organization.

As we have noted earlier, people who want promotions, appear to carry out many more non-job-related responsibilities than persons who do not want promotion. As one support interviewee noted, "If you want to get anywhere, you have to be prepared to do favours."

Research has shown that those in the lowest job categories may be particularly lacking in confidence and unaware of their own capabilities.⁴ These attitudes were apparent in the interviews with women in the support categories. "I don't feel I'm very good at anything." "Where I feel I fall short is about self-confidence. I'm not sure I could handle more responsibility." "It's hard to be above people you have worked with and I don't have enough confidence in my abilities." Other general comments were made by many interviewees: "Women need to be a little

more aggressive." "Women need more confidence."

Our data do not provide any consistent support for theories about the relative lack of ambition in women. Men and women are equally interested in promotion. However, interview material does suggest a lack of self-confidence among women in the lowest ranks in the organization. Lack of confidence in women and fears of leaving a friendship group have been explored by Horner and Kanter.⁵ Kanter's research shows that in closed peer groups, people are under pressure to remain loyal to their workmates.⁶ Women, in particular, those in the support group, are often part of such a closed peer group.

Our data on career planning may suggest lower future orientation among women. However, an equally valid interpretation is that women, because they hold less attractive positions, are less attached to their present jobs at Lakeside College than are their male counterparts.

FOOTNOTES

1. R. Turner., T. Caplow., E. Greenglass.
2. Armstrong and Armstrong., Kreps and Clark.
3. A detailed discussion of N. Morse's findings that high aspiration often leads to a decrease in job satisfaction may be found in G. Homans' Social Behaviour, pp. 274-276.
4. R. Turner., T. Caplow., E. Greenglass.
5. M. Horner., R. M. Kanter, Another Voice.
6. R. M. Kanter, Another Voice.

CHAPTER VI

RESPONSES TO BARRIERS

In this chapter we consider how men and women at different levels in the organization respond to the constraints in their work lives. We examine the extent of discontent in the organization and employees' plans for the future. Moving out is one possible response open to the discontented worker.

1. Extent of Contentment and Discontent

Responses from the questionnaire and interview material indicate that a vast majority of Lakeside employees find satisfaction in their work. Responses to a question on the extent to which employees enjoyed their working day were analyzed.¹ Table 6-1 shows that only 15% of the employees were "neutral" or found the working day "very unenjoyable." We discovered that sex and position are not significantly related to satisfaction. However, a number of variables are significantly related to level of satisfaction.

Our findings are summarized below. Employees who enjoy the working day are differentiated in the following

Table 6-1

PERCEPTION OF ENJOYMENT OF WORKING DAY ACROSS COLLEGE

Very enjoyable	29.2%	(100)
Enjoyable	54.7	(187)
Neutral	14.6	(50)
Unenjoyable	1.2	(4)
Very unenjoyable	.3	(1)
Total	100%	(342)
Total number of cases	(342)	
Missing cases	(0)	

Table 6-2

PERCEPTION OF ENJOYMENT OF WORKING DAY BY SEX

	Job Satisfaction			
	Male		Female	
Very enjoyable	30.2%	(39)	28.6%	(59)
Enjoyable	51.2	(66)	56.3	(115)
Neutral	17.0	(22)	13.6	(28)
Unenjoyable	1.6	(2)	1.0	(2)
Total	100%	(129)	100%	(206)

Table 6-3

PERCEPTION OF ENJOYMENT OF WORKING DAY BY POSITION

	<u>Administration</u>		<u>Faculty</u>		<u>Ad. Supp.</u>		<u>Support</u>	
Very enjoyable	29.6%	(8)	35.8%	(48)	23.3%	(7)	23.0%	(23)
Enjoyable	59.3	(16)	52.2	(70)	60.0	(18)	56.0	(56)
Neutral	11.1	(3)	11.2	(15)	16.7	(5)	17.0	(17)
Unenjoyable	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	4.0	(4)
Very unenjoyable	0	(0)	.7	(1)	0	(0)	0	(0)
Total	100%	(27)	100%	(134)	100%	(30)	100%	(100)

2

manner:

Employees with Higher
Satisfaction ExperiencedEmployees with Lower
Satisfaction Experienced

No interpersonal difficulties

Interpersonal difficulties

Low desire for promotion

High desire for promotion

Working for non-monetary
reasons

Working for remuneration

Work goal: change

Work goal: terminate

Commitment to career or/and
family

Commitment to family

Hiring procedures clearly
definedHiring procedures not
clearly defined

Performance evaluated

Performance not evaluated

Not asked to define family
commitmentsAsked to define family
commitments

No discrimination

Discrimination

Perceive equal opportunity

Perceive inequality of
sexesMobility unrelated to
cliquesPerceive mobility related
to cliques

Involved with colleagues

Non-involvement with
colleagues

Certain of future plans

Uncertain of future plans

Privileges equally dis-
tributedPrivileges unequally dis-
tributed

High income mobility

Low income mobility

(Difference of proportions were significant with χ^2 at the
.05 level.)

The question on perception of morale at the college was worded as follows:

At Lakeside College, do you feel employee morale is:

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Neutral
4. Bad
5. Very bad

Ten percent of the college personnel perceive morale as "bad" or "very bad." There were no overall sex differences among employees who perceived morale as "bad." There were statistically significant differences between occupational groups. Support groups found morale to be especially low.

Table 6-6 shows that 50% of the administrative support group rate morale as "neutral" or "bad," as do 38% of the support group. Among the administrators, only 14% hold these views as compared with 25% of the faculty.

Views on morale were found to be related to other variables. The findings are summarized on the following page. Support and administrative support groups perceived morale to be lower than did other groups, and since perception of low morale is directly related to lower job satisfaction, it is obvious that much of the discontent in the college will be found in these two groups. These two groups are nearly two-thirds female.

Table 6-4

PERCEPTION OF EMPLOYEE MORALE ACROSS COLLEGE

Very good	18.2%	(62)
Good	49.7	(169)
Neurtral	22.4	(76)
Bad	7.9	(27)
Very Bad	1.8	(6)
Total	100%	(340)
Total number of cases (342)		
Missing cases (2)		

Table 6-5

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES TO EMPLOYEE MORALE QUESTIONS BY SEX

	Morale			
		Male		Female
Very good	14.1%	(18)	21.0%	(43)
Good	53.9	(69)	47.3	(97)
Neutral	21.1	(27)	22.9	(47)
Bad	7.8	(10)	7.8	(16)
Very bad	3.1	(4)	1.0	(2)
Total	100%	(128)	100%	(205)

Table 6-6

PERCEPTION OF EMPLOYEE MORALE BY POSITION

	<u>Administration</u>		<u>Faculty</u>		<u>Ad. Supp.</u>		<u>Support</u>	
Very good	18.5%	(5)	21.8%	(29)	0%	(0)	17.2%	(17)
Good	66.7	(18)	52.6	(70)	50.0	(15)	44.4	(44)
Neutral	11.1	(3)	17.3	(23)	40.0	(12)	25.3	(25)
Bad	3.7	(1)	5.3	(7)	10.0	(3)	11.1	(11)
Very bad	0	(0)	3.0	(4)	0	(0)	2.0	(2)
Total	100%	(27)	100%	(133)	100%	(30)	100%	(99)

<u>Employees with High Morale</u> ³	<u>Employees with Low Morale</u> ³
Administrators, faculty	Administrative support staff
Older employees	Younger employees
Low desire for promotion	High desire for promotion
Work goal: satisfied	Work goal: terminate employment
Encouraged to seek advancement	Not encouraged to seek advancement
Hiring procedures clearly defined	Hiring procedures not clearly defined
Mobility not hindered	Mobility hindered
No discrimination	Discriminated against
Mobility unrelated to cliques	Mobility related to cliques
Involved with colleagues	Non-involvement with colleagues

(Differences of proportions were significant with χ^2 at the .05 level.)

Perceptions of employee morale did indicate that those employees in support positions felt morale to be lower than either faculty or administrators. Kanter notes that non-promotable employees, whether male or female, find themselves more discontented than promotable employees.⁴ Although the questionnaire responses support Kanter's theory, it is also important to remember that the

support groups who do perceive college morale as lower are 60-65% female. The variables related to perceived lower morale include those persons who have not been encouraged to seek advancement, supporting Kanter's findings,⁵ along with those people who saw their mobility hindered and perceived discrimination.

Morale was perceived as higher among older employees. They are mostly male and found predominantly among faculty and administrative groups (See Appendix B).

A further investigation of job satisfaction for all college employees is examined in Appendix D.

"Mobility" can be divided in two categories for discussion: (1) mobility out, and (2) mobility up (inside the organization). "Mobility out" is another indicator of discontent among employees.⁶ A desire to move "out" was indicated by 8.9% of the responses. A profile of those who responded in this way reveals:⁷

- (a) They are not long-term employees,
- (b) They have not been encouraged to seek advancement,
- (c) They felt hiring procedures are not clearly defined,
- (d) They felt there are discriminatory hiring procedures,
- (e) They perceive barriers to advancement in the college,
- (f) They have been asked to carry out responsibilities not related to their job function,

(g) They are willing to attend evening or week-end meetings.

(Differences of proportions were significant with χ^2 at the .05 level.)

Administrators and faculty are more satisfied with their present position than support employees and administrative support employees. Most of those who intend to move out are support and administrative support employees, both male and female. These people perceive they cannot move up.

Another set of questions adds to our information about mobility: "What do you see yourself doing in (0-2), (3-5), (6-10), (11-15) years?"⁸ We discovered several important trends: In any given time span, moving "out" is always higher for males than for females. As to moving "up," the anticipation rate is constant by sex until the 6-10 year period, at which time more men see themselves as having moved "up." As to "working in present position," the 0-2 years is the critical time frame; where many more men than women see themselves staying in their present positions, the women tend to see themselves as "continuing their education or employed full or part-time."

There is a strong relationship between age and position. The older employees are mostly found in the faculty and administrative groups (see Appendix B). These

groups are largely male and tend to see themselves as either moving up in the organization or moving out. Females, on the other hand, are much more uncertain about their futures, and more become uncertain as the period for planning lengthens. For both men and women, uncertainty peaks at middle age, (see Table 6-7). The interviews tend to support these findings.⁹

Although "moving out" does appear to be related to position more than sex, it is interesting to note that more men than women see themselves as "moving out." Perhaps socialization theory could explain this finding. If men do not experience the promotions they expect, they may be more willing to move in order to satisfy their higher career aspirations than their female counterparts.¹⁰

In response to the question, "What do you see yourself doing in (0-2), (6-10), (11-15) years, in the 0-2 year time frame women see themselves continuing their education while men appear to be more satisfied to remain in their present positions.

Since more men than women have better education (see Appendix B) and could perceive themselves as promotable,¹¹ women could see themselves pursuing their educations, perhaps to enhance chances for promotion.

The desire for promotion, as discussed in Chapter 5, does not appear to be limited to men. Twenty-five percent of both male and female faculty desire promotion

as do 50% of male and female administrative support staff. The percentages of the support groups desiring promotions is 63% male and 46% female. Since some administrative support are sometimes termed first-line supervisors, it is understandable these persons would be somewhat interested in promotion. Their chances for promotion may also be better than those in the support groups and this may also explain the equal interest of males and females in this occupational category. Women will be more interested in promotion if their chances for receiving it are good.¹²

Of those respondents in the questionnaire who desired to move out (8.9%), the data again is supportive of Kanter's findings, which reveal that non-promotable employees often are less motivated than those who perceive better chances for advancement. The data also reveals that it is employees found in support groups who intend to move out of the organization, not faculty or administration.

The older male employees may see themselves as promotable (moving up) or as moving out (retiring). In contrast, the women who are younger, with less years experience and education, found mostly in support groups (see Appendix B) do not see themselves as promotable and are not certain about their future plans. Socialization theory would suggest reasons to explain women's perceptions concerning their attitudes to mobility and uncertainty of

Table 6-7
FUTURE ORIENTATION BY SEX

	0 - 2 Yrs.		3 - 5 Yrs.		6 - 10 Yrs.		11 - 15 Yrs.	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Retired	3.1%	.5%	7.0%	2.0%	7.9%	9.9%	19.0%	16.4%
Working in my present position	45.0	29.8	17.2	15.3	7.9	5.9	3.2	4.0
Working at a higher position in the same organization	17.8	20.9	21.1	19.7	20.6	13.4	16.7	9.0
Working in another organization or self-employed	14.7	9.3	28.1	12.8	34.9	13.9	21.0	13.4
Not employed; continuing my education	.8	2.4	-	1.0	-	.5	-	-
Employed; full-time or part-time; continuing my education full-time or part-time	5.4	14.6	4.7	9.9	1.6	7.9	3.2	6.5
Staying at home to raise a family	-	2.0	-	6.4	-	6.9	-	2.5
Not employed for reasons other than 1, 5, and 7	1	1.2	-	1.5	-	2.0	-	2.0
Uncertain	13.2	19.5	21.9	31.5	27.0	39.0	36.5	46.3
Totals	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	N=129	N=205	N=128	N=203	N=126	N=202	N=126	N=200

plans for the future.¹³ In conclusion, our research indicates a high percentage of contented employees exists at this particular college.

The future plans of college employees were also examined. Since moving up and out are possible responses to perceived barriers to advancement in the organization, the results of the question relating to future plans was important to determine those employees who were planning to move out of the college system. Although sex differences in job satisfaction did not prove to be statistically significant, position did appear to relate to employee morale. Since moving up and out are possible responses to perceived barriers to advancement in the organization, the results of the question relating to future plans was important to determine those employees who were planning to move out of the college system. Although sex differences in job satisfaction did not prove to be statistically significant, position did appear to relate to employee morale. Since more people in the support groups than faculty or administration perceived morale to be low, and since support groups are two-thirds female, it is not difficult to conclude that some women are more discontented than are men.

FOOTNOTES

1. Some people find they enjoy their working days: others do not find them as enjoyable. How do you feel about your working day?
 1. Very enjoyable
 2. Enjoyable
 3. Neutral
 4. Unenjoyable
 5. Very unenjoyable
2. See questionnaire items 39, 43, 31, 35, 36, 101, 123, 132, 133, 148, 154, 158, 177-180, 197.
3. See questionnaire items 6, 35, 43, 93, 101-102, 125, 142, 154, 158.
4. Kanter, Another Voice.
5. Ibid.
6. What is your present work goal? (Select one only)
 1. I want a decrease in responsibilities
 2. I am satisfied with my present position
 3. I want a similar level or responsibility, but a different type of work (i.e., a "change")
 4. I want to assume more responsibility, but not managerial
 5. I want to assume managerial responsibilities
 6. I am more interested in moving to another organization/job than in staying at Lakeside
7. See questionnaire items 23-24, 93, 101-102, 103, 125, 139, 160.
8. What do you see yourself doing in 0-2 years? (Select one only) (3-5)(6-10)(11-15)
 1. Retired
 2. Working in my present position
 3. Working at a higher position in the same organization
 4. Working in another organization or self employed
 5. Not employed; continuing my education

6. Employed full-time or part-time; continuing my education full-time or part-time
 7. Staying in the home to raise a family
 8. Not employed for reasons other than 1, 5, and 7
 9. Uncertain
9. Interview remarks regarding uncertainty - middle age. As one middle-aged male faculty admitted, "I don't really have a charted course; I would like to quit in two to five years and maybe live off the land and do odd jobs." Or as another mentioned, "I just take one year at a time." One middle-aged female faculty commented, "I wouldn't actively seek another job, I would wait until I was asked."
10. Turner.
 11. Kanter, Another Voice.
 12. Marchak, Ideological Perspectives on Canada, and Kanter, Another Voice.
 13. Caplow., Greenglass., Horner.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The present study examined the work roles of men and women in a community college. We examined variables relating to the structure of the organization, considering variables such as perceptions of hiring policies for both men and women in all occupational groupings. There were four main groupings -- administrators, administrative support, faculty, and support staff. In addition, we analyzed variables that allowed us to explore cognitive issues such as perceptions of discrimination by both men and women at various levels in the organization.

Finally, socialization variables were briefly examined. We considered the importance of promotions to men and women at all levels of the organization. In addition, possible responses to these barriers, in terms of moving out or up and levels of job satisfaction for men and women in various occupational groupings were also examined.

Previous studies of organizations have concentrated specifically on the roles of men and women in organizations as they have related to particular organizational issues, such as productivity, or the designing of efficient goals.

R. Kanter has noted the development of a growing body of research examining women's differential socialization within organizations. However, little research exists on the patterned work relationships between men and women. Research on organizations has clearly indicated that perceptions of structure and, indeed, the very structure of the organization itself, will vary according to the position of the employee within the hierarchy. Since research reveals that beliefs and values vary with the organizational position and the sex of the employee, our research dealt with many organizational issues as independent variables.

Our research revealed some interesting findings concerning structural factors such as hiring and promotion practices. Almost all employees were selected for their jobs by their supervisors. Those few persons who were selected by committees tended to be male faculty. More administrative than support staff women were selected in this manner. The description of the college (Appendix B) reveals that more men than women hold supervisory positions. It is therefore apparent that more men have been responsible for hiring. Descriptions of the composition of the staff, in terms of sex, also supports the conclusion that men have most often hired other men, predominantly through selection by supervisors only, rather than by committees.

Research has supported this pattern of males favouring the hiring of males. Women may well have faced unfair hiring practices which could have subtle implications for their work careers. Some qualified women may have been overlooked for particular positions and some may even have been classified inappropriately when hired. Interview remarks also supported the conclusions that many males in supervisory positions hold damaging stereotypes of women, particularly of those women who take on positions of authority.

Nepotism, as a structural constraint for women, was also examined. The college policy appeared to be ambiguous. Almost half the college staff felt a policy preventing the hiring of relatives was unfair. Since the numbers who had applied to have a spouse or other relative work at the college was small, the only conclusion which could be supported by the data was the ambiguity of the college policy as well as the response by college personnel as to the fairness of the policy.

Promotion procedures for all ranks were examined. Rug-ranking, or the process of classifying the secretary's work as a function of the person for whom she works, was examined in interviews. This procedure was criticized by many women in the support groups as being an unfair promotion policy. For many women who may have many added

job responsibilities but who do not work for deans, the possibilities of advancing may be very limited indeed.

Re-classification or a change of status within the classification scheme for the support staff was also examined through interviews. In the interviews, many women, particularly those in administrative support positions, said that they felt locked in to their present positions. Since no men occupy secretarial positions in the college, no comparisons between rug-ranking practices and reclassification practices could be made.

As could be expected, many female administrators were critical of hiring procedures within their group. Movement upward, even in this group, is largely controlled by upper level male management. Ultimately, it is the males in the organization who have the power to make major decisions and who hold the top positions in the organizational hierarchy.

We expected to find fewer women than men who had moved up the organizational ladder. We were, however, surprised to discover that two-thirds of the college employees had not moved at all since their arrival to the college system. Even more striking was the fact that almost twice as many men as women were content to stay in their present positions.

Administrators, more than any other group, felt employees were being validly turned down for promotion.

Support staff felt that candidates for new positions were already pre-selected by management. Since most persons were appointed by supervisors, and since administrators are also the supervisors who do the appointing, it is obvious that each group would perceive the hiring and promotion procedures differently.

More men than women revealed an awareness of their salaries although certain occupational groupings tended to be less aware than others. In some cases, remarks made in interviews support the conclusion that the male administrators have kept many of the administrative support group (predominantly female) unaware of salary and routes to promotion, perhaps to thwart attempts to move up in the organization. Female faculty also seem somewhat less aware of salaries than males and socialization variables were mentioned as a possible explanation for this pattern.

Extent of encouragement to advance was also examined. Almost one half of the college population, both male and female, reported no encouragement to advance. The only indication of encouragement was the assignment of extra job responsibilities. Several employees hoped these additions of extra work would lead to future job advancement. However, earlier, our findings refute the notion that extra work very often is rewarded by upward mobility. (As we have said, two thirds of the employees reported no movement upwards.)

We also examined beliefs and values concerning

organizational matters. Willingness to work for female managers was explored in the research. We discovered about one-quarter more females than males willing to work for females. Characteristically, few employees had worked for females, although it was discovered that those who had such experience were less likely to feel uncomfortable having a female supervisor. This finding would suggest that an increase in number over the present 14% of female administrators in the college would have a positive effect on attitudinal changes to the beliefs concerning females in power positions, for both males and females. Lack of encouragement was listed as a major reason for few females entering competitions for managerial positions. From the research findings, lack of encouragement to advance was also apparent for males as well as females, particularly among the lower ranks.

It is striking that males and females perceive women's dual roles of wife/mother role as being directly in conflict with the work role twice as frequently as did women. If these men held administrative positions, these stereotyped attitudes could effectively eliminate women competing with men for jobs with added responsibilities. Although it is difficult to fully tap stereotypes, either through interview remarks or in a questionnaire, these beliefs and values, held by men and women could be particularly damaging to women's career ambitions.

To further support the findings that various occupational groupings perceive issues differently, perceptions of discrimination in hiring were examined. Only four percent of administrators perceived discrimination, while 25% of the other occupational groupings felt that discrimination did exist. The same conclusion could be reached concerning the matter of clarity in hiring procedures. Only the administrators felt hiring policies for other job categories were clear.

All employees indicated they would prefer positions to be filled by application rather than by appointment. This is a rather surprising belief in light of earlier findings. Our research showed that large numbers of college personnel had been appointed to positions and a large number of administrators, particularly, who felt no discrimination or lack of clarity concerning hiring policy existed.

The importance of a promotion to all college personnel was examined as indicators of women's socialization patterns. We discovered that there were few sex differences. Men and women were equally interested in promotion, and support personnel were more desirous of promotion than were faculty or administrators. Our research refuted the commonly-held belief that women are not interested in moving up in the organization.

When dealing with levels of contentment in the organization, there were some rather interesting discoveries. Only 10% of the college population felt morale was bad and 15% did not feel they enjoyed their working day. The profile of the unhappy worker was typical but, considering the multitude of organizational issues which have been discussed earlier as unclear or confusing, or unfair, it is rather amazing that so few college employees, male or female, in all job categories, indicated feelings of discontent.

A further examination of the discontented worker revealed that this person was likely to have been a short-term employee and had perceived many unfair organizational procedures. The position of the employee did relate, somewhat, to a prospective move out of the organization. The support employees, male and female, as would be expected, were found to be more interested in leaving the organization than were administrators or faculty.

In terms of future plans, men did appear to see themselves moving "out" more than women. Women appeared to have less confidence in their potential to move up in the organization and either saw themselves as moving out to pursue an education soon, or were uncertain of plans as the period for planning their futures lengthened.

Our research showed the effects of sex and

position, as dependent variables, on a variety of organizational issues chosen as independent variables. In some cases, the effect of position acted as an intervening variable, which, in effect, cancelled the effect of sex acting on the variable. In other cases, position did not interfere with the significant correlation between sex with the independent variable being examined. For this reason, it is important, when researching the area of women as workers, that both sex and position be studied both independently and as related factors. It is also important to emphasize the pyramidal structure of the organization; few workers -- male or female -- reach the top of the organizational hierarchy. Some persons will always be left to fill less meaningful, and less remunerative jobs. Our research was an attempt to document some of the perceptions of workers at the top, middle and bottom of the hierarchy to certain organizational issues; and finally to analyze these perceptions in terms of job satisfaction and employee morale. Our intention in this research study was to add to the long-neglected area of research as to:

the ways in which women have been connected to organizations and have operated within them; and whether these ways differ from those of men.¹

Suggestions for Further Research

Our case study of one organization does not allow comparisons with other organizations. A comparison of the findings from this survey with similar surveys conducted in other types of organizations would be valuable.

Further examination of the belief systems held by male and female workers would clarify some of the ambiguities, the confusions, and the contradictions revealed in this study. For example, it would be interesting to further pursue administrators' perceptions of organizational policy to verify our preliminary findings. Further lengthy interviews of male support personnel could shed light as to the similarities in response between men and women in this occupational category.

Job satisfaction could be examined more thoroughly. A Likert scale could be incorporated into the questionnaire in order to more accurately reveal perceptions of job satisfaction.

Our study originally was designed as part of a "Status of Women Report" for the college and, hence, was not specifically designed to investigate all the issues raised in this thesis. In addition, the small number of women in one occupational category -- administrators -- and the equally small numbers of men in administrative support, make comparisons within these groups extremely

difficult. A case study also has limitations, since it cannot be compared with others of a similar nature.

FOOTNOTES

1. R. M. Kanter, Another Voice, p. 34

APPENDIX A

Table 1-2

SUMMARY OF TRENDS IN THE PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
OF WORKING WOMEN FOR CLERICAL AND PERSONAL OCCUPATIONS

	<u>1901</u>	<u>1911</u>	<u>1921</u>	<u>1931</u>	<u>1961</u>
Clerical	5.3	9.4	18.7	17.7	28.6
Personal	42.0	37.1	25.8	33.8	22.1

Source: Janice Adon, Penny Goldsmith, Bonnie Shepard, ed.,
Women at Work Ontario 1850-1930, Canadian Women's
Educational Press, Toronto: 1974, p. 297.

Table 1-3

LEADING FEMALE OCCUPATIONS, 1971

<u>Occupations</u>	<u>Female percentage of occupations</u>	<u>Percentage of all female workers</u>
Stenographers & typists	96.9	12.3
Secretaries & stenographers(4111)	97.4	9.1
Typists & clerk-typists(4113)	95.6	3.2
Salespersons	51.0 *	6.7
Salesmen & salespersons, commodities	21.8	0.6
Sales clerks, commodities(5137)	66.0	6.0
Service station attendants(5145)	4.3	-
Personal service workers	93.5	3.4
Chambermaids & housemen(6133)	95.5	0.5
Babysitters(6147)	96.6	0.8
Personal service workers(6149)	92.2	2.1
Teachers	66.0	6.4
Elementary & kindergarten(2731)	82.3	4.5
Secondary school(2733)	44.5	1.9
Fabricating, assembling, & repairing textiles, fur and leather products	76.0	3.4
Foremen(8550)	27.4	0.1
Patternmaking, marking & cutting (8551)	32.6	0.1
Tailors & dressmakers(8553)	73.0	0.6
Furriers(8555)	48.8	-
Milliners, hat & cap makers(8557)	37.4	-
Sewing machine operators, textile & similar materials(8563)	90.1	2.2
Inspecting, testing, grading, and sampling(8566)	84.1	0.1
Fabricating, assembling, and repairing.(8569)	72.3	0.3
Graduate nurses	95.4	3.9
Supervisors, nursing occupations(3130)	92.8	0.5
Nurses, graduate, except sup.(3131)	95.8	3.4

Table 1-3 (continued)

<u>Occupations</u>	<u>Female percentage of occupations</u>	<u>Percentage of all female workers</u>
Waiters and bartenders	76.6	4.1
Waiters, hostesses, & stewards food & beverage(6125)	82.9	4.0
Bartenders(6123)	14.5	0.1
Nursing assistants, aides & orderlies	79.2	2.9
Nursing assistants(3134)	91.9	0.9
Nursing aides & orderlies(3135)	74.4	2.0
Telephone operators(4175)	95.9	1.2
Janitors, charworkers, & cleaners (6191)	<u>32.4</u>	<u>2.1</u>
Totals * (5135)	72.0	46.4

Source: H. Armstrong and P. Armstrong, The Segregated Participation of Women in the Labour Force, 1941-71
 Rev. Canad. Soc. & Anth./Canada. Rev. Soc. & Anth.
 12(4) Part 1, 1975, p. 374.

From: 1971 Census, Vol 3.2, Table 8.

Table 1-5

THE CANADIAN POPULATION AND LABOUR FORCE

	1881	1891	1901	1911	1921
Total population	4,306,118	4,801,071	5,318,606	7,179,650	8,775,853
Labour force	1,377,585	1,606,369	1,782,832	2,723,634	3,164,348
Female labour force		195,990	237,949	364,821	489,058
Women as percentage of labour force		11.07	13.3	13.4	15.5
	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971
Total population	10,363,240	11,489,713	13,984,329	18,200,621	21,568,310
Labour force	3,917,612	4,195,591	5,214,913	6,342,289	8,631,000
Female labour force	665,302	832,840	1,163,893	1,760,450	2,831,000
Women as percentage of labour force	17.0	18.5	22.0	27.3	33.3

Source: Women in the Labour Force 1971: Facts and Figures, Women's Bureau, Labour Canada,

From: Janice Adon, Penny Goldsmith, Bonnie Sheperd, ed., Women at Work Ontario 1850 - 1930, Canadian Women's Educational Press, Toronto: 1974, p. 268.

Table 1-6

POPULATION AND LABOUR FORCE, SHOWING NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
BY SEX AND PARTICIPATION RATES BY SEX, CANADA, 1964, 1969 and 1974

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Population</u>		<u>Labour force</u>		<u>Participation rate</u>
	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage distribution</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage distribution</u>	
	'000	%	'000	%	%
			<u>1964</u>		
Women	6,466	50.4	1,972	28.4	30.5
Men	6,351	49.6	4,961	71.6	78.1
Total	12,817	100.0	6,933	100.0	54.1
			<u>1969</u>		
Women	7,383	50.4	2,602	31.9	35.2
Men	7,255	49.6	5,560	68.1	76.6
Total	14,638	100.0	8,162	100.0	55.8
			<u>1974</u>		
Women	8,368	50.5	3,324	34.4	39.7
Men	8,194	49.5	6,338	65.6	77.3
Total	16,562	100.0	9,662	100.0	58.3

Source: Women in the Labour Force: Facts and Figures, 1975 edition, p. 5.

From: 1964 and 1969: Statistics Canada (D.B.S.), Labour Division Labour Force Survey Section, Special Tables - 12 Month Averages (mimeographed), Table 1 in the Special Tables for 1964 and 1969.
1974: Data from Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division.

Table 1-7

POPULATION AND LABOUR FORCE, BY SEX, 1964 and 1974,
SHOWING NUMERICAL AND PERCENTAGE INCREASE, 1964 to
1974, CANADA

Population and Labour force			<u>Increase 1964-1974</u>	
	1964	1974	Number	Percentage
	'000	'000	'000	%
Women				
Population	6,466	8,368	1,902	29.4
Labour force	1,972	3,324	1,352	68.6
Men				
Population	6,351	8,194	1,843	29.0
Labour force	4,961	6,338	1,344	24.8
Total				
Population	12,817	16,562	3,745	29.2
Labour force	6,933	9,662	2,729	39.4

Source: Women in the Labour Force: Facts and Figures, 1975
edition, p. 5.

From: 1961 Census, Labour Force: Occupation and
Industry Trends 1966 (Cat. 94-551), Tables 1, 8,
and 8B.

Table 1-8

FEMALE WORKERS IN SELECTED
PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL OCCUPATIONS, 1971

<u>Occupation</u>	<u>Female Percentage of occupation</u>	<u>Percentage of all female workers</u>
Dental hygienists, assistants, and technicians(3157)	76.6	0.3
Social workers(2331)	53.4	0.2
Librarians & archivists(2351)	76.4	0.2
Physiotherapists, occupational, & other therapists(3137)	81.6	0.2
University teachers(2711)	16.7	0.1
Physicians & surgeons(3111)	10.1	0.1
Pharmacists(3151)	23.1	0.1
Psychologists(2315)	47.2	0.1
Dietitians & nutritionists(3152)	95.3	0.1
Lawyers & notaries(2343)	4.8	-
Industrial engineers(2145)	3.3	-
Dentists(3113)	4.7	-
Totals	29.0	1.5

Source: Armstrong and Armstrong, p. 377.

From: 1971 Census, Vol. 3.2, Table 8.

Table 1-9

1970 AVERAGE INCOMES FOR MEN AND WOMEN FROM THE LARGEST FEMALE OCCUPATIONS OF 1971

<u>Occupation</u>	<u>Average income for men</u>	<u>Average income for women</u>	<u>Women's income as a percentage of men's income</u>
All occupations	\$6574	\$3199	48.7
Secretaries & stenographers(4111)	7312	3952	54.0
Sales clerks, commodities(5137)	4262	1803	42.3
Bookkeepers & accounting clerks(4131)	5828	3660	62.8
Elementary & kindergarten teachers(2731)	7041	5378	76.4
Waiters(6125)	2992	1442	48.2
Tellers & cashiers(4133)	3813	2325	61.0
Farm workers(7182)	1784	1322	74.1
Nurses, except supervisors(3131)	5795	4566	78.8
Typists & clerk-typists(4113)	5110	3066	60.0
General office clerks(4197)	5364	3326	62.2
Sewing machine operators(8563)	4663	2660	57.0
Personal service workers, (6149)	2583	1554	60.2
Janitors(6191)	4220	1892	44.3
Nursing adies & orderlies(3135)	4839	3069	63.3
Secondary school teachers(2733)	9152	6762	73.9
Other clerical workers(4199)	5552	3032	54.9
Receptionists & information clerks(4171)	4144	2805	67.7
Chefs & cooks(6121)	4000	2299	57.5
Packaging workers(9317)	3524	2520	71.5
Barbers and haridressers(6143)	4655	2627	56.4
Telephone operators(4175)	4480	3108	69.4
Library & file clerks(4161)	3850	2847	73.9

Note: Included are all the occupations which in 1971 contained at least 1.0 percent of the female labour force. The occupations are listed in the order of the number of women in them. Only those workers with some employment income are included in the calculations of average income.

Source: Armstrong and Armstrong, p. 378.
From: 1971 Census, Vol. 3.6, Table 14.

Table 1-10

MARRIED WOMEN IN THE LABOUR FORCE, 1941-71

Year	Participation rate of married women*	Marital status of female workers (in percentages)		
		Single	Married*	Other*
1941	4.5	80.0	12.7	7.3
1951	11.2	62.1	30.0	7.9
1961	20.8	42.5	47.3	10.3
1971	33.0	34.4	56.7	9.0

* For 1941 and 1951, separated women are included with married women, while for 1961 and 1971 the are included in the Other category, that is, along with widows and divorced women.

Source: Armstrong and Armstrong, p. 379.

From: For 1941 and 1951, Canada, Ministère du Travail, Division de la main d'oeuvre féminine, La Femme Canadienne au Travail, Publication No. 11, Ottawa: Imprimeur de la Reine, 1957, pp. 10 and 13. For 1961 and 1971, Canada, Labour Canada, Women's Bureau, Women in the Labour Force 1971: Facts and Figures, Tables 9 and 10.

Table 1-13

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, BY AGE AND SEX, CANADA,
SELECTED YEARS, 1921-71 (percentages)

Age	1921		1931		1941		1951		1961		1971	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
14-19*	68	30	57	27	55	27	54	34	41	32	47	37
20-24	94	40	94	47	93	47	94	49	94	51	87	63
24-34	98	20	99	24	99	28	98	25	98	29	93	45
35-64	97	12	97	13	96	15	95	20	95	30	89	42
65+	60	7	57	6	48	6	40	5	31	6	24	8
Total**	90	20	87	22	86	23	84	24	81	29	76	40

* For 1971 the youngest age group is 15-19

** Although not available for the separate age groups, the total participation rates for males and females in 1901 are 88 and 16, respectively, and 91 and 19 in 1911.

Source: M. Gunderson, Opportunity for Choice, p. 97.

From: Sylvia Ostry and F. Denton, Historical Estimates of the Canadian Labour Force, 1961 Census Monograph (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1967) for 1921-1961. Figures for 1971 computed from 1971 Census Canada, Labour Force and Individual Income, Cat. No. 94-704, Bulletin 3 1-4, October, 1974, Table 9.

Table 1-14

PARTICIPATION RATES OF WOMEN AND MEN IN THE LABOUR FORCE BY MARITAL STATUS AND AGE GROUP, SHOWING THE PARTICIPATION RATE OF WOMEN AND MEN AGED 20 to 64, CANADA, 1974

Marital status	14-19 years	20-24 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55-64 years	65 years & over	20-64 years
Single								
Women		78.1	86.1	80.2	76.7	63.1	13.3	78.9
Men	45.7	81.4	90.3	89.1	82.7	63.5	18.2	83.3
Married								
Women	41.5	51.3	39.8	43.1	38.8	23.3	3.3	39.4
Men		95.3	98.2	98.3	95.6	82.6	20.0	94.8
Others*								
Women	51.4	56.3	60.1	63.8	60.1	39.8	3.1	53.0
Men	**	95.2	96.5	92.5	88.5	70.3	8.3	95.2
Total								
Women	36.7	63.0	46.5	46.7	43.4	29.7	4.2	46.1
Men	46.3	86.1	96.6	97.4	94.3	80.3	17.8	92.1

* Widowed, divorced or separated

** Number upon which a percentage would be based is too small to be reliable.

Source: Women in the Labour Force: Facts and Figures, 1975 edition, p. 33.

From: Data from Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division,
Facts and Figures, 1975, p. 33.

Table 1-15

NUMBER OF WORKING WIVES IN HUSBAND-WIFE FAMILIES BY AGE OF CHILDREN, TOTAL NUMBER OF HUSBAND-WIFE FAMILIES AND PARTICIPATION RATES*, CANADA, 1971 CENSUS.

Age of children	H-W Families with wife in labour force	Husband-Wife families	Participation rate
			%
No children	519,455	1,369,775	37.9
Under 6 only	196,885	701,670	28.1
Under 6 & 6-14	135,140	554,695	24.4
Under 6 & 15-24	7,525	25,390	29.6
Under 6, 6-14 & 15-24	34,875	146,695	23.8
Total under 6	374,425	1,428,450	26.2
6-14 only	221,210	554,330	39.9
6-14 and under 6	135,140	554,695	24.4
6-14 and 15-24	226,370	597,485	37.9
6-14, 0-5 & 15-24	34,875	146,695	23.8
Total 6-14	617,595	1,853,205	33.3
15-24 only	197,045	492,990	40.0
15-24 and under 15	261,245	744,180	35.1
Total 15-24	458,290	1,237,170	37.0
Total husband- wife families	1,569,240	4,605,485	34.1

* Husband-wife families with wife in the labour force as a percentage of all husband-wife families, for each category of age of children.

Source: Women in the Labour Force: Facts and Figures, 1975 edition, p. 279

From: Unpublished data from the 1971 Census of Canada, Statistics Canada, Census Field.

Table 1-16

NUMBER OF ONE-PARENT FAMILIES HEADED BY WORKING WOMEN BY AGE OF CHILDREN, TOTAL NUMBER OF FEMALE-HEADED FAMILIES, AND PARTICIPATION RATES*, CANADA, 1971 CENSUS

Age of children	Female-headed one-parent families with head in labour force	Female-headed one-parent families	Participation rate
			%
Under 6 only	19,615	41,215	47.6
Under 6 & 6-14	9,160	26,960	34.0
Under 6 & 15-24	1,225	3,030	40.4
Under 6, 6-14 & 15-24	2,385	8,720	27.4
Total under 6	32,385	79,925	40.5
6-14 only	36,850	62,690	58.8
6-14 & under 6	9,160	26,960	34.0
6-14 & 15-24	25,665	51,810	49.5
6-14, 0-5 & 15-24	2,385	8,720	27.4
Total 6-14	74,060	150,180	49.3
15-24 only	48,970	85,655	57.2
15-24 & under 15	28,050	60,530	46.3
Total 15-24	77,020	146,185	52.7
Total one-parent female-headed families	161,740	370,825	43.6

* Female-headed families with the head in the labour force as a percentage of all female-headed families, for each category of age of children.

Source: Women in the Labour Force: Facts and Figures, p. 277

From: Unpublished data from the 1971 Census of Canada, Statistics Canada, Census Field.

Table 1-17

PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYED LABOUR FORCE USUALLY WORKING 35 HOURS OR MORE A WEEK, WHO WERE NOT AT WORK BECAUSE OF ILLNESS, BY TIME NOT AT WORK AND SEX, CANADA, 1964 and 1974

Time not at work	Percentage (of employed labour force usually working 35 hours or more a week) who were ill			
	Women		Men	
	1964*	1974	1964*	1974
	%	%	%	%
Ill for a whole week	1.26	1.86	1.51	1.98
Ill for part of a week**	1.00	1.40	0.62	0.89
Total	2.26	3.26	2.13	2.87
(Number in thousands: 100%)+	(1,502)	(2,364)	(4,499)	(5,608)

* The figures upon which the percentages for 1964 are based, have not been revised to take into account the 1961 Census counts of population.

** The period of illness could have been longer. But this represents the portion of the survey week during which persons were not at work because of illness.

+ The employed labour force usually working 35 hours or more a week.

Source: Women in the Labour Force: Facts and Figures, 1975 edition, p. 41.

From: Statistics Canada (D.B.S.). Labour Division, Labour Force Survey Section, Special Tables, - 12 Month Averages (mimeographed), Table 3(a) in the Special Tables for 1964.

APPENDIX B

1. Characteristics of Questionnaire Respondents

1. 639 questionnaires were distributed: 363 were returned, 20 were incomplete, 342 were used for analysis. Full-time employee response was as follows:

	Questionnaires Issued		Questionnaires Received	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Administrators	51	11	34 (69%)	3 (31%)
Faculty	150	90	67 (45%)	48 (55%)
Admin. Support	22	43	7 (31%)	30 (69%)
OPSEU Support	58	88	12 (20%)	71 (80%)
Part-time Employees		126	14 (29%)	34 (71%)

The overall response was 60% female, 40% male. In all categories except administrators, under 50% of the males responded, and in all categories except administrators, over 50% of the females responded.

2. Only one-quarter (25%) of our respondents was under 30, of these 82% was female; three-quarters of our respondents was over 30, about 57% was female; 16% of our respondents was over 50, 40% of these was female.

3. Sixty-five percent of our respondents came from Campus 1; of this group 64% was female; 13.5% of our respondents came from Campus 2, 51% of these was male.
4. Of our respondents, three-quarters reported being permanent, full-time employees. This group was divided 60% female, 40% male. Of the 8.3% reported as being probationary, 62% was female, 38% was male. Of the 13.8% reported being part-time, 71% was female and 29% was male. In checking on Position, 71% of the part-time respondents was faculty and 23.5% was OPSEU Support.
5. Respondents who were full-time employees reported on present personal gross salary from Sheridan. Forty-seven percent reported "under \$12,000," of these, 80% was female and were found in faculty, admin. support, and OPSEU support. Forty-four percent reported "\$12,000 to \$22,000." and the majority of these was found in administration and faculty. Nine percent reported earning "over \$24,000," of these 22% was female and was found in faculty and administration.
6. Twenty percent indicated a family income under \$15,000, 55.3% indicated a family income under \$30,000 but over \$15,000; and 24.6% indicated an income over \$30,000. This indicates that 80% of the families represented at Lakeside have a gross family

income of over \$15,000, with 25% of the families receiving over \$30,000. About half of our respondents (44%) report the family income is from both themselves and a spouse employed full-time; 38% indicated the income was from "themselves only."

7. Females reported income from "themselves and a spouse employed full-time" more than did the males (67%). Males reported "themselves only" as sources of income (53.5%), or "themselves plus a spouse working part-time" (27%). Females reported "themselves only" (30%).
8. Sixty-six percent of our respondents was married. The national statistics show about 63% of the work force are married. Nine percent of our respondents was separated or divorced, 18% was single as compared with 30% as a national average.*
9. Eighty percent of our respondents had a religious affiliation with 56.6% reporting a Protestant affiliation.
10. No children under 2 was reported by 85% of our respondents, 82% reported no children 2-4, 56% reported no children 5-17, and 45% reported no children dependent on them.
11. Twenty-nine percent reported spouse working at a

* Labour Canada, Women's Bureau, Facts and Figures, 1975 edition, p. 31.

"professional" occupation, 16% reported spouse working at a "service occupation, 10% reported spouse in a "management" occupation. In the faculty group, more women reported spouses in "management" (24.5%) than did men. More faculty women reported their spouses in the "professions" than did men (63%). In support, 24% of the women who responded reported their husbands in "management," and 20% reported their husbands in "professional" occupations. Admin. support responses were too low to give a statistical reading.

12. Of the respondents, 52.6% had worked at Lakeside "under 3 years," 86% reported "6 years and under," while only 1.7% reported "7-9 years." Of those who reported working "3 years or less," 66.3% was female and 75% of these was in the support group. The majority of those who had been here "6 years and under" was female and was also found in the admin. support group. Of those who had been here "7-9 years" the vast majority was administrators and male.
13. Examining "length of time out of the work force since first job" we found: only 50% had been out of the work force; 22% of the respondents said under 3 years; 7.8% reported 4-6 years, of this group 77% was female; 4% reported 7-9 years, of this group 100% was female; 15% reported 10-12 years, 100% was female; 3.7%

reported 13-15 years, 100% was female; 1.7% reported 16-18 years, 100% was female; 1.7% reported 19-21 years, 84% was female; .9% reported 22-24 years, 100% was female; and .6% reported 24 years, of which 100% was female.

14. The reasons for staying out of the work force were also significant; 25% of our respondents reported "family obligations." All of these were women.

2. Profile of the College

The governing structure of the college is as follows: the Board of Governors, the Officers of the Corporation, the Executive, the Academic Council, and the Cabinet. Of these, only the Board of Governors decides policy. The others are advisory in capacity, reporting directly or indirectly to the Officers of the Corporation, who, in turn, report to the Board of Governors.

The Board of Governors is a twelve-member body currently composed of eight men and four women. Since the inception of the college, women have been appointed to the Board, but the number of women board members has increased appreciably since 1974. In 1975, the number of women on the Board doubled, from two to four, and in 1976 a woman was elected Vice-Chairperson.

The four Officers of the Corporation are: the President, two Vice-Presidents, and the Controller. All of

these are men who report directly to the Board.

The Executive is a seven-member body comprised of: the President, two Vice-Presidents, the Treasurer, Dean of Community Services, Dean of Student Services, and the Dean of Administration. The Executive acts in an advisory, non-legislative capacity to the President and is called at his discretion. All of the positions on the Executive are currently filled by men.

The Academic Council includes the directors and deans of post-secondary divisions in the college. The Council advises the Officers of the Corporation on academic matters. It is a non-legislative, 18-member body, with one woman member.

The Cabinet includes representatives from all the divisions in the college, both post-secondary and non-post-secondary. This means that individuals who are members of the Academic Council are also members of the Cabinet. The Cabinet, like the other bodies, performs a non-legislative, advisory function. It reports to the Officers of the Corporation. Of the twenty-two members of the Cabinet, two are women -- one is Director of Nursing and the other is Director of Retraining.

In total there are 63 positions in policy-making or advisory bodies in the college. Seven of these are filled by women. This means that women hold 11% of the

decision-making or advisory positions. It should be noted that four of these seven positions are on the Board of Governors, and are therefore held by women from the community. The other three positions are filled by two women from within Lakeside College.

In total, then, there are 62 positions in policy making within the schools and departments, and of these decision-making positions, no woman has power above the director position.

If we total administrators plus Board of Governors, we find 59 men and 15 women, 74 in all. The 15 women, while holding 20% of the positions, are within departments and, except for Board of Governors, their decisions have to be approved by senior management.

At the next level of the organization is faculty: full-time teachers fulfilling the majority of teaching functions. Thirty-eight percent of faculty is female and 62% is male. Of these full-time faculty, 33 men fulfill the duty of co-ordinator in addition to their teaching function and 20 women fulfill the co-ordinator function in addition to teaching. Thus, of the males, 22% are co-ordinators and of the females, 20% are co-ordinators.

Part-time hourly rated members of post-secondary faculty total 63 and are divided as follows: 27 males, and 36 females. A number of this group teach between

7 and 12 hours per week.

Males form 43% of part-time faculty and females form 57%. It should be noted that, of the full-time faculty, the majority is male; and of the part-time faculty, the majority is female.

At the third level of organization are the Administrative Support employees who are not OPSEU members because they handle confidential material. This group totals 65 employees of which one-third is male and two-thirds is female.

Support staff forms the fourth group in the organization. This group consists of non-academic support employees covered by membership in OPSEU (non-academic). Amongst the OPSEU support staff, 41% is male while 59% is female.

Hiring, Promotion and Salaries

The salary structure was investigated in the college as it relates to career patterns consisting of age profiles, educational backgrounds, job categories and school divisions, relevant experience and vertical mobility within the college.

These components were examined for the years 1970-1975 because no data was available from the Ministry of Colleges and Universities for the period prior to 1970. Some data, going back to the beginning of the college and

relating to positions filled each year, were supplied by the college personnel department. Anonymous computerized personnel information, together with questionnaire and interview responses were used.

Across the college, the average earnings of all males exceeds the average earnings of all females by \$6,000. A further breakdown shows that wherever males are found in the same job categories as females, male salaries exceed female salaries by differences up to \$4,000. In order to understand and to partially account for these differentials, the historical development of the college was examined in terms of divisions, job categories and classifications.

Hiring, Promotion and Salaries of Administrators

While 59% of the total employees of the college is female, less than 14% of the administrators (both teaching and non-teaching) is female. "Males tend to hire males at Lakeside" and this is amply reflected in the small percentage of female administrators. The female administration personnel are found in the Library, Nursing, Secreatrial Science, Department of Child Studies, Centre for Women, Student Services and Continuing Education departments. The majority of these administrators are found in traditionally female fields.

For the first three years of our data (1970, 1971,

and 1972) there were no females in administration and during the last three years (1973, 1974 and 1975) six females were added, according to Ministry sources. Our own personnel sources add other females in administration for a total of 11. This is about 14% of the total. In working through differences in various records, the college personnel records were much more useful for statistical analysis. The Ministry's classification system is somewhat different from that of the college.

Since the male administrators have been in that position for longer than the six years under study, and the majority of women administrators have joined administration only within the last three years, it is understandable that male salaries would average more. There are too few female administrators to produce a publishable average salary figure in individual categories but there does exist a cross-category computed differential of \$3,000 in favour of the males. In other words, the historical pattern has been that males were hired first, but when females were hired, their salaries compared favourably with their male counterparts in similarly described job categories.

However, salaries for administrators in this college are determined by a system known as "Hay-rating." There are 63 employees who are "Hay-rated" at Lakeside and of these, 11 are female. Apparently the job description,

with the supervisor's approval, goes to a Hay Committee for placement on a chart which ranks the job and the salary range. The Lakeside Hay Committee consists of nine male administrators, two of whom are appointed by the Board of Governors and seven of whom are elected by the Administrative Staff Association. The Committee is 100% male although women have been approached to serve on this committee. The Administrative Staff Association is 68% male and 32% female.

Hiring, Promotion and Salaries of Faculty

It is interesting to note that the ratio of men to women on faculty is 62% male to 38% female which is almost in direct inverse proportion to the ratios of men to women in the student body, 39% male to 61% female.

The analyses used data that was available for all regular full-time faculty members at Lakeside College from the Mark IV Report available from the Ministry of Colleges and Universities for the years 1967 through 1975. It was decided to use data from multiple years rather than from a single year, in order to attain more realistically the practices of the college over this time period.

The faculty sample excluded part-time or sessional persons; and deans and other senior administrative personnel who hold academic positions. During the first three years of the college, many more males than females were

hired. By 1970, the group of females increased to approximately 40% of the faculty hirings and by 1972, with the addition of the School of Nursing, more females than males were hired (56% female hirings).

By 1975, the number of women hired reached 72% of all faculty hired. Overall, however, in the nine years since the beginning of the college, 178 males were hired and 116 females.

Within the full-time faculty, there are several male-dominated schools, divisions and departments:

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male % of Total</u>
Technology	16	0	100%
School of Design	11	1	92
Community Services	19	8	70
Visual Arts	27	12	69
English and Media Studies	25	11	69
Athletics and Counselling	6	4	60
Applied Arts, Liberal Studies, and Journalism	29	20	59
Business, including Computer Studies	15	11	58

Source: College Records

There is only one other school and it is female-dominated: Nursing.

It was noted that the Business Department accounts for its large number of female faculty in the Secretarial

Science Department and Applied Arts accounts for the majority of its female faculty in the Department of Child Studies.

For years 1970 - 1975, the increase of female faculty is steady, going from 19 in 1970 to 94 in 1974 and dropping back to 89 in 1975. These figures are for full-time faculty.

The sex ratio of the faculty within these divisions of the college reflects the past cultural sex differences in occupations in Canada, and did reflect the student enrollment by sex. However, the student enrollment pattern is changing, e.g., at the School of Design, 70% of the student body is female but the faculty remains 92% male, 8% female. There was no great influx of female faculty into the Schools of Design, English and Media Studies, and Technology.

Faculty Salaries

The salary levels and range for faculty is established by negotiation between the OPSEU (Academic) and Council of Regents negotiating provincially. The categories used in this analysis were those in effect up to September 1, 1975, when the new contract revised the classification of faculty into two groups only; masters and instructors. We have not used any data regarding faculty from the period covered by the new classification.

The salary data from 1970 - 1975 shows a differential in favour of males between male and female average salary for every teaching category with one exception in 1971 in the "Other Teaching Position" category.

In analysing the factors which might account for this differential, the Task Force looked at age, date of hiring, educational qualifications, possible discriminatory practices, teaching administrators, and co-ordinators.

a. Age

An examination of the average age shows that male faculty are older than female faculty at every level and that the differences range from 2 to 14 years.

b. Date of Hiring

The female faculty has begun to increase only recently (1972) and they are, therefore, credited with a lesser number of years in the college than male faculty.

c. Educational Qualifications

The chart of educational qualifications indicates more males than females receiving the Masters and Doctorate allowances. The males have more teaching and other related experience and have been at Lakeside longer (except in Affiliate Master category) in addition to being older and having more degrees. Since females tend to enter Lakeside with less experience at a later date than males on the average, the cumulative effect will be less for females.

d. Co-ordinators

Co-ordinators function both as teaching faculty and as administrators of programs, field work or other student-related concerns. There are several categories of co-ordinators. The co-ordinator allowance is in addition to regular teaching salary and is based on the kind of administrative function and number of students. The co-ordinator allowances were included in the salary average and therefore influence the male/female differential.

The male/female balance at the co-ordinator level is interesting. Of 148 male, full-time faculty, 22% are co-ordinators, while for 90 female, full-time faculty, 20% are co-ordinators. Here an equal percentage carry out administrative responsibilities.

Salaries, Hiring and Promotion of Administrative Support Group

Among the administrative support group of employees, we find 35% male and 65% female over all grades. There are more females employed at the lower grade level and the proportion of males increases as the grade level increases. We have been advised that the difference between administrative support and OPSEU support groups is that the administrative support employees handle "confidential material" or serve as first-line supervisors.

Across the grades, the average earnings of all males exceeds the average earnings of all females by \$680.

(1975 salary figures, from college records)

Within each grade classification, there are five levels through which an employee moves, according to length of service, reaching top of the grade (maximum) in three years. The majority of the females (72%) are in grades 1-4 which are the lowest salary grades, and the majority of male employees (86%) are in levels 4-8, or the highest salary grades.

The average age of the females is 39.3 and the average age of the males is 35.9, showing that younger men are in the higher salaried grades.

The average years of service for females is 4.4 and for males is 3.95. The overall picture then appears that younger men with less years of service are earning the higher salaries.

Grades 1-3 are secretaries of various kinds, grade 4 includes some secretaries and various kinds of officers and technicians, grade 5-8 includes executive secretaries, analysts, supervisors and technical co-ordinators of various kinds. Within the first four grades, where the secretaries were clustered, "rug-ranking" was obvious.

Table B-1

AGE DISTRIBUTION BY POSITION IN SAMPLE

	<u>Admin.</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Admin. Support</u>	<u>OPSEU Support</u>
(0-29)	-	21.8	33.3	39.3
(30-44)	37.0	54.9	33.3	35.4
(45 and over)	63.0	23.3	33.3	25.3

Table B-2

SALARY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND POSITION

	<u>Under 12 Thous.</u>		<u>12-24 Thous.</u>		<u>Over 24 Thous.</u>	
	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
Admin.	1	-	8	7	9	1
Faculty	6	18	45	51	9	3
Admin. Supp.	5	17	4	3	-	-
OPSEU Supp.	16	74	5	3	-	-
	28	109	62	64	18	4
	47%		44%		9%	

Table B-3

ADMINISTRATIVE CATEGORIES BY SEX (1975)

<u>Title</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Dean	8	0
Director	16	3
Chairman (non-teaching)	1	0
Chairman (teaching)	2	0
Other (academic)	8	4
Other Non-academic	<u>12</u>	<u>4</u>
Total	47	11

Source: Personnel Report

Table B-4

FEMALE REPRESENTATION ON DECISION-MAKING BODIES

	<u>Total Membership</u>	<u>No. of Males</u>	<u>No. of Females</u>	<u>% of Female Representation</u>
Board of Governors	12	8*	4**	33.3%
Officers of the Corporation	4	4	-	-
Executive of the College	7	7	-	-
+Academic Council	18	17	1	5.6
++Cabinet	22	20	2	9.1

* indicates chairperson

** indicates vice-chairperson

+ indicates rotating chairperson

++ indicates rotating chairperson

Source: Presidential Documents

Table B-5
FACULTY CATEGORIES BY SEX (1975-October)

<u>Position</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Master	91	52
Associate Master	30	20
Assistant Master	12	8
Affiliate Master	4	2
Other Teaching	<u>13</u>	<u>8</u>
TOTAL	150	90

Source: Mark IV: Ministry of Colleges and Universities

Table B-6
ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT GRADES BY SEX (1975)

<u>Grade</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
1	0	4
2	1	9
3	1	12
4	1	6
5	4	5
6	4	4
7	7	3
8	<u>4</u>	<u>0</u>
Total	22	43

Source: Personnel Report

Table B-7
 OPSEU CLASSIFICATIONS BY SEX (1975)

<u>Class</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Clerk 1, General	3	27
Clerk 2, General	1	5
Clerk 3, General	1	1
Sub-total	5	33
Typist Stenographer 1	0	0
Typist Stenographer 2	0	7
Typist Stenographer 3	0	5
Sub-total	0	12
Secretary 1	0	17
Secretary 2	0	1
Sub-total	0	18
Switchboard Operator 1	0	3
Switchboard Operator 2	0	1
Sub-total	0	4
Technician 1	0	0
Technician 2	10	7
Technician 3	12	0
Sub-total	22	7
Technologist 1	1	2
Technologist 2	3	0
Technologist 3	3	0
Sub-total	7	2
Total	34	76

Source: The Ministry

Table B-8
ADMINISTRATOR CATEGORIES BY SEX (1970-1975)

<u>Position</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Dean	1972	2	-
	1973	8	-
	1974	8	-
	1975	8	-
Chairman	1970	8	-
	1971	8	-
	1972	8	-
	1973	5	-
	1974	9	1
	1975	2	-
Assistant Chairman	1970	4	-
	1971	4	-
	1972	3	-
Director	1973	6	1
	1974	6	1
	1975	5	2
Chairman (Non-Teaching)	1974	5	-
	1975	3	-
Assistant Chairman (Non-Teaching)	1974	2	-

Source: The Ministry

Table B-9

RANK AT WHICH POSITION WAS FILLED BY EACH SEX

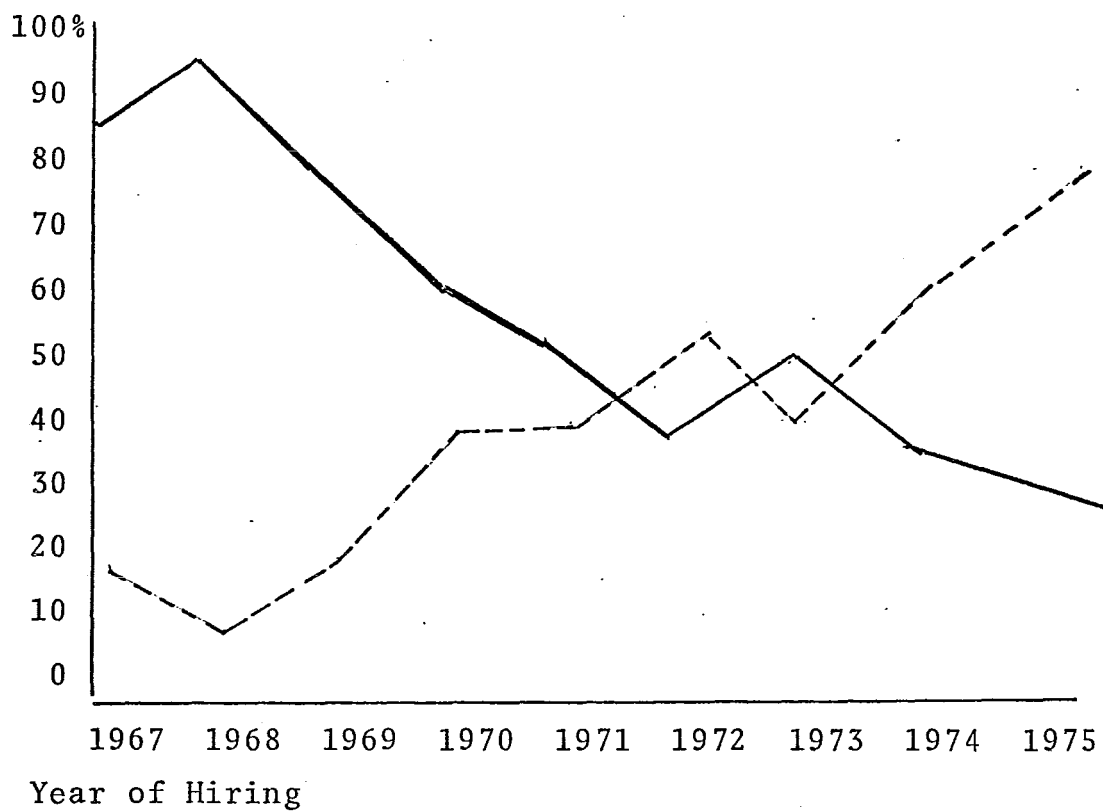
<u>MALE</u>					
<u>Year</u>	<u>Master</u>	<u>Assoc. Master</u>	<u>Asst. Master</u>	<u>Affil. Master</u>	<u>Other</u>
1967	10	3	0	0	0
1968	13	11	9	0	0
1969	12	6	3	0	2
1970	18	3	3	3	1
1971	9	5	3	0	0
1972	15	1	0	1	0
1973	8	7	1	3	4
1974	8	4	4	1	2
1975	3	0	2	0	0
Total	96	40	25	8	9
<u>FEMALE</u>					
<u>Year</u>	<u>Master</u>	<u>Assoc. Master</u>	<u>Asst. Master</u>	<u>Affil. Master</u>	<u>Other</u>
1967	3	0	0	0	0
1968	1	2	0	0	0
1969	5	2	0	0	0
1970	5	1	0	1	1
1971	3	6	4	0	0
1972	19	1	0	1	0
1973	3	6	2	0	6
1974	19	6	5	0	1
1975	7	3	1	0	2
Total	65	27	12	2	10

Source: Personnel Report

Figure B-1

FULL-TIME FACULTY APPOINTMENTS (1967-1975)
PERCENT HIRED EACH YEAR

Percent Hired



Male —————
Female - - - - -

Source: Personnel Report

Table B-10
SEX DIFFERENCES IN APPOINTMENTS

Year	No. of Positions Filled	No. of Males Hired	% Males Hired	No. of Females Hired	% Females Hired
1967	16	13	81	3	19
1968	36	33	92	3	9
1969	30	23	77	7	23
1970	36	28	78	8	22
1971	30	17	57	13	43
1972	38	17	45	21	55
1973	40	23	57	17	42
1974	50	19	38	31	62
1975	18	5	28	13	72

Source: Personnel Report

Table B-11
NUMBER OF FULL-TIME FACULTY BY SEX, 1970-1975

Division	Master	Assoc. Master	Assist. Master	Affil. Master	Other	Total
<u>1970 - Male</u>						
Applied Arts+	10	2	3		1	
Business*	12	1				
School of Design	4		1			
Technology	10	3	1			
Visual Arts	5	11				
Communications	10	1				
Total	51	18	5		1	75
<u>1970 - Female</u>						
Applied Arts+	2					
Business*	3			1		
School of Design	2					
Technology						
Visual Arts	3	5				
Communications	3					
Total	13	5		1		19
<u>1971 - Male</u>						
Applied Arts+	15	2	3		1	
Business*	14	3				
School of Design	4	1	1			
Technology	11	3	1			
Visual Arts	5	12				
Communications	14	1				
Lakeshore					4	
Milton/Malton	11	3			12	
Total	74	25	5		17	121

Table B-11 (continued)

Division	Master	Assoc. Master	Assist. Master	Affil. Master	Other	Total
<u>1971 - Female</u>						
Applied Arts +	2					
Business *	6	1		1		
School of Design	2					
Technology						
Visual Arts						
Communications	4					
Lakeshore				1		
Milton/Malton	3	8				
	17	9		2		28
<u>1972 - Male</u>						
Applied Arts+	14	2	3			
Business *	10	4				
School of Design	6	2	1			
Technology	11	3	1			
Visual Arts	5	11				
Communications	14	1				
Lakeshore					1	
Milton/Malton					9	
Campus 2	2					
Campus 1	8					
	70	23	5		10	108

Table B-11 (continued)

Division	Master	Assoc. Master	Assist. Master	Affil. Master	Other	Total
<u>1972 - Female</u>						
Applied Arts+	3					
Business *	4	1		1		
School of Design	2	1				
Technology						
Visual Arts	2	6				
Communications	3					
Lakeshore						
Milton/Malton						
Campus 2	2					
Campus 1	8					
	24	8		1		33
<u>1973 - Male</u>						
Applied Arts +	18	5			1	
Business *	13	1	1			
School of Design	7	1	2			
Technology	12	3	1			
Visual Arts	3	17	5		1	
Communications	18	1	2			
Nursing						
Burl/Lakeshore	2	1				
Milton/Malton		3	3	5	2	
Campus 2			3			
Campus 1	4	1				
Total	77	33	17	5	4	136

Table B-11 (continued)

Division	Master	Assoc. Master	Assist. Master	Affil. Master	Other	Total
<u>1973 - Female</u>						
Applied Arts +	6	3	1		2	
Business *	3	6	2	1		
School of D.	1	1				1
Technology						
Visual Arts	2	5	2		2	
Communications	5	1	1			
Nursing	22	3				
Burl/Lakeshore				1		
Milton/Malton						
Campus 2						
Campus 1			1			
Total	39	19	7	2	5	72
<u>1974 - Male</u>						
Applied Arts+	17	3		1	1	
Business*	11	5	1			
Sch. of Design	8	2	1			
Technology	11	3	1			
Milton		3	5	4		
Visual Arts	3	19	4		1	
Communications	16	3	2			
Nursing						
Lakeshore/Burl.	1	1	1		1	
Total	67	39	15	5	3	129

Table B-11 (continued)

Division	Master	Assoc. Master	Assist. Master	Affil. Master	Other	Total
<u>1974 - Female</u>						
Applied Arts +	9	3	2		1	
Business*	4	6	6	1	1	
Sch. of Design	1	1			1	
Visual Arts	3	5	2		2	
Communications	8	1	2			
Nursing	26	3	1			
Lakeshore/Burl.	2	1	1	1		
Total	53	20	14	2	5	94
<u>1975 - Male</u>						
Applied Arts+	22	4	1			
Business*	15	2	2			
Sch. of Design	7	2	1		1	
Technology	13	2	1			
Milton		4	5	3		
Visual Arts	3	19	5		1	
Communications	24	2				
Burl./Lakeshore	4	2	1			
Total	88	37	16	3	2	146
<u>1975 - Female</u>						
Applied Arts +	10	4	3			
Business*	7	4	6			
Sch. of Design		1				
Visual Arts	2	7	3			
Communications	7	1	3			
Burl/Lakeshore	2	1	2			
Nursing	21	4	1			
Total	49	22	18			89

* includes EDP; + includes Journalism and Advertising
Source: The Ministry

Table B-12

RATIO OF PERCENTAGE OF MALE/FEMALE FACULTY TO PERCENTAGE OF MALE/FEMALE STUDENTS, BY DIVISION (1975)

Program	Faculty		Students	
	Male %	Female %	Male %	Female %
Applied Arts*	59%	41%	39%	61%
Business+	58	42	47	53
School of Design	92	8	20	70
Technology	100		86	14
Communications (English & Media Studies)	69	31	39	61
Visual Arts	69	31	67	33

* includes Journalism and Advertising

+ includes EDP and Secretarial Science

Source: The Ministry

Table B-13
DISTRIBUTION OF SALARY BY CATEGORY AND SEX FOR YEARS
1970-1975

<u>Year</u>	<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>		<u>M-F Differences</u>
	<u>No. of Faculty</u>	<u>Average Salary</u>	<u>No. of Faculty</u>	<u>Average Salary</u>	
<u>Master</u>					
1970	51	\$12,483	13	\$11,821	\$ 662
1971	63	13,025	17	12,200	825
1972	72	14,538	24	13,124	1,414
1973	79	15,533	39	12,879	2,654
1974	75	18,209	53	13,860	4,349
1975	91	20,978	50	17,636	3,342
<u>Associate Master</u>					
1970	19	11,927	5	9,673	2,254
1971	23	12,473	9	9,540	2,938
1972	23	14,355	8	12,217	2,138
1973	36	14,947	17	12,517	2,430
1974	38	17,589	21	14,263	3,326
1975	36	20,879	22	16,293	4,586
<u>Assistant Master</u>					
1970	5	10,600			
1971	5	11,682			
1972	4	14,065			
1973	17	13,346	9	12,450	896
1974	18	14,498	14	14,314	184
1975	18	17,625	18	16,339	1,286
<u>Affiliate Master</u>					
1970			1	6,805	
1971			1	7,613	
1972			1	9,040	
1973	5	12,411	2	10,467	1,944
1974	5	12,973	2	12,379	594
1975	3	16,750			
<u>Other (Teaching Positions)</u>					
1970	1	7,500			
1971	17	10,069	1	11,166	-1,097
1972	10	11,627	1	7,950	3,677
1973	4	12,944	5	13,494	550
1974	5	14,516	9	15,614	1,098
1975	3	15,117	1	10,192	4,925

Source: The Ministry

Table B-14

AVERAGE AGE DISTRIBUTION BY CATEGORY AND SEX
FOR THE PERIOD 1970-1975

Year	Master			Associate Master		
	Male	Female	M - F Diff.	Male	Female	M - F Diff.
1970	39.32	36.65	2.67	39.45	30.50	8.95
1971	39.71	35.21	4.50	41.80	37.16	4.64
1972	40.36	35.50	4.86	42.24	34.25	7.00
1973	39.74	34.60	5.14	39.66	33.44	5.22
1974	40.10	35.41	4.69	39.97	35.26	4.71
1975	40.17	36.69	3.48	41.88	36.86	5.02
	Assistant Master			Affiliate Master		
1970	32.42				20.50	
1971	32.50				21.50	
1972	35.50				22.50	
1973	38.74	37.17	1.57	42.50	30.50	12
1974	39.38	36.93	2.45	44.50	30.50	14
1975	40.50	36.61	3.89	43.83		

Source: The Ministry

Table B-15

DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE BY
CATEGORY AND SEX FOR 1970-1975

Education	Master		Assoc. Master		Assist. Master		Affil. Master		Other	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1970										
Ph. D.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M. A.	22	6	1	-	-	-	-	6	-	-
Hons. B.A.	14	3	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-
B.A.	9	3	4	-	-	-	-	2	-	1
Prof. Deg.	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other Prof. Deg.	1	1	8	5	-	2	-	3	-	-
CAAT	3	-	-	-	-	2	1	1	-	-
Craft.	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
None	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	5
Total	50	13	17	5	-	4	1	15	1	6

Table B-15 (Continued)

Education	Master		Assoc. Master		Assist. Master		Affil. Master		Other	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
<u>1971</u>										
Ph. D.	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
M.A.	26	8	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hons. B.A.	18	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
B.A.	11	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
Prof. Deg.	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other										
Prof. Deg.	1	1	12	3	2	-	-	-	-	-
CAAT	-	1	-	-	2	-	-	1	3	-
Craft.	3	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	5	-
Other	-	-	3	-	1	-	-	-	2	-
None	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	4	1
Total	62	13	23	4	5	-	-	-	17	1
<u>1972</u>										
Ph. D.	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M.A.	28	7	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hons. B.A.	19	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
B.A.	12	7	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Prof. Deg.	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other										
Prof. Deg.	1	-	11	6	-	-	-	-	-	-
CAAT	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Craft.	4	1	3	-	-	-	-	1	3	-
Other	2	3	4	1	-	-	-	-	6	-
None	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
Total	72	23	23	8	-	-	-	1	10	-
<u>1973</u>										
Ph. D.	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M.A.	32	7	2	1	-	-	-	-	1	2
Hons. B.A.	23	22	3	1	2	-	-	-	-	-
B.A.	15	6	5	6	-	4	-	-	-	2
Prof. Deg.	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other										
Prof. Deg.	2	2	10	8	3	1	-	-	-	-
CAAT	1	-	5	2	3	-	1	1	2	1
Craft.	1	-	6	1	4	3	1	-	1	-
Other	-	1	5	-	5	-	3	-	-	-
None	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	79	39	36	19	17	8	5	2	4	5

Table B-15 (Continued)

Education	Master		Assoc. Master		Assist. Master		Affil. Master		Other	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
<u>1974</u>										
Ph. D.	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M.A.	32	10	2	1	1	1	-	-	3	4
Hons. B.A.	20	19	4	2	1	-	-	-	-	-
B.A.	14	17	5	7	1	4	-	-	1	3
Prof. Deg.	4	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Deg. (Other)	1	-	10	7	3	1	-	-	-	-
CAAT	2	2	6	3	4	3	1	1	1	2
Craft.	-	-	8	-	4	-	2	-	-	-
Other	-	1	3	7	4	5	2	1	-	-
Total	75	50	38	27	18	14	5	2	5	9
<u>1975</u>										
Ph.D.	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M.A.	41	9	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Hons. B.A.	21	15	2	3	1	-	-	-	1	-
B.A.	18	17	4	5	1	4	-	-	-	-
Prof. Deg.	5	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Deg. (Other)	3	2	9	7	2	1	-	-	1	-
CAAT	1	1	7	4	6	4	1	-	1	-
Craft.	-	-	10	1	3	1	1	-	-	-
Other	-	1	3	1	5	7	1	-	-	1
None	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	91	50	36	22	18	18	3	0	3	1

Source: The Ministry, SF Report

Table B-16

PRESENT PROFILE OF KEY CHARACTERISTICS FOR FACULTY BY CATEGORY AND SEX (1975)

	Master		Assoc. Master		Assist. Master		Affil. Master		Other	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Average Age	41.9	35.2	41.7	37.4	41.9	31.5	41.5	29.5	38	36.4
Average Teach. Exp.	3.3	2.3	2.2	1.7	1.9	2.8	0	0	0.5	1.1
Other Teach. Exp.	7.9	3.7	12.1	8.1	13	5.4	10.3	1	8.4	5.5
<u>Degrees</u>										
Masters	41	9	2	1	1	1	-	-	-	2
Ph.D.	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Honour B.A.	20	16	2	2	1	-	-	-	1	-
Pass B.A.	14	16	6	6	1	1	-	-	4	2
Prof. Degree	4	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Other	2	3	3	2	2	1	3	1	-	1
CAAT Dip.	3	1	4	2	3	4	-	1	2	1
Craft Ex.	2	1	3	-	2	-	1	-	6	1
Other Prof. Cert.	3	-	10	7	1	1	-	-	-	-
Time Between Starting Date & Grad. (Aver)	7.6	5.4	7.2	8.9	9.8	3.9	3.1	.1	7.7	5.1
Years at Sheridan (Aver.)	5.0	3.1	5.3	3.1	3.4	1.4	2.6	4.2	4.9	1.2
Total	91	53	30	20	11	8	4	2	13	8

Source: The Ministry

Table B-17
EXPERIENCE EFFECT ON SALARY

	<u>Starting Year</u>								Payment Years for Experience at Lakeside
	<u>1967</u>	<u>1968</u>	<u>1969</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1972</u>	<u>1973</u>	<u>1974</u>	
1968	400	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1969	822	400	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1970	1,295	848	424	-	-	-	-	-	-
1971	1,799	1,316	858	400	-	-	-	-	-
1972	2,298	1,788	1,405	822	400	-	-	-	-
1973	2,882	2,331	1,917	1,288	832	400	-	-	-
1974	3,771	3,146	2,676	1,962	1,444	954	500	-	-
1975 (March)	3,884	3,240	2,757	2,020	1,488	983	515	-	-
1975	4,869	4,144	3,600	2,773	2,173	1,605	1,079	500	-

Source: Administration Files

Table B-18

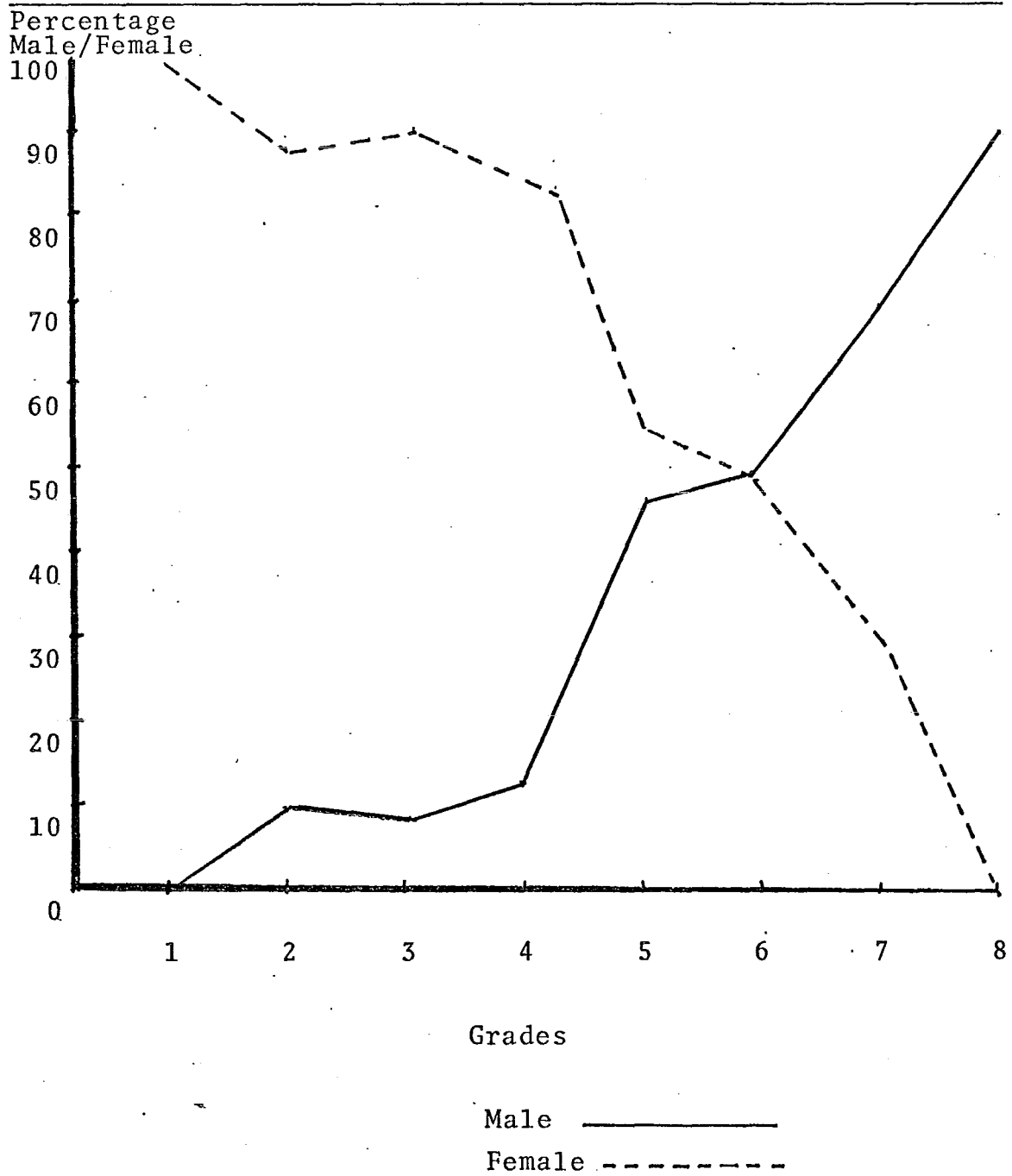
ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT AVERAGE SALARIES,
YEARS OF SERVICE, AGE, BY GRADE AND SEX

Grade	<u>Males</u>				<u>Females</u>			
	No.	Average Salary	Average Age	Average Years Service	No.	Average Salary	Average Age	Average Years Service
1.	-	-	-	-	4	8,257.00	42	2
2.	1	8,584.00	24	1	9	9,076.33	40	4
3.	1	9,875.00	26	2	12	9,715.00	35	5
4.	1	9,755.00	44	1	6	9,996.67	35	4
5.	4	10,996.00	35	3	5	11,110.00	42	4
6.	4	11,550.00	46	4	4	11,764.00	49	6
7.	7	11,967.00	31	5	3	13,575.00	42	6
8.	4	15,525.00	39	5	-	-	-	-

Source: Personnel Report

Figure 2

MALE/FEMALE PERCENTAGE IN ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT GRADES 1-8



Source: Personnel Report

Table B-19
 OPSEU SUPPORT STAFF CLASSES BY SEX (1975)

<u>Classification</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Clerks	5	32
Typists	0	12
Secretaries/Switchboard	0	22
Technicians	24	14
Technologists	7	2
Other Support (e.g., Caretakers, Handymen, Cooks, etc.)	<u>22</u>	<u>9</u>
Total	58	91

Source: Personnel Report

Table B-20

SALARY CLASSIFICATION AND ATTRITION BY POSITION AND SEX

Classification	Effective July 1, 1975					Males			Females		
	Start	6 mos.	1 yr.	2 yrs.	3 yrs.	Total	Average Salary	Attrition	Total	Average Salary	Attrition
Clerk 1, General	2.79	2.90	3.01	3.15	3.26	-	-	-	-	-	-
Clerk 2, General	3.54	3.69	3.82	3.97	4.13	3	5,939.27	-	26	7,094.63	16
Clerk 3, General	4.13	4.30	4.46	4.63	4.83	1	8,117.20	-	5	8,240.96	9
Clerk 4, General	4.68	4.88	5.05	5.24	5.46	1	9,937.20	-	1	9,937.20	-
Typist-Stenographer 1	2.93	3.03	3.16	3.28	3.42	-	-	-	-	-	-
Typist-Stenographer 2	3.42	3.55	3.70	3.83	3.98	-	-	-	7	6,684.00	4
Typist-Stenographer 3	3.70	3.83	3.98	4.15	4.32	-	-	-	5	7,429.24	1
Secretary 1	3.98	4.15	4.32	4.50	4.68	-	-	-	17	8,135.90	1
Secretary 2	4.32	4.50	4.68	4.88	5.05	-	-	-	1	9,191.00	6
Operator 1, Switchboard	3.42	3.55	3.70	3.83	3.98	-	-	-	3	6,982.73	1
Operator 2, Switchboard	3.76	3.91	4.07	4.24	4.40	-	-	-	1	8,008.00	-
Operator 1, Offset	3.28	3.42	3.55	3.70	3.85	-	7,553.00	-	-	-	-
Operator 2, Offset	4.15	4.32	4.50	4.68	4.86	-	-	-	-	-	-
Operator 3, Offset	4.78	4.97	5.18	5.39	5.61	1	8,117.20	2	-	-	-
Computer Operator 1	4.13	4.29	4.46	4.63	4.83	-	-	-	-	-	-
Computer Operator 2	5.68	5.90	6.14	6.39	6.64	-	-	-	-	-	-
Technician 1	3.45	3.60	3.74	3.87	4.03	-	-	-	-	-	-
Technician 2	4.59	4.78	4.97	5.18	5.39	10	9,243.60	11	7	8,330.90	4
Technician 3	5.79	6.03	6.27	6.52	6.77	12	11,760.23	1	-	-	-
Technologist 1	5.16	5.37	5.57	5.79	6.03	1	10,137.40	2	2	10,155.60	2
Technologist 2	6.64	6.92	7.19	7.50	7.78	3	14,011.33	-	-	-	-
Technologist 3	7.28	7.56	7.85	8.17	8.49	3	14,869.40	-	-	-	-
Library Technician 1	3.39	3.53	3.66	3.81	3.96	-	-	-	-	-	-
Library Technician 2	4.08	4.25	4.41	4.59	4.78	1	8,699.60	2	4	8,526.70	2
Library Technician 3	5.16	5.37	5.57	5.79	6.03	1	11,411.40	-	3	11,262.67	-
Nursing Assistant	4.41	4.59	4.78	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nurse Health Centre	5.37	5.57	5.79	6.03	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Senior Nurse Health Cent.	6.14	6.39	6.64	6.91	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Driver	4.15	4.30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bus Driver	4.46	4.63	4.83	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Security Guard 1 (new)	4.15	4.32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Security Guard 2 (new)	4.36	4.54	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Stationary Engineer (4th Class)	4.91	5.11	-	-	-	3	10,638.80	-	-	-	-
Stat. Engin. 3rd class	5.49	5.70	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Stat. Engin. 2nd class	6.14	6.39	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Caretaker 1	3.16	3.28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Caretaker 2	3.88	4.03	-	-	-	2	8,278.27	5	-	-	-
Caretaker 3	4.15	4.32	-	-	-	7	8,941.40	2	-	-	-
Caretaker 4	4.36	4.54	-	-	-	2	9,443.20	-	-	-	-
Assistant, Cook	3.49	3.63	3.76	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cook	4.08	4.24	4.40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Food Service Attendant	3.22	3.34	(new title)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kitchen Helper (new)	3.22	3.34	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Clerk 1, Supply	3.01	3.15	3.26	3.39	3.53	-	-	-	-	-	-
Clerk 2, Supply	3.49	3.63	3.76	3.91	4.07	2	8,008.00	1	-	-	-
Clerk 3, Supply	3.88	4.04	4.20	4.37	4.56	1	9,484.80	-	-	-	-
Maintenance Handyman	4.46	4.63	4.83	-	-	5	10,046.00	4	-	-	-
Tradesman Journeyman	5.71	5.94	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nursery School Asst.	4.08	4.25	4.41	4.59	4.78	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nursery School Leader	4.08	4.85	5.05	5.24	5.45	-	-	-	2	9,650.80	-

Source: Collective Agreement for CAAT Support Staff, 1976-77
and Personnel Report

APPENDIX C

EQUAL OPPORTUNITY QUESTIONNAIRE

CASE NUMBER

1- _____ (Office use only)
3

CARD NUMBER

4 1

5 SEX

- 1. Male
- 2. Female

6 AGE

- 1. 0 - 19
- 2. 20 - 24
- 3. 25 - 29
- 4. 30 - 34
- 5. 35 - 39
- 6. 40 - 44
- 7. 45 - 49
- 8. 50 - 54
- 9. 55 and over

7 AT WHICH CAMPUS ARE YOU BASED?

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.

8 STATUS OF PRESENT EMPLOYMENT

- 1. Permanent
- 2. Probationary
- 3. Part-time

9 WHAT WAS YOUR GROSS STARTING SALARY WHEN YOU ENTERED THE COLLEGE?

- 1. under \$4000
- 2. 4000 - 7999
- 3. 8000 - 11999
- 4. 12000 - 15999
- 5. 16000 - 19999
- 6. 20000 - 23999
- 7. 24000 - 27999
- 8. 28000 - 31999
- 9. 32000 or more

- 10 WHAT IS YOUR PRESENT GROSS SALARY FROM
1. under \$4000
 2. 4000 - 7999
 3. 8000 - 11999
 4. 12000 - 15999
 5. 16000 - 19999
 6. 20000 - 23999
 7. 24000 - 27999
 8. 28000 - 31999
 9. 32000 or more
- 11 WHAT IS YOUR PRESENT GROSS FAMILY INCOME FROM ALL SOURCES?
1. under \$5000
 2. 5000 - 9999
 3. 10000 - 14999
 4. 15000 - 19999
 5. 20000 - 24999
 6. 25000 - 29999
 7. 30000 - 34999
 8. 35000 - 39999
 9. 40000 or more
- 12 TOTAL FAMILY INCOME IS FROM:
1. Respondent only
 2. Respondent and spouse employed part-time
 3. Respondent and spouse employed full-time
- 13 MARITAL STATUS
1. Single
 2. Married
 3. Separated
 4. Divorced
 5. Widowed
 6. Common-law/co-habiting
- 14 HOW LONG HAVE YOU MAINTAINED THE ABOVE MARITAL STATUS?
1. 0 - 3 years
 2. 4 - 6 years
 3. 7 - 9 years
 4. 10 - 12 years
 5. 13 - 15 years
 6. 16 - 18 years
 7. 19 - 21 years
 8. 22 - 24 years
 9. over 24 years
- 15 RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION:
1. Protestant
 2. Catholic
 3. Jewish
 4. Greek Orthodox
 5. Other
 6. No affiliation

- 16 INDICATE HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ATTAINED (Select one only)
1. Elementary
 2. Some secondary
 3. Secondary
 4. Specialized training (eg. business school, technical school, commercial school, etc.)
 5. Certificate/Diploma (e.g. Community College, Art College, Teachers' College, Polytechnic, etc.)
 6. Some university
 7. University Bachelor's level
 8. University Master's level
 9. University Doctorate level
- 17 NUMBER OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN UNDER TWO YEARS PARTLY OR WHOLLY SUPPORTED BY ME:
1. None
 2. One
 3. Two
 4. Three
 5. Four or more
- 18 NUMBER OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN TWO TO FOUR YEARS PARTLY OR WHOLLY SUPPORTED BY ME:
1. None
 2. One
 3. Two
 4. Three
 5. Four or more
- 19 NUMBER OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN FIVE TO SEVENTEEN YEARS PARTLY OR WHOLLY SUPPORTED BY ME:
1. None
 2. One
 3. Two
 4. Three
 5. Four or more
- 20 NUMBER OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN EIGHTEEN AND OVER PARTLY OR WHOLLY SUPPORTED BY ME:
1. None
 2. One
 3. Two
 4. Three
 5. Four or more
- 21 TOTAL NUMBER OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN PARTLY OR WHOLLY SUPPORTED BY ME:
1. None
 2. One
 3. Two
 4. Three
 5. Four or more

- 22 WHAT IS YOUR SPOUSE'S OCCUPATION?
Refer to the attached (last page) occupational listing; circle the number below which corresponds. Make only one selection. Leave blank if you do not have a spouse.
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.
- 23 HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU WORKED AT COLLEGE? (Total number of years full-time, part-time, or any combination thereof.)
1. One year
2. Two years
3. Three years
4. Four years
5. Five years
6. Six years
7. Seven years
8. Eight years
9. Nine years
- 24 HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU WORKED AT FULL-TIME? (Leave blank if you have not worked full-time)
1. One year
2. Two years
3. Three years
4. Four years
5. Five years
6. Six years
7. Seven years
8. Eight years
9. Nine years
- 25 IF YOU BEGAN WORKING AT COLLEGE AS A PART-TIME EMPLOYEE BUT ARE PRESENTLY EMPLOYED FULL-TIME, INDICATE YOUR REASON FOR STARTING AS A PART-TIME EMPLOYEE:
1. Does not apply; presently part-time
2. Does not apply; have always been full-time
3. I chose to be part-time
4. There were no full-time positions available
- 26 DID YOU START YOUR FIRST FULL-TIME JOB (or otherwise) IMMEDIATELY AFTER COMPLETION OF YOUR EDUCATION?
1. Yes
2. No
- 27 IF NO TO ABOVE, WHY?
1. Family obligations
2. No job available
3. Personal desire not to work
4. Spouse's request not to work
5. Health reasons
6. Other

- 28 HOW MANY YEARS IN TOTAL, IF ANY, HAVE YOU BEEN OUT OF THE WORK FORCE SINCE YOUR FIRST JOB? (Leave blank if you have not been out of the work force)
1. 3 years or less
 2. 4 - 6 years
 3. 7 - 9 years
 4. 10 - 12 years
 5. 13 - 15 years
 6. 16 - 18 years
 7. 19 - 21 years
 8. 22 - 24 years
 9. More than 24 years
- 29 IF YOU WERE OUT OF THE WORK FORCE, WHY? (Select one only; leave blank if you were not out of the work force.)
1. Family obligations (marriage and/or children)
 2. No job available
 3. Personal desire not to work
 4. Spouse's request not to work
 5. Health reasons
 6. Military service
 7. Furthering education
 8. Other
- 30 HOW MANY FULL-TIME JOBS (with different employers/firms/organizations) HAVE YOU HAD IN YOUR OCCUPATIONAL CAREER?
1. One
 2. Two
 3. Three
 4. Four
 5. Five
 6. Six
 7. Seven
 8. Eight
 9. Nine or more
- WHY ARE YOU WORKING? (List reasons in order of importance, using the blocks provided below.)
1. Supplement spouse's income
 2. Personal satisfaction
 3. Sole support of family
 4. Financial remuneration
 5. To ensure no loss of present skills
 6. Other
- 31 FIRST PRIORITY / /
- 32 SECOND PRIORITY / /
- 33 THIRD PRIORITY / /

- 34 HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN IN YOUR PRESENT JOB CLASSIFICATION AND/OR POSITION?
1. One year or less
 2. Two years
 3. Three years
 4. Four years
 5. Five years
 6. Six years
 7. Seven years
 8. Eight years
 9. Nine years or more
- 35 WHAT IS YOUR PRESENT WORK GOAL?(Select one only)
1. I want a decrease in responsibilities
 2. I am satisfied with my present position
 3. I want a similar level or responsibility, but a different type of work (i.e. a "change")
 4. I want to assume more responsibility, but not managerial
 5. I want to assume managerial responsibilities
 6. I am more interested in moving to another organization/job than in staying at Sheridan
- 36 WHAT DO YOU SEE AS THE MAIN COMMITMENT(S) IN YOUR LIFE? (Select one only)
1. Career
 2. Family
 3. Both
 4. Neither
- 37 HOW DOES YOUR SPOUSE FEEL ABOUT YOUR WORKING? (Select one only; leave blank if no spouse)
1. Disapproves
 2. Non-committal
 3. Approves
- 38 HOW DOES YOUR SPOUSE FEEL ABOUT YOUR WORKING IN YOUR PRESENT JOB? (Select one only; leave blank if no spouse)
1. Disapproves
 2. Non-committal
 3. Approves
- 39 WITH WHOM DO YOU FEEL YOU GENERALLY HAVE YOUR MAJOR INTERPERSONAL DIFFICULTIES AS AN EMPLOYEE OF COLLEGE? (Select one only)
1. There are no difficulties in my job
 2. Students
 3. Fellow employees (equal to me in classification/position)
 4. Fellow employees (above me in classification, but to whom I do not report)
 5. Fellow employees (below me in classification/position, but who do not report to me)
 6. Fellow employees (below me in classification/position, who report to me)
 7. Supervisor (to whom I report)
 8. Others

WHY DID YOU CHOOSE TO WORK AT COLLEGE? (List reasons in order of importance, using the blocks provided below reasons)

1. Knew someone here
2. Saw it as having good possibilities for career development and/or advancement
3. Security of working in fairly small organization
4. Security of working in government supported organization
5. Geographically convenient
6. Better pay
7. Felt it would allow me personal freedom, and potential for growth and development
8. Only job available at the time
9. Pleasant work environment

40 FIRST PRIORITY

41 SECOND PRIORITY

42 THIRD PRIORITY

43 HOW IMPORTANT IS A PROMOTION TO YOU AT THIS TIME?

1. Don't want one
2. Not very important
3. Important

44 DURING MY WORKING CAREER, I HAVE WORKED UNDER THE DIRECT SUPERVISION OF:

1. Females only
2. Males only
3. Both males and females

45 DURING MY WORKING CAREER, I HAVE WORKED WITH STAFF AT LEVELS COMPARABLE TO MY OWN WHO WERE:

1. Females only
2. Males only
3. Both males and females

46 DURING MY WORKING CAREER, I HAVE HAD EXPERIENCE SUPERVISING:

1. Females only
2. Males only
3. Both males and females
4. Neither; no supervisory experience

SOME PEOPLE FEEL MORE COMFORTABLE WORKING WITH AND/OR FOR A PARTICULAR SEX. THE NEXT FEW ITEMS WILL DEAL WITH THIS ISSUE.

47 I WOULD FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING WITH WOMEN AT MY LEVEL

1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided

- 48 I WOULD FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING WITH MEN AT MY LEVEL
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 49 I WOULD FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING FOR A WOMAN
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 50 I WOULD FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING FOR A MAN
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 51 I WOULD FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH WOMEN WORKING FOR ME
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 52 I WOULD FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH MEN WORKING FOR ME
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 53 I THINK MOST WOMEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING WITH WOMEN AT THEIR LEVEL
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 54 I THINK MOST MEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING WITH WOMEN AT THEIR LEVEL
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 55 I THINK MOST WOMEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING WITH MEN AT THEIR LEVEL
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 56 I THINK MOST MEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING WITH MEN AT THEIR LEVEL
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided

- 57 I THINK MOST WOMEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING FOR A WOMAN
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 58 I THINK MOST MEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING FOR A WOMAN
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 59 I THINK MOST WOMEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING FOR A MAN
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 60 I THINK MOST MEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WORKING FOR A MAN
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 61 I THINK MOST WOMEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH WOMEN WORKING FOR THEM
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 62 I THINK MOST MEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH WOMEN WORKING FOR THEM
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 63 I THINK MOST WOMEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH MEN WORKING FOR THEM
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 64 I THINK MOST MEN FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH MEN WORKING FOR THEM
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 65 I THINK MOST WOMEN WOULD PREFER TO WORK FOR A WOMAN
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 66 I THINK MOST MEN WOULD PREFER TO WORK FOR A WOMAN
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided

- 67 I THINK MOST WOMEN WOULD PREFER TO WORK FOR A MAN
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 68 I THINK MOST MEN WOULD PREFER TO WORK FOR A MAN
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 69 I THINK MOST WOMEN WOULD PREFER TO WORK WITH WOMEN AT THEIR LEVEL
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 70 I THINK MOST MEN WOULD PREFER TO WORK WITH WOMEN AT THEIR LEVEL
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 71 I THINK MOST WOMEN WOULD PREFER TO WORK WITH MEN AT THEIR LEVEL
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 72 I THINK MOST MEN WOULD PREFER TO WORK WITH MEN AT THEIR LEVEL
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 73 I THINK MOST WOMEN WOULD PREFER TO HAVE WOMEN WORKING FOR THEM
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 74 I THINK MOST MEN WOULD PREFER TO HAVE WOMEN WORKING FOR THEM
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 75 I THINK MOST WOMEN WOULD PREFER TO HAVE MEN WORKING FOR THEM
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided
- 76 I THINK MOST MEN WOULD PREFER TO HAVE MEN WORKING FOR THEM
1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided

- 77 IF MORE WOMEN OCCUPIED MANAGERIAL POSITIONS IN THIS COLLEGE DO YOU THINK THIS WOULD RESULT IN:
1. A decrease in male employee morale; female morale unchanged
 2. A decrease in male employee morale; female morale increased
 3. A decrease in female employee morale; male morale unchanged
 4. A decrease in female employee morale; male morale increased
 5. A decrease in all employee morale
 6. No change in all employee morale
 7. An increase in all employee morale
 8. An increase in female employee morale; male morale unchanged
 9. An increase in female morale; male morale decreased
- 78 I FEEL THE PUBLIC PREFERS TO DEAL WITH MEN IN BUSINESS RELATIONSHIPS
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 79 IF YES, OR UNDECIDED, TO ABOVE, THIS IS: (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)
1. Because this has been the normal situation in the past
 2. Because men tend to be more capable in handling such situations
 3. Both 1 and 2
 4. Men seem to be easier to deal with
 5. Other reason
- 80 I FEEL THAT WOMEN TEND NOT TO ENTER COMPETITIONS FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided

NOTE: THIS QUESTION IS CONTINUED BELOW THE SEPARATION

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84	2

IF YES OR UNDECIDED TO ABOVE, THIS IS: (List reasons in order of importance, using the blocks provided below reasons)

1. Because they are not encouraged to do so.
2. Because they are not interested in assuming the required responsibilities
3. Because they have learned that this is not appropriate for a woman
4. Because they feel that they would not have a chance
5. Because they feel that they are not qualified
6. Other reason

85 FIRST PRIORITY

86 SECOND PRIORITY

87 THIRD PRIORITY

88 I FEEL THAT WOMAN'S ROLE AS WIFE AND MOTHER MAKES IT DIFFICULT FOR HER TO ASSUME WORK DUTIES.

1. Yes
2. No
3. Sometimes
4. No opinion

IF YES OR SOMETIMES TO ABOVE, THIS IS (List reasons in order of importance, using the blocks provided below reasons)

1. Because her primary commitment is to her family
2. Because society in general does not provide adequate support to assist her
3. Because her spouse does not always give her adequate support
4. There are not adequate day-care facilities
5. Because of the tension a wife's working sometimes causes between she and her husband
6. Because she may feel her expected income will not meet her expenses (i.e. make it "worth her while")
7. Other reason

89 FIRST PRIORITY

90 SECOND PRIORITY

91 THIRD PRIORITY

92 INDICATE THE OPTION BELOW WHICH MOST CLOSELY EXPRESSES YOUR ATTITUDE TOWARDS RE-LOCATING (Select one only)

1. I would re-locate if it involved a promotion
2. I would re-locate for long term career development
3. I would re-locate if I was confident that my spouse and/or other members of my family would not be adversely affected
4. I would re-locate for a more pleasant work atmosphere
5. I would not re-locate

93 WHICH IS THE MOST SIGNIFICANT WAY YOU HAVE BEEN ENCOURAGED (AT) TO SEEK ADVANCEMENT? (Select one only)

1. Encouraged by employer to apply to higher positions
2. Encouraged by employer to take job related courses
3. Encouraged by employer to take staff development courses
4. Delegated additional work responsibilities by employer
5. Have not been encouraged to seek advancement by employer

94 HAVE YOU MOVED TO A HIGHER POSITION OR CLASSIFICATION SINCE YOUR ARRIVAL AT (EXCLUDING RAISES, RE-CLASSIFICATIONS, ETC. GIVEN TO ALL)

1. Yes
2. No

- 95 IF YES TO ABOVE, WAS IT (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)
1. Because I was appointed to one
 2. Because I applied and was accepted as the best qualified for the job
- 96 IF NO TO ABOVE (Item 94) WAS IT (Select one only, if yes to 94, leave blank)
1. Because there wasn't one I was interested in
 2. I applied, and was turned down I believe because of my sex
 3. I applied, and was turned down I believe because of discrimination (other than sex)
 4. I applied, and was turned down, validly, I believe
 5. I didn't apply; felt the position was already pre-selected
 6. There wasn't a position I felt I was qualified for
 7. I was content to stay where I was
 8. I applied, but was turned down I believe because I am from a two income family
- 97 HAVE YOU MOVED TO A HIGHER POSITION/CLASSIFICATION (EXCLUDING RAISES GIVEN TO ALL) BUT WERE TURNED DOWN PREVIOUSLY?
1. Yes
 2. No
- 98 IF YES TO ABOVE, DO YOU BELIEVE YOU WERE TURNED DOWN (Select one only, if no to above or you have not moved, leave blank)
1. Because of discrimination, other than sex
 2. Because of your sex
 3. Because of being from a two income family
 4. Because the position was already pre-determined
 5. Because you were not the best qualified for the job
- 99 IS THERE A JOB DESCRIPTION FOR YOUR JOB?
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Don't know; doesn't matter
 4. Don't know; would like to know
- 100 IF YES TO ABOVE, WHO MADE IT UP? (if no to above, leave blank)
1. Supervisor(s)
 2. Supervisor(s) and self
 3. Self
 4. Self and colleagues
 5. Colleagues
 6. Supervisor(s) and colleagues
 7. Supervisor(s), self, and colleagues

- 101 DO YOU FEEL THAT THE HIRING PROCEDURES AT _____ HAVE BEEN CLEARLY DEFINED FOR PEOPLE IN YOUR CATEGORY (i.e. OPSEU, formerly CSAO, Support OR Admin Support OR Faculty OR Administration)
1. Yes
 2. No
- 102 GENERALLY SPEAKING, DO YOU FEEL THAT THE HIRING PROCEDURES AT _____ HAVE BEEN CLEARLY DEFINED FOR OTHERS (The three categories to which you do not belong)
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Don't know
- 103 DO YOU FEEL THERE HAVE BEEN DISCRIMINATORY HIRING PROCEDURES AT _____
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 104 IF YES TO ABOVE IS IT DUE TO (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)
1. Age
 2. Sex
 3. Race
 4. Religion
 5. Appearance and/or deportment
 6. Physical handicap
 7. Marital status
 8. Two-income family
 9. Other
- 105 HAVE YOU EVER ENQUIRED OR MADE APPLICATION TO HAVE A MEMBER OF YOUR FAMILY JOIN THE COLLEGE AS AN EMPLOYEE?
1. Yes
 2. No
- 106 IF YOU HAVE MADE ABOVE APPLICATION OR ENQUIRY WAS IT FOR: (leave blank if not applicable)
1. Your spouse
 2. Other relative
- 107 IF YOU HAVE MADE ABOVE APPLICATION OR ENQUIRY WHEN WAS THIS APPLICATION OR ENQUIRY MADE? (leave blank if not applicable)
1. 1967-1969
 2. 1970-1972
 3. 1973-1976

- 108 IF YOU HAVE MADE APPLICATION OR ENQUIRY, WHAT WAS THE OUTCOME OF THIS APPLICATION OR ENQUIRY? (leave blank if not applicable)
1. Was told it was not possible due to College policy
 2. Was told it was not possible for other reasons
 3. Was told it was possible but did not pursue the matter
 4. Was told it was possible but the person did not hold the necessary qualifications
 5. Was told it was possible and the person was hired
- 109 HAS A MEMBER OF YOUR FAMILY AND/OR SPOUSE EVER MADE FORMAL APPLICATION OR ENQUIRED DIRECTLY ABOUT JOINING THE COLLEGE AS AN EMPLOYEE?
1. Yes
 2. No
- 110 IF THIS PERSON MADE APPLICATION AND/OR ENQUIRED ABOUT JOINING THE COLLEGE, WHEN WAS THIS APPLICATION OR ENQUIRY MADE? (leave blank if not applicable)
1. 1967-1969
 2. 1970-1972
 3. 1973-1976
- 111 IF THIS PERSON MADE APPLICATION OR ENQUIRY, WHAT WAS THE OUTCOME OF THIS APPLICATION OR ENQUIRY? (leave blank if not applicable)
1. Was told it was not possible due to College policy
 2. Was told it was not possible for other reasons
 3. Was told it was possible but did not pursue the matter
 4. Was told it was possible but the person did not hold the necessary qualifications
 5. Was told it was possible and the person was hired
- 112 IF YOU MADE APPLICATION OR ENQUIRY FOR A MEMBER OF YOUR FAMILY AND/OR SPOUSE TO JOIN THE COLLEGE AS AN EMPLOYEE, OR IF A MEMBER OF YOUR FAMILY AND/OR YOUR SPOUSE MADE APPLICATION OR ENQUIRY THEMSELVES, BUT WERE TOLD IT WAS NOT POSSIBLE FOR REASONS OTHER THAN COLLEGE POLICY, DO YOU FEEL IT WAS: (leave blank if not applicable)
1. Legitimate
 2. Discriminatory
 3. Undecided
- 113 SOME ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS HAVE A POLICY WHICH DISALLOWS HIRING MEMBERS OF EMPLOYEES' FAMILIES AND/OR EMPLOYEES' SPOUSES. HOW DO YOU FEEL ABOUT SUCH A POLICY?
1. Have never thought about it
 2. Feel it is unfair
 3. Feel it is a fair policy
 4. It depends on the degree of closeness of the relative
 5. Other

114 WHAT WAS THE SELECTION PROCEDURE FOR YOUR JOB?

1. Supervisor
2. Two or more supervisors
3. Committee of colleagues and supervisor(s)

115 WHAT WAS THE COMPOSITION OF THE SELECTION UNIT?

1. All male
2. All female
3. Majority male/minority female mix
4. Majority female/minority male mix
5. Equal male/female mix

THINK OF A POSITION IN THE COLLEGE WHICH IS HIGHER THAN THE ONE YOU PRESENTLY HOLD, FOR WHICH YOU ARE QUALIFIED. PLEASE LIST, in order of importance, THE REASONS FOR WHICH YOU WOULD BE INTERESTED IN SUCH A POSITION, using the boxes provided below reasons.

1. Would not be interested under any circumstances
2. More money
3. More prestige
4. Would be more interesting than the present position
5. Would benefit my career
6. Would allow me to work at my potential
7. Would like to assume more responsibilities
8. Other reason

116 FIRST PRIORITY

117 SECOND PRIORITY

118 THIRD PRIORITY

THINK OF THE SAME HYPOTHETICAL SITUATION AGAIN, AS ABOVE. PLEASE LIST, in order of importance, THE REASONS FOR WHICH YOU WOULD NOT BE INTERESTED IN SUCH A POSITION, using the boxes provided below reasons.

1. Would be interested in any case
2. No clear job description
3. Too many responsibilities
4. Would conflict with other commitments
5. Not enough money
6. Not as interesting as present job
7. Wouldn't want to be in a position above peers
8. Geographically inconvenient
9. Not enough confidence in abilities

119 FIRST PRIORITY

120 SECOND PRIORITY

121 THIRD PRIORITY

122 IF YOU HAVE MOVED TO A HIGHER POSITION DURING YOUR STAY AT
 ., HOW DID IT HAPPEN? (Select one only; if you have moved
 more than once answer for last move; if you have not moved, leave
 blank)

1. Replied to an (internal) College advertisement
2. Replied to a newspaper advertisement
3. Someone asked me to move (i.e. appointment)
4. Heard about position and approached a person I felt would
 assist me to earn promotion

123 HAS THERE BEEN AN EVALUATION OF YOUR PERFORMANCE IN YOUR PRESENT
 JOB?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Uncertain

124 DO YOU FEEL MOBILITY IS ENHANCED BY JOB PERFORMANCE EVALUATION?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Undecided

125 DO YOU FEEL THERE ARE ANY SIGNIFICANT FACTORS HINDERING YOU IN
 THE ACHIEVEMENT OF YOUR MOBILITY ASPIRATIONS?

1. Yes
2. No

IF YES TO ABOVE, INDICATE IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE THE THREE MOST
 IMPORTANT FACTORS FROM THE LIST BELOW. (Use the boxes provided
below reasons; if no to above, leave blank)

1. There are not many openings at the level to which I aspire
2. People of my sex seldom seem to be considered in the level to
 which I aspire
3. I have reached the highest classification available for my
 type of work
4. My classification is based upon the status of my superior
5. I am unwilling to re-locate
6. My educational qualifications do not seem to be adequate
7. My work experience seems to provide little opportunity to
 advance and/or diversify
8. I seem to have poor communication with my supervisor and/or
 my supervisor seems to undervalue my work
9. I would like to develop my potential, but I don't know how

126 FIRST PRIORITY / /

127 SECOND PRIORITY / /

128 THIRD PRIORITY / /

INDICATE IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE THE THREE MOST USEFUL METHODS WHICH YOU FEEL MIGHT ASSIST YOU IN ATTEMPTING TO FULFILL YOUR MOBILITY ASPIRATIONS. (Using boxes provided below reasons)

1. No change needed
2. Need personal career counselling
3. Assignment to a special project
4. Rotation to other duties within the College
5. Taking job-related courses
6. Taking self-improvement courses other than the above
7. Educational leave
8. Improve communications regarding openings in the College
9. Other

129 FIRST PRIORITY

130 SECOND PRIORITY

131 THIRD PRIORITY

132 WHEN YOU JOINED THE COLLEGE WERE YOU ASKED TO DEFINE YOUR FAMILY COMMITMENTS (e.g. marital intentions, plans for children, etc.)

1. Yes
2. No

133 IF YES TO ABOVE, DO YOU FEEL YOU HAVE BEEN DISCRIMINATED AGAINST DUE TO THESE COMMITMENTS? (If no to above, leave blank)

1. Yes
2. No

134 DO YOU THINK POSITIONS WITHIN THE COLLEGE SHOULD BE:

1. Advertised within and outside the College so best candidate is selected
2. Advertised only within allowing for upward mobility within the ranks
3. Advertised outside the College only after candidates have been interviewed from within the College
4. Filled by appointment

135 HOW DO YOU FEEL SELECTION OF APPLICANTS SHOULD BE MADE?

1. A selection committee of two or more people senior to the applicant
2. A selection committee of one or two people senior to the applicant and a person of similar rank to the applicant
3. No selection committee; only the applicant's supervisor
4. A selection committee, composed of people similar in rank to the applicant

136 DO YOU FEEL THE SELECTION UNIT SHOULD BE:

1. All male
2. All female
3. Majority male/minority female mix
4. Equal male/female mix
5. Majority female/minority male mix
6. Doesn't matter

- 137 ARE YOU AWARE OF THE SALARY SCHEDULES FOR YOUR CATEGORY?
1. Yes, I am in the upper range
 2. Yes, I am in the middle range
 3. Yes, I am in the lower range
 4. No, don't know
- 138 IF YOU DON'T KNOW, EXPLAIN: (If yes to above, leave blank)
1. Don't care to know
 2. Information not made available to me; doesn't matter
 3. Information not made available to me; would like to know
- 139 DO YOU FEEL THAT YOU ARE FREQUENTLY ASKED TO CARRY OUT RESPONSIBILITIES NOT RELATED TO JOB FUNCTIONS?
1. Yes
 2. No
- 140 IF YES, HOW HAVE YOU BEEN REWARDED? (If no, leave blank)
1. Not at all (that I am aware of)
 2. Remuneration
 3. Promotion
 4. Release from other responsibilities
 5. 2 and 3
 6. 3 and 4
 7. 2 and 4
 8. 2, 3, and 4
- 141 IF YES TO ITEM 139, HAVE YOUR ATTITUDES TOWARDS YOUR JOB CHANGED: (If no to item 139, leave blank)
1. Yes, more positive
 2. Yes, more negative
 3. No
- 142 DO YOU FEEL YOU HAVE BEEN DISCRIMINATED AGAINST AS AN EMPLOYEE AT ?
1. Yes
 2. No
- 143 IF YES TO ABOVE, IS IT DUE TO: (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)
1. Age
 2. Sex
 3. Race
 4. Religion
 5. Appearance and/or deportment
 6. Physical handicap
 7. Marital status
 8. Two-income family
 9. Other

144 WOULD YOU BE WILLING TO DOCUMENT PRACTICES YOU FELT TO BE DISCRIMINATORY?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Uncertain

IF NO OR UNDECIDED TO ABOVE (Item 144), WHAT ARE YOUR REASONS?
(List in order of importance, using blocks provided below reasons; if yes to Item 144, leave blank)

1. Fear of job loss
2. Creates uncomfortable job atmosphere
3. Feel it wouldn't change anything
4. Not positive whether discrimination really exists
5. Fear of loss of job mobility

145 FIRST PRIORITY

146 SECOND PRIORITY

147 THIRD PRIORITY

148 DO YOU FEEL MALE AND FEMALE EMPLOYEES AT HAVE EQUAL OPPORTUNITY IN CAREER ADVANCEMENT?

1. Yes
2. No, men have more opportunity
3. No, women have more opportunity
4. Don't know

HOW MANY TIMES DURING THE PAST YEAR HAVE YOU INVITED PERSONS HIGHER IN CLASSIFICATION THAN YOURSELF TO A SOCIAL GATHERING AT YOUR HOME? (Regardless of whether they came)

149 (a) TIMES YOU INVITED MALE(S) WITH HIRING AND FIRING AUTHORITY OVER YOURSELF:

1. 0 times
2. 1 - 2 times
3. 3 - 4 times
4. 5 - 10 times
5. More than 10 times
6. Does not apply

150 (b) TIMES YOU INVITED FEMALE(S) WITH HIRING AND FIRING AUTHORITY OVER YOURSELF:

1. 0 times
2. 1 - 2 times
3. 3 - 4 times
4. 5 - 10 times
5. More than 10 times
6. Does not apply

151 (c) TIMES YOU INVITED BOTH MALE(S) AND FEMALE(S) WITH HIRING AND FIRING AUTHORITY OVER YOURSELF:

1. 0 times
2. 1 - 2 times
3. 3 - 4 times
4. 5 - 10 times
5. More than 10 times
6. Does not apply

HOW MANY TIMES DURING THE PAST YEAR HAVE YOU BEEN INVITED TO A SOCIAL GATHERING AT THE HOME OF PERSONS HIGHER IN CLASSIFICATION THAN YOURSELF? (Regardless of whether you went)

152 (a) TIMES YOU WERE INVITED BY MALE(S) WITH HIRING AND FIRING AUTHORITY OVER YOURSELF:

1. 0 times
2. 1 - 2 times
3. 3 - 4 times
4. 5 - 10 times
5. More than 10 times
6. Does not apply

153 (b) TIMES YOU WERE INVITED BY FEMALE(S) WITH HIRING AND FIRING AUTHORITY OVER YOURSELF:

1. 0 times
2. 1 - 2 times
3. 3 - 4 times
4. 5 - 10 times
5. More than 10 times
6. Does not apply

154 DO YOU FEEL CAREER MOBILITY IS RELATED TO ACCESSIBILITY TO CERTAIN "CLIQUEs" WITHIN THE COLLEGE?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Don't know

155 IF YES, DO YOU FEEL YOU HAVE/HAD ACCESS TO THESE "CLIQUEs"?
(If no, leave blank)

1. Yes
2. No

156 DO YOU FEEL THERE IS AN INFORMAL PROCEDURE BY WHICH PEOPLE SEEK ADVICE, ASSISTANCE, AND CLARIFICATION APART FROM THE FORMALLY DEFINED PROCESS FOR SAME?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Don't know

- 157 DO YOU BELONG TO ANY CLUBS, ORGANIZATIONS WITH MEMBERS OF THE COLLEGE WHO ARE SENIOR TO YOU?
1. Yes
 2. No
- 158 WHAT IS THE EXTENT OF YOUR INVOLVEMENT WITH COLLEAGUES OUTSIDE OF SPECIFIC JOB REQUIREMENTS?
1. Am on voluntary committees with colleagues
 2. Have attended conferences with colleagues
 3. Have attended social functions with colleagues
 4. 1, 2, and 3
 5. 2 and 3
 6. 1 and 3
 7. Have had no involvement apart from that specifically required to carry out my responsibilities
- 159 DID YOU KNOW SOMEONE SENIOR TO YOU IN POSITION BEFORE JOINING ?
1. Yes
 2. No
- 160 WOULD YOU ATTEND EVENING OR WEEKEND COLLEGE MEETINGS (OTHER THAN THOSE REQUIRED FOR YOUR POSITION)?
1. Yes, if it meant an increase in responsibility
 2. Yes, if it meant an increase in salary
 3. Yes, if it meant an increase in both salary and responsibility
 4. Yes; no qualifications
 5. Yes, for other reasons
 6. No, would not attend evening or weekend meetings

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- 165 ARE YOU A UNION OR ASSOCIATION MEMBER?
1. Yes
 2. No, I am eligible but prefer not to belong
 3. No, I am not eligible for membership
- 166 IF YOU ARE ELIGIBLE TO BE A UNION OR ASSOCIATION MEMBER, BUT DO NOT BELONG, WHY DO YOU NOT BELONG? (Select one only; if you are a member, leave blank)
- | | |
|--|-----------------|
| 1. Not worth it for benefits received | 5. 2 and 3 |
| 2. Prefer to work independently | 6. 1 and 3 |
| 3. Do not want to be associated with a union | 7. 1, 2, and 3 |
| 4. 1 and 2 | 8. Other reason |

- 167 WERE OR ARE YOU A MEMBER OF A LOCAL UNION OR ASSOCIATION EXECUTIVE IN THE COLLEGE?
1. Yes
 2. No
- 168 IF NO, DO YOU EVER SEE YOURSELF AS BEING A UNION OR ASSOCIATION EXECUTIVE MEMBER IN THE COLLEGE? (Select one only; if you were or are an executive member, leave blank)
1. No, never
 2. Yes, in a few years time when I could devote more of my energies to the position
 3. Only if the union's reputation changes within the College
 4. Only if the issues change to directly concern me
 5. Yes
- HOW MANY HOURS IN AN AVERAGE WEEK IN TOTAL DO YOU AND YOUR SPOUSE (if applicable) SPEND DOING THE FOLLOWING ACTIVITIES?
- 169 (a) HOUSEHOLD CHORES - RESPONDENT (Cooking, cleaning, shopping, repairs, etc.)
1. 0 - 5 hours
 2. 6 - 10 hours
 3. 11 - 15 hours
 4. 16 - 20 hours
 5. 21 - 25 hours
 6. 26 - 30 hours
 7. More than 30 hours
- 170 (b) HOUSEHOLD CHORES - SPOUSE (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. 0 - 5 hours
 2. 6 - 10 hours
 3. 11 - 15 hours
 4. 16 - 20 hours
 5. 21 - 25 hours
 6. 26 - 30 hours
 7. More than 30 hours
- 171 (c) CHILD CARE - RESPONDENT (general care, supervision, chauffeuring, etc.) (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. 0 - 5 hours
 2. 6 - 10 hours
 3. 11 - 15 hours
 4. 16 - 20 hours
 5. 21 - 25 hours
 6. 26 - 30 hours
 7. More than 30 hours
- 172 (d) CHILD CARE - SPOUSE (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. 0 - 5 hours
 2. 6 - 10 hours
 3. 11 - 15 hours
 4. 16 - 20 hours
 5. 21 - 25 hours
 6. 26 - 30 hours
 7. More than 30 hours

- 173 (e) LEISURE - RESPONDENT
1. 0 - 5 hours
 2. 6 - 10 hours
 3. 11 - 15 hours
 4. 16 - 20 hours
 5. 21 - 25 hours
 6. 26 - 30 hours
 7. More than 30 hours
- 174 (f) LEISURE - SPOUSE (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. 0 - 5 hours
 2. 6 - 10 hours
 3. 11 - 15 hours
 4. 16 - 20 hours
 5. 21 - 25 hours
 6. 26 - 30 hours
 7. More than 30 hours
- 175 (g) WORKING - RESPONDENT
1. 0 - 5 hours
 2. 6 - 10 hours
 3. 11 - 15 hours
 4. 16 - 20 hours
 5. 21 - 25 hours
 6. 26 - 30 hours
 7. More than 30 hours
- 176 (h) WORKING - SPOUSE (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. 0 - 5 hours
 2. 6 - 10 hours
 3. 11 - 15 hours
 4. 16 - 20 hours
 5. 21 - 25 hours
 6. 26 - 30 hours
 7. More than 30 hours
- 177 WHAT DO YOU SEE YOURSELF DOING IN 0 - 2 YEARS? (Select one only)
1. Retired
 2. Working in my present position
 3. Working at a higher position in the same organization
 4. Working in another organization or self employed
 5. Not employed; continuing my education
 6. Employed full-time or part-time; continuing my education full-time or part-time
 7. Staying in the home to raise a family
 8. Not employed for reasons other than 1, 5, and 7
 9. Uncertain

178 WHAT DO YOU SEE YOURSELF DOING IN 3 TO 5 YEARS? (Select one only)

1. Retired
2. Working in my present position
3. Working at a higher position in the same organization
4. Working in another organization or self employed
5. Not employed; continuing my education
6. Employed full-time or part-time; continuing my education full-time or part-time
7. Staying in the home to raise a family
8. Not employed for reasons other than 1, 5, and 7
9. Uncertain

179 WHAT DO YOU SEE YOURSELF DOING IN 6 TO 10 YEARS? (Select one only)

1. Retired
2. Working in my present position
3. Working at a higher position in the same organization
4. Working in another organization or self employed
5. Not employed; continuing my education
6. Employed full-time or part-time; continuing my education full-time or part-time
7. Staying in the home to raise a family
8. Not employed for reasons other than 1, 5, and 7
9. Uncertain

180 WHAT DO YOU SEE YOURSELF DOING IN 11 TO 15 YEARS?(Select one only)

1. Retired
2. Working in my present position
3. Working at a higher position in the same organization
4. Working in another organization
5. Not employed; continuing my education
6. Employed full-time or part-time; continuing my education full-time or part-time
7. Staying in the home to raise a family
8. Not employed for reasons other than 1, 5, and 7
9. Uncertain

181 IF YOU HAVE CHILDREN WHO REQUIRE SUPERVISION DURING THE WORKING DAY, HOW ARE THEY CARED FOR? (Select one only; if not applicable, leave blank)

1. Spouse at home
2. Other relative at home
3. Babysitter/housekeeper/nanny in own home
4. Babysitter outside home
5. Private Day Care Centre
7. Public Day Care Centre
8. Co-operative Day Care Centre
9. Other

182 HOW MUCH DO YOU PAY PER WEEK FOR CHILD CARE? (If not applicable, leave blank)

- | | |
|----------------|------------------|
| 1. Nil | 5. \$46 - \$60 |
| 2. Under \$15 | 6. \$61 - \$75 |
| 3. \$16 - \$30 | 7. \$76 and over |
| 4. \$31 - \$45 | |

- 183 DOES THIS AMOUNT SEEM: (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. Reasonable
 2. Too much
- 184 DO YOU RECEIVE A SUBSIDY FOR DAY CARE? (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. Yes
 2. No
- ARE YOU SATISFIED WITH THE SERVICES PROVIDED BY DAY CARE CENTRES IN YOUR AREA? (List responses in order of importance in the blocks provided below choice of responses)
1. Don't know enough to comment
 2. Yes, I'm satisfied
 3. No, the fees are too expensive
 4. No, there is not enough supervision for each individual child
 5. No, there is not sufficient emphasis placed on social development
 6. No, there is not sufficient emphasis on learning
 7. No, the centres are not conveniently located
 8. No, the hours are not flexible enough
 9. Other
- 185 FIRST PRIORITY / /
- 186 SECOND PRIORITY / /
- 187 THIRD PRIORITY / /
- 188 HAVE EITHER YOU OR YOUR SPOUSE (as appropriate, where applicable) EVER TAKEN ANY MATERNITY LEAVE WHILE WORKING? (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. No
 2. Yes, once
 3. Yes, more than once
- 189 PRESENT TIME ALLOTMENT IS 17 WEEKS FOR MATERNITY LEAVE. DO YOU FEEL THIS IS:
1. Too much
 2. Sufficient
 3. Insufficient, should be 2 week extension
 4. Insufficient, should be 4 week extension
 5. Insufficient, should be 6 week extension
- 190 WHEN DO YOU FEEL MATERNITY LEAVE SHOULD BE GRANTED?
1. Prior to delivery only
 2. After delivery only
 3. Flexible either way

- 191 DO YOU FEEL THERE SHOULD BE COMPENSATION DURING PREGNANCY LEAVE?
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Undecided
- 192 IF YES OR UNDECIDED TO ABOVE, SHOULD IT BE: (If no to above, leave blank)
1. Unemployment Insurance only
 2. Unemployment Insurance plus partial employer subsidation
 3. Unemployment Insurance plus employer subsidation to a maximum of full salary
- 193 HOW MUCH TIME OFF SHOULD MEN BE GIVEN WHEN THEIR WIVES ARE HAVING CHILDREN?
1. No time
 2. One day
 3. Two days
 4. Three days
 5. Four days
 6. One week
 7. More than one week
- 194 HAVE YOU EVER WANTED TO TAKE A COURSE OFFERED BY THE COLLEGE?
1. Yes, and did
 2. Yes, but was unable to do so
 3. No, have never wanted to take a course
- 195 IF YOU WANTED TO TAKE A COURSE OFFERED BY THE COLLEGE, BUT COULDN'T, WHY? (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)
1. Lacked prerequisite
 2. Lacked time because of work commitments
 3. Lacked time because of other commitments
 4. Course fell during the day, and I could not be excused from my job for the time required
 5. Budgetary funds unavailable
- 196 INDICATE WHETHER YOU ARE TAKING OR HAVE TAKEN ANY OF THE FOLLOWING TYPES OF COURSES OFFERED THROUGH THE COLLEGE OR OUTSIDE THE COLLEGE WHILE EMPLOYED AT THE COLLEGE? (Select one only)
1. Secretarial-Clerical
 2. Managerial
 3. Technical-Work related
 4. General Interest
 5. Degree Courses
 6. Other
 7. More than one of the above
 8. Have not taken any courses while employed at the College

- 197 EMPLOYEES OFTEN FIND IT NECESSARY TO TAKE TIME OFF FOR PERSONAL MATTERS SUCH AS DOCTORS' AND DENTISTS' APPOINTMENTS. HAVE YOU ENCOUNTERED ANY DIFFICULTY IN DOING SO?
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Does not apply
- 198 THERE ARE EMPLOYMENT POLICIES PROVIDING FOR MATERNITY, BEREAVEMENT, AND SICK LEAVE. HAVE YOU ENCOUNTERED ANY DIFFICULTY IN TAKING THIS TYPE OF LEAVE?
1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Does not apply
- 199 SOME PEOPLE FIND THEY ENJOY THEIR WORKING DAYS: OTHERS DO NOT FIND THEM AS ENJOYABLE. HOW DO YOU FEEL ABOUT YOUR WORKING DAY?
1. Very enjoyable
 2. Enjoyable
 3. Neutral
 4. Unenjoyable
 5. Very unenjoyable
- 200 AT COLLEGE, DO YOU FEEL EMPLOYEE MORALE IS:
1. Very good
 2. Good
 3. Neutral
 4. Bad
 5. Very bad
- 201 DURING YOUR TIME AT _____ HAVE YOU EVER SERVED ON ANY COLLEGE COMMITTEES? (Specify number)
1. Yes, 1-3
 2. Yes, 4-6
 3. Yes, more than 6
 4. No
- 202 HAVE YOU EVER CONSIDERED APPLYING FOR A LEAVE BUT DID NOT MAKE FORMAL APPLICATION?
1. Yes, leave of absence
 2. Yes, sabbatical
 3. Yes, both
 4. No
- 203 IF YES, WHY? (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. Because I was told informally that I would not get it
 2. Because it was implied informally that I would not get it
 3. Because I felt there were few advantages, for example financial remuneration, in applying
 4. Because I changed my mind for reasons other than the above

- 204 HAVE YOU EVER MADE FORMAL APPLICATION FOR A LEAVE BUT WERE TURNED DOWN?
1. Yes, turned down for leave of absence
 2. Yes, turned down for sabbatical
 3. Yes, turned down for both
 4. No
- 205 HAVE YOU EVER HAD LEAVE?
1. Yes, leave of absence
 2. Yes, sabbatical
 3. Yes, both
 4. No
- 206 HAVE YOU EVER APPLIED FOR TIME OFF TO:
1. Go to a conference/convention
 2. Pursue educational career
 3. Attend to personal matters
 4. 1 and 2
 5. 2 and 3
 6. 1 and 3
 7. 1, 2, and 3
 8. None of the above
- 207 DO YOU FEEL YOU HAVE EVER FACED DISCRIMINATORY RESPONSES TO ANY OF THE FOREGOING APPLICATIONS? (If you have not applied, leave blank)
1. Yes, to (1 above)
 2. Yes, to (2 above)
 3. Yes, to (3 above)
 4. Yes, to (4 above)
 5. Yes, to (5 above)
 6. Yes, to (6 above)
 7. Yes, to (7 above)
 8. No
- 208 WAS THERE ANY TIME DURING YOUR COLLEGE EMPLOYMENT CAREER WHEN YOU EITHER DISCONTINUED WORKING OR CONTINUED WORKING PART-TIME?
1. Yes, discontinued
 2. Yes, continued on a part-time basis
 3. No
- 209 IF YES, WHY? (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)
1. Family obligations (marriage and/or children)
 2. No job available
 3. Personal desire not to work
 4. Spouse's request not to work
 5. Health reasons
 6. Military service
 7. Furthering education
 8. Other

210 AT DO YOU THINK FEMALE AND MALE MEMBERS HAVE EQUAL OPPORTUNITY IN CAREER ADVANCEMENT?

- 1. Yes, equal opportunity
- 2. No, men have more opportunity
- 3. No, women have more opportunity
- 4. Don't know

211 ON THE AVERAGE, HOW MANY HOURS PER WEEK WOULD YOU SPEND ON VOLUNTARY COMMITTEE MEETINGS:

- 1. 0-3 hours
- 2. 4-6 hours
- 3. 7-10 hours
- 4. Over 10 hours

NOTE: THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE FOR PART-TIME EMPLOYEES ONLY

IF YOU ARE A FULL-TIME EMPLOYEE, SKIP ITEMS 212 AND FOLLOWING, AND BEGIN AGAIN AS FOLLOWS:

FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATORS ITEM 225

OPSEU (formerly CSAO)
SUPPORT STAFF & ADMIN
SUPPORT STAFF ITEM 261

IF YOU ARE A PART-TIME EMPLOYEE, PROCEED WITH THE NEXT ITEM. DO NOT SKIP ANY ITEMS.

OFFICE USE ONLY

 PUNCH ZEROS (0) FOR COLUMNS 212 - 224 INCLUSIVE

 PUNCH COLUMNS 212 - 224 AS INDICATED

212 IS YOUR PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT AT THE COLLEGE YOUR ONLY JOB?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No, I hold one other job
- 3. No, I hold two other jobs
- 4. No, I hold more than two other jobs

213 IF NO TO ABOVE, DO YOU CONSIDER YOUR MAIN JOB COMMITMENT IS TO COLLEGE? (If yes to above, leave blank)

- 1. Yes, I do
- 2. No, I don't
- 3. No, I feel equally committed to both/all my jobs

HOW MANY HOURS A WEEK (ON THE AVERAGE) ARE YOU EMPLOYED AT THE COLLEGE PART-TIME?

214 (a) SUPPORT STAFF ONLY:

1. 1 - 3 hours
2. 4 - 6 hours
3. 7 - 9 hours
4. 10 - 12 hours
5. 13 - 15 hours
6. 16 - 18 hours
7. 19 - 21 hours
8. 21 - 24 hours

215 (b) FACULTY/ADMINISTRATION ONLY:

1. 1 - 3 hours
2. 4 - 6 hours
3. 7 - 9 hours
4. 10 - 12 hours
5. 13 - 15 hours
6. 16 - 18 hours
7. 19 - 21 hours
8. 21 - 24 hours

216 HAVE YOU EVER APPLIED TO CHANGE YOUR STATUS FROM PART-TIME TO FULL-TIME?

1. Yes, have applied
2. No, have not applied

217 IF YES, WHY DO YOU BELIEVE YOU WERE NOT ACCEPTED? (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)

1. Budget restrictions and/or no opening
2. Lack of qualifications
3. Discrimination because of my sex
4. Discrimination for other reasons
5. Because, I come from a two income family
6. Other reason
7. Was never given a reason

DO YOU FEEL PART-TIME EMPLOYEES ENCOUNTER SPECIAL PROBLEMS OR DIFFICULTIES? (List in order of importance, using the blocks provided below reasons)

1. No
2. Yes, because no consideration is given to fringe benefits, classifications, etc.
3. Yes, because there are no grievance procedures for part-time employees
4. Yes, because there seems to be a lack of concern for part-time employees regarding salary increases, promotions, etc.
5. Yes, because information concerning job-related activities, special events, etc. is not effectively communicated
6. Yes, because there is a lack of clear job descriptions for part-time employees
7. Yes, for reasons other than the above

- 218 FIRST PRIORITY
- 219 SECOND PRIORITY
- 220 THIRD PRIORITY
- 221 DO YOU FEEL YOU HAVE BEEN DISCRIMINATED AGAINST AS A PART-TIME EMPLOYEE AT _____?

1. Yes
2. No

- 222 IF YES, WAS IT DUE TO: (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)

1. Age
2. Sex
3. Race
4. Religion
5. Appearance and/or deportment
6. Physical handicap
7. Marital status
8. Two income family
9. Other reason

- 223 DO YOU PREFER TO REMAIN A PART-TIME EMPLOYEE?

1. Yes
2. No

END OF PART-TIME EMPLOYEES' SECTION. BEGIN AGAIN WITH EITHER ITEM 225 OR ITEM 261, ACCORDING TO INSTRUCTIONS.

THE BALANCE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE IS DIVIDED INTO TWO SECTIONS, ONE FOR FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATORS (BOTH FULL AND PART-TIME) AND ONE FOR OPSEU (FORMERLY CSAO) SUPPORT AND ADMIN SUPPORT (BOTH FULL AND PART-TIME).

- 224 PLEASE PROCEED TO THE APPROPRIATE SECTION, AFTER INDICATING BELOW THE SECTION BEING COMPLETED.

1. Faculty/Administrators - Items 225 - 260 inclusive
2. OPSEU (CSAO) Support/Admin Support - Items 261 - 267 inclusive

FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATORS ONLY: - OTHERS PROCEED TO ITEM 261,
SKIP ITEMS 225 TO 260 INCLUSIVE.

- 225 WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES YOUR FORMAL EDUCATIONAL TRAINING?
1. No formal post-secondary training
 2. Technical/Business/Art Certificate or Diploma
 3. Bachelor's or equivalent
 4. Master's or equivalent
 5. Doctorate or equivalent
 6. Certificate or Diploma plus Bachelor's
 7. Certificate/Diploma plus Master's
 8. Certificate/Diploma plus Doctorate
- 226 WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING DO YOU FEEL BEST DESCRIBES YOUR MAJOR FIELD OF PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE? (Select one only)
1. Social Science
 2. Humanities
 3. Science
 4. Health Science
 5. Business
 6. Artistic
 7. Craft and Design
 8. Practical Skills
 9. Other
- 227 WAS THERE ANY TIME BEFORE COMPLETION OF YOUR CERTIFICATE OR DIPLOMA PROGRAM (IF APPLICABLE) WHEN YOU HAD TO EITHER DISCONTINUE YOUR STUDIES OR PURSUE THEM ON A PART- TIME BASIS? (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. Yes, discontinued
 2. Yes, part-time
 3. No
- 228 IF YES TO ABOVE, WHY? (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)
1. Insufficient funds
 2. Family obligations
 3. Personal conflict or indecision
 4. Offered a good job
 5. To accommodate job transfer or continuing education of spouse
 6. At spouse's request for reasons other than 5.
 7. Military service
 8. Health reasons
 9. Other reasons
- 229 WAS THERE ANY TIME BEFORE COMPLETION OF YOUR UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE (IF APPLICABLE) WHEN YOU HAD TO EITHER DISCONTINUE YOUR STUDIES OR PURSUE THEM ON A PART-TIME BASIS? (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. Yes, discontinued
 2. Yes, part-time
 3. No

- 230 IF YES TO ABOVE, WHY? (Select one only ; if no to above, leave blank)
1. Insufficient funds
 2. Family obligations
 3. Personal conflict or indecision
 4. Offered a good job
 5. To accommodate job transfer or continuing education of spouse
 6. At spouse's request for reasons other than 5.
 7. Military service
 8. Health reasons
 9. Other reasons
- 231 WAS THERE ANY TIME BEFORE COMPLETION OF YOUR GRADUATE DEGREE(S) (IF APPLICABLE) WHEN YOU HAD TO EITHER DISCONTINUE YOUR STUDIES OR PURSUE THEM ON A PART-TIME BASIS? (If not applicable, leave blank)
1. Yes, discontinued
 2. Yes, part-time
 3. No
- 232 IF YES TO ABOVE, WHY? (Select one only; if no to above, leave blank)
1. Insufficient funds
 2. Family obligations
 3. Personal conflict or indecision
 4. Offered a good job
 5. To accommodate job transfer or continuing education of spouse
 6. At spouse's request for reasons other than 5.
 7. Military service
 8. Health reasons
 9. Other reasons
- 233 ARE YOU PRESENTLY CONTINUING YOUR EDUCATION IN ORDER TO ENHANCE OR FURTHER YOUR PROFESSIONAL CAREER?
1. Yes, part-time
 2. Yes, full-time
 3. No, not continuing for enhancement of professional career
 4. No, not continuing at all
- 234- IN WHAT AREA IS YOUR PRESENT POSITION? (NOTE: ITEMS 10 through 03
235 inclusive are for those in O.P.S.E.U. (formerly C.S.A.O.) Bargain-
ing Unit only; ITEMS 04 and 05 are for those not in O.P.S.E.U.)
10. School of Applied Arts, Business & Secretarial Studies.
 20. School of Applied Arts (ALL CAMPUSES)
 30. School of Business and Secretarial Studies
 40. Computer Studies Division
 50. School of Design
 60. Technology Division
 70. School of Visual Arts
 80. School of English and Media Studies
 90. Communications Division
 01. School of Nursing
 02. Liberal and General Studies Division
 03. Community Services Faculty (ALL CAMPUSES)
 04. Other Faculty not included above

Continued....

- 05. Academic Administration
- 06. Non-academic Administration

236 WHAT WAS YOUR FACULTY CLASSIFICATION WHEN YOU JOINED THE COLLEGE?
(If not applicable, leave blank)

- 1. Master
- 2. Associate Master
- 3. Assistant Master
- 4. Affiliate Master
- 5. Instructor

237 WHAT WAS YOUR LAST FULL TIME POSITION BEFORE JOINING
(IF WAS NOT YOUR FIRST FULL TIME JOB.)

Job Title (or brief job description):

238 DO YOU FEEL THERE IS A MALE/FEMALE BIAS WHICH CONTRIBUTES TO
STUDENT PERCEPTION OF FACULTY TEACHING ABILITY?

- 1. Yes, male students think male faculty more competent
- 2. Yes, female students think male faculty more competent
- 3. Yes, male students think female faculty more competent
- 4. Yes, female students think female faculty more competent
- 5. Yes, both male and female students think male faculty more competent
- 6. Yes, both male and female students think female faculty more competent
- 7. No, no bias

239 DO YOU THINK THERE IS A MALE/FEMALE BIAS WHICH CONTRIBUTES TO
COLLEAGUES' PERCEPTION OF FACULTY TEACHING ABILITY?

- 1. Yes, male faculty think male colleagues more competent
- 2. Yes, female faculty think male colleagues more competent
- 3. Yes, male faculty think female colleagues more competent
- 4. Yes, female faculty think female colleagues more competent
- 5. Yes, both male and female faculty think male colleagues more competent
- 6. Yes, both male and female faculty think female colleagues more competent
- 7. No, no bias

240 DO YOU THINK THERE IS A MALE/FEMALE BIAS WHICH CONTRIBUTES TO
ADMINISTRATORS' PERCEPTION OF FACULTY TEACHING ABILITY?

- 1. Yes, male administrators think male faculty more competent
- 2. Yes, female administrators think male faculty more competent
- 3. Yes, male administrators think female faculty more competent
- 4. Yes, female administrators think female faculty more competent
- 5. Yes, both male and female administrators think male faculty more competent
- 6. Yes, both male and female administrators think female faculty more competent
- 7. No, no bias

	CASE NUMBER	
241- 243	_____	(Office use only)
	CARD NUMBER	
244	4	

245 ARE YOU RECEIVING ANY ADDITIONAL INCOME FROM COLLEGE?

1. Yes, for additional teaching
2. Yes, for other duties
3. Yes, for both additional teaching and other duties
4. No

TEACHING ACTIVITIES (Omit if not teaching)

246 ON THE AVERAGE (OVER TWO SEMESTERS) HOW MANY HOURS/WEEK DO YOU TEACH?

1. 1 - 12 hours
2. 13 - 19 hours
3. More than 19

247 HOW MANY HOURS IN AN AVERAGE WEEK DO YOU SPEND CONSULTING WITH STUDENTS?

1. 0 - 3 hours
2. 4 - 6 hours
3. 7 - 9 hours
4. 11 - 13 hours
5. 14 hours and over

248 HOW MANY HOURS IN AN AVERAGE WEEK DO YOU SPEND PREPARING FOR CLASSES?

1. 0 - 3 hours
2. 4 - 6 hours
3. 7 - 9 hours
4. 11 - 13 hours
5. 14 hours and over

249 HOW MANY HOURS IN AN AVERAGE WEEK DO YOU SPEND GRADING?

1. 0 - 3 hours
2. 4 - 6 hours
3. 7 - 9 hours
4. 11 - 13 hours
5. 14 hours and over

250 HOW MANY HOURS IN AN AVERAGE WEEK DO YOU SPEND IN TOTAL CONSULTING WITH STUDENTS, PREPARING FOR CLASSES, AND GRADING?

1. 0 - 3 hours
2. 4 - 6 hours
3. 7 - 9 hours
4. 10 - 13 hours
5. 14 hours and over

251 HOW MANY DIFFERENT COURSE PREPARATIONS DO YOU HAVE THIS ACADEMIC YEAR (DAY SCHOOL ONLY)?

1. One
2. Two
3. Three
4. Four
5. Five
6. Six
7. Seven or more

HOW MANY STUDENTS DO YOU ANTICIPATE HAVING IN TOTAL THIS ACADEMIC YEAR?

252 TEAM TEACHING

1. None
2. 1 - 49 students
3. 50 - 99 students
4. 100 - 149 students
5. 150 - 199 students
6. 200 - 249 students
7. 250 - 299 students
8. 300 - 349 students
9. 350 or more students

253 TEACHING ON YOUR OWN

1. None
2. 1 - 49 students
3. 50 - 99 students
4. 100 - 149 students
5. 150 - 199 students
6. 200 - 249 students
7. 250 - 299 students
8. 300 - 349 students
9. 350 or more students

254 DO YOU FEEL YOU HAVE BEEN ASKED TO TEACH OUTSIDE OF YOUR AREA(S) OF SPECIALITY?

1. Yes, in one course
2. Yes, in two courses
3. Yes, in three courses
4. Yes, in four courses
5. Yes, in five courses
6. Yes, in more than five courses
7. No

- 255 DO YOU HAVE NON-TEACHING, ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITY?
1. Yes, I receive credit toward a full teaching load
 2. Yes, but I do not receive credit toward a full teaching load
 3. No, I have no non-teaching responsibility

- 256 IF YES TO ABOVE, HOW MANY HOURS PER WEEK ARE CREDITED TOWARD A FULL TEACHING LOAD? (If no to above, leave blank)
1. 1 - 2 hours
 2. 3 - 4 hours
 3. 5 - 6 hours
 4. 7 - 8 hours
 5. 9 - 10 hours
 6. More than 10 hours

- 257 IF YES TO 255 ABOVE, HOW MANY HOURS DOES YOUR ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITY ACTUALLY REQUIRE? (If no to 255, leave blank)
1. 1 - 2 hours
 2. 3 - 4 hours
 3. 5 - 6 hours
 4. 7 - 8 hours
 5. 9 - 10 hours
 6. More than 10 hours

INDICATE THE AMOUNT OF SATISFACTION THE FOLLOWING ACTIVITIES GIVE YOU. (List, in order of importance, using the blocks provided below the items)

1. Teaching
2. Administration
3. Committee work
4. Counselling
5. Course Preparation
6. Grading
7. Informal professional discussion with colleagues
8. Other

- 258 MOST IMPORTANT
- 259 SECOND MOST IMPORTANT
- 260 THIRD MOST IMPORTANT

O.P.S.E.U. (formerly C.S.A.O.) SUPPORT STAFF AND ADMIN SUPPORT STAFF ONLY: FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATORS SKIP ITEMS 261 - 265 INCLUSIVE.

261 ARE YOU:

1. O.P.S.E.U.(formerly C.S.A.O.) Support Staff
2. Admin Support Staff

262- CLASSIFICATION:
264

100. Clerk, General
200. Typist-Stenographer
300. Secretary
400. Operator, Switchboard
500. Operator, Offset
600. Computer Operator
700. Technician
800. Technologist
900. Library Technician
010. Nursing Assistant/Nurse
020. Stationary Engineer
030. Caretaker
040. Cook
050. Clerk
060. Maintenance Handyman
070. Nursery School Assistant/Leader
080. Other O.P.S.E.U.(formerly C.S.A.O.) Support Category not listed (Admin Support, see below)
090. More than one of the above
001. Admin Support Grade 1
002. Admin Support Grade 2
003. Admin Support Grade 3
004. Admin Support Grade 4
005. Admin Support Grade 5
006. Admin Support Grade 6
007. Admin Support Grade 7
008. Admin Support Grade 8
009. Other, not listed

265 EXCLUDING RAISES ETC. GIVEN TO ALL, HAVE YOU EVER BEEN RE-CLASSIFIED (UPWARD) OR MOVED UP A GRADE WITHOUT YOUR REQUESTING SAME?

1. Yes
2. No

266 ARE THERE ANY PRIVILEGES OR PREROGATIVES WHICH ARE MADE AVAILABLE TO OTHERS WHICH YOU FEEL SHOULD BE EXTENDED TO PEOPLE IN YOUR GROUP?

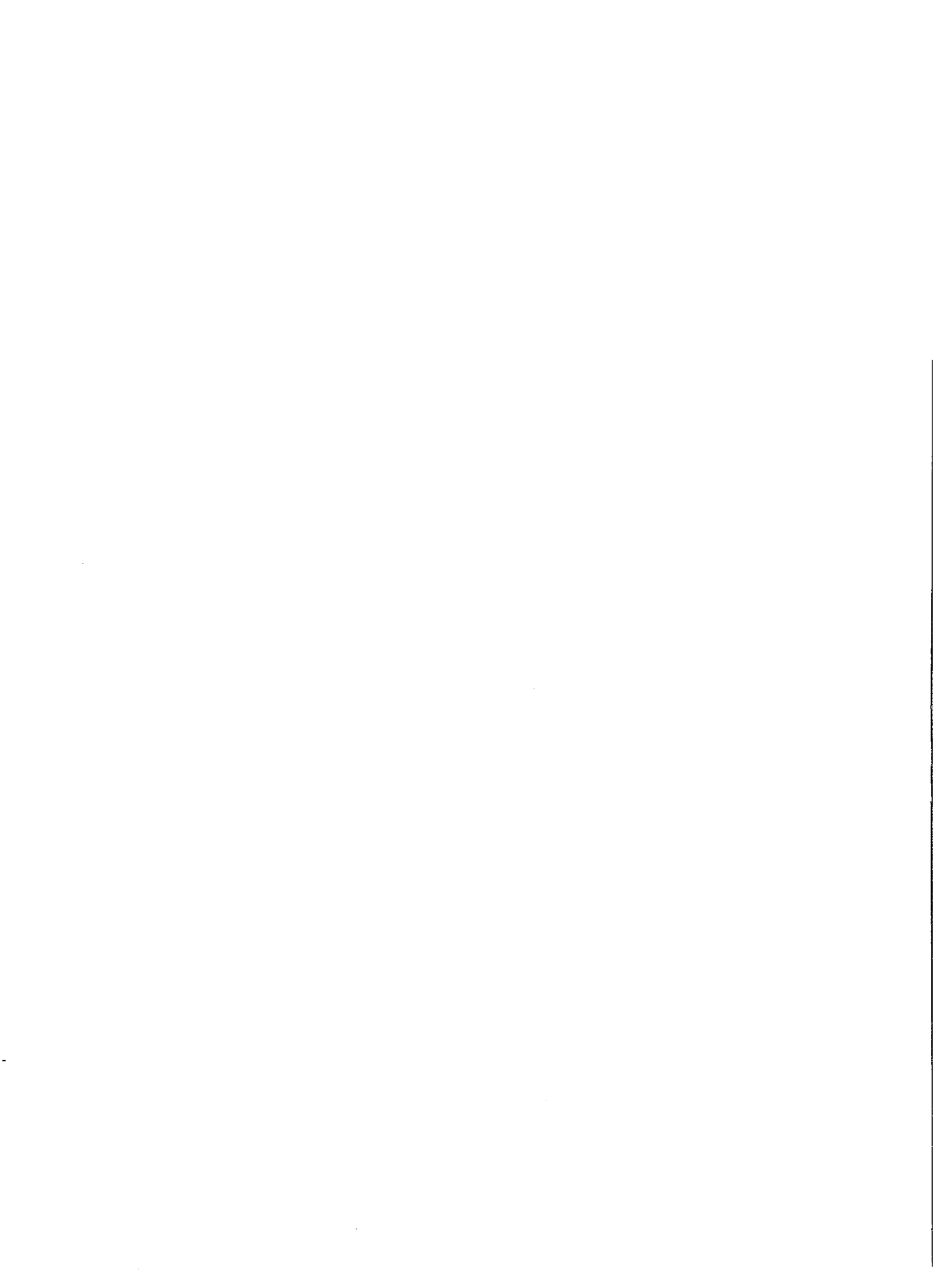
1. Yes, teachers/administrators have these privileges
2. Yes, O.P.S.E.U.(formerly C.S.A.O.) Support have these privileges
3. Yes, Admin Support have these privileges
4. 1 and 2 above
5. 1 and 3 above
6. 2 and 3 above
7. 1, 2, and 3 above
8. No

FOR PURPOSES OF PROMOTION OR HIRING WHAT EMPHASIS SHOULD BE GIVEN TO RELEVANT WORK EXPERIENCE AS OPPOSED TO FORMAL EDUCATION?

1. More for experience/less for education
2. Less for experience/more for education
3. Equal

LIST OF OCCUPATIONS

Artist, Entertainer, Athlete..... 7	<u>Professions</u>	Community College Teacher..... 3
Clerical (e.g. secre- tary, typist, book- keeper, bank teller, office or store clerk)..... 4	Accountant or Auditor..... 3	Elementary or Kinder- garten Teacher..... 3
Farm Owner or Farm Manager..... 2	Clergy or Religious Order..... 3	Secondary School Teacher..... 3
Government Official or Administrator (Incl. hospital and educational admini- strator)..... 1	Economist..... 3	University Teacher..... 3
Homemaker..... 7	Journalist or Writer..... 3	Occupation in other Teaching Profes- sion..... 3
Machine Operator, (e.g. factory assembly worker, metal worker, crane operator)..... 5	Lawyer, Judge, Notary..... 3	Protective Service (e.g. fire fighter, police, guard, Armed Forces personnel).. 7
Manager, Owner of a Small Business..... 1	Librarian..... 3	Sales (e.g. insurance, real estate, adver- tising)..... 7
Manager, Owner of a Med. Size Business, Middle Management.. 1	Social Worker..... 3	Service Worker (e.g. taxi driver, hair- dresser, waiter, waitress, janitor... 7
Manager, Owner or Executive in a large industry, bank, large dept. store, insurance company.. 1	Sociologist, Anthro- pologist, Psycholo- gist..... 3	<u>Skilled Craftsman</u>
<u>Para-Professional</u>	Occupation in other Humanities..... 3	Auto Mechanic..... 5
Computer Programmer. 5	Occupation in other Social Sciences... 3	Carpenter..... 5
Draftsman..... 5	Architect..... 3	Electrician..... 5
Medical or Dental Technician or other paramedical occupa- tion..... 5	Biologist (incl. agri- cultural occupa- tion)..... 3	Machinist..... 5
Radio or TV Studio Operator..... 5	Chemist..... 3	Plumber..... 5
Science or Engineer- ing Technician.... 5	Computer Analyst... 3	TV or Radio Repair- man..... 5
Social Welfare Para- Professional..... 7	Engineer (e.g. Civil, Chemical, Electrical, Mechanical)..... 3	Occupation in other Skilled Trade..... 5
Surveyor..... 5	Geologist..... 3	Workman or Labourer (e.g. bricklayer).. 6
Other..... 5	Mathematician, Statistician..... 3	Workman or Labourer (e.g. assembly line worker)..... 8
	Physicist..... 3	Occupation Not Stated in Preceding List.. 9
	Occupation in other Physical or Applied Sciences..... 3	
	Dentist..... 3	
	Nurse..... 3	
	Pharmacist..... 3	
	Physician or Surgeon..... 3	
	Veterinarian..... 3	
	Occupation in other Health Professions. 3	



APPENDIX D

THE DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Before presenting our data on the determinants of job satisfaction, we present a review of sociological research on satisfaction and morale in the workplace. We then discuss our use of multiple regression in this analysis.

1. Satisfaction and Morale

George Homans notes that, "satisfaction is directly related to emotional behaviour."¹ The profit of an activity is the difference in value between rewards and cost. The greater the profit from doing an activity, the longer and more often a person will do it. Satisfaction appears to be more complex than profit. A person may be satisfied with a job, not because of its pay but because it offers other intrinsic rewards such as social interactions. Noted also is the relative value of satisfaction. One person's perception of satisfaction may vary depending on the people around or the person's own perceptions of what defines satisfaction for him/her. Since the distance from the goal is important, the same reward may appear to have different satisfaction levels

for two people.

A study of white-collar workers by Morse² reveals that employees are more satisfied with promotion when they feel their chances of receiving it are good. Those employees who feel that their chances for promotion are good, but to whom promotions are important, are less satisfied. In other words, the more valuable a reward is to a person (i.e., desire for promotion) then the less satisfied the person is with present rewards. If rewards in the area of pay are similar, then the person who perceives other satisfactions (i.e., social rewards) will be more satisfied than the other person. Homans also notes the difficulties of analyzing satisfaction levels of employees with differential chances for promotion. There appears to be less satisfaction in organizations where there are differential promotions. Some, presumably those promoted, are satisfied, and those noticing others being promoted feel they may have been overlooked.

Criteria for advancement in an organization also appear to be related to satisfaction. Advancement criteria based on seniority appear much easier to define than do advancement criteria based on merit. Homans states that, "at the lower levels, (in the organization) where high ability does not matter so much, they are apt to allow more promotions by seniority than they do at the

upper levels."³

The value of a reward is also important for the incumbent. Clerks may resent low pay if it is incongruent with their perceptions that they are doing a responsible job. Morse's analysis of four rank-ordered clerical jobs -- high-level technical, semi-supervisory, varied clerical and, finally, repetitious clerical, reveals some interesting results.⁴ The repetitious clerical group appear to be highly satisfied despite low promotions and low pay. The explanation for their high levels of satisfaction could be their youth and their low salary expectations.

On the other hand, employees who had received promotions and higher salaries, had also acquired wives and children, thereby increasing their need for more income. In addition, their chances for promotions also become more limited as the organization pyramid narrows. Homans notes Purcell's conclusion, "the least senior people are most satisfied with things like pay, and most senior most satisfied with informal status and the intrinsic interest in their work, while the people in the middle are not much satisfied on either counts."⁵

Older employees, who have taken on extra responsibility of wives and children, might also feel they deserve more pay. Morse notes that semi-supervisory

workers appear to be fairly satisfied with their pay and promotion prospects. These employees are mostly single women. Morse feels that, generally, women expect less than men. Even married women, most of whom are not seen as sole support of families, will indeed be more satisfied with less than male employees.

In her study of types of supervision, Morse discovered that the employees who were not closely supervised were less satisfied than those who were closely supervised. She also discovered that the employees who were not closely supervised got no more pay or promotion than their more closely supervised counterparts. Her findings suggested to her that less clearly supervised employees have invested more in their work and feel they should receive more rewards. This type of employee becomes less satisfied than the closely supervised employee.

In order to understand the social personality of the white-collar employee, it is important to study his/her personality at work. Responses to job satisfaction will vary depending on the position held by the incumbent. Sociological analysis must compare the different images which subjects present as a function of their different roles and situations.

A study of 358 subjects of Parisian insurance companies between 1956 and 1960 reveals some interesting

results.⁶ Work and satisfaction appear to be related to satisfaction with present position. Another finding reveals that the more a person rises in the professional hierarchy, the greater the tendency to be interested in one's work and to complain about one's position. Men are more satisfied at work than women, as are those with seniority. The first year appears to be satisfying, the second to the fifth not so satisfying, and after that more satisfying as seniority also increases. Complaints about office atmosphere appear related to age and sex. The study finds women, old people, and those who have higher aspirations to complain more.

Interest in company life appears higher for people in higher positions, men, and the better educated. These people usually have higher aspirations and are more likely to be unionized. The study concludes that persons in higher positions are better informed about company policies than are those people in lower positions. Women, more than men, feel loyalty to the company. Subjects in the highest salary brackets reveal the lowest company loyalty. Crozier⁷ feels that the loyal employee is also the one with modest origin, little educational background, and low aspirations. He feels this is a response to the protector-protected relationship and passive devotion. Employees with higher aspirations also appear to be more

demanding than other employees.

Union membership is also examined. Unionized employees tend to be better informed than are non-union employees. Unionized personnel appear important, representative, necessary, and distant.

The study also reveals that lack of interest in company life also corresponds to a lower status in the company and the absence of opportunities for promotions. It is companies which have the largest number of employees who think they have good chances for promotion that have the strongest interest in management. Apathy was discovered to be correlated with inferior positions in the company. The study reveals that the employees with the highest aspirations often declare themselves less happy than their colleagues.

Other research by Blauner shows that four factors are related to job satisfaction. These are, first, skill required for the job; second, control by the worker over the pace; third, status of the occupation and, finally, the social relations possible on the job.⁸ According to Blauner, studies up to 1958 revealed approximately 13% of employees appeared dissatisfied. Of more interest is the variation in response to the degree of satisfaction expressed according to the occupational category. Rank-ordering reveals satisfaction to be highest among

professionals and lowest among assembly line workers.. Elements contributing to job satisfaction include income, type of supervision, working relationship, skills in the job itself. Prestige subsumes level of skill, education, and control over work.

Research on control over work suggests that factory workers originate little activity and that assembly-line workers cannot control the pace of their work. Work becomes the means to the "end" of going home. Freedom from close supervision is also an indicator of high job satisfaction. Team workers are also apparently more satisfied.

Satisfaction: Socialization + Structural
= Satisfaction

In the cases of positive satisfaction . . . the major factor is the mix between the worker's expectations (personality) that he brings to the job and the characteristics of the job.⁹

Halls notes that executives generally feel more satisfaction with their jobs than do blue-collar workers. Satisfactions of security, status, esteem and autonomy were most frequently mentioned. Levels of satisfaction among blue and white-collar workers were examined in a study called Work in America.¹⁰ The results show that the higher the status of the occupation, the less the dissatisfaction expressed. Another study of satisfaction

reveals that there is little dissatisfaction expressed by most people with their jobs. Although the evidence appears contradictory, even some dissatisfaction in certain job categories, expressed by some persons, is worth noting. Sources of dissatisfaction are linked to what is important to the worker. For example, women see sex discrimination as much more of a problem than do men.

Although Hall notes the higher dissatisfaction among blue-collar workers, white-collar workers also express dissatisfaction as their work comes closer to mirroring manual work with increased mechanization. Rinehart, in The Tyranny of Work, notes the large numbers of persons, particularly women, employed in the clerical and sales areas of white-collar work. He feels these areas are neither challenging nor complex. The traditional clerk in the early 1900's was a male who identified closely with the company owners. By the 1920's, organizations were broken down into separate departments. As specialization of office work increased during World War II, growing numbers of white-collar workers, again particularly women, became involved with office work. The rationalization of office work appeared to be only one change for clerical personnel. After the 1940's "more and more offices became large and impersonal settings where the big bosses were the people you had heard of but had never seen."¹¹

Rinehart also notes the opportunities for advancement diminish as mechanization increases. In addition, the income differential between white and blue-collar work narrows and this also lowers the former prestige level of white-collar work. Although the exact impact of increased automation in terms of dissatisfaction is difficult to calculate, the author assumes the problems to be greatest for female employees. He admits that women have few chances, if any, of advancement. Rinehart¹² discovered, in a national survey, that only 43% of the white-collar employees said they would choose a similar line of work if they were to begin again. The results support the structural constraints as the main source of dissatisfaction. "Between 1955 and 1965, there was a substantial decline in clerks' satisfaction with many aspects of their work and their employers."¹³ The aspects of dissatisfaction most often mentioned include pay, job security, personnel practices and participation in decision-making.

Hall discusses the relative importance of background characteristics in determining job satisfaction. He notes several studies which suggest "that background and personality factors interact with the work situation to yield reactions to the work."¹⁴

Many studies were cited by Hall which strengthen

the position that the structural components of the job are the main sources of satisfaction or alienation in the job. Neal and Rettig note opportunity structure, and career history as key factors leading to differing degrees of alienation. Meltzer and Salter suggest positive job satisfaction is most crucial since the personal factors could not even apply unless they were placed in a work environment.

The personality characteristics of the job participants cannot be dismissed as unimportant to the issue of job satisfaction.

The traditional, and stereotyped, situation in which the father (of two or three normal and attractive children) goes off happily to work while the woman stays at home and is the happy housewife and mother is in reality becoming a myth.¹⁵

Although the norms are shifting, there are obviously some values in effect which relate to women's choices about her work roles which could lead to either role conflicts or stereotyping. There is evidence suggesting that the husband's support of the wife's working is important to the family relationship.

Studies of dual-career families (both partners working) have been primarily concerned with men and women who hold professional careers. It is apparent that the findings of these studies would also be applicable to men and women who do not necessarily hold professional

positions. In dual-career families, the traditional notion that women are still responsible for child care and other household chores holds true. The conclusions note the possibilities of severe strain on a marriage due to the increased over-loading of occupational and family demands for each of the participants. A final conclusion notes, "if the woman chooses to enter the labour market, both husband and wife experience greater marital happiness than if the woman is forced into the labour market by necessity!"¹⁶ All of the variables mentioned above would have an effect on the level of satisfaction felt by women in the job.

2. Methodology

Multiple Regression

The SPSS multiple-regression program was selected as a method of analysis because of its ability to combine standard multiple regression and stepwise regression in a manner which provides considerable control over the inclusion of independent variables in the regression equation.¹⁷ Output of standardized regression co-efficients allow the program to be used for the calculation of the path co-efficients in path analysis. Multiple regression allowed the study of the linear relationship between a set of independent variables and the dependent variable (job

satisfaction) while taking into account the inter-relationships among the independent variables. Then, choosing those independent variables which correlate the highest with the dependent variables, the linear combination can be used to predict values of the dependent variables. The regression equation is then written as follows:

$$Y = A + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_nX_n$$

where Y is the dependent variable, the X's are the independent variables, the b's are the regression co-efficients (normalized) and A is the constant. This regression equation provides an optimum prediction of the dependent variables.

The stepwise multiple regression program was used in combination with the multiple regression program. Stepwise regression provides a means of choosing independent variables which permits the best prediction possible with the fewest independent variables. Zero-order relationships were examined and variables which proved significant as well as variables which theoretically suggested a high co-relation with the dependent variable, job satisfaction, were chosen to be entered into the regression. The following is an explanation of the stepwise regression:

Table 1-9

1970 AVERAGE INCOMES FOR MEN AND WOMEN FROM THE LARGEST FEMALE OCCUPATIONS OF 1971

<u>Occupation</u>	<u>Average income for men</u>	<u>Average income for women</u>	<u>Women's income as a percentage of men's income</u>
All occupations	\$6574	\$3199	48.7
Secretaries & stenographers(4111)	7312	3952	54.0
Sales clerks, commodities(5137)	4262	1803	42.3
Bookkeepers & accounting clerks(4131)	5828	3660	62.8
Elementary & kindergarten teachers(2731)	7041	5378	76.4
Waiters(6125)	2992	1442	48.2
Tellers & cashiers(4133)	3813	2325	61.0
Farm workers(7182)	1784	1322	74.1
Nurses, except supervisors(3131)	5795	4566	78.8
Typists & clerk-typists(4113)	5110	3066	60.0
General office clerks(4197)	5364	3326	62.2
Sewing machine operators(8563)	4663	2660	57.0
Personal service workers,(6149)	2583	1554	60.2
Janitors(6191)	4220	1892	44.3
Nursing adies & orderlies(3135)	4839	3069	63.3
Secondary school teachers(2733)	9152	6762	73.9
Other clerical workers(4199)	5552	3032	54.9
Receptionists & information clerks(4171)	4144	2805	67.7
Chefs & cooks(6121)	4000	2299	57.5
Packaging workers(9317)	3524	2520	71.5
Barbers and haridressers(6143)	4655	2627	56.4
Telephone operators(4175)	4480	3108	69.4
Library & file clerks(4161)	3850	2847	73.9

Note: Included are all the occupations which in 1971 contained at least 1.0 percent of the female labour force. The occupations are listed in the order of the number of women in them. Only those workers with some employment income are included in the calculations of average income.

Source: Armstrong and Armstrong, p. 378.

From: 1971 Census, Vol. 3.6, Table 14.

amount of variance explained by each variable, with all the others controlled.

Recording

A list of variables, as marked in the questionnaire, Appendix C, were not suitable in their composition for use in the multiple regression run. Some variables were recoded so that an "undecided" category became the midpoint of the interval scale between yes and no. In one other instance, a variable (093) was collapsed to form a high, low dichotomy. Variables were selected to be entered into the regression because they theoretically had applicability or because they proved to be statistically significant when the zero-order correlations between job satisfaction and all other variables were examined.

The dependent variable, job satisfaction, was created from the sum of two variables, divided by two. The variables of perception of enjoyment of working day, and perception of employee morale appeared to be highly correlated, and to be indicants of job satisfaction. The five possible responses to the variables 199 and 200 were collapsed.¹⁹

Due to multicollinearity between two variables, position (VAR 268) and present gross salary from Lakeside (VAR 010) a new variable was created called NVAR, which was the product of the two above-mentioned variables.

Position, (Variable 268) was also created from the sum of five variables (see Appendix X) and was then recoded to be examined from high to low.

Curvilinear Trends

Cross-tabulation of the independent variables entered into the regression and the dependent variables were examined for curvilinearity.

3. Results and Discussion:

Determinants of Job Satisfaction

The R^2 revealed .24 or approximately 24% of the variance was explained by the variables entered into step-wise regression. An examination of the standardized regression co-efficients, (Beta) revealed perceptions of discriminatory hiring procedures. The importance of a promotion appeared as the second variable to explain job satisfaction for college employees (Beta +.23). Those employees who wished a promotion were found to be the least happy with their jobs. G. Homans supports the assumption that employees who wish promotions are less content than those who do not want to be promoted. Studies reveal that structural components, such as opportunity structure, are the main source of job satisfaction.²⁰ The first variable which determines job

satisfaction was a structural concern and also could be viewed as a component of the opportunity structure for some who might wish to move into higher positions in the organization.

The third variable which determines job satisfaction (Beta $-.14$) was the person's present work goal. Those people who wished to leave the organization were less satisfied than those who wished a change or wished to assume more managerial responsibility. A person who wished to leave the organization would undoubtedly be less happy than a person who might not be completely content with his/her position but who still considered himself/herself part of the organization.

The next variable to explain job satisfaction was the amount of encouragement a person received concerning advancement (Beta $-.13$). The more encouragement a person received, the more likely he/she was satisfied with the job. Studies reveal that employees do need positive reinforcement in order to feel happy on the job. A study by Morse²¹ in the early 1950's notes that persons also appear to prefer to be closely supervised. Perhaps close supervision is also taken as an indicator of encouragement.

The fifth variable to explain job satisfaction was the perception of mobility related to cliques (Beta $-.11$).

The last variable which entered the regression was the perception by the employee of a job evaluation appraisal having taken place (Beta - .09). Again, both the responses indicated that structural matters were of great concern to the employees. Those who had their jobs evaluated and who perceived mobility not related to cliques were most happy.

Separate regressions were run for males and females to determine if determinants of job satisfaction were similar for each sex. For both men and women, job evaluation, perception of discriminatory hiring at Lakeside and educational background were common determinants of job satisfaction. For men, the importance of a promotion and their present work goal were important determinants of job satisfaction. Women, however, were more concerned with the perception of clear hiring procedures for people in their own category, whether or not they have been encouraged to advance and, finally, the perception of career mobility related to accessibility to cliques.

It is interesting to note that men saw job satisfaction in terms of cognitive measures such as the importance of promotion, whereas women appeared more concerned with structural concerns and encouragement. Marchak and Kanter support the contention that women face more structural barriers to advancement than men.

Separate regressions were run for the occupational

categories of administrators, faculty and support. For the administrators, the perceptions of mobility related to cliques and the perception of clear hiring procedures for people in their own category appeared as strong determinants of job satisfaction.

For faculty, those who had their jobs evaluated, those who perceived clear hiring practices and those who perceived no discrimination in hiring practices were more satisfied with their jobs than others in this group.

Support staff were concerned about discriminatory hiring procedures, the importance of a promotion, encouragement to advance, and present work goals as they related to job satisfaction.

As previously discussed, the administrators were members of the Hay system and the system of hiring and promotion within the system was vague, according to interview remarks. The "old-boys network" was often seen functioning within the ranks of administration. These characteristics of administrators, found in interviews, could perhaps explain the interest shown by this category for clear hiring procedures and concern about cliques and mobility.

For faculty, it appeared that job evaluation was most important in determining job satisfaction. Those who had their jobs evaluated were happier than those who did

not. Although Blauner and Morse disagree about employees' satisfaction related to close or general supervision, it was apparent for faculty that some supervision (in terms of job evaluation) appeared to interest faculty, as opposed to none at all.

Despite the fact that support staff were concerned about structural matter, (i.e., hiring) the socialization issues such as importance of a promotion and present work goal were closely related to job satisfaction. The support staff (predominantly female) revealed that the determinants of job satisfaction were related to personal considerations, such as the importance of a promotion. Studies by Crozier, Hall, Homans and others reveal that those persons who wish a promotion tend to be less content than those not desiring a promotion. Morse also notes that there appeared to be less satisfaction in organizations with differential promotions. Although the support groups were unionized, there still appeared to be some persons who were "pre-selected" for jobs and who move up the hierarchy, while others reached the top of their categories and stayed where they were (see interview remarks, Chapter 3). This could perhaps explain why those persons wishing promotion in the support groups were less happy than those not interested in promotions.

Discussion of Satisfaction and Morale

Our research supports some of the findings of Morse's study of white-collar workers. Those respondents desiring promotions were less satisfied than those not desiring promotions. The findings also supported Homan's theory that, where differential promotions occurred, there was less satisfaction among those not promoted. The data revealed that both men and women were equally desirous of promotions, although males perceived promotions much more frequently than did females (see Appendix B for low number of female administrators). It appeared that females, more than males, were less satisfied, since they obviously had been promoted less than their male colleagues. The questionnaire also revealed that employees who felt hiring procedures were unclear were also dissatisfied. Homans notes that advancement based on supposed ability is a more difficult criteria to define than seniority and also leads to dissatisfaction. Lakeside College used criteria that combined factors relating to seniority and ability in order to allow people to advance. In most cases, at Lakeside, people were appointed to a new position, although the data revealed that the respondents were interested in having selection committees utilized. Since there was contradiction in practice and believed-to-be appropriate procedures, as well as the confusion of criterion for

advancement, there was also bound to be dissatisfaction among those not promoted.

In the interview data, the support groups also mentioned frequently their dissatisfaction with low pay and frustrations over reaching the top of their classification in three years. They often mentioned their dissatisfaction in having to move to a new position in order to be further rewarded when they felt they were doing responsible jobs at that level.

The data from the questionnaire contradicted findings for levels of satisfaction in particular job categories. Morse discovered the repetitious clerical group to be highly satisfied. Our questionnaire revealed this group to be the most dissatisfied. Although our data also revealed that the younger-aged group was well represented in the support groups, the responses to satisfaction differed. One of the reasons for this difference in response could be related to the age of Morse's study. In 1953, perhaps the younger employee in the repetitious clerical groups felt chances for advancement to be greater than in 1976. Our findings supported Kanter's conclusions that people, who find themselves as non-promotable are often dissatisfied. Tables 1-5 and 1-6 (Appendix A) reveal the rising percentages of women in the labour force from 1951-1974. There has been an increase from 22% in 1951 to 40%

from 1974. In addition, as cited previously, most women have held jobs primarily in the clerical groups. Since most persons in the repetitious clerical group were female, then it was apparent that there was increased competition for jobs in 1974, thereby supporting Kanter's belief that frustration often arises from blocked mobility.

Our results also revealed that the higher-paid employees, who were also administrators, were highly satisfied. Appendix B also revealed that administrators reported the highest gross family income, as well as reporting their income came from themselves only, as opposed to the other occupational groups who had lower family incomes, although both spouses worked. Whereas Morse notes the need for pay to be increased by senior employees, it is apparent in the study of the college, that the administrators were also earning substantially more than other occupational groups. There were some intrinsic rewards for some employees, specifically in faculty and administration groups, which may have differed from the organization under study by Morse. Several faculty persons noted the pleasant, non-pressuring atmosphere found in a community college, as well as the extended holiday periods not often found in industry.

The group found to be most satisfied in Morse's study is the semi-supervisory workers. This group

parallels the faculty, in the college setting. Morse feels that satisfaction is related to the marital status and sex of the incumbents. The faculty group at the college were disproportionately male. There was little perception of unfair salaries. They also often perceived their chances for promotion to be good, if they wished to be promoted. The questionnaire data also revealed that several faculty members earned as much as administrators. Kanter has already suggested that persons with favourable opportunities for advancement refer themselves upwards in rank. Since administrators were highly satisfied, faculty also referred themselves to this group, and were also highly satisfied.

Morse²¹ also suggests the closely supervised employees are more satisfied than generally supervised employees. Interview data suggested responses which differ from the responses found by Morse. Supervisors, particularly females, reported their dissatisfaction over close supervision. Supervision would depend more often on position. According to Kanter, closely supervised employees are considered to be under surveillance from powerless supervisors and, therefore, they take it out on their subordinates. Again, many of the attitudes held by employees to supervision could have changed since the 1953 date of the study by Morse.

FOOTNOTES

1. G. Homans, p. 265.
2. N. C. Morse, Satisfactions in the White Collar Job, Michigan: Michigan University, Survey Research Centre, 1953.
3. G. Homans.
4. N. Morse.
5. G. Homans, p. 273.
6. Ibid.
7. M. Crozier, World of the Office Worker, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1971.
8. R. Blauner, Alienation and Freedom Among the Factory Worker and His Industry, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964.
9. R. H. Hall, Occupations and the Social Structure, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975, p. 45.
10. Work in America, Report on the Special Task Force to Sec. of Health, Welfare, Education, 1973.
11. J. Rinehart, The Tyranny of Work, Don Mills: Longman Canada, Ltc. 1975, p. 91.
12. Ibid.
13. Ibid., p. 96.
14. R. H. Hall, p. 59.
15. Ibid., p. 291.
16. Ibid., p. 299.

17. Multiple Classification Analysis was considered as an analytic tool. This technique was rejected for several reasons. "When intercorrelations among predictors is too high the iterative approach of MCA may fail to converge while ordinary regression will signal using large standard errors." Multiple regression does the same thing as MCA if the variables are intervally scaled and the relationships are linear. Since the data used for the regression could be successfully interval scaled, and since MCA treats all variables as dummy variables, it seemed more appropriate to use the convenient, traditional stepwise regression technique.
18. This explanation is based on N.R. Nie, D. Bent, and C. H. Hull, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1970, p. 181.
19. It was recognized later that the collapsed categories in the dependent variable for the regression run should have been left in the original five categories however, it was decided that the over-all effect was an under-estimate of responses, and, therefore, was left unchanged.
20. R. Hall and J. Rinehart.
21. N. Morse.
22. Ibid.

APPENDIX X

1. Areas	Variables
2. Workers' Personal Background	Sex Age Education
3. "Work" Background Characteristics	Present Gross Salary Family Gross Salary Seniority Position
4. "Attitudes" to Work Related Issues	Present Work Goal Importance of a Promotion Encouragement to Advance Job Evaluation Discriminatory Hiring Procedures Clear Hiring Procedures Mobility Related to Cliques

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