WORKING CONDITIONS FOR WOMEN:
A Case Study - The University of Michigan - Flint

by

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First Reader _____

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Presently, more women work outside the home and get paid more than ever before. Yet, despite the strides women have made over recent decades, questions regarding equality of pay and advancement are still being researched. Sexual harassment and discrimination are a very real part of the workplace. Other issues such as child care and role conflict stem from the increased participation of women in the workforce.

This survey was conducted to learn the opinions of female staff members at the University of Michigan - Flint. This group of women were asked to complete a survey about their opinion and experiences concerning work, sexual harassment, discrimination, and various othe topics.

The paper is divided into two sections. The first introduces the history of women's paid work, touching also on wages, pregnancy, child care, sexual harassment and discrimination. The second section covers the methodology and the survey results including demographics.

PART ONE

HISTORY OF WOMEN'S WORK

Women's labor history is often divided into two different time periods - pre-W.W.II and post-W.W.II. These separate eras provide a place to begin when writing about women and work. Before W.W.II, much, if not all, of women's work was done within the home. Laboring in the fields, keeping the house, tending to children were all part of a woman's daily routine (Helmbold and Scholfield, 1989). The second World War saw the path of women take a turn, however, with women leaving the home for paid employment. New issues arose from the turn of events including the sex segregation of women workers, wage equity, public policy, child care and many other related issues.

Pre-industrial society was predominately agricultural. Skilled labor was in short supply while slavery was utilized heavily in agriculture. Labor markets were unstable. This era saw men and women working at home. A large population growth sparked an increase in market size. The industrial revolution started the movement away from agriculture to skilled trades. White males' desire for money and property made the movement swift and left minorities and women behind. Women were denied legal, political and personal rights (Moskow and Tanner, 1987).

Throughout the industrial revolution married women worked at home while single, divorced or widowed women hired themselves out as domestic servers. As the revolution was drawing to a close, more and more work was becoming available in some factories. Women and children sought employment outside the home. The fragmentation of labor within factories began. Women and children replaced men in the unskilled positions while men moved into skilled, higher paying jobs.

Eventually, women were pushed out of the factories by the newly forming craft unions. Women were sent back home, only to be pulled back in during W.W.I. W.W.I brought many of these women into various industries, i.e. auto, aircraft, electrical, telegraph and office. Although not large numbers of women worked outside the home during this period (less than 20%) (Goldin, 1991),

Women basically remained in the workforce after W.W.I. with the female working population almost tripling by 1940 (See Figure 1, Appendix A). By this time, the role of women in the workforce had changed dramatically. Women's work now took the form of sewing in garments factories, cooking in domestic help situations or in hotels and restaurants, cleaning in domestic situations, and laundering outside the home, to name only a few. The jobs that women maintained became the stereotypical jobs held by the majority of women working outside the home. It is approximated that before 1940, about 16% (Matthews and Rodin, 1989) of all women were working outside the home. Women were perceived and often perceived themselves as inherently domestic creatures who were only suited for marginal types of waged work that mirrored the work in the home (Helmbold and Scholfield, 1989). Women's jobs were labeled as "female" and were the lowest paying types of employment.

Early textile mill employers eagerly hired females, only supporting the prevailing ideas of women all the more. They were hired by shoemakers, retail sales companies and companies offering clerical positions, all jobs presumed to be suited for women since they felt women had a higher tolerance level for tedious jobs. Many employers believed that female fingers were "much more nimble" for these types of tasks (Helmbold and Scholfield, 1989). The ideas shared by most white males determined the type of job a woman could hold and how much she would be paid. Working women, constantly in battle with attitudes, prevalent in society, often were forced to accept menial work as clerks,

garment sewers, and maids. Despite their poor treatment, work cultures began to develop over time and groups of women started to see themselves as members of the working class.

In some cases, unionization of women was attempted, but failed due to the attitudes which prevailed toward women. Unions were unable to see women as anything more than helpless victims and would not treat them as equals. Women in the shoemaking industry attempted to organize through the Daughters of St. Crispin. Despite successfully organizing, they were seen as a threat by male workers and were never recognized by present unions as a true union (Helmbold and Scholfield, 1989). Male and female printers often displayed an unusual cooperation with each other, but were limited by the cultural attitudes of the times. Between 1909 and 1913, garment workers staged great uprisings such as walkouts and riots or consumer boycotts. The Women's Trade Union League was formed and supported the militant activity of women on strike. In 1913, the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union was recognized. The contract, however, stated that 'no women shall make more than the lowest paid male' (Moskow and Tanner, 1987). The high point for the organization of women was between 1880 and 1920 when groups such as the Women's Christian Temperance Union, the women's club movement, and the suffrage movement were in full swing. Though not many women were involved directly with these groups, they provided a tradition of activism and pride for women in the work force (Helmbold and Scholfield, 1989). The Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO) rarely acknowledged the efforts of these organizations and few women were included in leadership positions (Helmbold and Scholfield, 1989). The hostility between the labor unions and the differences between the sexes was the driving force behind such separate organizing.

Many historians feel the turning point of women's participation in the labor force started with W.W.II. The war brought many women into the labor force, factories in particular, taking the place of the men who served in the armed forces. Their entrance into the work force is attributed to many things; a husband's absence meant less income for the women, patriotic duty to the country, much free time (school for children was mandatory by this time), the various incentives for training and alternative housekeeping arrangements. Incentives such as these made work quite appealing (Goldin, 1991). Once these women were in the labor market, the cost of leaving the home decreased compared to the benefits of earning a respectable wage. Prior to W.W.II work being done by women was clerical, sales and domestic work. Women were now doing the same work as their husbands and brothers, while earning wages that were comparable to the men. This "taste" of working wages tempted many women to remain in the work force after the war ended. Although, according to the study done by Goldin (1991), not as many women stayed in the work force as is often thought. On the contrary, many women who were in the work force after the war were in the work force before the war. The war did bring many into the work force, however, and the increase in participation by women has been growing ever since. An impact of W.W.II was not only the training that women received, but more importantly, the way society viewed women outside the home. "Marriage bars", up until W.W.II, kept married women out of the work force. Employers kept women on the job until such time as they decided to marry. Once married, their position was no longer available to them. In some instances, single women thought to be in "prime" marriage years (18-25), were discriminated against as well. After W.W.II, "marriage bars" were virtually non existent. Women were seen as more than housewives, and though not a great

deal of support was given for some years, women had proven they belonged in the work force.

Since the conclusion of W.W.II women have made great strides with regards to education, wages, and occupations. The 60s and 70s saw a huge move of women into the work force with a jump from 38% in 1960 to 55% by 1980 (See Figure 1, Appendix A). Women were now better educated and tended to stay in the work force. As of January, 1988, 55.9% of women, or 53.9 million, were in the civilian labor force (Matthews and Rodin, 1989). That represents an increase of almost 35% of women from the early 1900s (See Figure 1, Appendix A). The participation of women in the labor force made huge leaps from 1950 to the present day, with the biggest jump between 1968 and the mid-eighties (Matthews and Rodin, 1989).

Wage Gap and Satisfaction

In the United States, "paid work constitutes an individual's standard of living and is also the major symbol of status" (Loscocco, 1991). Wages for men and women over the years have been polarized and traditionally men are paid higher wages and receive better jobs than women. From the earliest start of women working in the labor market, they have received low pay and little or no benefits from employers. This wage gap has several explanations. First, women are the primary care givers for children and the home, thus they often choose to work at part-time jobs which allow for flexible schedules in order to provide easier access to their responsibilities at home. Second, women historically have had less opportunities for education and training, preventing them from entering any occupation other than that of low skill, which in turn provides low pay. Third, societal attitudes have brought discrimination to the

labor market, preventing many women from obtaining work even if they do have the necessary qualifications.

Presently, even when so many women are completing higher education and training on a regular basis, many are encouraged to enter careers that are traditionally female occupations such as teachers, nurses, librarians, and special caregivers (Reynolds, Masters, & Moser, 1991). These professions pay considerably less than traditionally male occupations such as engineers, architects, and physicians. The biggest increase in the labor market for women has been in clerical and administrative positions (Hartmann, 1988). Women are making progress in areas of administration, law, medicine, higher education, and various other occupations but at a much slower rate. By 1975, 11.7 million females in the work force were clerical workers (Manpower Report of the President). Between 1970 - 1980, 1.1 million new clerical positions were occupied by women (See Table 1, Appendix A). Clerical positions in the early 1900's such as filing, typing and communications were traditionally occupied by men. In the mid 1900's, clerical work changed along with the growing size of organizations. As organizations increased in size, clerical work became more complicated, more mechanical, and more administrative. Males progressed within organizations and women were being hired to take over these positions. Despite the cleric's changing responsibilities, the pay was not increasing. The clerical position is now subdivided into separate full time positions. Upgraded jobs, such as programming have been created, but professional and technical people are commonly brought in to fill these positions (Glenn and Feldberg, 1991). The lower level workers thus remain at the same wage level. The wage gap has been decreasing over the years, but the ratio of women's earnings to men's earnings is still around 65% (Reynolds, Masters, & Moser, 1991), (See Table 2, Appendix A).

Numerous studies currently deal with whether or not women are *satisfied* with the pay they receive. One in particular, from Randy Hodson (1989), produced what many thought were shocking results. The article stated that women in general *are* satisfied with their pay and occupations. Many asked how this is possible when women are getting paid lower wages than men. A Loscocco and Spitze study concluded that people must have a comparison in order to know if they are truly satisfied and satisfaction comes from what expectations the person has. Within the comparison's context and a person's general expectations, a person makes a decision as to whether or not he/she is satisfied (Loscocco and Spitze, 1991). Though it is true that female workers express more satisfaction in their jobs than men, it is within the context of the situation where the explanation lies. Most women are in pre-dominantly female jobs, thus the only comparison they have is to other females in the same situation. Comparing one's self to others in a similar situation tends to give a feeling of satisfaction since you are no better or worse off than the next person. Many women provide a second income to their family. Workers tend to base their satisfaction on their income needs and women who provide a second income see their pay as adequate for their needs (Loscocco and Spitze, 1991). Often women who have lower education or feel inadequate due to discrimination or role conflict believe that they are lucky just to have employment, and should be satisfied with what they have (Loscocco and Spitze, 1991). Organizational contexts raise and lower satisfaction as well. Within an organization, women may experience higher expectations, especially if unionized, and will feel more satisfaction when employees of an organization as a whole are paid relatively the same wage (Loscocco and Spitze, 1991). The findings from the Hodson (1989) article were accurate but do not reflect the reality of the situation. Women may feel satisfied with their wages and their jobs, but only due to the environment which surrounds

them. Women in pre-dominantly female occupations are relatively satisfied, despite the fact that they receive fewer rewards than other women or men (Wharton and Baron, 1991). As mentioned before, this strange phenomenon has been explained by the fact that their comparative context is with other women in the same situation.

Pregnancy and the Workplace

Along with the women in the work force come special issues and one of these is the issue of pregnancy. Many employers over the years have discriminated and treated unfairly women who are pregnant or might become pregnant in the future. Until 1987, their was little a woman could do about being discriminated against due to pregnancy. In 1987, an historic case was ruled on that posed the question of whether it is possible to have equal treatment of all workers, pregnant or not. This case was the Supreme Court decision on Lillian Garland vs. California Federal Savings and Loan Association (Vogel, 1990). Lillian Garland was a secretary for this California bank who sought to return to her job after having been on a leave of absence for delivery of her child and recovery afterward. Due to complications with her pregnancy, Lillian needed several months in order to recover, and when she returned to her place of employment she was told that no position was available for her at that time. The landmark decision of the Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the California law which stated that employers must provide unpaid job-protected disability to pregnant employees (Vogel, 1990).

The Lillian Garland case raised several questions regarding the equality of women in the work force. Were women to be treated differently or equally? Was pregnancy a disability, or a natural state not to be treated any differently

than a common cold from which employees would use their own time to recover? These and other questions regarding equality prompted the Pregnancy Discrimination Act (PDA). In 1982, the federal PDA was put into place and basically stated that special treatment of pregnancy in the workplace does not necessarily contradict the imperatives of equality (Vogel, 1990).

Over the years, special treatment for women through protective legislation has only reinforced sex segregation in the work force. It has been argued that legislation does more to harm women than good. Special treatment encourages attitudes of discrimination that women have worked years to change. The PDA, however, was a step toward reconciling this problem for all women who choose to have children and work outside the home. The PDA extends the 1964 Civil Rights Act to cover discrimination on the basis of pregnancy and specifically mandates that employers treat pregnant workers the same as other workers who are comparably able or unable to work (Vogel 1990). The problem of employer discrimination against pregnant women, however, was not going away and something had to be done. In the early 1970s, employers could and did fire workers for being pregnant. They could also refuse to hire or even interview women who were pregnant or in their child bearing years. The PDA recognizes pregnancy as physician Wesley Chavkin puts it, "Pregnancy....is not an illness. Rather, it is a unique condition, that may be accompanied by special needs, and sometimes by illness" (Vogel, 1990). In sum, pregnancy in the work place should be treated no differently than any other worker, who for a period of time needs a leave of absence for disability, personal, or other reasons.

Child Care and Family Roles

The large increase in women's participation in the work force has brought the issue of child care to the forefront. Economically, the number of women with young children in the job market has produced shifts in the labor supply and wage rates. As women continue to further their education and training, their human capital is rising. Human capital is defined as a person's worth with regard to their employment credentials. For example, as a person's education increases, their human capital rises. The more experience an employee has, the more human capital he/she has. With a rise in human capital, a number of other factors enter into the situation. For instance, as human capital for women increases, their demands for higher wages increase. Thus the average wage for women is steadily climbing. With the increase in the wage rate, the labor supply for women is increasing as well. The demand for child care is increasing, causing a shift in the demand for child care workers and facilities. The birth rate and timing is also changing due to this increase in human capital. Many women are having less children, and when they do have children, they are having them closer together in years. In other words, women are "bunching" their births in order to get back into the work force sooner (Blau and Robins, 1991).

All these factors cause women workers to create many shifts in the economy. Women's real wages are rising, and this increase is driving child care demand up. It is now a major part of life for many families, while women are spending less time at home and more time at their place of employment (Smith, 1990). In a study done by the Virginia Slims organization, women were polled and asked their opinion about their life and careers. The results showed that most working women are still the primary care giver at home, that their biggest

problem seems to be money, or lack there of. Of all the women polled, 45% thought of their occupation as a career, not just a job (Veum and Gleason, 1990).

By 1970, 28.7 % of mothers with children under age six, were working in the labor force (Veum and Gleason, 1991). In 1990, the percentage doubled to 58.2% (Veum and Gleason, 1991). This huge increase has led to major social changes. Government subsidy for child care has been expanding, providing tax benefits to those who must use child care outside the home. Female-headed households are increasing rapidly from 10.6 % to 16.3 % of all families. This brings special needs of these women which must be dealt with. In the middle of all this there are children. These children need care and many families choose or have no choice but to use child care outside the home with non-relatives. In 1991, over forty percent of families were using people other than relatives to care for their children while at work (Veum and Gleason, 1991). This type of arrangement is very costly, despite government subsidies. On average, families will spend up to $60 a week on child care (See Table 2, Appendix A). That is approximately $3,100 a year for the necessary arrangements of child care (Veum and Gleason, 1991). As income increases for the family, child care increases. The study done by Veum and Gleason (1991) show that as income goes up, the percentage of families using child care increases proportionately. The more hours used, the more money spent. Overall, the study shows that the demand for better wages only increases for women who want careers and adequate care for their children. As the Virginia Slims Poll (1990) showed, many more women choose to have careers and families at the same time.

Careers and families are quickly becoming the norm for today's women. Two-incomes are now a necessity for most families. This need for increased income began with a dramatic falloff in earnings for blue-collar males. Between

1955 and 1973, the median wage for men went from $15,056 to $24,621. The earnings began dropping suddenly, however, and by 1987, the median wage for males, adjusted for inflation, was $19,859, a 19% decrease from 1973 (Hewlett, 1990). Higher taxes, the cost of housing, tuition, benefits, etc. all make dual income families common. Besides financial necessity, most women choose a career and family as a way of life. The impact on the family with both adults working is an ongoing topic for study as is the effect on the children, the structure of the family, and the working woman/wife/mother (Matthews and Rodin, 1989). A study done by Desai and Waite (1991) looked at career choices of women with children. They were looking for evidence that women choose careers based on which job makes leaving for and returning from maternity leave easier. The study also looked at part-time work, types of occupations and other variables in relation to how quickly a woman returns to work following the birth of a child. No evidence was found that children influence career choice. It was found that part-time workers return to work more quickly than full-time workers. The more working mothers there are in an occupation, the more likely a woman will return to work. Women with higher earnings return quicker and women with specific job training return quicker as well.

For years women have followed a come-and-go career path. It is only recently that this career path has been named "The Mommy Track" (Byrne, 1990). Originally, "mommy track" was a negative term used to describe a slow, "going nowhere" career pace. Women who took valuable time off to bear and raise children were thought to have no career goals. Having even two children would use up their "productive years" (Byrne, 1990).

The "mommy track" is now used to describe the sequence of events involved for a "career woman". It is the time line of working, having a baby, and returning to work. Researchers use the "mommy track" to study the effects of

work on women and their children. With about 70% of women with children under the age 18 working, it is not uncommon for "mommy track" women to experience role conflict. In other words, is the woman a worker first or a mother first? Does she leave work early for a school play or finish the meeting? Should she work at all if the child is not yet in school? All these questions create guilt, role confusion, and often exhaustion. (Matthews and Rodin, 1989). Due to this dual role of mother and worker, many women feel pressure to be "superwoman", and often feel inadequate if they cannot handle both jobs. Also, according to a study by Veum and Gleason (1990), the majority of women participating in their opinion poll experience a role identity conflict. Women are not sure what their main role should be. Are they mothers first? Is their career a priority? Are they bad mothers if they think of themselves and their career first? Many women try to do it all with little help from their spouses (Veum and Gleason, 1990).

Discrimination and Sexual Harassment

Women have gained legal access to all occupations. However, discrimination has made breaking into certain positions very difficult and sexual harassment has made it difficult to stay. The US. Merit System Protective Board (USMSPB) defines sexual harassment as "deliberate or repeated unsolicited verbal comments, gestures, of physical contact of a sexual nature that are considered to be unwelcome by the recipient" (Maypole, 1987). Women questioned in a 1990 Virginia Slims' Opinion poll felt strongly that sexual harassment and discrimination were still major problems at work (Townsend and O'Neill, 1990). In 1981, USMSPB surveyed 23,000 women working for the federal government. 42% of the women surveyed had experienced sexual harassment within the last two years (Kaplan, 1991).

Discrimination, sexual harassment, or harassment all take their toll on the victim. Negative emotional reactions affect women at work and home. In the same study by USMSPB, 36% of the sexual harassment victims reported negative feelings about work. All the victims reported less ambition, less job satisfaction, and impaired job performance. Discrimination on the other hand, has a different impact. With discrimination, women cannot gain entrance to the position for which they are applying. If women obtain a position, many are discouraged by the "glass ceiling" they hit due to discrimination within the work place (Mason, 1992). Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits the discrimination against women in hiring or in job conditions. 30 years later, however, many feel it has fallen short of providing equality in the workplace. The main reason for this is that "the concept of motherhood and children are rarely, if ever, mentioned in judicial opinions or legislation related to Title VII" (Mason, 1992).

Summary

Before 1968, very little was written on women in the labor market. Women have been working since the beginning of time, they were just working inside the home. This fact has not been recognized since this type of work is not wage work. It was not until the late 1800s that women started working outside the home, and it was not until recently that this fact has been recognized. Women for years have struggled to be an equal part of the labor force. Women were forced to work in underpaid and overworked industries such as the garment and domestic industries, that men deemed appropriate for women. "Women's work" became the only employment that any female could enter into, with minority women experiencing the brunt of this work. It has been noted that

women's participation in the work force falls into two categories - pre W.W.II and post W.W.II. Though not as big an impact as once thought, W.W.II did play an important role in getting more women into the male dominated labor market. The jobs which women were exposed to during W.W.II were higher paying factory jobs. Many women went back home after the war, but nonetheless, the war started an influx of women entering the work force over the next forty years. This increase continues at a steady pace in the 1990s.

Many side effects go along with the increase of women into the labor market. Child care demand has risen tremendously as more families have both adults working outside the home. In particular, single-headed households have increased and child care is an absolute necessity for such families. With so many women remaining in the work force following the birth of their children, issues regarding treatment of pregnant women have come to the forefront. Employers can no longer discriminate based on pregnancy nor can they fire a women for becoming pregnant while employed with the organization. The Pregnancy Discrimination Act put into place in 1982 was the first step in enforcing this idea.

Economically, with more women in the labor market, the labor supply of women has increased over the years. This shift in the labor supply is a direct result of the human capital of women rising, and the demand of better jobs and training for women. The wage gap that has been so large over the years seems to be decreasing, though at a slower pace than women would prefer. The wage gap is a direct result of women workers' lack of experience, part-time work which many women choose due to children at home, and discrimination of women with regards to the lower pay of traditionally female jobs. The shift of women into male dominated jobs is starting to relieve some of the wage gap, and also explains the relative satisfaction of women and their jobs.

In closing, the struggle of women in the workplace is far from over. Much has been done over the last century to improve things, but at a relatively slow pace. It is critical that labor history begin to integrate the plight of women and their struggle to gain equality in the work place. As Joan Scott pointed out, "labor historians have made commendable efforts to include women as a subject in recent writings but few if any are willing to rank gender along with class as an important category of analysis" (Helmbold and Schofield, 1989). Women are an important part of labor history, and it is only recently that society has recognized this fact.

PART TWO
ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Purpose of Research

The lack of research with regard to women in the work place and potential concerns of female staff members (non-faculty employees) at the University of Michigan - Flint are the two main reasons for which this study was done. The study was conducted to learn how female staff workers feel about their position within the University of Michigan - Flint.

The first section of this paper described the history of women's participation in the labor force with the many accomplishments and failures that women have had over the years. As with any part of labor history, many questions arise regarding every aspect of this complex issue. Women as part of labor history have only in recent decades been included in researchers' studies. The ever growing population of female workers changes constantly. In order to continue and promote studies of females in the work place, new questions need to be asked or old questions asked to new groups of women. The survey used for this study was developed by a group of concerned women within the University of Michigan - Flint (hereafter referred to as the University). The group was formed to learn of any problems which may exist for staff women at the University. The group met and discussed possible issues which might raise concerns for this particular group of working women. It is the purpose of the research to find patterns within the responses which reflect a negative or positive situation. The patterns suggest that the majority of staff women feel the same way about certain issues.

The largest number of new positions held by females between 1970 and 1980 were secretarial and administrative, while the least number of new positions were machine operators (US. Department of Commerce, See Appendix A, Table 1). Many studies use similar situations to draw conclusions regarding various concerns of female workers. Examples of such studies include Bonita C. Long's study "Sex-Role Orientation, Coping Strategies, and Self-Efficacy of Women in Traditional and Nontraditional Occupations", Mary Ann Mason's "Standing Still in the Workplace: Women in Social Work and Other Female-Dominated Occupations", and Karyn A. Loscocco and Glenna Spitze's "Working Conditions, Social Support, and the Well-Being of Female and Male Factory Workers". These and other studies deal directly with the impact of female and male dominated positions regarding women. The results from this study are compared to the results of like studies.

Methodology

The female staff members of the University were given a questionnaire, asked to complete and return it within a week. The survey was a cross-sectional non-probability survey. The population consisted of 194 female staff members of the University. Surveys returned numbered 114. The results were put into tables of frequency and percentage. In addition, the survey was arranged into groups, i.e. similar issues looked at together for analysis.

The survey consisted of statements pertaining to focused issues. Participants were asked first to choose whether they agree with the statement, and in a second section, to choose if the issue is important to them. The statements in which staff members were asked whether they agree or not, have choices ranging from 1-6, (1) is strongly agree, and (5) is strongly disagree (the

value 6 is for "does not apply"). An example of such a statement is "My career/job advancement is largely up to me/under my control". Statements in which staff members must decide if they feel the issue is important, were asked to choose between 1-6 as well. In this section, (1) is very important and (5) is very unimportant. A third section dealt with the issues of harassment, sexual harassment, and discrimination. Women were asked only if they had or had not experienced any one or more of these. The issues were put into seven categories; harassment/discrimination, pay/benefits, role conflict, maternity/child care, morale, advancement, and on the job conditions. Each of these categories is discussed and the results compared with another study or studies.

Briefly, the areas of harassment and discrimination were covered. For these sensitive issues, women were asked simply to circle "yes", "no", or "not sure" to whether they had ever experienced harassment, sexual harassment, or discrimination.

The pay/benefits area touches on such things as whether the staff woman, feels she was compensated as well as other staff members in similar positions, if she is paid enough to support a family, and statements regarding benefits received.

Role conflict and morale were two important issues included in the survey. Staff women were asked to tell whether they experience role conflict and if they feel morale at the University is acceptable. Role conflict is defined as personal conflict between being worker and/or wife, mother.

A third issue, maternity/child care involves two statements asking simply if the options for maternity leave and child care are adequate.

In the area of advancement, the statements in place are designed to find out whether or not the population feels they have any chance to earn a promotion, or if they feel they are stuck in their current position.

On the job conditions refer to how the staff member feels about the day to day part of her job. Statements pertaining to workload, variety of tasks done, and supervisory leadership were included.

Finally, an entire section was devoted to demographics. Ethnic origin, age, job classification, etc. were included. This area will be discussed and compared to the University staff population and a national survey.

The final sections of the paper are a report of the results and conclusions and implications. When reporting the results of the survey: 1) each issue area is discussed, 2) a summary of the responses will be given and 3) the responses are compared to like studies.

The conclusion/implication section is an examination of the results in order to find patterns of opinion. In looking at any patterns which may exist, conclusions can be drawn regarding possible concerns or problems. What does all the data mean? Do staff women feel problems exist for themselves? Do the demographics suggest that diversity is a problem for the University? It is hoped that the patterns of response will reveal the answers to these questions.

RESULTS

(Please refer to Appendix B for complete details on all survey results)

Harassment, Sexual harassment, and Discrimination

The definitions used for the survey were taken from the University's policy on harassment and discrimination and are as follows:

> **Harassment**: To be annoyed, bothered, disturbed, or intimidated persistently by a person or persons.
>
> **Sexual Harassment**: To be subjected to sexual behavior where submission to this behavior is the basis for firing, hiring, or advancement; or, to be subjected to sexual behavior that creates an offensive work environment.
>
> **Discrimination**: To experience biased or unfair judgments related to employment, because of factors that are irrelevant to job performance.

The following table shows how the staff members responded to this issue:

SEXUAL HARASSMENT	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	23	20%
No	83	73
Not Sure	8	7
Totals	N = 114	100%

GENERAL HARASSMENT	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	43	38%
No	62	54
Not Sure	9	8
Totals	N = 114	100%

DISCRIMINATION	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	44	39%
No	56	49
Not Sure	11	10
Totals	N = 114	98% *

*error due to rounding

Discrimination and harassment of any kind take a mental and physical toll on working women. The price of filing a grievance is often retaliation by the accused. The majority of women studied by Maypole and Skaine (1983), Evans (1978), Tangri et al.,(1982), handled sexual harassment passively - ignoring and/or avoiding the harasser. A study done by the Working Women Institute found that 36 percent of the victims reported negative feelings about continuing work (1982).

Two separate studies done on sexual harassment showed interesting results. The Merit System Protection Board conducted a study in 1980. 23,000 federal employees were randomly selected and asked whether or not they had experienced sexual harassment at any time during their working career. 42% of the female respondents reported that they had. Maypole and Skaine (1982) randomly selected 324 blue-collar factory employees, a total of 152 responses. 36% of the female respondents reported they had experienced sexual harassment. The University results were lower, with only 20% of the respondents reporting they had experienced sexual harassment.

In a survey conducted locally, as part of a national study, 220 women responded to the "Working Women Count" survey. The results showed 40% of the respondents had lost a job due to discrimination based on gender or race. The women reported discrimination as one of their top concerns about working (Flint Journal, 1994). The discrimination question for the University women showed that 39% of the respondents felt they had been discriminated against at some point during their working career. General harassment is an issue in which no research or studies could be found. The issue was placed on the survey because one of the women conducting the survey reported she was experiencing harassment. She felt it was a possible University-wide concern, therefore the issue was part of the survey. As the results show, a higher

percentage of women felt they have been harassed, 38%, than have experienced sexual harassment. A total of 25% of the respondents reported that they were not sure whether they had experienced any harassment or discrimination.

Pay and Benefit Satisfaction

The results of the survey show 35% of staff women working for the University strongly disagree and 28% disagree that they make sufficient money to support their family. In addition, 24% strongly disagree and 34% disagree that their pay is equal to others that work at the University. A high number of women, 30%, strongly disagree and 36% disagree that they are paid as well as women at other institutions. The women do, however, seem relatively satisfied with the benefits they receive with 83% agreeing the benefits are adequate.

These results are similar when compared to some studies, and in direct conflict with others. A study conducted by Hodson (1989) showed that women were satisfied with the job and the pay they receive. Hodson explained this as comparing oneself to others around you who are usually in similar positions (such as union shops). The same was reported in the Loscocco and Spitze study conducted in 1991. A group of female factory workers were asked about their pay satisfaction in comparison to others who do similar work within the factory. Out of 52 factories, 1070 women, 824 responded they were satisfied with the pay they receive. They were not satisfied however, with the pay they received compared to others outside their place of employment. Loscocco and Spitze concluded from this that women do compare themselves with like situations.

The staff women of the University are not satisfied with their pay however, and their responses directly contradict Hodson's results and the Loscocco and Spitze study. The respondents for this survey felt they were not paid as well as others inside or outside of the University. The 1990 Virginia Slims Opinion poll found the number one workplace dissatisfaction was with rate of pay. In addition, 63% felt that if they could receive higher wages where they work, their lives would be better. In the "Working Women Count" survey, locally, 49% of women feel they do not get paid what they are worth. In the national survey, 65% of the women feel underpaid. The University women seem to be in agreement with the national population as well as the local population of Flint.

Role Conflict

The issue of role conflict is becoming more pronounced with each passing year. More women continue to enter the work force, have families, and maintain both on a regular basis. Almost half of the staff women of the University feel they too experience role conflict in their lives. 19% strongly agree and 30% agree that they experience role conflict between their jobs and their homelife. They are not alone. The number one topic women would like to talk to President Clinton about is the "difficulty of balancing work and family, including child care" ("Working Women Count", Flint Journal report, 1994). Rebecca Piirto writes of a "New Women's Revolution" (1991) and reports more women are now dissatisfied with the effect that work has on their personal lives. Women who wish they could be better homemakers rose 11 points from 1989. The Monitor survey was sent to 2,500 Americans and 40% of the respondents were working women. The survey revealed that these women usually remained the household's primary cook, dishwasher, and cleaner despite holding down full-time jobs. These

women are also dissatisfied with having to hold down two full-time positions, both home and at the office (Piirto, 1991).

In the Virginia Slims Opinion poll (1990), the female respondents felt they did a good job of balancing their career and household, but not without a price. Six in ten women with children said they feel the demands of raising a family and working full-time. They feel stressed and guilty about the lack of time they have to spend with their family. The answer? 64% of the women felt the problem would change if they received more help from their male partners.

Maternity and Child Care Satisfaction

Maternity leave and child care are two hot topics for working families today. The issue was included into the University survey as well. However, the results were rather unexpected. 47% of staff women at the University have children under 18, yet 53% responded that the maternity leave offered by the University does not apply to them. In addition, when asked if the child care offered by the University was adequate for them, a high 61% responded it does not apply to them. In the national survey, "Working Women Count", it was the top concern of all female respondents. A question posed to all the women in this survey asked what they would like to tell the president. The main point that women wanted to get across was that they needed adequate and less expensive child care. The child care and maternity leave issue came up time and time again. The University staff women feel it is an important issue, over 50% responding that it was important. The child care option they choose is not the University's program, however. Of those that do use the University's child care program, 7.9% strongly disagreed and 10.5% disagreed that it was adequate for them, and 1% strongly agreed while 4% agreed it was adequate. For the maternity

leave, the results were 16% agree and 5% strongly agree that the leave offered is enough, and 7% strongly disagreed while 3% disagreed. These results are fairly consistent with other studies.

Morale

The question of morale was included in the survey to obtain an overall feel of how female staff women perceive the entire working population at the University. It was posed to them in one simple, straight forward question. It asked the staff members to agree or disagree to the following statement - "Overall, the level of employee morale at UM-Flint is acceptable". The percentages were high and reflected a negative response. 40% disagreed and 25% strongly disagreed that the level of morale is acceptable. A high percentage, 70%, felt that the issue of morale is "very important". Here again, the staff women are not in the minority. Women responding to the Virginia Slims Poll are stressed, underpaid, and experiencing some sort of role conflict between work and home. 35% of these women would like their employers to be more understanding of them as working women (Townsend and O'Neill, 1990). Very little else could be found regarding morale and the workplace. The issue is quite broad, and therefore thought of more as an overall measure of feeling. When researching this topic, however, it was evident that the overall negative feeling of most working women is similar to the University staff women.

Advancement

The advancement issue involved asking the respondents three questions. Do they agree or disagree with the following statements: 1) they have control

over their advancement; 2) they have a good chance to advance; and 3) they have effective tools for advancement. The responses were as follows; 30% disagreed while 19% strongly disagree that they have any control over their advancement, 41% disagreed and 29% strongly disagreed that they have a good chance to advance, and finally, 30% disagreed and 15% strongly disagreed that they have the tools to advance. Many working women feel this way. For the "Working Women Count" national survey (1994), 47% of the respondents felt they have little or no ability to advance. 69% of lower-wage blue collar working women reported they had no chance to advance as did 70% of the working women in a technical field. A final statistic, 22% of women who earn $10,000 a year or less, responded "None" when asked about their ability to advance. Locally, the same survey conducted in Flint, Michigan, reported ability to advance as one of the top concerns of the female respondents. On-the-job training was sited as a change which could provide a better workplace.

On the Job Conditions

The questions used for this issue were a variety of topics which might affect the worker every day. The staff members were asked about their supervisor, their workload, variety of tasks, and their time constraints. The respondents basically felt that overall, their supervisors were leading effectively and applying policies well. Almost 60% felt their supervisor applied policies well, and 51% felt the supervisor leads effectively. When asked about their daily workload, 54% felt their workload was reasonable, while 33% felt it was not reasonable. Close to 70% of the respondents said they had enough time to finish their work, and a high 92% felt they had a variety of tasks to do on their job.

While University staff women feel good about their day to day work, many women throughout the nation do not feel as strongly. The respondents for the "Working Women Count" survey (1994) were given a list of possible problems associated with their jobs and asked to rank them in order of most problematic to the least. The number one problem was "too much stress on the job". 60% reported this as their biggest problem. The percentage of women who like what they do on their job was proportionate to their income. 39% of women who earn $10,000 or less are satisfied, 42% of women earning $25,000 to $50,000 like what they do. There was a significant drop amongst women earning $50,000 or more. 31% of these women like what they do for a living.

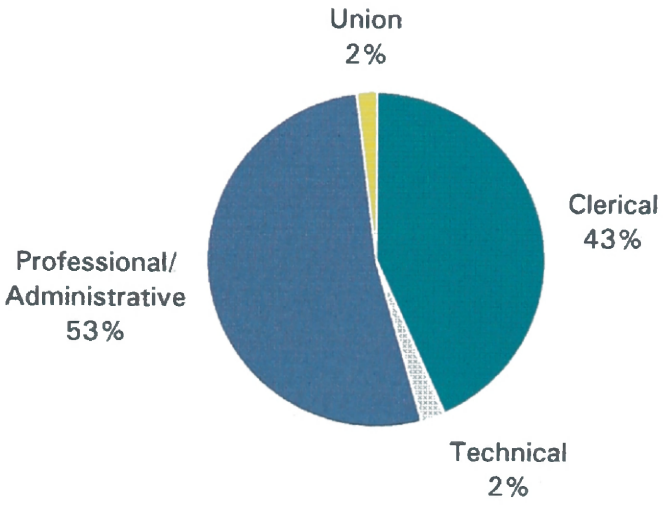
Demographics

The final section was devoted to demographics. Pages 29 and 30 reveal the results for staff women with regards to their job class, ethnic origin, age, and primary wage earner status.

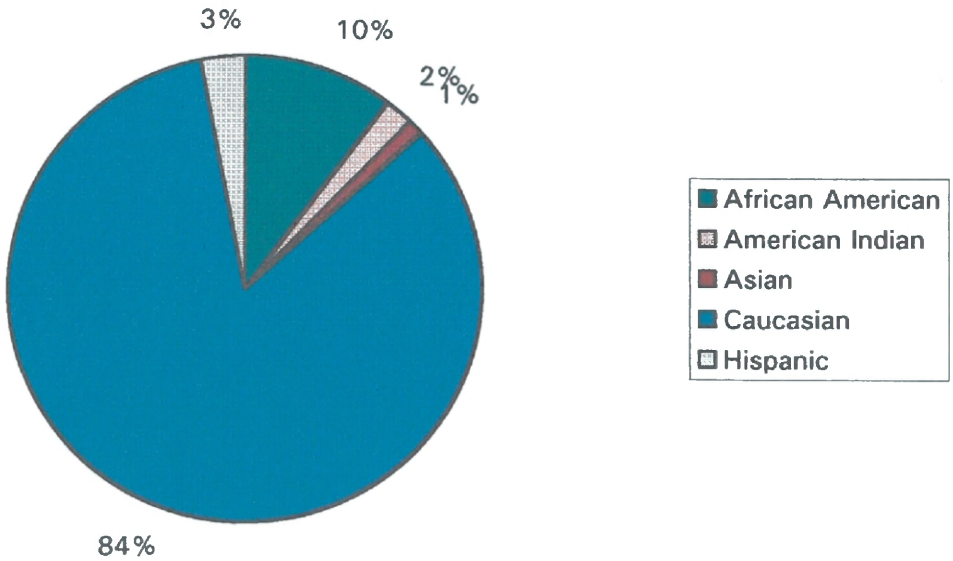
The current job class results show that as with the national trend, most staff women, 43% and 53%, are clerical and professional/administrators. Nationally, according to the "Working Women Count" survey, 48% of the women were professional/managerial, while 43% were low-wage white collar (defined as clerical, sales and services). Reported earlier, secretaries and managers/administrators have made up over 2 million new jobs between 1970 and 1980 (See Table 1, Appendix A). It is no surprise then that the combined percentage of union and technical staff women for the University is 4%. Again, the national statistics are quite similar - 6% technical and 2.5% low-wage blue collar (defined as operators, craft/repair). With respect to the entire University staff population,

CURRENT JOB CLASS* and ETHNICITY
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

Current Job Classes by Percentage



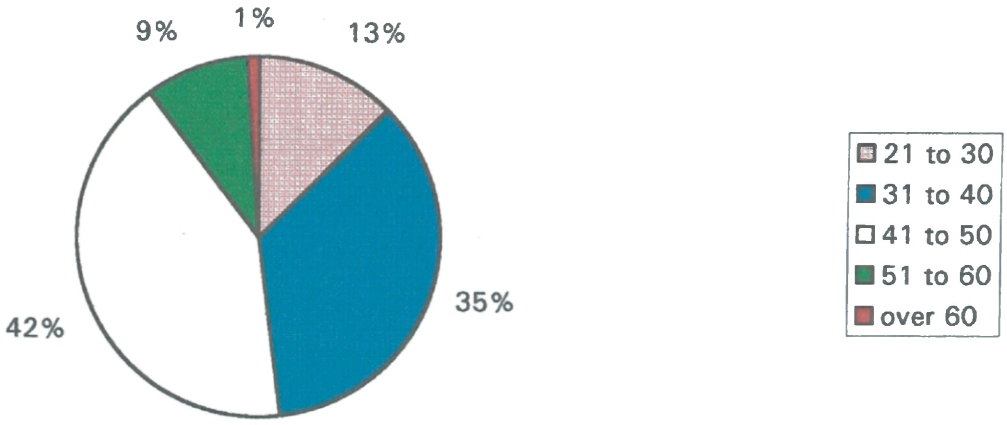
Ethnic Origin by Percentage



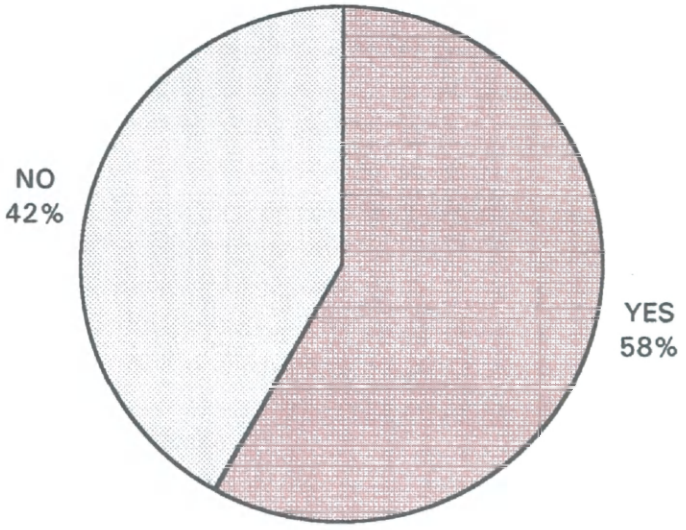
*NOTE: 97% Full-Time
SOURCE: Survey of Staff Women, University of Michigan - Flint, 1992

AGE RANGES and PERCENTAGE OF PRIMARY WAGE EARNERS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

AGE RANGE by PERCENTAGE



Primary Wage Earners by Percentage



SOURCE: Survey of Staff Women, University of Michigan - Flint, 1992

29% and 56% make up the clericals and administrators, while 4% and 11% make up the technical and union workers.

The ethnic origin percentages are very similar to the national average, 84% of the female staff respondents for the University are Caucasian. The second biggest ethnic population is African/American at 10%, while American Indian, Asian, and Hispanic make up 6%. Nationally, again from the "Working Women Count" survey, 80% are Caucasian, 12% African/American, and Hispanic, Asian, and American Indian represent 11% (error due to rounding). The numbers for the entire University staff population are 79% Caucasian, 17% African/American, and the American Indian, Asian and Hispanic groups represent 4% of the population.

The age range demographics show that most University female staff members are between the ages of 31 and 50 (77%). The entire University staff population averages out to have the largest number of employees between the ages of 31 and 50 as well with the percentage at 69. Nationally, the average is a little more spread out. 26% are 25-34, 35% are 35-44, and 25% are 45-54.

The final demographic statistic looked at was whether the female staff member is a primary wage earner. More and more women are heading the household now, with 1/3 of women nationally having spouses which earn $15,000 a year or less, and nearly 1/2 of the spouses earning less than $20,000 a year. It can be said then that approximately 2/3 of all women can be regarded as primary wage earner for their family (Hartmann, 1988). The female staff for the University reported that 58% were the primary wage earners for their family. That number reflects an even higher percentage than the study done by Hartmann. The statistics for the entire University staff population were unavailable.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The staff of the University of Michigan - Flint is comprised of 282 workers. 194 of those workers are women and 114 of them responded to a survey asking their opinion on their work environment. This statistic alone says a great deal. The fact that 60% of staff women took the time to express their opinion shows these women are interested in what happens to them at work. In addition, women make up well over half of the entire staff which, in itself, indicates the importance of their opinion.

The results of what the female staff members reported came quite close to how most women in the United States perceive their work environment. The data showed that sexual harassment and discrimination are alive and well in the work place. Responses regarding harassment showed there is more happening in the workplace than many thought. More workers reported general harassment than reported sexual harassment. This indicates perhaps sexual harassment is not the only form of employee harassment. This issue is a real concern and should be looked into in greater detail. A rather disturbing result was the number of female staff members who reported "Not Sure" when asked if they had experienced sexual or general harassment and discrimination. To have the knowledge of such things should be every employee's right and obligation. Though situations such as these are not always clear cut, the results of 8, 10, and 7% are far too high. These numbers imply that more education of the worker and employer is necessary. It is an ongoing process that needs to be revisited on a regular basis. Often, as is the case with many offenses, once the

talk and public outcry is calmed, the issue becomes silent. It is necessary to keep on top of harassment and discrimination at all times.

Female staff members for the University not only reported they were not satisfied with the pay they receive, they also reported it was not sufficient to support their family. A possible explanation is that over half of the respondents reported that they are the primary wage earners for their family. In addition, only 2% are unionized and unionization has proven to increase a worker's level of satisfaction regarding their wages. Another explanation is the fact that close to half of the women are clericals. Nationally underpaid, and grossly over represented, this type of position is held almost exclusively by women. The University is no exception, and once again is in line with the national average. This does not make it right however. The University could pave the way by paying clericals proportionate to their level of responsibility. In turn, the level of responsibility could be raised, with more becoming assistant administrators or filling similar positions. The respondents said they felt stuck in their positions. By raising the level of responsibility, the workers gain experience and knowledge, making a move to a higher position possible.

The results for the child care and maternity leave were unexpected. With child care being such a hot topic, the results did not reflect other studies. After looking at the demographic statistics, however, the pattern became clear. Most of the staff women are between the ages of 31 and 50. This is typically out of the child rearing ages. These women have no need for maternity leave anymore, and even though half of the women have children under 18, the survey did not ask specific ages and therefore it can only be assumed that the need for child care is not a high demand anymore.

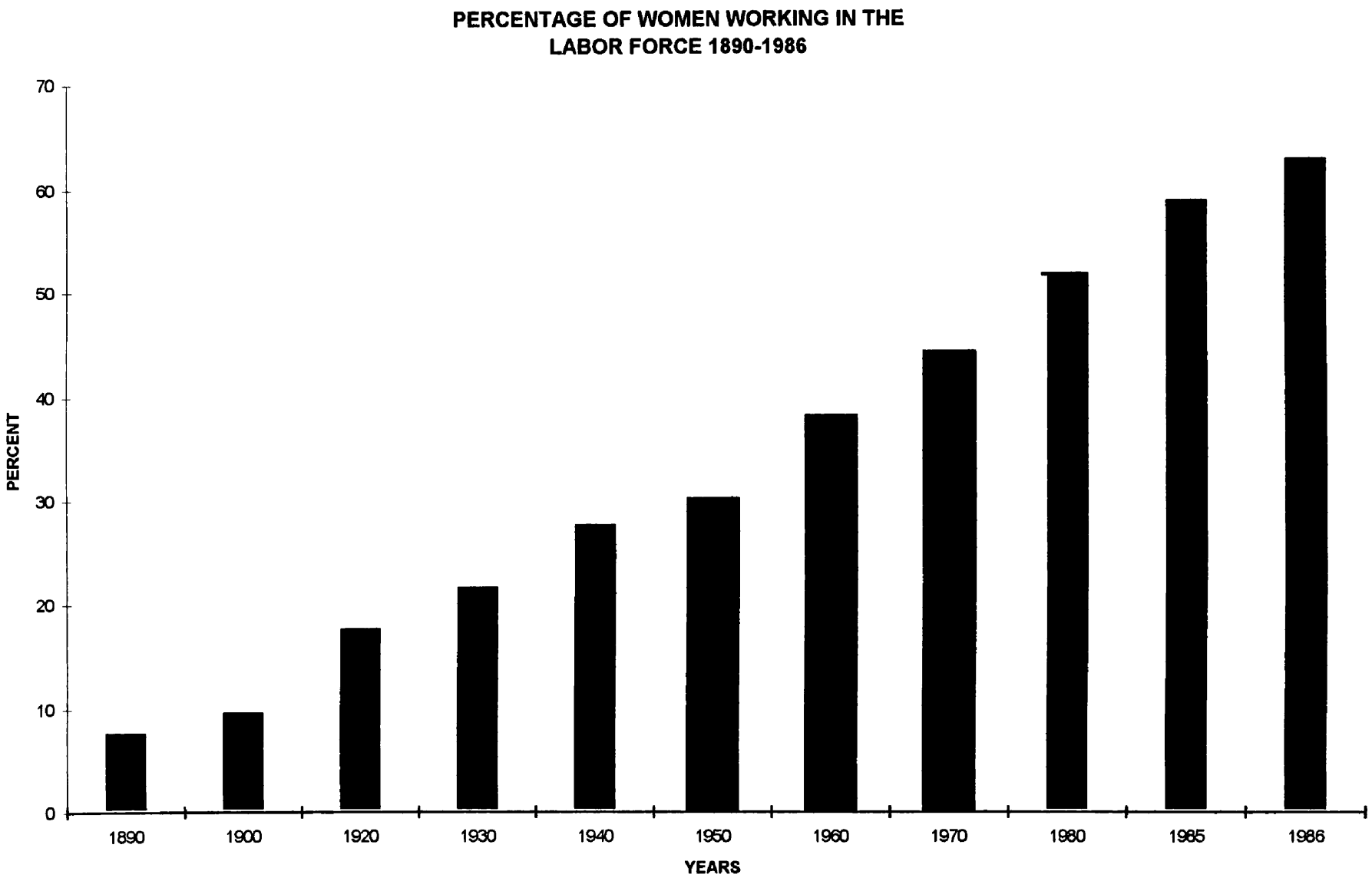
Staff women did report that they feel the pressure of role conflict between home and work. The issue of role conflict is becoming increasingly popular in

the United States today. Working moms are speaking out about the stress and fatigue of working two jobs - at the office and at home. The University women report they feel the same. Maybe it is time for the University to look at flexible schedules. Possibly more attention needs to be given to paid family time off to coincide with sick time and vacation time. Staff women may simply need to know that their employer will understand if time is needed away from the office to attend to the little things that need to be done at home.

The percentage of University staff women who are minorities falls in line with the entire staff percentage and the national average. The national average of minority population is approximately 21%. The number of minority women working on staff is very close to this figure. While it is important to continue minority recruitment, the University is diversifying at a steady pace.

Overall, University staff women are fairly satisfied with their day to day work life. They do however feel that morale at the University is low and, as reported above, have several concerns regarding their work place. The results of the importance questions showed overwhelmingly that staff women feel that all the issues are important. Their willingness to fill out the survey, their responses, and their good attitude toward their individual jobs all show that these women are trying to express their concerns and are willing to work hard to resolve some issues. This survey sends the message that these women are not unlike most other women in America: they want to receive equal treatment, equal pay and get equal enjoyment out of their career.

APPENDIX A
FIGURE 1



Source: Goldin, *The American Economic Review*, September 1991

APPENDIX A
TABLE 1

TEN DETAILED OCCUPATIONS PROVIDING LARGEST NUMBER of NEW JOBS for WOMEN, 1970-1980

OCCUPATIONS	Number of New Female Jobs	Percentage Female 1970	Percentage Female 1980
Secretaries	*1,145,033*	*97.8*	*98.8*
Managers and Administrators	*900,305*	*26.9*	*26.9*
General Office Clerks	800,124	82.1	82.1
Cashiers	756,132	83.5	83.5
Registered Nurses	491,031	95.9	95.9
Teachers, Elementary	482,892	75.4	75.4
Assemblers	418,955	49.5	49.5
Child Care Workers, except private households	403,284	93.2	93.2
Nursing Aides	382,383	87.8	87.8
Machine Operators, not specified	332,929	33.5	33.5

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census

APPENDIX A
TABLE 2

CHANGES in RATIO of WOMEN'S EARNINGS to MEN'S AMONG FULL-TIME WORKERS

YEAR	Median Annual Earnings (Year-Round)
1955	63.9
1960	60.7
1965	59.9
1970	59.4
1975	58.8
1980	60.2
1981	59.2
1982	61.7
1983	63.6
1984	63.7
1985	64.6
1986	64.3

SOURCE: "Women's Work,
Economic Trends, and Policy Issues", Heidi Hartmann

APPENDIX B
RESULTS FOR *AGREE/DISAGREE* QUESTIONS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

QUESTIONS	Frequency	Percentage
Pay is Equal to Others Here		
Strongly Agree	6	5.3
Agree	13	11.4
Neutral	25	21.9
Disagree	39	34.2
Strongly Disagree	27	23.7
Does Not Apply	1	0.9
Pay is Equal to Other Institutions		
Strongly Agree	1	0.9
Agree	0	0
Neutral	27	23.7
Disagree	41	36
Strongly Disagree	34	29.8
Does Not Apply	3	2.6
Enough Money to Support Family		
Strongly Agree	3	2.6
Agree	17	14.9
Neutral	14	12.3
Disagree	32	28.1
Strongly Disagree	40	35.1
Does Not Apply	8	7
Vaca./Holid./Sick Time Adequate		
Strongly Agree	24	21.1
Agree	71	62.3
Neutral	10	8.8
Disagree	5	4.4
Strongly Disagree	4	3.5
Benefits Meet needs		
Strongly Agree	7	6.1
Agree	38	33.3
Neutral	14	12.3
Disagree	33	28.9
Strongly Disagree	21	18.4
Does Not Apply	1	0.9

APPENDIX B
RESULTS FOR *AGREE/DISAGREE* QUESTIONS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

QUESTIONS	Frequency	Percentage
Maternity Leave Adquate		
Strongly Agree	5	4.4
Agree	18	15.8
Neutral	20	17.5
Disagree	3	2.6
Strongly Disagree	8	7
Does Not Apply	60	52.6
Child Care Meets Needs		
Strongly Agree	1	0.9
Agree	4	3.5
Neutral	19	16.7
Disagree	12	10.5
Strongly Disagree	9	7.9
Does Not Apply	69	60.5
Control Over Advancement		
Strongly Agree	8	7.0
Agree	32	28.1
Neutral	14	12.3
Disagree	34	29.8
Strongly Disagree	22	19.3
Good Chance to Advance		
Strongly Agree	2	1.8
Agree	15	13.2
Neutral	15	13.2
Disagree	47	41.2
Strongly Disagree	33	28.9
Does Not Apply	1	0.9
Effective Advancement Tools		
Strongly Agree	2	1.8
Agree	13	11.4
Neutral	41	36.0
Disagree	35	30.7
Strongly Disagree	17	14.9
Does Not Apply	4	3.5

APPENDIX B
RESULTS FOR *AGREE/DISAGREE* QUESTIONS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

QUESTIONS	Frequency	Percentage
Fair Selection Process		
Strongly Agree	17	14.9
Agree	65	57.0
Neutral	17	14.9
Disagree	5	4.4
Strongly Disagree	6	5.3
Does Not Apply	4	3.5
Relevant Interview Quesitons		
Strongly Agree	24	21.1
Agree	68	59.6
Neutral	8	7.0
Disagree	4	3.5
Strongly Disagree	5	4.4
Does Not Apply	5	4.4
Relevant Performance Factors		
Strongly Agree	11	9.6
Agree	55	48.2
Neutral	14	12.3
Disagree	16	14.0
Strongly Disagree	9	7.9
Does Not Apply	6	5.3
Relevant Evaluation Recourse		
Strongly Agree	5	4.4
Agree	48	42.1
Neutral	16	14.0
Disagree	28	24.6
Strongly Disagree	11	9.6
Does Not Apply	2	1.8
Raises Based on Performance		
Strongly Agree	5	4.4
Agree	34	29.8
Neutral	14	12.3
Disagree	38	33.3
Strongly Disagree	20	17.5
Does Not Apply	2	1.8

APPENDIX B
RESULTS FOR *AGREE/DISAGREE* QUESTIONS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

QUESTIONS	Frequency	Percentage
Supervisor Applies Policies		
Strongly Agree	17	14.9
Agree	51	44.7
Neutral	19	16.7
Disagree	18	15.8
Strongly Disagree	7	6.1
Supervisor Leads Effectively		
Strongly Agree	21	18.4
Agree	38	33.3
Neutral	18	15.8
Disagree	24	21.1
Strongly Disagree	13	11.4
Workload is Reasonable		
Strongly Agree	4	3.5
Agree	58	50.9
Neutral	13	11.4
Disagree	28	24.6
Strongly Disagree	10	8.8
Enough Time to Finish Work		
Strongly Agree	11	9.6
Agree	66	57.9
Neutral	16	14.0
Disagree	12	10.5
Strongly Disagree	9	7.9
Task Variety on Job		
Strongly Agree	36	31.6
Agree	68	59.6
Neutral	6	5.3
Disagree	1	0.9
Strongly Disagree	3	2.6
Use Education/Skills on the Job		
Strongly Agree	18	15.8
Agree	69	60.5
Neutral	14	12.3
Disagree	8	7
Strongly Disagree	5	4.4

APPENDIX B
RESULTS FOR *AGREE/DISAGREE* QUESTIONS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

QUESTIONS	Frequency	Percentage
Experience Role Conflict		
Strongly Agree	22	19.3
Agree	34	29.8
Neutral	25	21.9
Disagree	21	18.4
Strongly Disagree	5	4.4
Does Not Apply	7	6.1
Morale is Acceptable		
Strongly Agree	2	1.8
Agree	19	16.7
Neutral	17	14.9
Disagree	46	40.4
Strongly Disagree	28	24.6

APPENDIX B
RESULTS FOR *IMPORTANCE* QUESTIONS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

QUESTIONS	Frequency	Percentage
Pay is Equal to Others Here		
Unimportant	1	0.9
Neutral	5	4.4
Important	34	21.1
Very Important	83	72.8
Pay is Equal to Other Institutions		
Unimportant	1	0.9
Neutral	8	7.1
Important	29	25.9
Very Important	74	66.1
Enough Money to Support Family		
Unimportant	2	1.8
Neutral	2	1.8
Important	24	21.1
Very Important	85	74.6
Vaca./Holid./Sick Time Adequate		
Neutral	3	2.6
Important	43	37.7
Very Important	68	59.6
Benefits Meet Needs		
Neutral	3	2.6
Important	27	23.7
Very Important	83	72.8

APPENDIX B
RESULTS FOR *IMPORTANCE* QUESTIONS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

QUESTIONS	Frequency	Percentage
Maternity Leave Adquate		
Very Unimportant	14	12.3
Unimportant	6	5.3
Neutral	32	28.1
Important	22	19.3
Very Important	40	35.1
Child Care Meets Needs		
Very Unimportant	13	11.4
Unimportant	6	5.3
Neutral	38	33.3
Important	19	16.7
Very Important	38	33.3
Control Over Advancement		
Neutral	4	3.5
Important	57	50.0
Very Important	51	44.7
Good Chance to Advance		
Neutral	6	5.3
Important	41	36.0
Very Important	67	58.8
Effective Advancement Tools		
Very Unimportant	1	0.9
Unimportant	3	2.6
Neutral	18	15.8
Important	44	38.6
Very Important	46	40.4

APPENDIX B
RESULTS FOR *IMPORTANCE* QUESTIONS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

QUESTIONS	Frequency	Percentage
Fair Selection Process		
Neutral	4	3.5
Important	30	26.3
Very Important	80	70.2
Relevant Interview Quesitons		
Neutral	9	7.9
Important	34	29.8
Very Important	69	60.5
Relevant Performance Factors		
Neutral	6	5.3
Important	32	28.1
Very Important	73	64.0
Relevant Evaluation Recourse		
Unimportant	1	0.9
Neutral	15	13.2
Important	44	38.6
Very Important	49	43.0
Raises Based on Performance		
Unimportant	1	0.9
Neutral	8	7.0
Important	51	44.7
Very Important	52	45.6

APPENDIX B
RESULTS FOR *IMPORTANCE* QUESTIONS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

QUESTIONS	Frequency	Percentage
Supervisor Applies Policies		
Neutral	5	4.4
Important	41	36.0
Very Important	65	57.0
Supervisor Leads Effectively		
Neutral	2	1.8
Important	32	28.1
Very Important	79	69.3
Workload is Reasonable		
Neutral	2	1.8
Important	54	45.6
Very Important	59	51.8
Enough Time to Finish Work		
Neutral	6	5.3
Important	58	50.9
Very Important	48	42.1
Task Variety on Job		
Neutral	3	2.6
Important	60	52.6
Very Important	51	44.7
Use Education/Skills on the Job		
Unimportant	1	0.9
Neutral	3	2.6
Important	56	49.1
Very Important	54	47.4

APPENDIX B
RESULTS FOR *IMPORTANCE* QUESTIONS
University of Michigan - Flint Staff Women

QUESTIONS	Frequency	Percentage
Experience Role Conflict		
Very Unimportant	2	1.8
Unimportant	5	4.4
Neutral	34	29.8
Important	33	28.9
Very Important	39	34.2
Morale is Acceptable		
Neutral	4	3.5
Important	30	26.3
Very Important	79	69.3

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