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# PROCEEDINGS

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# ARE DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS INDICATORS OF STUDENTS' KNOWLEDGE  OF ELECTRONIC RÉSUMÉS?

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## ABSTRACT

*To determine demographic differences in students' knowledge of guidelines for preparing electronic résumés, a survey of 452 students at a Mid-South university was conducted.  ANOVA results revealed statistical differences between the ten guidelines provided and  all four demographic factors. Two guidelines showed significance (p<.05) by age, five by classification, one by gender, and one by status.*

## INTRODUCTION

The increased use of technology has brought about numerous changes in the recruiting practices of many businesses (Charles, 2000; Quible, 1995).  One such change is the increased acceptance of electronic résumés (Jennings, Carnes, & Whitaker, 2001).  Electronic résumés are résumés that are formatted so that they may be scanned by computer or transmitted via e-mail (Eyler, 1999).  According to Roever (1997), scanning technology has had a significant impact on the way businesses process résumés.  Many companies are currently using automated applicant tracking systems, which involves the use of résumé-scanning software (Eyler, 1999).  These systems are designed to search for key words that represent the qualifications of the employee they are seeking (Ream, 2000).  Résumés submitted should, therefore, be scanner friendly.  In other words, they should be formatted so that the scanner will read the information correctly (Solly & Fischer, 1996).  Because today's job seekers are very knowledgeable about computers and use them regularly as a communication and research tool, this trend toward increased employer acceptance of electronic résumés provides applicants with an efficient process for expediting the job search (Jennings et al., 2001; Quible, 1995).

### GUIDELINES FOR FORMATTING ELECTRONIC RÉSUMÉS

Because some typographical embellishments often used in formatting résumés can cause difficulties in scanning, job seekers should follow these guidelines for the process to work effectively:

| |
|---|
| *  The width of the page should be set to read a maximum of 60 characters across (Bonner & Chaney, 2002; Ream, 2000). |
| *  The space bar, rather than tabs, is used where spaces or indentions are desired (Bonner & Chaney, 2002; Ream, 2000). |
| *   Standard typefaces, such as Courier and Times New Roman, should be used; font size of 10 to 12 points is recommended, except for Times 10 point (Criscito, 2000; Eyler, 1999). |
| *  Asterisks (*) or plus signs (+), rather than bullets, are preferred for highlighting key points (Quible, 1995).  While round, solid bullets will often scan, hollow or unusually shaped bullets will not (Criscito, 2000). |
| *  All capital letters and/or boldface is recommended for section headings; italics and underlining should be avoided (Eyler, 1999).  While the newer optical character recognition software can read italics, it is not as readable  (Criscito, 2000). |
| *  Abbreviations should be used judiciously; common abbreviations for degrees and certifications (BBA, MS, CPA) and state names are read by most résumé-scanning systems. |
| *  Acronyms commonly used in certain professions, such as A/R and A/P on an accountant's  résumé, are usually accepted (Ream, 2000). |
| *  Vertical lines and boxes should be avoided; few horizontal lines should be used (Eyler, 1999). |
| *  The applicant's name and address should be centered at the top of the résumé (Quible, 1995).  The font size used for the name should not be larger than 20-point (Criscito, 2000).  The telephone number and e-mail address should be placed on separate lines. |
| *  A section labeled Keyword Summary should be placed after the applicant's name and address; this list of keywords should be nouns and noun phrases rather than verbs that are recommended for traditional résumés.  In other words, the position, Computer Systems Manager, rather than managed computer systems, would be used (Gunner, 2000). Since every job has its own jargon and terminology, applicants should examine national employment publications for Help Wanted listings in their field of specialty (Criscito, 2000).  Further, general keywords should be selected to reflect the applicant's interpersonal skills and other qualifications widely considered desirable, such as languages spoken, willingness to travel or relocate, and computer, communication, and team skills (Charles, 2000; Eyler, 1999). The Keyword Summary section should cover such areas as degrees, university granting the degree, major, certifications, special skills/knowledge, and employment history, including job titles and duties performed.  Concrete descriptions, such as C, C++, and Java, should be used for computer language skills (Criscito, 2000).  This Keyword Summary should be limited to 50 words (Bonner & Chaney, 2002). |

Résumé preparers should remember that some sections usually included on traditional résumés, such as References and Special Interests, are not typically found on electronic résumés (Criscito, 2000; Eyler, 1999; Quible, 1995).  They should also remember to avoid including detailed information on employment beyond the last ten years since more concise job information is preferred.  In addition, the length should be kept to one or two pages, with the candidate's name at the top of each page (Ream, 2000; Roever, 1997).  The résumé may be created using any word processing software so long as it is saved as an ASCII text file to accommodate the software used for scanning and retrieval. When a hard copy is mailed for scanning, the résumé  should be printed in black ink on standard 81/2- by 11-inch white, off-white, or light gray paper, printed on only one side, and mailed flat in an envelope with no stapling or paper clips (Criscito, 2000; Eyler, 1999; Gunner, 2000).

## SURVEY PROCEDURES AND RESULTS

To determine students' knowledge of guidelines for preparing electronic résumés, a survey of 452 students enrolled at a Mid-South university was conducted. Students surveyed were enrolled in a lower division course in Introduction to Business, upper division courses in Business Communication and Organization and Management, and a graduate course in Executive Communication. Students were provided ten guidelines related to correct typeface and font size and the appropriateness of using such formatting features as bullets, bold-faced type, and underlining. Also included were such content-related questions as inclusion of references and placement of the section Keyword Summary.

The largest percentages of respondents were female (55.3%), below 25 years of age (74.1%), classified as Junior/Senior (63.5%), and business majors (72.5%).

Statistical analysis was run using SPSS, Version 10. Frequencies and percentages of students' responses were determined. The question with the highest number of correct responses was related to recommended font size, while the guideline missed by the largest percentage of students was related to the use of underlining. The guideline marked "Don't Know" by the largest number of students was related to the location of the section Keyword Summary.

Mean responses and standard deviations for each guideline were calculated. The highest mean response was related to recommended font size, while the guideline with the lowest mean response was related to the location of the section Keyword Summary.

ANOVAs were conducted to examine the differences between mean responses and demographic factors. The .05 level was used to determine significance. ANOVA results revealed significant differences between certain guidelines and all four demographic factors: two showed significance by age, five by classification, one by gender, and one by status.

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

ANOVA results revealed statistical differences between all four demographic factors and students' responses. Responses to two of the guidelines differed by age: The applicant's name and address should be the first lines on the résumé, with each line centered was answered correctly by more students age 25 - 39 (mean of 1.76) than by students below 25 (mean of 1.48); Keyword Summary is usually the first section after the applicant's name and address was answered correctly by more students age 25-39 (mean of 1.13) than by students below 25 (mean of .72).

Responses to five guidelines differed by classification. Post-hoc analysis revealed that The recommended font size for an electronic résumé is 10 to 14 points was answered correctly by more graduate students (mean of 1.84) than by either Juniors/Seniors (mean of 1.68) or by those who were unclassified (mean of 1.21). A bullet, rather than an asterisk (*), is used to highlight a key point was answered correctly (lower mean) by freshmen/sophomores (mean of .97) than by juniors/seniors (mean of 1.48). Underlining may be used where appropriate was answered correctly (lower mean) by freshmen/sophomores (mean of 1.06) than by juniors/seniors (mean of 1.43). The applicant's name and address should be the first lines on the résumé, with each line centered was answered correctly by more juniors/seniors (mean of 1.64) than by freshmen/sophomores (mean of 1.32).

While References are commonly included on electronic résumés showed significance, Scheffé post-hoc analysis revealed no significant difference between any two groups.

Responses to only one guideline differed by gender: Courier is a suitable typeface for an electronic résumé. Males had a higher mean response (1.05) than did females (.84).

Only one guideline showed significance by status: A bullet, rather than an asterisk (*), is used to highlight a key point. Nonbusiness majors answered the question correctly (had a lower mean response of 1.18) than did business majors (mean of 1.38). (The correct answer was Incorrect so the lower mean response was indicative of a correct response.)

Based on these findings, the conclusion can be drawn that demographic factors of age, classification, gender, and status are not major indicators of students' knowledge of correct formatting guidelines for electronic résumés. While student classification showed significance in the largest number of responses, perhaps the only conclusion that can be drawn is that students who have completed more hours toward graduation are more knowledgeable about guidelines for preparing electronic résumés. At least students seem to be more aware of the importance of keeping up with technological changes that affect the job search. This comment written by a freshman student summarizes students' awareness of the importance of staying abreast of these changes: "I need to increase my knowledge of electronic résumés. I'm sure they are becoming more and more common."

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# DOUSING THE FLAMES:  REDUCING WORKPLACE AGGRESSION THROUGH CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

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## ABSTRACT

*"The easiest, the most tempting, and the least creative response to conflict within an organization is to pretend it does not exist."  The only problem with  this approach is that conflict will not go away on its own.  The word "conflict" conjures up feelings of anger, threat, and fear. Yet, conflict is not all bad.  Through conflict, people learn how to resolve issues, understand different points of view, and make better decisions.  On the other hand, conflict also can be destructive.  This paper will discuss the reasons why conflict occurs, describe bullying bosses and coworkers, discuss workplace violence, outline communication techniques to resolve conflict, and tell what employers can do to help resolve conflict in their organizations.*

## INTRODUCTION

"Now, I give you fair warning! shouted the Queen, stomping on the ground as she spoke.
"Either you or your head must be off, and that in about half no-time!  Take your choice!"
Alice In Wonderland

Life would be easier if everyone saw things in the same way; we don't. Whenever two or three are gathered in any community, for any reason, at any time, there will be some dissension, difficulty, or difference of opinion.  Because people come from such divergent backgrounds, think so differently, and communicate so uniquely, conflicts are highly probable (Booher, 1999).  Thus, conflict in the workplace can be normal and healthy.  A workplace devoid of tensions is ultimately dull and stagnant, unlikely to foster creativity and growth (Blackard, 2001).

Yet, when the word "conflict" comes to mind, most people envision anger, harsh words, hurt feelings, or damaged relationships.  However, not all conflict is bad.  Disagreeing on solutions can lead to more creative problem solving and better outcomes.  The destructive conflicts are those in which the real agenda of the conflict is a personal one.  These are conflicts in which the purpose of the interaction is to harm someone physically, psychologically, or both (Lloyd, 2001).

## WHY CONFLICT OCCURS

"The quickest way to kindle a fire is to rub two opposing opinions together."

Conflict occurs for a variety of reasons including a lack of communication, a misunderstanding, a failure to meet expectations, and stress (VanDer Wall, 2000). In addition, as rational adults, we expect that when we present an idea at work, we will have consensus. Because each of us has a different perspective, however, we support only those views closest to our own. Opinions and ideas grind against each other until a resolution is reached (Fernberg, 1999).

In addition, people bring their own baggage to work. There are people who are easy to get along with who, when put together, do not have a synergistic response. As a result, conflict ensues. Also, every workplace has pockets of negative people whose dissatisfaction sabotages both the efforts and morale of the people around them. Another sources of conflicts are swelling workloads, shrinking staffs, low budgets, strained relationships, self-destructive behaviors which create a volcanic environment. Add poor management, and eruptions are imminent (Fernberg, 1999).

The first thing a person must do is determine the nature of the conflict. Conflicts can be divided into five categories:

1. Conflicts Over Personalities - this occurs because one is an introvert and one is an extrovert. Even those with similar backgrounds and experiences have conflicts because of personal habits and idiosyncrasies.
2. Conflicts Over Goals - this occurs when driven professionals pursing certain objectives run headlong into other professionals pursuing other objectives.
3. Conflicts Over Values - these are the most difficult to resolve. Values have taken root in a person's life and are difficult to change.
4. Conflicts Over Circumstances - these occur when two employees want to take vacation the same week and both can't be gone at the same time.
5. Conflicts Over Facts - this involves differences in sources, authorities, and definitions (Booher, 1999).

In addition to recognizing the nature of the conflict, it is essential to recognize that destructive types of conflict have predictable patterns. This pattern is called a "drama triangle." In this triangle, there are three principle players: The first player is the Persecutor - The person assuming this role will use aggressive behavior toward another person attacking the intended victim. The attack can be physical, verbal or both. It can be direct or indirect. The second player is the Victim - People who assume the victim role use nonassertive behavior to invite others to see them as "not okay." The victim will feel inadequate, helpless, sad, scared, or guilty. This behavior invites others to either rescue or persecute the victim player. The third player is the Rescuer - Those who take on this role use either nonassertive or aggressive behavior. Sometimes people become rescuers because they won't say "no" and reluctantly take on the responsibility of trying to solve the victim player's problem. In addition, someone may assume the role of rescuer as a way to demonstrate superiority to the victim player (Lloyd, 2001).

Not surprisingly, bosses are positioned in organizations to receive the almost unconditional respect from their subordinates. Yet, many individuals suffer at the hands of their Boss who is brutal and who is a Bully.

# BULLYING BOSSES AND COWORKERS

"Keep your Temper" said the Caterpillar - Alice in Wonderland

Broadly defined, bullying is any behavior that intimidates, humiliates or demeans a person. Sometimes it is directed at one employee in particular; other times it is a part of a hostile or poisoned work environment (Bernardi 2001). Bullies often target people who come from races, religions, gender, or sexual orientations (Atkinson, 2000). There are three categories of brutal bosses: (1) Dehumanizers - remove any and all human elements of an employee and deal with a faceless figure. The dehumanized employee becomes an entity that does not require respect. (2) Blamers - cast responsibility on the employee for deserving such mistreatment. (3) Rationalizers - view their behavior as a means to an end (Monahan, 1999). One brutal boss found it hard to believe that an employee deserved sick days for emergency surgery and asked to see the incision. Another kept an employee in an all-day meeting even though the employee's mother was on her deathbed. A third, a chronic yeller, used an employee as a go-between with his ex-wife (Terez, 2001).

The consequences of brutal bullying on subordinates and coworkers are many. There are both health and work consequences for employees who are repeatedly subjected to abusive treatment. Health consequences include gastrointestinal disorders, headaches, dermatological reactions, sleeplessness, and sexual dysfunction. Low self-esteem, anxiety, and frustration have consequences for the workplace. These factors affect the bottom line. Unhappy employees take longer to solve problems and do so in less creative ways (Monahan, 1999). Not surprisingly, victims of bullying blame themselves, doubt their self-worth, are less productive, and are at greater risk of alcoholism or suicide. Bullying behavior in the workplace can lead to higher turnover and absenteeism, decreased morale, losses in productivity, and legal costs incurred to defend claims brought by employees (Bernardi, 2001).

Brutal bosses and coworkers can also suffer from "desk rage." Desk rage is defined as inappropriate displays of anger in the workplace. Such displays consist of yelling, swearing, throwing things, and slamming doors. In addition, those who are suffering from desk rage might blame others for their own mistakes, demand that they be treated as an exception, and get even with others in secretive ways (Brown, 2001).

To get even, frustrated employees may commit sabotage. The derivation of the word sabotage - from the actions of French mill workers who threw their wooden shoes, or "sabots" into the gears of the machinery in protest - is very telling of why people use this behavior to vent their feelings of anger about their employment situations. Employee sabotage is actually a rarely discussed form of workplace violence. Angry, bitter, envious, and resentful employees are taking out their aggression on their employers for inequities they have experienced. It is usually misconduct tinged with an edge of revenge, and the sabotage is directly proportionate to the way in which a company treats its employees unfairly (Gleninning, 2001). Desk rage and sabotage should not be taken lightly. If not addressed, both can lead to workplace violence

# WORKPLACE VIOLENCE

"Passions are generally roused from great conflict."  Titus Livius

Violence is the ultimate form of conflict in the workplace and  an employer can no longer afford to ignore it.  According to a report by the U.S. Department of Justice in 1998, approximately 1,000 employees are murdered yearly while performing their work duties.  The same study noted that there are two million incidences of workplace violence reported, including one million simple assaults and 400,000 aggravated assaults.  And reported is the key word; the vast majority of workplace assaults and other forms of aggression go unreported (Atkinson, 2000).

Homicide is the second leading cause of death among American workers and the leading cause of death for female workers.  Workplace violence was 10 times more prevalent in the 1990s than in the 1980s (Flynn, 2000).  Since about one-third of our lives is spent at work associating with people whom we have not chosen to be with, it is little wonder that disagreements abound and resentments fester day after day.  In fact, on-the-job suicides and murder statistics have caused the National Center for Disease Control to classify workplace violence as a national epidemic (Laplaca, 2001).

In addition, the cost of violence in the workplace is high.  For example, the average direct cost to employers of a single violent episode is $250,000 and the aggregate cost to employers has been estimated to be as much as $36 billion.  The indirect costs resulting from these incidents, which can include decreased productivity, increased stress, and greater employee turnover, significantly adds to the burden on employers (Flynn, 2000).  Not surprisingly, it is better to resolve conflicts than to let them escalate into an episode of workplace violence.

## COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUES TO RESOLVE CONFLICT

"If passion drives you, let reason hold the reins."  Benjamin Franklin

Strong interpersonal skills are needed to resolve conflict.  For example, there are many skills an employee can use to douse the flames of conflict. Employees can use active listening techniques to summarize points, to rephrase inappropriate attributions into more positive language, and to demonstrate interest in, and understanding of the problem.  Active listening also helps communicate that you understand both the content and the emotion being expressed (Cohen, 1999).  In addition, body language is a powerful communicator, and people are more persuaded by attitude than by logic.  As an employee struggles to say the right words, s/he should consciously relax the body.  If possible,  s/he might assume a stance similar to the position of the angry person. Keep the voice low and the speech evenly paced.  When sitting across a table, lean forward on your elbows to invite communication.  Tilt your head and acknowledge that you are listening by nodding or making encouraging sounds like "Uh-huh" (Laplaca, 2001).

A employer might also want to consider being proactive rather than reactive.  Rather than interceding, the employer may hope the parties will work it out themselves. Unfortunately, conflict, left alone, does not go away on its own.  And, finally, don't expect miracles.  Not every problem can be resolved quickly.  It takes time to build communication and trust between parties, but this is vital

to building commitment to the eventual solution. Meet several times to resolve complex or particularly difficult problems. During the process, the parties develop the relationship and the skills to solve their dispute. This initial investment of time will produce better results (Cohen, 1999).

## WHAT EMPLOYERS CAN DO TO HELP

"The fibers of all things have their tension and are strained like the strings of an instrument." Henry David Thoreau

There is much an employer can do, even if the manager is the bully.
1. Train managers/supervisors/employees how to recognize signs of conflict and how to defuse hostility before it gets out of hand. While employers cannot radically change employees' behaviors, they can modify and influence their behaviors through responsible supervision (Atkinson, 2000).
2. Develop a comprehensive conflict resolution/violence prevention plan. A good plan combines resources from various parts of the industry and requires teamwork, communication, ongoing assessment, and training (Meyer & Bosner, 1999)
3. Employers should consider offering confidential employee assistance programs to help workers cope with stress and manage anger. These programs are often able to resolve potentially serious problems before they become disruptive or lead to violence.
4. Employers should develop policies designed to encourage communication in the workplace. Effective examples might include scheduling regular meetings in which employees can express concerns and grievances without fear of retaliation, implementing complaint resolution procedures, establishing confidential hot lines, and allowing employees to leave anonymous notes for HR representatives or supervisors (Flynn, 2000).
5. Require exit interviews of terminated employees. This is an excellent resource for finding out if there is a Bully in your midst.
6. Hire the very best people in the first place. Keep communication lines wide open at all times, and take time to celebrate good work and results.

## CONCLUSION

We spend more of our waking lives at work with people we don't particularly care for than we do with our family and friends. Dousing the flames of conflict is essential so that the conflict does not escalate into bullying, desk rage, sabotage, and/or workplace violence. Employees are tired of being abused by either their manager and/or their coworkers, and companies have come to realize that conflict seriously affects its bottom line. Employing excellent communication skills can defuse conflict long before it escalates into a volcanic eruption. There is an old saying "Do it now or do it later; either way, it will have to be done."

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# TAKING A CLOSER LOOK AT GENDER EQUITY IN SPORTS

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## ABSTRACT

*This study was conducted to determine the extent of gender equity in sport participation and sport administration. Females have made great strides since passage of Title IX legislation in 1972, but not enough to be considered to be on a level playing field with men in sport or in equal positions in administration of sport.*

*The compensation scales have always favored male coaches even in sports that are female driven. Not only are women being suppressed by administrators with decision-making power, but also by the media. Pictorials of females in less than suitable images diminishes the belief that women are as capable of performing at an equal level as their male counterparts and adds to stereotypical attitudes toward women being the "weaker" sex.*

*Women seem to have gained more participation in management positions in corporate America, where 4 females head Fortune 500 companies and 12.5 percent of all corporate officers are women. These numbers are still rather low but present more of an opportunity for women to showcase their talents when compared to women in sport participation. Several of the major professional sports leagues have shown declines in total number of women in professional and administrative positions, which is a disturbing trend.*

## INTRODUCTION

Despite the encouraging advancements of the past decade, females still hold low status in the world of politics, business, science, education, religion and sport (Mitchell, 1995). The nineteenth amendment brought about women's voting rights, but only recently have women been given the opportunity to compete for positions in predominately male driven occupations.

### Problem

The problem of this research was to determine the extent of gender equity in sport participation and sport administration.

### Objectives

The objectives of this research was to (1) analyze the effects of Title IX legislation on the advancement of women in the sports arena, (2) show the media's role in suppressing women in sports, and (3) compare the percentages of women in administrative positions in sports to those of Fortune 500 companies.

## Significance and Need

Being equitable is a way of viewing the world; it is the way society feels, acts and reacts in a socially conscious culture. The values, norms and beliefs of justice, inclusion and compassion make up the accepted, not the excepted (Mitchell 1995). A society based on the principles of equality and fairness continues to struggle today to bring these ideals into a reality for gender issues (Everett 1995). In his annual report Richard Lapchick finds that "as in society, we have a long way to go to achieve equality in sport" (Lapchick, 2001). This research will further enhance and progress the view, belief, and understanding that gender has no effect on the performance of females in the sport arena, whether it be on the field or in the office. It will also be shown and proven that women can adequately complete the tasks required in these historically male driven careers.

## Background

Gender equity is defined as the provision of equality of opportunity and access and the realization of equality of results for all based on individual aptitudes. Gender equity is important due to the participation in sport providing a powerful medium for both males and females to develop and practice proactive patterns of life-long health and fitness. Sport also enables players a chance to experience implicit and explicit life-skill development. It has been highly noted and publicized that perhaps more than any other social institution sport maintains the ideology of male superiority and female inferiority (Creedon, 1994).

## TITLE IX

Congress took a monumental step in the right direction for the advancement of women in 1972, passing section 901 of Title IX of the Educational Amendments Act. Title IX stated that: "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance" (Lapchick, 1996). This was passed and created due to lack of protection given to women by the fourteenth amendment (due process), Title VI (Civil Rights), and the Equal Pay Act (Greendorfer, 1998). The supervising committee that oversees Title IX enforcement is the Office of Civil Rights, which is a division of the Department of Education.

## MEDIA INFLUENCE

Gender values remain at the core of the media system, which is typified by the one annual event started in 1967 that continues to seize the majority of the nation's attention, the Super Bowl. The Super Bowl reveals great information about gender values. Being a male dominated arena, which excludes women from participation, it confers that being male is a privilege and views females as being in a subservient role. The denial of participation would indicate that women are less qualified, powerful, or physical than men.

Only over the last few years, with the emergence of the W.N.B.A., women's professional soccer and football, as well as individual sport stars such as Venus Williams and Marion Jones have

women been respected as top caliber athletes. The struggle to gain greater equality for women in sport starts with the mass media promoting the idea of gender equity.

By feminizing and sexualizing female athletes the mass media trivializes and undermines their athletic achievements. In short, the media reflects who and what has value and prestige in U.S. culture. By their under representation, exclusion, feminist, and sexist symbolism, the media has lead the culture into believing that woman athletes have little, if any value in this society (Creedon, 1994).

## COMPARISON BETWEEN WOMEN IN SPORT AND WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE AND MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN FORTUNE 500 COMPANIES

Although positive changes have been made for women, their role in key decision making and leadership positions have not been adequately represented in American society, including sport. Despite Title IX, the decline of women in leadership roles has continued (Black, 1996). Women lead over ninety percent of the intercollegiate athletic programs for women in 1972; in 1994 that number had dwindled down to a paltry twenty-one percent (Everett, 1995).

Wendy Selig-Prieb runs a major league baseball team; Anita DeFrantz is vice president of the International Olympic Committee; Val Ackerman created the W.N.B.A., and Donna Varona along with Marla Messing formed the Women's World Cup soccer tournament. Assistant coach for the University of Oregon, Kirsten McKnight, was once a guard for the ladies' basketball team; Allison Gardener, manager in the sports and event-marketing department of a bank in Atlanta, once competed in swimming in college. Along with countless other female sports agents, athletic directors and executives; they are pioneers and role models. The diversity of the corporate world seems to be slowly paving the way for sport to follow (Delany, 1999). In 2001 the number of women at the top of Fortune 500 companies doubled, from two to four. Women as corporate officers comprised twelve and half percent of total officers in the Fortune 500 listing in 2000, up five percent from the previous year (Ossorio, 2001).

In the United States the existing model of business management in sport is a "male model of organizational structure and human relationships". The skills that men obtain to be successful in business are the ones learned through the rules of organization and interactions from sports. As women take more leadership roles, they bring new strengths based on characteristics of female decision-making.

The strides made by women in the U.S. workforce have been tremendous, but has administration in sports been afforded exclusively to males? Research shows that forty percent of middle management in corporate America is women. Since sport is considered a business first and foremost, are women being left out (Black, 1996)?

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Title IX created opportunities for females never before afforded to them, as well as helped to initiate new and expanded programs for women's athletics. Administrative positions in intercollegiate athletics have actually seen a decline since the inception of Title IX legislation, while these same positions in the professional ranks is stagnant at best.

The mass media has been the biggest culprit in the slow acclimation of women to prominence in the sport arena. The media is able to reflect who and what has prestige in this culture, and for years has portrayed women in a suppressing manner. From domesticated and sexist depictions of women, it is easily seen how females have not been taken seriously in athletic performance.

Positions of power in sport have exceeded those in corporate America when comparing percentages of Fortune 500 companies with intercollegiate athletics and professional sports. Though neither figure is at a point of satisfaction, corporate America is headed on the correct path, professional sports positions are stagnant, and intercollegiate athletics continue to lead the way.

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# TEAM PROCESS AND COMMUNICATION IN STUDENT PROJECT TEAMS: A TEST OF A TEMPORALLY BASED FRAMEWORK OF TEAM PROCESSES

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## ABSTRACT

*Team members engage in a wide range of activities to achieve their goals. Marks, Mathieu, and Zaccaro (2001) propose a model of group processes that places these activities into three categories of process activities that can occur at any time during the team's life. Transition processes refer to those activities involved in goal specification and strategy formulation. Action processes refer to those activities directly related to task accomplishment such as tracking progress, team monitoring and coordination. Interpersonal processes include activities teams engage in to manage conflict, build confidence and regulate emotions.*

*The purpose of this study was to assess the usefulness of this model to explain group process and determine its usefulness whether members interact using face-to-face or electronic communication. The results identified four groups of activities that corresponded to the three processes identified in the model plus a group of email activities.*

## INTRODUCTION

Much of the work in organizations is carried out through teamwork, and as the amount of teamwork has grown, so has the number of studies aimed at better understanding teamwork processes. Successful teamwork is not just a function of the skills, abilities, and resources individuals bring to a project, but is also a function of the kinds of processes they use to interact and accomplish their work (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). Given the importance of teamwork in the workplace and the central role of process in team performance, we need a better understanding of how to manage those processes effectively and efficiently.

Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro argue that given the growing interest in teamwork there is a need for a "unified conception of what team processes are and how they operate during goal accomplishment" (2001: 356). To this end they offer a framework of team processes that proposes that teams operate by engaging in three basic categories of activities. They refer to these as transition, action and interpersonal processes. The emphasis in the model is on explaining how teams move through these activities over time to reach goal accomplishment rather than how a team moves through various stages of team development (Tuckman, 1965).

# PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to determine the usefulness of this model to explain team behavior in both empirical and applied research.  We were also interested in whether the model would have explanatory power across varying situations or methods of interaction.  For example, although most teamwork is carried out through face-to-face interaction, increasingly teams are using other methods of interaction for goal attainment. Is the model useful in explaining group behavior when teams engage in both face-to-face interaction, which we refer to as proximate behavior, and non face-to-face or non-proximate behavior?

Specifically, we were interested in verifying whether in a classroom situation requiring significant teamwork, this model would describe the team processes that students engaged in as they carried out a major team project.  We asked two questions. First, do the activities students engage in as they carry out a group project fall into the categories of team processes proposed by the model?  Second, is the model valid for both proximate and non-proximate methods of interaction?

# LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, we briefly discuss the current state of the literature on project teams by focusing on the research that has been done relating team internal processes to team effectiveness.  There is a large body of research that looks at a variety of factors associated with group effectiveness such as group design, context, group composition and group process in different types of groups.  However, it is not always clear that what works in one type of group will work in all groups.  The definition of team or workgroup we use is based primarily on that of Cohen and Bailey (1997) which in turn builds on the work of Alderfer (1977) and Hackman (1987) and is similar to the definition Guzzo and Dickson (1996) use in their review.  A project team is defined as a collection of individuals who are interdependent in the tasks they perform and who share responsibility for outcomes. They do differ in some respects from other workplace groups. For example, project teams do not perform work that affects others nor do they have to manage relationships across organizational boundaries (Cohen & Bailey, 1997).  The student teams we studied are most like project teams in that they are time-limited, produce one-time outputs and do work that involves the application of knowledge, judgment, and expertise to the solution of a unique problem (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). While we do not equate student project teams with organizational work teams, we note the similarities between them.

Process describes those things that go on in the group that influence effectiveness (Campion, Medsker & Higgs, 1993).  Processes are interactions such as communication and conflict that occur among group members.  For example, Pearce and Raylin (1987) describe a number of process activities thought to be necessary to effective group functioning.  They propose that groups require open communication, flexible coordination and commitment to group goals. Gladstein (1984) talks about open communication, conflict management, strategy and individual inputs into group decision making.

Team members, then, engage in a wide range of activities to accomplish their mission and achieve their goals.  Marks, et al (2001) go a step farther by grouping these processes into three categories of activities that can occur at any time during the team's life.  Specifically, transition

processes refer to those activities involved in goal specification and strategy formulation. Action processes refer to those activities directly related to task accomplishment such as tracking task progress, team monitoring and coordination. Interpersonal processes include those activities teams engage in to manage conflict, build confidence and regulate members' emotions. Effective teams achieve their goals and generate a high level of satisfaction and commitment among team members.

Unfortunately these are all time consuming activities requiring significant face-to-face interaction. Given the pressure to accomplish their goals in a timely fashion, at the lowest possible cost to the organization and increasingly with a global network of team members, individuals are, not surprisingly, looking to technology to facilitate goal accomplishment. The issue for many individuals is how to balance the need for face-to-face communication with all its advantages against the time and cost advantages associated with new communication technologies.

Since team processes are implemented through the interactions of team members, communication is integral to the team process. We emphasize the importance of face-to-face communication because of its richness, but also note the increasing use of electronic communication, particularly email. Crowther and Goldhaber (2001) report the use of email has grown by more than 600% in six years. Additionally, they report that email does not appear to reduce the amount of face-to-face communication required at work, but is rather a supplemental form of communication. The research that has compared face-to-face groups with computer-mediated groups has generally reported some differences between the groups. For example, face-to-face groups tend to take less time to reach consensus and are more satisfied on most measures (Bordia, 1997; Cappel & Windsor, 2000). Given the richness of and general satisfaction with face-to-face interaction, we expect that students will use face-to-face interaction extensively to carry out the process activities described in the model but will also use email as a form of interaction.

## METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

Our sample consisted of 155 senior-level business students from two different courses. The students were grouped into 44 teams and undertook a semester-long project that delivered an output at the end of the term.

Based on our discussion of the team process model and the expected differences in the use of proximate and non-proximate interaction modes during the team process, each student was asked to fill out a survey consisting of questions asking him/her to indicate the extent to which he/she used face-to-face interaction and e-mail when carrying out twelve different activities. Their responses were recorded using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "not at all" to "a great deal." Each team activity was designed to correspond to one of the team processes. This procedure resulted in a set of 24 data points for each respondent.

A factor analysis of the students' responses was performed to test whether or not the underlying structure of the data confirmed the predictions of the model. The rotated component matrix that was extracted using a principal components procedure resulted in four factors with eigenvalues greater than one. The items loading on each of these factors are listed in Table 1.

| Table 1: Rotated component matrix resulting from principal components analysis of responses to survey items. | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| The extent to which a student uses: | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | Factor 4 |
| e-mail when dividing the project into subparts | .874 | -.031 | -.127 | .058 |
| e-mail when asking for help to complete the project | .852 | -.053 | .183 | -.059 |
| e-mail when assessing the areas of expertise for each member | .852 | .007 | -.143 | .057 |
| e-mail when assigning roles and responsibilities | .850 | .003 | -.160 | .080 |
| e-mail when coordinating the actions of group members | .849 | .119 | .087 | -.151 |
| e-mail when assisting team members to complete their tasks | .849 | .079 | .014 | -.060 |
| e-mail when generating enthusiasm or excitement | .835 | -.078 | .148 | -.062 |
| e-mail when tracking progress of pre-established deadlines | .834 | .123 | .104 | -.061 |
| e-mail when establishing group goals | .821 | .028 | -.249 | -.024 |
| e-mail when establishing group rules and guidelines | .818 | .083 | -.154 | .023 |
| e-mail when dealing with members' emotions | .786 | -.149 | .066 | .153 |
| e-mail when working through disagreements | .734 | -.171 | .064 | .079 |
| face-to-face interaction when assigning roles and responsibilities | -.007 | .842 | .226 | .025 |
| face-to-face interaction when assessing the areas of expertise for each member | .036 | .837 | .164 | .040 |
| face-to-face interaction when establishing group rules and guidelines | .043 | .791 | .055 | .229 |
| face-to-face interaction when dividing the project into subparts | -.008 | .728 | .377 | .047 |
| face-to-face interaction when establishing group goals | -.169 | .571 | .475 | .238 |
| face-to-face interaction when coordinating the actions of group members | -.070 | .403 | .755 | .114 |
| face-to-face interaction when tracking progress of pre-established deadlines | -.018 | .418 | .671 | .067 |
| face-to-face interaction when assisting team members to complete their tasks | .010 | .287 | .624 | .360 |
| face-to-face interaction when asking for help to complete the project | .077 | .087 | .603 | .398 |
| face-to-face interaction when dealing with members' emotions | .129 | .138 | .063 | .866 |
| face-to-face interaction when working through disagreements | -.146 | .009 | .251 | .757 |
| face-to-face interaction when generating enthusiasm or excitement | .026 | .288 | .310 | .608 |

All of the items relating to the respondents' use of e-mail when performing the twelve team activities loaded on the first factor. The second factor included items dealing with the use of face-to-face interaction when undertaking activities associated with transition processes such as assigning roles and responsibilities, assessing the areas of group members' expertise, establishing group rules and guidelines, dividing the project into subparts, and establishing group goals.

The items that loaded on the third factor correspond to the use of face-to-face interaction when coordinating the actions of group members, tracking progress of pre-established deadlines, assisting team members to complete their tasks, and asking for help to complete the project. These activities pertain to action processes.

The fourth factor consisted of items that referred to the use of face-to-face interaction when engaging in interpersonal processes. These include activities such as dealing with members' emotions, working through disagreements, and generating enthusiasm or excitement.

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

First, we asked if the activities students engage in as they carry out a group project fall into the categories of team processes proposed by the model? The data fit the model, supporting the concept of three groups of process activities relating to transition, action and interpersonal. Second, we asked if the model would describe both proximate and non-proximate methods of interaction? It appears as if, email interaction is a separate group of activities from face-to-face activities. The three groups of processes seem to be distinct during face-to-face interaction but are not distinguishable from each other in email communication. This finding appears to support Crowther and Goldhaber's contention that email does not substitute for, but is an addition to face-to-face when both media are available to individuals.

The model does seem to provide a common conceptual foundation from which to study team effectiveness. From a practical standpoint, team facilitators and trainers might benefit from considering team process as three distinct groups of activities that relate to transition, action and interpersonal. This could have implications for the practice of team building, communication, performance management, and roles and relationships.

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# RES IPSA LOQUITUR: POLITICAL AND ETHICAL RESPONSE TO LEGAL DEBATE

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## ABSTRACT

Among the most problematic of legal doctrines for today's business community is that referred to as res ipsa loquitur, a phrase literally rendered as "the thing speaks for itself." Black's Law Dictionary offers a succinct description of res ipsa as "a rule of evidence whereby (the) negligence of (an) alleged wrongdoer may be inferred from (the) mere fact that (an) accident happened." Black's continues the traditional recital of core elements, noting that the cause of injury must be under the exclusive "management and control" of the alleged wrongdoer, and that no possible culpability may be traceable to the victim. The presumption is that had the one exercising control also exercised proper care, it becomes reasonable to deduce that no accident would have occurred. Ergo, the defendant should be held liable.

Res ipsa's focus is upon the weight of purely circumstantial factors. On the basis of inference drawn from circumstance, various organizations and corporations find themselves responsible for staggering judgments. Health care facilities, the transportation industry (especially related to aviation), pharmaceutical companies and manufacturing firms are targeted on an habitual basis. Naturally, what follows are efforts by the commercial and public service sector to counter the impact of this rather tenuous legal assailant. The result is a confusion of blurred concepts, dubious precedent, vague rationale and academic controversy.

The author of this study has researched some thirty years of cases arising from those state courts which comprise the federal sixth circuit. Judicial decisions rendered in Michigan, Ohio, Kentucky and Tennessee afford a range of content which parallels legal thinking elsewhere throughout the country. That compendium of decisions also provides a volume and diversity of scenarios sufficient to enable a comprehensive view of the manner in which res ipsa is judicially applied. In summary , this unprecedented analysis of these court decisions reveals that res ipsa surfaces with regularity within the lower court system, but is invariably rejected by the Appeals and Supreme Court levels. Res ipsa, from the perspective of sheer pragmatism, is a menacing waste of judicial resources; time, energy , expenditure and attention. On the surface of the debate about res ipsa's legitimacy and worth, there is no indication that the doctrine exhibits a function or purpose that can be considered as remotely beneficial. However, while these four states' higher courts appear not to have sustained a single res ipsa claim in three decades, the doctrine manages to linger.

Secondary sources of legal clarification also fail to resolve the res ipsa dilemma. For example, legal dictionaries, law school texts and law review articles, display little more than a tendency to repeat res ipsa's component traits, together with the frustration of authors who try to discern a logic amidst futile attempts to endow res ipsa with meaningful substance. At this point, common sense seems to suggest that res ipsa should be permanently assigned a status of antiquated curiosity, rather reminiscent of that bygone era which extorted confessions under torture. Like res

*ipsa, such a practice is so alien to our modem sensibilities that it is as absurd as it is arcane. But the nagging question remains. Why does res ipsa survive in defiance of apparent reason and utility?*

*An answer may reside in the political and ethical implications pertinent to res ipsa. For example, there is the issue of whether or not potential use of res ipsa is superseded by such statutory developments as assumption of risk and contributory negligence. Then, too, is it simply that legislatures are so inherently conservative that they cannot help but to resist formally abolishing a doctrine that might well justify itself in the very next complaint asserting negligence? Or is res ipsa shielded because legislators implicitly apprehend that res ipsa symbolizes other principles which are basic to our overall campaign for a balanced legal identity? This author examines that possibility. The conclusion is that the debate about res ipsa has hitherto centered solely upon the limited efficiency of res ipsa. But said debate may overlook that any bid for legal reform automatically challenges the legal community to ponder how its doctrines -including that of res ipsa -may still embody premises and values that are intrinsic to our fundamental perceptions about democracy. This could account for res ipsa's survival, since it may succeed in reflecting some measure of the tenacity and character of our nation's political instincts and will.*

# AN ANALYSIS OF WOMEN'S STATUS
# IN THE US WORKFORCE 2000+

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## ABSTRACT

*The purpose of the research was to explore the status of women in the US workforce including (1) a brief history of women's entrance into the workforce, (2) a comparison of men and women's pay, work positions, and promotion possibilities, (3) a review of women entrepreneurs, and (4) an examination of obstacles facing women in the workplace.*

*Historical highlights reveal women's entry into the workforce and US demographics and projections are used to bring attention to "perhaps the most significant change in the history of the American workplace-the gender shift;" women now make up 46 percent of US workers. Women are becoming better-educated and single moms who serve as the head of households are fast becoming the new norm.*

*Although tremendous growth in numbers of women participating in the workforce is evident, equal treatment is not. Women continue to make 72.2 percent of the Caucasian male and fill only 6.2 percent of top management positions. Barriers such as stereotypical attitudes, "good ole boy networks", and the "glass ceiling" continue to stifle women's achievements and contributions to the corporate world.*

*As a result, many women are electing nontraditional careers such as engineering and science technicians, computer specialists, and starting their own businesses. Women have also invaded and proven themselves successful in traditional white male bastions-architects, economists, pharmacists, lawyers, and journalists.*

## INTRODUCTION

A plethora of articles has been published addressing the significant changes in US society and workforce demographics. Massive changes have been documented by the U.S. Census Bureau, (2000), indicating the change in Caucasian population in 1950 of 89 percent, to the predicted 60 percent of 2050. A significant growth in the Hispanic population is forecast, from 6 percent in 1990 to 20 percent by 2050. Although the total percentage of Asian Americans is small, this demographic group is currently the fastest growing in the US (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Additionally, the number of older workers is forecast to increase significantly, graying US society and the labor force. The percentage of the US population of 45-54 year olds is predicted to increase from 19 to 24 percent, and of 55-64 year olds from 9 to 12 percent, and will significantly impact organizations, insurance costs, and social security and medicare benefits. Perhaps, however, the greatest demographic shift is the influx of women into the workforce; their proportion is expected to increase from 46 to 48 percent by 2005.

## PURPOSE

The purpose of this research is to explore the status of women in the US workforce including (1) a brief history of women's entrance into the workforce, (2) a comparison of men and women's pay, work positions, and promotion possibilities, (3) a review of women entrepreneurs, and (4) an examination of obstacles facing women in the workplace.

## WOMEN ENTER THE US WORKFORCE

Historical beginnings of women entering the workforce provide a foundation for evaluating growth, participation, capabilities, and contributions of women in the US workforce and in the economy. The number of women in the workforce steadily increased during the 1800's (The Effect, 1996). Predominantly, jobs for women included domestic work, selling hand-made goods and food, and positions in lower class situations. Both women and children entered the workforce during the 1929 depression, working along-side men. Still, men dominated the workplace and upper level positions. During the early 1900's women's participation in the workforce gradually increased but made up a small percentage of the total workforce-in 1900, the percentage of female workers was only 18.1 percent and had risen only to 20.4 percent by 1920 and 21.9 percent by 1930 (Kay, 2000).

World War II served as the conduit of major change in the demographics of the US work force. Many women entered the job market, working on farms and in factories to take the place of men who had gone to war (Judy & D'Amico, 1997). During this difficult time, women's traditional role took on new perspectives as they became the head of the home, held full-time jobs, and educated their children. Generally, women did not return home after World War II and made up 57 percent of the workforce in 1945 (Kay, 2000).

In addition to the impetus of World War II requiring women to fill men's work positions, the nature of work performed began to change. Much of the work during the first half of Twentieth Century involved agriculture and manufacturing, and many jobs were labor bound and more easily completed by men because of their size and strength. American women proved themselves, however, as adept factory workers during World War II. Since the 1940s and 1950's, the number of women entering the workforce has increased, and especially so as the US economy changed from a manufacturing economy to a service economy during the last few decades (Judy & D'Amico, 1997).

Another contributing factor to women entering the US work place was the Women's Rights Movement of the 1960's. In 1961, President Kennedy established the Commission on the Status of Women; the commission investigated discrimination against women and produced documentation that women were being treated as second-class citizens (National, 2002). The Commission also made recommendations on how to eliminate discrimination. Their work prompted the enactment of the Equal Pay Act of 1963 that provided women equal pay with men for performing the same work (Kay, 2000). Also, in 1964, the Civil Rights Bill was amended to include sex. Although sex" was added to the bill as a joke to "kill" the bill, the bill was passed, and women (sex) came under the same protection from discrimination as race, age, handicap, or national origin.

Obtaining advanced education is a reliable prediction of work force participation, and women have taken advantage of this path for entering the work force in greater numbers and at higher entry levels, possessing greater possibilities for promotion and advancement. Women's

education levels at the undergraduate and graduate levels have matched the educational level of men since the early 1980s and have continued through the 1990s (Equal Pay, 1998) By the 1990s women earned 55 percent of bachelor's degrees, 53 percent of master's degrees, and nearly 40 percent of doctorates (Judy & D'Amico, 1997).

Traditionally, American society placed the man as head of the home and "bread winner." However, developments within the US society, mainly increased divorce rates, women's changing self-perceptions, and abandonment of families by men, truly launched new trends. Today, single parents head 27 percent of American households with children under 18 years of age, compared to a mere seven percent in 1950. What's more startling is that single fathers only comprise five percent of that total with 16 percent living below poverty level; the poverty level for single mothers is more than double that amount at 34 percent. Single mothers have become the new norm for the American family (Carlson, et al., 2001).

## A COMPARISON OF MEN AND WOMEN'S PAY, WORK POSITIONS, AND PROMOTION POSSIBILITIES

In 1967, women earned 60 cents for full-time work, while men earned $1. Women's salaries experienced the most growth during the 1980s, then made very small growth percentages throughout the 1990s. Although progress in equity pay has been made, there remains a startling imbalance in pay; according to the U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau, women continued to make only 72.2 cents to a man's $1 in 1999 (Facts on Working Women, 2000).

The AFL-CIO Report (2001) supports the US Department of Labor's statistics indicating that women's wages fell to 72 cents to a man's $1 in 1999. Additionally, the AFL-CIO Report indicated that wages for minority women were much worse, with African-American and Hispanic women making 65 cents and 52 cents, respectively, to a Caucasian male's $1.

Even though a gap remains between men and women's pay, the gap has been gradually closing since 1973. Women's pay experienced the greatest increase during the 1980's and incremental increases during the 1990's. At the same time, men's earnings peaked in the 1970's and have "drifted downward" since. (U. S. Dept. of Labor, 2000). Although the pay gap is decreasing, the presence of women in top-level corporate positions is minimal.

A very small percentage of women have made it to the highest levels of authority in US corporations. Women have been promoted and make up 12.5 percent of corporate officers, and 4.1 percent of top earners. Only 6.2 percent of top managers are women (chairman, vice chairman, CEO, president, chief operating officer, senior executive vice president, executive vice president); in numbers this percentage represents 154 women versus 2,488 men. And only 7.3 percent of "line"-revenue-generating-positions are held by women (Catalyst Fact Sheet, 2000).

Considering that women make up 46 percent of the workforce, an extremely disproportionate number of women hold upper management positions. "Catalyst's 1997 Census of Women Corporate Officers and Top Earners' showed that only 10.6 percent of the corporate officers in Fortune 500 companies are women" (Solomon, 1998). Also, the few women who hold top management positions still earn only a fraction of what their male coworkers are making. Sheila Wellington, president of Catalyst (the research and advisory commission for helping women achieve equality in the workplace) says, "We couldn't find any simple explanation for such a salary gap. By any measure

of comparison-title, functional status, age, company ranking among them-women top earners aren't only out numbered, they earn less than their male counterparts" (Laabs, 1999).

Explanations for such negligible numbers of women in top management are offered by Stavraka (2000). She purports that women are predominantly put in staff positions as opposed to line positions "those with revenue or profit-and-loss responsibility)" and, as a result, are not able to take advantage of obtaining the training and experience to advance up the corporate ladder. As discussed previously, women make up only 7.3 percent of line positions (Catalyst Census, 2000). Also, men and women's employment evaluations differ, with men's focused on career development and women's on current performance.

## A REVIEW OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

A career avenue women have selected in order to exert more control over their careers is evident in the increasing numbers of women starting their own businesses. In 1977, women owned fewer than one million firms (Equal Pay, 1998). However, women-owned businesses increased 15 percent each year between 1977 and 1992, "the most recent year for which data is available" (U.S. Depart. Of Labor, Women Business Owners, 1999). "By 1992, they owned nearly 6.4 million businesses" (Equal Pay, 1998). And by the end of the Twentieth Century, women owned 38 percent of all US firms and "generated more than 3.6 trillion dollars annually in sales, resulting in women owning more than 60 percent of the nation's wealth and 35 percent of the nation's stocks and mutual funds" (National Foundation for Women Business Owners, 2001). These women owned firms also represent 35 percent of all US firms with employees (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Women Business Owners, 1999).

## BARRIERS

According to a research study by Catalyst, women in high-ranking positions in companies in the US, Canada, and the UK indicate that "male stereotyping and preconceptions of women's roles and abilities are top barriers to women's advancement" (Catalyst 2000).

Gender role norms-expectations about appropriate behavior of women versus men-are learned in very early stages of childhood. "Specifically, children learn which gender they are and the role behaviors associated with being male or female in their culture" (Parsons, 1983, 19). These stereotypes regarding women's role in society, many times carry over into the workplace. Traditional attitudes toward women may also be characterized by the belief that women are better at certain jobs and tasks and that men are better at others.

Men in positions of authority and in peer-positions at work may view assertive, female leaders as being "out of their role" thus affecting evaluations, promotions, and salary. Men may also see women as incapable of performing certain tasks as well as a man. A second major barrier for women obtaining high level positions and further promotions is the glass ceiling or "good ole boy" networks. Women are many times overlooked because individuals tend to hire people they know and feel comfortable around.

Even now, the glass ceiling still exists. It is preventing women from holding the top corporate offices in America As a result men have a much better opportunity to reach top-level

management positions in the largest corporations of America. Additionally, the experience that a woman can gain is many times considered inferior to the experience of men, and many times, this lack of experience is because women are not usually promoted into line positions-revenue generating positions that lead to top levels of management.

## SUMMARY

Women entered the U.S. work force in mass and in nontraditional work positions primarily in response to jobs left vacant during World War II. After the War, however, many women continued to work, although they were relegated to role segregated jobs and jobs considered to be traditional, such as teaching and nursing. Women had to fight for equality in the home and in the workplace. Education was one venue that women elected to follow to increase their value, worth, and advancement possibilities in the workplace.

Significant societal changes also placed women in position of head of home and as sole support or in dual income family situations. Even though women made some gains in equal treatment via the 1963 Equal Pay Act and the 1964 Civil Rights Act, the US workforce has predominantly remained a Caucasian male bastion.

Women now make up 46 percent of the total US work force, yet their percentage of top managers is a mere 6.2 percent, 154 women versus 2,488 men. Additionally, only 7.3 line positions, those that lead to top positions, are made up of women. Further, women continue to make only 72.2 cents to a man's $1 in 1999 (Facts on Working Women, 2000). As a result of these and other hindrances, many women are choosing nontraditional work positions such as financial managers, computer specialists, and self-employment. By 1992, women owned nearly 6.4 million businesses, and by the end of the Twentieth Century, women owned 38 percent of all US firms and generated more than 3.6 trillion dollars annually in sales, resulting in women owning more than 60 percent of the nation's wealth and 35 percent of the nation's stocks and mutual funds (Pate, 2000).

Although women are making great strides in the work environment, they still face and must deal with stereotypical attitudes, "good ole boy" networks, and the "glass ceiling."

## REFERENCES

Available upon request.

# Authors' Index