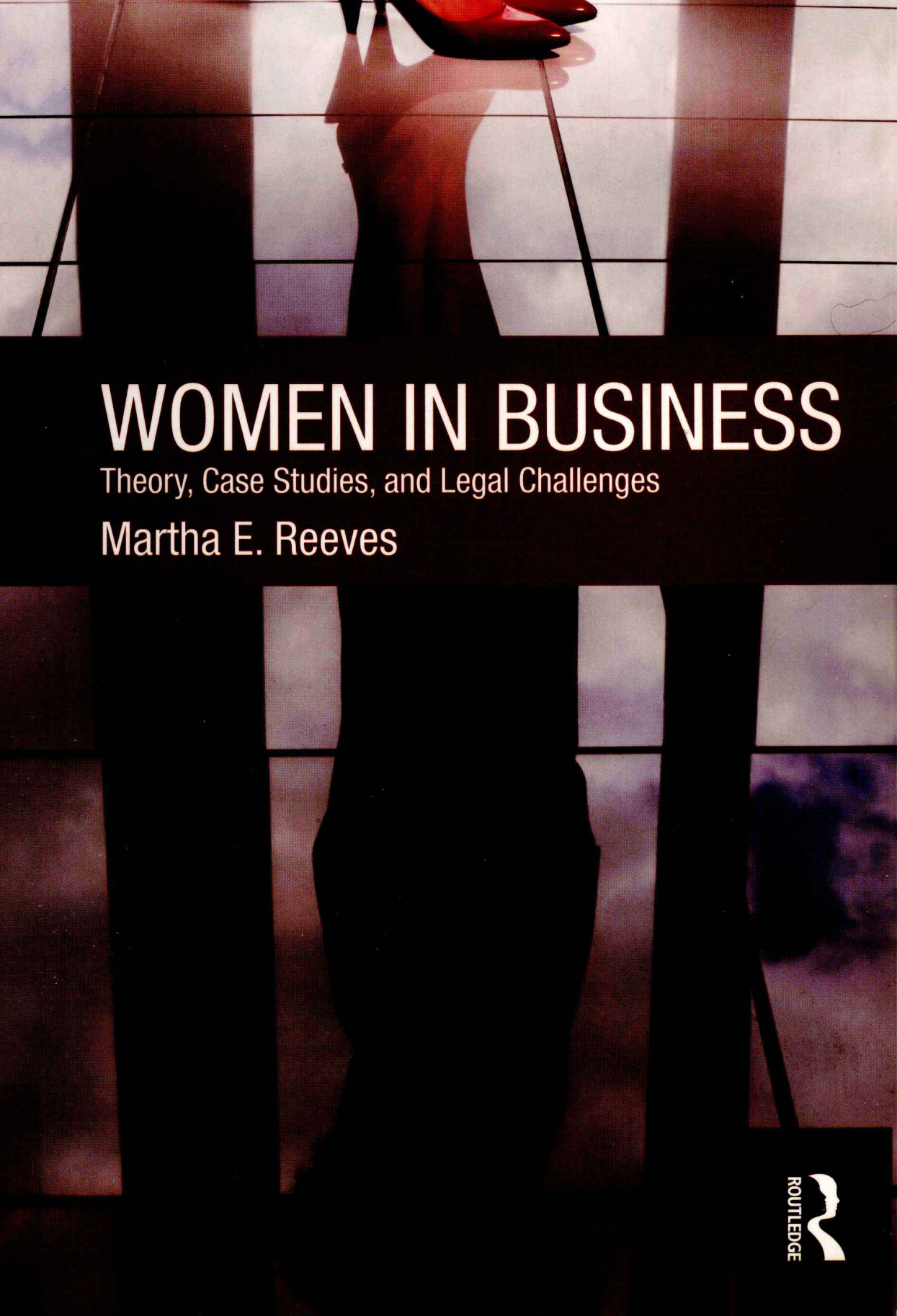

WOMEN IN BUSINESS

Theory, Case Studies, and Legal Challenges

Martha E. Reeves

ROUTLEDGE

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Contents

Part I

An Introduction to Gender Equality

1 An Introduction to Women in the Workplace

Learning Objectives

After completing this chapter, the reader will:

- understand women's workforce participation in the twentieth and twenty-first centuries.
- understand the major thrusts of first, second, and third wave feminist movements in the US.

This book has three primary goals. The first objective is to provide a thorough review of issues important to women in the workplace. The second is to provide one text that covers theories about gender discrimination, case studies to illustrate key themes, and the legal framework for equity at work. In addition to legal frameworks, this text introduces some of the significant legal cases related to workplace discrimination. A third objective is to introduce some comparisons between the position of women in the United States and in other countries. Although this text cannot provide an exhaustive description of the position of women everywhere, it does include several examples of work-related issues for women in other countries, especially European nations.

Why Should These Topics Be Important to College Students and Others?

Many economists project labor shortages in the coming years as baby boomers retire and as birth rates continue to decline in the US and European countries (Atwater & Jones, 2004). To handle these labor shortages, we will need to harness the talents of all of our people, and part of this effort will be encouraging highly qualified women to enter and stay in the workforce. Whether you are a male or female college student, understanding the contributions of women at work and the obstacles that women still navigate will be important for your success. The latest projections of the US labor force suggest that women make up 48% of the US labor force in 2008;[1] 60% of all adult women in the US were in the workforce in 2000 (US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2000). The number of women in the workforce has increased dramatically since the 1950s, and today much of the work in corporations is done in teams of both men and women. If men understand the challenges that women face, they will be better equipped to work with them. If women understand the potential challenges that they may face, they will be better able to successfully respond to these challenges.

In addition to the smooth internal functioning of a firm, women's contributions are important to the firm's external performance. As more and more customers and clients become women and minorities, and as these groups have more financial clout, the successful marketing of products is more likely with a diverse workforce. Business people are learning that female consumers have come to expect products that specifically address their needs; arguably, these products are conceived, produced, marketed, and sold by employees who understand their needs – other women.

The successful participation of women in the workplace should be important to all of us, from students to human resource professionals to marketing professionals and to CEOs and senior managers who hire employees and set workplace policies. Moreover, the effective deployment of women in the workforce should be as important to men as it is to women. If men own businesses or work as senior managers in them, they will need to use all available talent, not just the talents of men. Their businesses will be more successful if they pursue an agenda of equality, rather than one of special privilege for some. If women feel short-changed compared to men, their motivation to put in their best effort will be compromised, which will ultimately lead to less than optimal performance for the firm. So we can see that not taking advantage of half of the available talent (women) and not treating women fairly in the workplace will have a detrimental effect on a company's profits. Moreover, effectively deploying the talent of *all* employees is essential for companies in the competitive, global environment of the twenty-first century.

Overview of Women's Workforce Participation

To better understand the position of women in the workforce, we begin with an overview of women's workforce participation and various factors that resulted in the rate change in women's workforce participation over the last century. This overview shows that there are multiple reasons for women's increased labor-force participation, and for the changes in the legal and political status of women in the US. An increase in women's civil rights and a demand for women's labor opened doors for women in the workplace. The interaction among changes in women's legal rights, the volatility of the economy, and changing social attitudes all played a role in the profound change in women's labor-force participation through the twentieth century and into the twenty-first century. The following section identifies the various factors responsible for the growth of women in the labor market and explains the interplay among these factors.

Factors Affecting Women in the Workforce in the Twentieth Century

In the early 1900s, increasing numbers of women in Western countries began demanding the legal and political rights that democracies had denied them throughout the nineteenth century: the right to vote and stand for office, the right to hold property and secure access on terms of equality to public institutions. The most formidable and militant of these early feminists were the suffragettes of pre-war Great Britain. By 1919 women had secured the vote in the UK, and in 1920 in the US. (By contrast, women were not allowed to vote in Switzerland as late as 1970.) This early feminist movement has been called *first-wave feminism*. During this time, the demands for women's equality did not extend to the workplace. Most women did not work, and those few who did were restricted to a narrow range of jobs and professions: primary school teaching and nursing, for example. Women lawyers and doctors were few in

number, and often had entered these professions to continue a family tradition in the absence of brothers. They were tolerated as eccentrics. Beyond school teachers and nurses, only telephone operators and bank tellers were predominantly female. Although many women did not work, single women dominated the female labor force from 1870 to 1920 (Casper & Bianchi, 2002; Goldin, 2006; Leibowitz & Klerman, 1995; Rosenfeld, 1996; Smith & Ward, 1985).

The demands of World War II dramatically increased women's participation in the workforce, but only temporarily. Between 1940 and 1945, women found themselves in almost all occupations, including aircraft pilots and other non-combat military jobs. From 1940 to 1944, women's participation increased by almost 50%, mainly in war-related manufacturing such as aircraft and munitions factories. An American war campaign stressed, "If you've used an electric mixer in your kitchen, you can learn to run a drill press" (Goodwin, 1995, p. 414). Women also increased their participation in nursing, teaching, clothing manufacturing, and telephone operations (Marshall & Paulin, 1987). Black women made significant gains during World War II by moving into war-related industries and out of agricultural work and domestic service. But with the end of the war and the return of millions of soldiers, men received priority in hiring and women left factory jobs, many without protest. The prevailing attitude of the time was that government and business had an obligation to provide every man who could be employed with a job, and women with employment only if they needed a job to support a family, in the absence of a male breadwinner.

In addition to workforce demands, an important part of first-wave feminism was the struggle for reproductive rights. In the nineteenth century, it was illegal for doctors to provide contraceptive devices. Women could not control their work lives unless they could control when they had their children and the number they desired. Margaret Sanger, an early feminist, was charged in New York State with disseminating contraceptive information. In 1873, the Comstock Act was passed making it illegal to send "lewd" materials through the mail, including contraceptive devices. Although the struggle for reproductive rights began during the first wave, it was not recognized widely as an important part of the struggle for equality until the second wave.

Second-wave feminism began as a movement among women to demand equal access to the professions and to positions of responsibility in the workplace. In the 1950s, middle-class, married women were content to remain at home, the economy was stable and one earner was enough for many family units to live comfortably. By the 1960s and 1970s, however, many families felt the pinch of harder economic times; *stagflation*, the term coined for a combination of inflation and a lack of economic growth, burdened the American economy. Women were eager to move into the workforce to supplement the family's income, and many women had begun to acquire educational credentials that qualified them for the same jobs that men had.

In addition to the economic needs of women and families, the second wave was influenced by a change in consciousness of women. The movement was inspired by works like Simone de Beauvoir's *The Second Sex* (1949), which argued that men dominated women and were therefore the "first" sex, while women as the "second sex" were exploited by the standards set by men. Second-wave feminists rejected the notion that women were either specially suited for homemaking or that they were unsuited to work in all areas of the modern economy, including jobs as police officers and firefighters that no one had ever thought before as suitable for women. A second book, *The Feminine Mystique* (1963) by Betty Friedan, grew out of her interviews with her Smith College graduating class. The book uncovered her former classmates' lack of fulfillment as suburban housewives because their identities were bound solely to their husbands

and children. Friedan's work became a voice for women who felt trapped by their domestic roles and who wanted to find fulfilling jobs in the paid workforce.

Two separate but interrelated movements during the second wave influenced women's participation in the workforce and gave them more power. The first was the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s. Women saw similarities between their own subordinate position and that of black Americans, and they were inspired by the rhetoric of the Civil Rights Movement. Moreover, they learned techniques; the organization, leadership, and protests of the Civil Rights Movement became a blueprint for second-wave feminists. In 1966, The National Organization of Women (NOW), with Betty Friedan as its leader, held its first meeting. The group pushed for fair employment, especially in hiring and promotion decisions, access to education, and equal pay. As part of the push for civil rights for women, in 1961 the Kennedy administration initiated the Presidential Commission on the Status of Women, which outlined changes in hiring practices and recommended maternity leave and affordable childcare. In 1963, The Equal Pay Act was passed, making it illegal to pay women and men differently for performing the same work. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act followed in 1964. It banned discrimination based on race, sex, religion, or national origin.

In addition to these efforts to provide women with civil rights, the second movement pushed for equal sexual rights and was marked by the introduction of the birth-control pill. The pill was finally made available to women in 1961, although it was not until the 1970s that its use became widespread in the US. Birth control made it possible for women to plan their pregnancies, which in turn made it possible for them to plan their careers and postpone motherhood, should they choose to.

From the early 1960s to 1980, the movements for sexual and civil rights and women's income needs led to a dramatic increase in their workforce participation; women's participation went from 38% to 52%, with black women having on average a greater participation rate than white women (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000). Unlike during World War II when women were temporary workers to fill a demand for factory work, women had entered the workforce as permanent participants. Married women began contributing to the household income; by 1985, men were the sole breadwinners in less than 15% of US households (Cleveland et al., 2000). This was a major shift from the pre-war period when married women participated in the workforce at much lower levels than single and divorced women. At the turn of the twentieth century, only 6% of married women were in the labor force compared to 40% of single women over the age of 10 (Folbre, 1991). Scholars attribute the post-World War II rise in female labor supply to real-wage growth for women as well as their increased levels of education and decreased fertility (Leibowitz & Klerman, 1995; Smith & Ward, 1985).

In her discussion of the changing economic role of married women in the US, Goldin (2006) identifies two sources of married women's shift into the paid labor force. First, the demand for more workers pulled married women into the workforce. Second, as female cohorts moved through time and increasingly acquired the educational and other necessarily prerequisites for paid employment, they were better able to respond to the labor demands over time periods. In addition, the declining real wages of men were a major economic force pulling women into the workforce in the latter decades of the twentieth century (Vallas, Finlay, & Wharton, 2009). As men's real wages decreased, married women entered the labor force to contribute to the family wage. Another factor in the increase in women's participation was fueled by an increase in the divorce rates between 1960 and 1980, making it economically necessary for newly divorced women to work.

In this second wave, the agenda of feminism moved from securing basic political rights to demanding a level playing field in the pursuit of economic opportunities. Women demanded access to jobs up and down the employment ladder, and access to the education and training that would qualify them for these jobs. They rejected arguments against equal treatment of women in the economy that were based on women's traditional roles in child-rearing. Second-wave feminists combined their general demands for equality in the workplace with specific attacks on the unequal standards imposed on those few professions and jobs in which women predominated. For example in the airline industry, women cabin attendants, called "stewardesses" (the men were called "pursers"), had been forced to quit once they were married or pregnant. Weight and age restrictions were imposed on them, and they were required to wear high heels

Box 1.1 Sex Versus Gender

In part because women were increasingly seen to be equally capable as men in many hitherto all-male occupations, and in order to undermine claims that some jobs just couldn't be accomplished by women, second-wave feminism undertook to show that traditional distinctions between men and women were not based on biological differences, but in fact reflected cultural differences. These cultural differences were manifest in values, tastes, prejudices, and socially constructed institutions, as opposed to genetics or the physiology of men and women.

In the second wave, feminists and other social scientists began to distinguish sex and gender: the former was held to be biological and the latter was largely a matter of convention, social attitudes, or the politics of women's subordination. "Sex" refers to male and female biology, while "gender" connotes how our biological sex is understood by others and by ourselves. One's sex is determined by biological differences in male versus female genetic endowment, in particular XY sex chromosomes for males and XX for females, which determine genitalia. Even secondary sexual traits distinguish males from females: a lower voice in men, larger breasts in women, and a smaller musculature in women. Gender, on the other hand, reflects the meanings that people ascribe to the male or female sex. Psychologists, sociologists, and anthropologists have studied gender identity and how it affects individuals and societies; for example, gender identity may determine which careers people find suitable for themselves or the domestic roles societies prescribe for women versus men. In the 1950s, psychologists referred to gender identity as anything a person does or says that marks him or her as male or female (Money, 1955). Later, feminists wrote about gender as the societal and cultural processes that led people to identify themselves as having typically feminine or masculine behaviors (Unger, 1979). Since the 1970s and 1980s, the word "gender" has been thought of by many social scientists as largely a social construction – a construction that can be altered with a change in attitudes or behaviors. Gender role expectations are built into the very fabric of our institutions – the family, the state, culture, religion, and law (Lorber, 2005). For example, consider how some religious ceremonies command a woman to love, honor, and "obey" her husband, or how high schools in the 1960s had shop (Industrial Arts) classes for boys and home economics classes for girls. Even clothing manufacturers create distinctions between the sexes by the color of clothing suggested as appropriate for baby girls (pink) versus baby boys (blue). Once we separate the sexes and emphasize their differences rather than their similarities, we open the door for differences in their treatment. Thus, an important aspect of second-wave feminism was the increasing awareness by women and men of the artificial, non-biological-based gender roles that had been imposed upon them and of the political process necessary to change these prescribed roles.

and, on some of the airlines, revealing uniforms such as "hot pants." Stewardesses began to resist these demands. Toward the end of the second wave, women and their male allies sought successfully to open the traditionally male institutions which prepared only men for the most responsible and influential positions in the public and private sectors. In the US, Harvard and Yale, which had formerly been all-male institutions, opened their doors to women, while several women's colleges became coeducational. The movement was also active in Western European countries; like the Ivy League, most of Oxford and Cambridge's all-male colleges began to admit women.

By the 1990s, demographic and cultural changes in the US had spawned a *third-wave feminist movement.* By 1998, 79% of men and 60% of women participated in the workforce, with black and other minority women participating at 64% (Cleveland et al., 2000). In the US, the populations of all major minority groups (Asians, Hispanics, and blacks) had grown; for example, in census comparisons from 1990 to 2000, the Hispanic population increased by more than 50% from 22.4 million to 35.3 million; the Asian population increased by 48% from 6.9 million to 10.2 million; and the black population increased by 15.6% from 30 million to 34.7 million. The figure is higher for blacks if mixed-race African Americans are included (US Census Bureau, 2000). The participation of minority women in the workforce has steadily increased from 1950 to 2007, with a sharp increase from 2004 to 2007. Another major shift occurred from the 1900s to 1999; during this timeframe, service industries grew from 31% to 78%, bringing more women of all races into the workforce (Fisk, 2003).

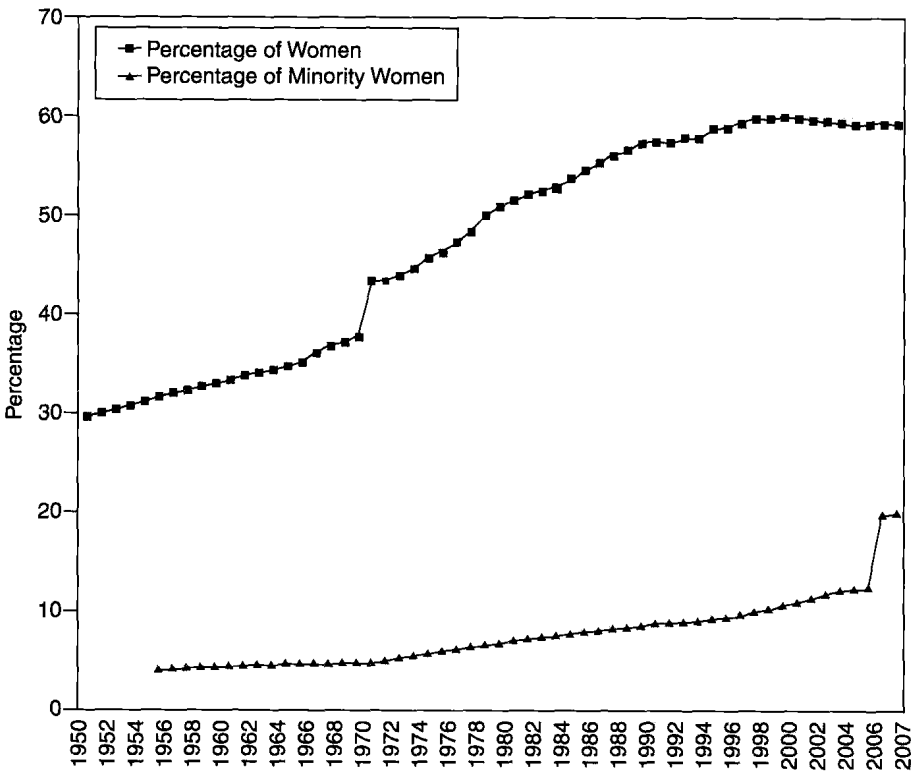

Figure 1.1 Labor Market Participation Rates for US Women, 1950–2007 (total percentage of women in the US workforce and percentage of minority women in the workforce) (source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007).

Second-wave feminism was a movement largely dominated by white, upper-class educated women from the developed world, and its agenda focused on the interests of such women. A new generation of feminists argued that more attention should be paid to minority women, particularly if a fully adequate conception of women's gender roles and the limitations they impose across all societies, social classes, and ethnicities were to be understood. And they advocated a broader, more inclusive conception of what it means to be female. Third-wave feminists came to treat race, social class, ethnicity, and sexual orientation as social constructions masquerading as real and inevitable divisions between people, whose effects were to foster the exploitation or exclusion of groups classified in those terms. This treatment encouraged third-wave feminists to adapt employment theories originally articulated to understand economic classes in capitalist economies, racial out-groups in apartheid regimes, and discriminated castes in non-Western cultures. These later feminists provided general theories about gender in Western cultures and how gender operates in a globalized economy. Several United Nations Women's Conferences were held around the world that began to alter how women thought about the movement. The first was held in Mexico City in 1975, the second in Copenhagen in 1980, the third in Nairobi in 1985, and the fourth in Beijing in 1995. At these conferences women in Western cultures learned about the issues facing women in developing countries and began to realize that the concerns of Western women were not necessarily the same concerns for all women. Attention shifted from concerns of white women to the empowerment of all women, and to basic human rights. Poverty, education levels, women's health, violence against women, armed conflict, women and the environment, and economic participation of women have all been discussed at these events. During this time, the treatment of women workers in factories of multinational companies also became a concern; US companies use overseas labor in Latin America and Asia to lower their costs of production because hiring these workers is far cheaper than hiring domestic workers. Even though many of these firms pay more than local employers, these workers (usually women) are often subject to long hours and unhealthy working conditions (Pyle, 1999, 2001). The International Labor Office contends that even though more women have entered the workforce, more than half of all working women are in vulnerable jobs that are in less productive sectors of the economy where they are less likely to have a voice at work or basic human rights (ILO, 2008).

By the time this third wave took off, women in the Western economies had entered many of the work roles that second-wave feminists had struggled through the 1960s and 1970s to open up for them. By the late twentieth century, women in Western countries were to be found in all the professions and had made some gains in equal pay with men. From the 1990s onward, with legal protections in place for women and penalties for violations, discrimination had become more nuanced and less obvious than it had been in the 1960s. In the US, women had consistently made gains in the management ranks of organizations, moving from a low rate of 4% of managers in 1990 to 45% in 2000 (see Table 1.1). This increase in management has given them a voice in decision-making and improved their pay.

As the twenty-first century dawned, the agenda of feminism moved away from debate among third-wave feminists about speculative theories of women's subordination in the workplace and the home to concerns about *how* to implement political and economic equality around the world. If third-wave feminism has left an enduring mark outside of the academic world of women's studies, it has been to establish and expand a practical alliance among women across social classes, cultures, and ethnicities, and even to extend it to gay men, undocumented workers, the transgendered, and others still

Table 1.1 Percentage of Women Employed in White Collar Occupations (and as Managers)

Year	*White Collar*	*Managers*
1990	19	4
1910	24	6
1920	32	7
1930	33	8
1940	35	11
1950	40	14
1960	42	16
1970	47	16
1980	53	26
1990	56	39
2000	57	45

Source: Data from the period 1900–1960, *Historical statistics of the United States: Colonial times to 1970*. Part 1, Series D, 11–25. US Bureau of the Census. Data from 1970–2000, *Employment and earnings*, table 2 from US Bureau of Labor Statistics. Note that the 1900–1960 data include persons 10 years and older. The data from the period 1970–2000 include persons 16 and older.

not fully able to secure their economic rights. Women have been joined by members of all these groups in the effort to find the most effective ways to make use of the advances first- and second-wave feminists helped establish.

Women's Workforce Participation Today – Current Statistics and Future Challenges

The millennium has passed. We've seen legal advances for women's civil rights and governments have passed equal pay legislation. More women work as managers in America and in European countries than ever before and the rates of women in the workforce have been steadily increasing. For example, in 1970, 43% of women in the US worked in the paid labor force compared to 52% in 1980, 58% in 1990 and 60% in 2000 (US Census Bureau, 2004). The same phenomenon has occurred in European countries. In Belgium, in 1970, 25% of women were in the workforce, and in 1998, the number had grown to 37%. In 2001, 42% of the labor market in Belgium was female (Van Haegandoren, Steegmans, & Valgaeren, 2001). In Greece, between 1990 and 2000, 80% of new job entrants were women, and in 1981, 29.8% of women in Greece worked; while, in 2000, the percentage of women working grew to 38.7% (Kottis & Neokosmidi, 2004). In the Netherlands a similar pattern of increased participation occurred; in 1971, 25% of women worked, in 1990 the number had grown to 39%, and in 2001, 53% of women worked (Tijdens, 2004). According to the Central Statistics Office in Ireland, the participation of married women (as a percentage of women workers) grew from 3.6% in 1971 to 48.2% in 2000 (McCarthy, 2004). Davidson's and Burke's book featuring 20 countries around the world concluded,

> Throughout almost all the countries, the common trend has been over the past twenty years, the proportion of women in the paid workforce (particularly married with children and part-time workers) has increased and today ranges from 30 per cent (Turkey) to 53 per cent (in the Netherlands).
>
> (2004, p. 6)

The dramatic increase in women in the workforce in the developed world is due to many factors, including labor-market shortages that made it necessary for employers to hire more women. In particular, a growing service sector created many part-time and full-time positions for women. In addition, over the decades a greater acceptance of women in the workforce was the result of greater political participation by women. For example, in 1973 in Ireland the marriage bar was revoked. This legislation forced women to resign from jobs in the public and civil service as soon as they married. And social welfare programs in some countries (such as Belgium) afforded many more child-care options, making it easier for women to join the workforce. These legal changes and shifts in cultural attitudes brought women into the workforce in large numbers.

Today women can be found in occupations from which they were previously barred or discouraged from entering, from firefighting to information technology to engineering. Like men, women are gaining advanced degrees from competitive universities; in the US, in 2006–2007 in four-year institutions, 42% of degrees were awarded to men and 58% to women. Of master's degrees awarded, 56% went to women and 44% to men (Knapp, Kelly-Reid, & Ginder, 2008). Parts of the playing field have been made level for women and men in corporations, but women still struggle to balance work life and family life. They continue to have difficulty in attaining higher-level positions in companies in which they work, and they often feel isolated if they are able to move up within an organization. In spite of the gains women have made, 40 years after the United States and European Union countries passed legislation to prevent gender discrimination, the glass ceiling[2] still exists in some organizations and in some industries. The glass ceiling can be found in the highest areas of government, academia, and in corporate organizations.

In response to barriers that women and minorities have faced, governments as well as businesses have recognized the importance of equity in the workplace. In the European Union, equality between men and women holds a prominent place on the political agenda. The EU has recognized that its labor force will need women at all levels, as birth rates fall and the population ages. Among the priorities for EU action by the year 2010 are the following: a call for 60% employment rate for women (the rates are currently low for older women and women have a higher rate of unemployment than men); access to employment benefits for women, especially retirement benefits; elimination of the gender pay gap (currently women earn 15% less than men); removal of gender discrimination of immigrant and ethnic minority women; and an increase in women entrepreneurs. Women in EU countries currently have difficulty accessing financing for their businesses (Commission of the European Communities, 2006). Banks and other financial institutions are less apt to loan money to women entrepreneurs than to male entrepreneurs.

In conclusion, the picture of women in the workforce in the last half of the twentieth century and early twenty-first century is mixed. In spite of the lack of significant representation of women at the very highest levels in organizations, some women have made it to the top and many women have made significant inroads into lower and middle management. To reflect these advances, two scholars have proposed that a new, more updated metaphor – a labyrinth – is in order to replace the old glass-ceiling metaphor. Rather than a ceiling that is absolute and impenetrable, Eagly and Carli suggest that women can attain leadership positions but often travel through a labyrinth, a complex and demanding path rather than the more straightforward path that men travel to leadership positions (2007). Around the world, women's participation in the labor force and their education levels have continued to increase. The challenge for companies and governments in the developed world is to afford women more

opportunity at the top of organizations, in positions of significant decision-making responsibility, and in jobs where they can influence corporate strategy. In poorer countries the challenge is to provide decent employment with acceptable working conditions for women and to narrow the significant wage gap between men and women.

Organization of This Book

Through background information, case studies, and legal cases, each chapter explores a different dimension of gender and/or racial discrimination manifested in the business environment. The first three chapters serve as introductions to the topic of gender and gender discrimination, while the final chapter explains policy prescriptions and actions taken by governments, non-profits, and corporations that have advanced the position of women and other minorities. The middle chapters focus on women in the workplace and the application of the theoretical concepts discussed in Chapters 1 and 2. In addition, the middle chapters turn to cases that relate to the chapter topics. The cases are based on real situations identified through interviews with female business professionals. The names and organizations have been changed to ensure the anonymity of the women and firms treated in the cases.

As discrimination in the twenty-first century has become more subtle (for example, most places of employment do not openly display pin-up calendars or openly harass gay men or women), some of the problems treated in this book are notably more nuanced than earlier problems women faced. Cases concerning sexual harassment are often hard to adjudicate because they involve one person's version of the facts versus another's version. Similarly, in cases of lost career opportunity it is difficult to assign blame to a particular individual. Was it the manager's fault for not putting the woman forward for promotion and not affording her career opportunities, or was the woman ill-prepared because of her own lack of expertise and talent? In these gray areas, students are asked to wrestle with the facts and consider different positions. Following each case, the student is challenged to reflect on various issues raised in a set discussion questions. The questions are designed to help the student evaluate the case from different perspectives and to engage the student in analysis of the possible courses of action the women in the cases could take.

Each of the middle chapters concludes with selected court cases settled in the US and in European countries that relate to the chapter topic. In addition, readings and websites that will augment student learning are suggested.

The organization of the book follows a particular logic. In this chapter we have briefly discussed why gender in the workplace is still an issue after legislation has been passed to rectify problems and make women equal partners with men in organizations. Chapter 2 turns to the fundamental causes of women's continued subordination. Occupational Segregation explains how women have historically occupied the lowest rungs on the corporate ladder. The chapter defines horizontal and vertical segregation and offers explanations for occupational segregation – from a variety of perspectives – socialization and culture, labor market theory, and individual preferences, for example. In particular we have focused on the places where women are still finding it difficult to penetrate: senior levels and board membership. Chapter 3 explains Title VII of the Civil Rights Act and The Equal Pay Act, the two pieces of US legislation designed to protect people from discrimination. By explaining both occupational segregation and the legal framework to combat discrimination, these early chapters pave the way for Chapter 4 – Career Opportunities. If women are segregated from men and given non-decision-making roles in organizations, their chances for career development will be

hampered. Discrimination in hiring and in selecting candidates for promotion is examined. The chapter explains the differences between overt and unconscious practices that disadvantage women and discusses how organizational culture affects women's opportunities. For example, exclusion from key social gatherings where business is inevitably discussed and where personal relationships are strengthened will make a woman less visible to senior managers in decision-making roles. Case studies present situations in which women may have been disadvantaged and several legal cases are examined, demonstrating that women are denied career opportunities at both ends of the employment spectrum: in high-end and entry level positions.

Chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8 look more closely at some of the mechanisms of inequality at work, and how they disproportionately affect women. Equal pay issues, lack of influential networks, lack of access to information, differences in communication style, and, finally, hostile work environments all make it difficult for women to reach their true potential. Chapter 5 examines the state of women's earnings versus men's, the factors that lead to unequal pay for equivalent work, and the problems associated with placing a dollar value on individual jobs. In addition to the situation in the United States, the global gender gap in equal pay is discussed. In Chapter 6, the importance of networking and mentoring in the business setting are covered. First, a summary of social network theory is provided. Then the gender differences in accessing networks are reviewed. Through a case study, the chapter examines the issues faced by racial minorities of both genders in finding suitable mentors, and then turns to problems unique to minority women.

Chapter 7, Gender and Communication, explores whether or not men and women communicate differently and how the flow of information (and therefore power) in organizations can circumvent women. In the chapter, cross-cultural communication, verbal communication patterns, and other channels of information – such as electronic and written correspondence – are discussed. Since much of today's communication happens virtually, via e-mail and other methods, the chapter explores the differences and similarities in men's and women's virtual communication.

Chapter 8, Hostile Work Environments and Sexual Harassment, begins with an explanation of what the law defines as a hostile work environment, and continues by explaining the various theories about why sexual harassment persists despite the introduction of legal remedies in the last 40 years. The legal environment, legislation designed to protect victims of harassment, and several high-profile legal cases are discussed. Chapter 9 explores how women balance work and other life pursuits – highlighting the added burden working women typically have in managing a household and caring for children. The chapter highlights the very real problems that organizations have in meeting productivity goals while offering flexibility to their employees, and it examines the burden that women bear for managing a family's needs while holding down a job. Carrying the brunt of responsibility for family can contribute to women's lack of satisfaction with both their family life and work life.

Chapter 10, Women Entrepreneurs: Working *Their* Way, analyzes the current increase in the number of female entrepreneurs in the US, Europe, and in some developing economies, the reasons why women are exiting the formal labor market to work for themselves, and research about the differences between male and female entrepreneurs. Many women discover that, after having worked in organizations for several years, they find more gratification and flexibility in working for themselves. Particular obstacles for women entrepreneurs, such as the lack of access to venture capital and mentors, are discussed. An interview with four entrepreneurs who have chosen to build their businesses in traditionally male-dominated arenas, and a case study of two female entrepreneurs who worked in female-dominated industries, conclude the chapter.