

ALASKA LEGISLATURE COMMITTEE FILES

1993-1994

8672

8129

HOUSE STATE AFFAIRS

394

Representative Fran Ulmer

March 5, 1993

Page 2

Sec. 42.30.440 establishes the enhanced 911 fund as a sep. rate account in the general fund, to be used to reimburse municipalities participating in the enhanced 911 fund.

Sec. 42.30.450 provides immunity from civil damages to individuals and to telephone companies and their employees based on the operation or maintenance of an emergency 911 system.

Sec. 42.30.460 establishes that telephone customers with unlisted or unpublished telephone numbers waive the privacy rights to the extent that an enhanced 911 system provides that information.

Sec. 42.30.490 contains definitions for the earlier sections.

Sec. 3 is an immediate effective date.

TC:pl  
93-163.plm

**FISCAL NOTE**

**STATE OF ALASKA**  
**1993 LEGISLATIVE SESSION**

**BILL NO. HB 142**

Revision Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Title: An Act relating to enhanced 911 emergency reporting  
systems . . . .  
 Sponsor: Ulmer  
 Requestor: \_\_\_\_\_

Department Affected: Commerce and Economic Development  
 BRU: Alaska Public Utilities Commission  
 Component: \_\_\_\_\_  
 COMPONENT SERIAL NO. \_\_\_\_\_

**EXPENDITURES/REVENUES:**

OPERATING	FY 94	FY 95	FY 96	FY 97	FY 98	FY 99
PERSONAL SERVICES	0	0	0	0	0	0
TRAVEL	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONTRACTUAL	0	0	0	0	0	0
SUPPLIES	0	0	0	0	0	0
EQUIPMENT	0	0	0	0	0	0
LAND & STRUCTURES	0	0	0	0	0	0
GRANTS, CLAIMS	0	0	0	0	0	0
MISCELLANEOUS	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>TOTAL OPERATING</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>

CAPITAL	0	0	0	0	0	0
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REVENUE FUND SOURCE:	0	0	0	0	0	0
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**FUNDING:**

1002 Federal Receipts	0	0	0	0	0	0
1003 GF Match	0	0	0	0	0	0
1004 GF	0	0	0	0	0	0
1005 GF/Program Receipts	0	0	0	0	0	0
1006 GF/MHTIA	0	0	0	0	0	0
OTHER	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>

**POSITIONS:**

FULL-TIME	0	0	0	0	0	0
PART-TIME	0	0	0	0	0	0
TEMPORARY	0	0	0	0	0	0

Estimate of current year (FY 93) impact: 0

ANALYSIS: (Attach a separate page if necessary.)  
 See Separate Page

Prepared by: Robert A. Lohr, Executive Director  
 Division: Alaska Public Utilities Commission

Phone: 276-6222  
 Date: 2/22/93

Approved by Commissioner: Paul Fuhs  
 Agency: Commerce and Economic Development

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

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**HB 142: "An Act relating to enhance 911 Emergency Reporting Service Systems."**

The Alaska Public Utilities Commission's (Commission) initial comment on SB 97, HB 142, and HB 166 is that there appears to be little or no role for the Commission. Only HB 142 specifically refers to the Commission and in that bill the Commission's role would be limited to receiving notice from municipalities that intend to implement enhanced 911 systems.

However, should certain oversight or other governmental functions in these bills be delegated to the Commission, the Commission specifically notes that fund administration (including collection enforcement, investment and disbursement) is not a function which the Commission has neither traditionally handled nor is currently equipped to handle.

Aside from any potential role for the Commission in the implementation of these bills, the Commission believes these bills raise a basic public policy question as to whether enhanced 911 service is, in fact, a public utility service. The funds proposed by each bill would be used primarily for the creation and maintenance of public safety information database service - a service over which the Commission has little, if any, jurisdiction.

Furthermore, if it is determined that enhanced 911 service is a public safety service rather than a public utility service, the Legislature may also wish to question the proposed funding source. That is, is it appropriate to use a public utility service (local telephone service) to fund a public safety service (local telephone service) to fund a public safety function (enhanced 911 service)?


The Commission notes that a potential conflict may exist between the provision in these bills for the collection of \$0.50 per access line per month and existing state policy, as expressed in AS 42.05.145, that regulation of local exchange telecommunications service shall "seek to maintain and further the efficiency, availability, and affordability of universal basic telecommunications service." This conflict may exist not only with respect to the amount of the subscriber charge (which has no apparent relationship to cost) but also with respect to a regressive cap which limits the amount to be paid by customers with more than 100 access lines. There is little to suggest that the structure of the proposed charge attempts to track users with payers as is the case with other public utility surcharges (e.g., Regulatory Cost Charge). Concern for the potentially harmful universal service implications of these bills is further raised by the fact the proposed cost containment provisions are limited and there is no mechanism for capping the 911 fund.

POSITION PAPER

HB 142

Page 2

Finally, a zero fiscal note has been attached to this position paper since, as the bills are currently drafted, the Commission's role in implementation is either very limited or nonexistent. However, should any of the bills be redrafted to include a greater role for the Commission, particularly with respect to fund administration or review of costs, the fiscal note would be revised.

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Paul Fuhs, Commissioner

2-23-93  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Date



Southeast Region Emergency Medical Services Council  
207 Moller Drive, Room 113 Sitka, Alaska 99835 907-747-8005

7 March 1993

The Honorable Fran Ulmer  
Alaska State Legislature  
P.O. Box V (MS 3100)  
Juneau, AK 99811

Dear Representative Ulmer,

I am writing to express my support for House Bill 142 " An Act Relating to Enhanced 911 Emergency Reporting Systems..."

Establishing the authority for municipal phone companies to levy a fee to purchase and maintain enhanced 911 systems creates a mechanism for municipalities to provide an important service. Setting user fees to pay for this service seems reasonable and prudent in these times of declining state revenue. Your legislation not only creates the ability to charge user fees, but offers support to participating municipalities through providing fund administration through state government. I am certain that municipalities are feeling the effect of funding cutbacks, and any support to alleviate additional demands will be welcome.

If there is any movement toward a fiscal note to support purchase of the E911 equipment, I would propose that the scope of the legislation be increased to include providing at least basic 911 service for Alaska's residents who are currently unserved at even that basic level.

Thank you for sponsoring this legislation. Should you be interested in pursuing the above proposal, I would be happy to help in whatever way I can to identify rural communities in need of basic 911 service.

Sincerely,

Shawn Newell  
Executive Director

cc: Gary Paxton, City and Borough of Sitka  
Mark Palesh, City and Borough of Juneau  
Jack Pearson, City of Ketchikan  
Michael Rody, Ketchikan Gateway Borough  
City of Petersburg, Bill Robinson  
City of Wrangell, Jeff Jabusch

## PROPOSED BUDGET AMENDMENT FOR EMERGENCY MEDICAL SERVICES

*When you dial 9-1-1 do you think someone should answer?*

*In some areas of the state that no longer happens.*

**PROPOSAL:** Increase Emergency Medical Services *Grants to Regions* line item by \$250,000 in FY94.

**FACT:** Operational funding for EMS in Alaska has declined an average of 4% per year. Unlike the consumer price index, the *EMS cost index has gone up 20-25% per year*. That has proven to be a lethal combination for some EMS services.

- \* Six emergency medical services closed their doors in FY92.
- \* Nine have already been lost in FY93, and at least four more are expected to close their doors by the end of this fiscal year.
- \* Approximately 2,800 people can no longer summon EMS in or around their communities due to these losses.
- \* Direct grants to ambulance services were reduced by \$47,000 in FY93.

**FACT:** The State of Alaska currently funds EMS at \$4.61 per person as compared to \$9.14 for Village Public Safety Officers, \$20.55 for Public Health Nursing, and \$33.20 for Alcohol and Drug Abuse grants.

**FACT:** In FY 92/93, budget cuts compelled regional councils to cut staff causing one or more key operations to be distributed to remaining staff or eliminated. This decay to the regional programs which support Alaska's 2,500 volunteer responders and 159 volunteer EMS services continues to compromise the system. Reduced training, equipment, and coordination eat away at the programs and the damage is far reaching and immediate.

- \* 20% fewer classes, resulting in a loss of at least 250 emergency responders in each of the last 3 years.
- \* 80% fewer opportunities for skill sustainment: a loss of at least 500 recertifying EMT's no longer providing patient care.
- \* No longer able to provide continuing education or reduce the annual attrition of 1,000 EMT's.
- \* 40% reduction in EMT and community recruitment efforts.
- \* 100% loss of public education efforts including injury prevention.
- \* 50% reduction in legislation efforts to protect volunteers, increasing their personal risk and unnecessarily exposing them and their services to litigation.
- \* 100% loss in ability to bring on line 15 services close to meeting ambulance services requirements, leaving 2,250 constituents without that level of emergency medical care.
- \* 25% loss in ability to generate matching income, resulting in a \$114,500 income loss this year.

**This \$250,000 increase is necessary to reverse this dangerous trend if we wish to provide skilled and reliable emergency medical responses to the citizens and visitors of Alaska.**

## EMERGENCY MEDICAL SERVICES

### WE'RE ALREADY PART OF THE SOLUTION

**FACT:** At least 90% of Emergency Medical Service in Alaska is provided by dedicated *volunteers* who count on you to help them.

**FACT:** The Regional EMS Councils have become models of *increased efficiency*. They have enacted policies and cooperative relationships that have maximized existing resources. These changes have become institutionalized, and the Councils are lean and productive organizations, providing a valuable product to EMS and the State of Alaska.

- \* Policies relating to ambulance and first responder service minigrants have been revised to ensure that those with the most need have first access to available funding.
- \* Capital grant policies have been revised to increase peer review and guard against requests for unnecessary or inappropriate equipment.
- \* Contract instructors provide much teaching instead of hiring and keeping costly staff.
- \* Increased utilization of University of Alaska, Rural Education program to decrease cost of EMS classes.
- \* Cooperative agreements have been struck with other non-profit agencies to share resources and equipment and decrease costs.
- \* Contract and task-share with native health corporations and Indian Health Service to reduce duplication of services and share staff.
- \* Bulk purchasing for EMS services across the state to reduce cost of capital equipment and expendable supplies.

**FACT:** Since 1986, when it first became apparent that state funding would decline, the Regional EMS Councils have implemented aggressive programs to *generate a significant portion of their revenue from other sources*. Even with very small staffs of four to eight they have been able to earn other income and match 25 to 35% of state funding. Reductions in the state grants are now resulting in loss of staff, which reduces project income earning potential. Some current and successful examples of this earning are:

- \* Commercial training for industry and fees for classes.
- \* Conference planning services.
- \* Product development and sales of EMS books and products.
- \* Equipment and video rental services.
- \* Provision of specialized training.
- \* Administrative oversight contracts for similar programs.
- \* Implementation of ambulance service billing.

**FACT:** The Regional Councils have stretched to increase efficiencies and generate income and now are at maximum capacity. **The system can bear no more.**

\* 1.4 / 5E. / 319,000 / 150,000<sup>self-generated</sup>

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC SAFETY

911 Services - *MAY NOT BE ALL INCLUSIVE*

Juneau	911 Service is provided by Juneau PD.
Klawock	911 service provided by local telephone company.
Petersburg	911 service provided by local telephone company.
Craig	911 service provided by local telephone company.
Anchorage	911 service provided by Anchorage PD.
Palmer	911 service provided by Palmer PD.
Fairbanks	911 through Fairbanks PD and North Pole PD.
Soldotna	911 service is into dispatching center (does not cover Homer or Seward).
Kodiak	911 through Kodiak PD.

**HB**

**145**

# HOUSE COMMITTEE REPORT

2/11/94

(7)

Date Referred: February 10, 1993

FURTHER REFERRALS:

State Affairs  
Finance

Date of Committee Action: 2/10

The LABOR AND COMMERCE Committee considered:

HB 145

HOUSE BILL NO. 145

PAY EQUITY BASED ON VALUE OF WORK

"An Act requiring pay equity for certain public employees and requiring the compensation of certain public employees based on the value of work performed."

- RECOMMENDATIONS: [ ] the same title  
 be replaced with \_\_\_\_\_ [ ] a new title
- [ ] have attached amendments(s)
- [ ] do pass
- [ ] do not pass
- [ ] no recommendations
- individual recommendations
- [ ] additional referral to the \_\_\_\_\_ Committee

ADOPTS: \_\_\_\_\_ letter of Intent

ATTACHES NEW FISCAL NOTE(S): (Dept) \_\_\_\_\_

APPROVES PREVIOUS: (Dept/Date) \_\_\_\_\_

fiscal impact Adm.

[ ] fiscal note(s) \_\_\_\_\_

[ ] zero fiscal note \_\_\_\_\_

[ ] zero fiscal note(s) \_\_\_\_\_

SIGNING DO PASS	DP	OTHER RECOMMENDATIONS	DNP	NR	AM
<i>Bill Hudson</i> Hudson	-	<i>Joseph Green</i> Green		✓	
<i>John Mackie</i> Mackie	✓	<i>Bijan Porter</i> Porter		✓	
	(2)			(2)	

*Bill Hudson* Hudson  
CHAIRMAN'S SIGNATURE

FISCAL NOTE

STATE OF ALASKA  
1994 LEGISLATIVE SESSION

BILL NO. HB145

Revision Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Title: "An Act requiring pay equity...and requiring compensation...based on the value of work performed."  
Sponsor: Representative Ulmer  
Requestor: House Labor & Commerce Committee

Department Affected: Administration  
BRU: Personnel/OEEO  
Component: Personnel/OEEO  
COMPONENT SERIAL NO. 56

EXPENDITURES/REVENUES:

(Thousands of Dollars)

OPERATING	FY 95	FY 96	FY 97	FY 98	FY 99	FY 00
PERSONAL	298.8	149.3	0	0	0	0
TRAVEL	6.0	0	0	0	0	0
CONTRACTUAL	0.5	8.5	0	0	0	0
SUPPLIES	1.5	0.5	0	0	0	0
EQUIPMENT	10.5	0	0	0	0	0
LAND &	0	0	0	0	0	0
GRANTS, CLAIMS	0	0	0	0	0	0
MISCELLANEOUS	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>TOTAL OPERATING</b>	<b>317.3</b>	<b>158.3</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>

CAPITAL EXPENDITURES	0	0	0	0	0	0
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CHANGE IN REVENUES	0	0	0	0	0	0
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FUNDING SOURCE:

(Thousands of Dollars)

1002 Federal	0	0	0	0	0	0
1003 GF Match	0	0	0	0	0	0
1004 GF	317.3	158.3	0	0	0	0
1005 GF/Program	0	0	0	0	0	0
1006 GF/MHTIA	0	0	0	0	0	0
OTHER	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>317.3</b>	<b>158.3</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>

Estimate of any current year (FY 94) cost: \$ 0

POSITIONS:

FULL-TIME	0	0	0	0	0	0
PART-TIME	0	0	0	0	0	0
TEMPORARY	7	7	0	0	0	0

ANALYSIS: (Attach a separate page if necessary.)

See Attached

Prepared by: Kevin C. Ritchie  
Division: Personnel/OEEO

Phone: 465-4429  
Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Approved by Commissioner: Nancy Bear Usura  
Agency: Department of Administration

Date: 2/10/94

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FISCAL NOTE

STATE OF ALASKA  
1994 LEGISLATIVE SESSION

BILL NO. HB145

ANALYSIS: (continued)

This legislation would force the State to change its classification system from the "whole job" system currently in use. We will change it to the Alaska Quantitative Evaluation System (AQES). AQES reached a preliminary stage of development with a \$500.0 thousand appropriation in 1983. The costs shown are required to complete the development. The project would begin in FY95 and be completed by January 1, 1996.

Costs of reactivating AQES:

	FY 95	FY 96	TOTAL
100 - Personnel			
-2 Personnel Specialists R 18	113.9	57.0	170.9
-2 Personnel Specialists R 16	98.9	49.4	148.3
-2 Clerk Typists R 8	59.7	29.8	89.5
-1/2 Analyst Programmer R 17	26.3	13.1	39.4
SUBTOTAL	298.8	149.3	448.1
200 - Travel for Audits	6.0		6.0
300 - Contractual			
-Printing new specs, etc		8.0	8.0
-Telephone	.5	.5	1.0
400 - Supplies	1.5	.5	2.0
500 - Equipment			
-2 Computers (for programmer and typist); 1 printer	10.5		10.5
TOTALS	317.3	158.3	476.6

FISCAL NOTE

STATE OF ALASKA  
1994 LEGISLATIVE SESSION

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OPERATING	FY 95	FY 96	FY 97	FY 98	FY 99	FY 00
PERSONAL	298.8	149.3	0	0	0	0
TRAVEL	6.0	7	0	0	0	0
CONTRACTUAL	0.5	8.5	0	0	0	0
SUPPLIES	1.5	0.5	0	0	0	0
EQUIPMENT	10.5	0	0	0	0	0
LAND &	0	0	0	0	0	0
GRANTS, CLAIMS	0	0	0	0	0	0
MISCELLANEOUS	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL OPERATING	317.3	158.3	0	0	0	0

CAPITAL EXPENDITURES	0	0	0	0	0	0
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CHANGE IN REVENUES	0	0	0	0	0	0
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FUNDING SOURCE: (Thousands of Dollars)

1002 Federal	0	0	0	0	0	0
1003 GF Match	0	0	0	0	0	0
1004 GF	317.3	158.3	0	0	0	0
1005 GF/Program	0	0	0	0	0	0
1006 GF/MHTIA	0	0	0	0	0	0
OTHER	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	317.3	158.3	0	0	0	0

Estimate of any current year (FY 94) cost: \$ 0

POSITIONS:

FULL-TIME	0	0	0	0	0	0
PART-TIME	0	0	0	0	0	0
TEMPORARY	7	7	0	0	0	0

ANALYSIS: (Attach a separate page if necessary.)

See Attached

Prepared by: Kevin C. Ritchie  
Division: Personnel/OEEO

Phone: 465-4429  
Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Approved by Commissioner: Nancy Bear Usual  
Agency: Department of Administration

Date: 2/10/94

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FISCAL NOTE

STATE OF ALASKA  
1994 LEGISLATIVE SESSION

BILL NO. HB145

ANALYSIS: (continued)

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400 - Supplies	1.5	.5	2.0
500 - Equipment			
-2 Computers (for programmer and typist); 1 printer	10.5		10.5
TOTALS	317.3	158.3	476.6

A BILL  
FOR AN ACT ENTITLED

"An Act requiring pay equity for certain public employees and requiring the compensation of certain public employees to be based on the value of the work performed."

BE IT ENACTED BY THE LEGISLATURE OF THE STATE OF ALASKA:

Section 1: AS 23.40.210 is amended to read:

Section 23.40.210. AGREEMENT. (a) Upon the completion of negotiations between an organization and a public employer, if a settlement is reached, the employer shall reduce it to writing in the form of an agreement. The agreement may include a term for which it will remain in effect, not to exceed three years. The agreement must [SHALL] include a pay plan designed to provide for a cost-of-living differential between the salaries paid employees residing in the state and employees residing outside the state. The plan must [SHALL] provide that the salaries paid, as of August 26, 1977, to employees residing outside the state [SHALL] remain unchanged until the difference between those salaries and the salaries paid employees residing in the state reflects the difference between the cost of living in Alaska and living in Seattle, Washington. The agreement must [SHALL] include a grievance procedure which has [SHALL HAVE] binding arbitration as its final step. Either party to the agreement has a right of action to enforce the agreement by petition to the labor relations agency.

(b) The employer and the organization may not negotiate over or include in the agreement a provision that is contrary to AS 39.27.013.

(c) The agreement may contain a provision that prevents the reduction in compensation of the incumbent of any position that is reclassified to a lower level. Such a provision may prevent a reduction in compensation for not more than two years.

Section 2: AS 39.27 is amended by adding a new section to read:

Section 39.27.013. PAY LEVEL FOR EMPLOYEE MOVED TO HIGHER RANGE.

(a) For the purposes of moving an employee to a higher range, either through reclassification or a change in range, the employee must be placed at the lowest step in the higher pay range that does not result in a decrease in salary. This provision applies only to an action taken to implement a job evaluation system adopted under AS 39.90.200-AS 39.90.300.

(b) This section supersedes any personnel rules to the contrary.

Section 3: AS 39.90 is amended by adding new sections to read:

### ARTICLE 3. PAY EQUITY

Section 39.90.200. COMPENSATION POLICY. It is the policy of this state to establish pay equity between female-dominated, male-dominated, and balanced classes of employees in order

to eliminate sex-based wage disparities in public employment.

Section 39.90.210. JOB EVALUATION SYSTEM. (a) Each public employer shall use a job evaluation system to determine the comparable work value of the work performed by each class of employees. The system shall be maintained and upgraded to account for new employee classes and changes in factors affecting the comparable work value of existing classes. Public employers shall meet and confer with the bargaining organizations representing public employees on the development or selection of a job evaluation system under this section.

(b) At a minimum, the job evaluation system shall be based on the following factors, measured objectively:

- (1) the knowledge and skills needed for acceptable job performance, including substantive knowledge and managerial skills;
- (2) the intellectual effort required including the creativity and analytical skills needed for acceptable job performance, the degree to which the employee works independently, and the complexity of the problems assigned to the employee;
- (3) the employee's accountability for the employee's actions and the consequences of the employee's job performance, including the employee's level of discretion and the potential for benefit or harm to the employer or the public from the employee's job performance; and
- (4) working conditions, including the physical effort and skills required, whether the job environment is disagreeable or physically demanding, and the hazards

presented by the job.

(c) After considering the list of classes in which pay inequity exists, each public employer shall prepare a plan to create pay equity for those positions. The employer shall submit the plan to the legislature by January 1 of each odd-numbered year together with the list of classes between which pay inequity exists. The employer shall include the cost of implementing the plan in its budget preparation for the following fiscal year and shall implement the plan at the start of that fiscal year.

Section 39.90.220. PUBLIC EMPLOYER CLASSIFICATION AND PAY PLANS.

(a) In preparing the position classification plan and the pay plan for employees, the public employer shall assure the compensation for

- (1) positions in the different services of the employer compares reasonably to one another;
- (2) positions in public service bears a reasonable relationship to compensation for similar positions outside public service;
- (3) management positions bears a reasonable relationship to compensation of the employees managed by the positions;
- (4) positions within one service bears a reasonable relationship among related classes and among various levels with the same occupations.

(b) In this section, the compensations paid to different positions bear a reasonable relationship to one another if the compensation for positions that require

- (1) comparable skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions is comparable;  
and
- (2) differing skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions is related to the skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions required of the different positions.

Section 39.90.300. DEFINITIONS. In AS 29.90.200-39.90.300.

- (1) "balanced class" means a class in which no more than 70 percent of the incumbents are male and no more than 70 percent of the incumbents are female;
- (2) "class" means one or more positions that have similar duties and responsibilities and require similar qualifications to perform the duties so that the same descriptive title can be used with clarity for each position in the class, the same selection procedures can be used to recruit employees, and the same compensation schedule can be applied with equity to all positions in the class working under the same or substantially the same employment conditions;
- (3) "comparable work value" means the value of the work measured by the composite of the skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions normally required in the performance of the work;
- (4) "female-dominated class" means a class in which more than 70 percent of the incumbents are female;
- (5) "male-dominated class" means a class in which more than 70 percent of the incumbents are male;
- (6) "management positions" means those positions accountable for

- (A) determining, securing, and allocating human, financial, and other resources needed to accomplish objectives;
  - (B) determining overall objectives, priorities, and policies within a program area;
  - (C) handling significant and involved relationships with governmental leadership; or
  - (D) exercising discretionary powers on a regular basis.;
- (7) "pay equity" means compensation based on comparable work value;
  - (8) "pay inequity" means compensation that is not based on comparable work value;
  - (9) "public employer" means
    - (A) a department, institution, board, commission, division, authority, public corporation, committee, or other administrative unit of the executive, judicial, or legislative branch of State government, including the University of Alaska and the Alaska State Housing Authority, but not including the Alaska Railroad Corporation; and
    - (B) a school district or regional education attendance area.

Section 4: (a) Notwithstanding AS 39.90.210(c), enacted by Section 3 of this Act, a public employer shall make the initial report to the legislature under AS 39.90.210(c) by January 1, 1996. The initial report must include

- (1) the following information for each job class, as of July 1, 1995:
  - (A) the title of the job class, the number of incumbents, and the percentage of incumbents who are male and the percentage who are female;

- (B) the comparable work value of the job class as determined under the system chosen under AS 39.90.210, enacted by Section 4 of this Act;
- (2) a description of the job evaluation system used by the public employer;
- (3) a plan for establishing equitable pay relationships between female-dominated and male-dominated job classes, including
  - (A) identification of classes for which a pay inequity exists based on the comparable work value of the class;
  - (B) a timetable for implementing pay equity; and
  - (C) the estimated cost of implementing pay equity.

(b) If requested by a public employer, the commissioner of administration shall provide technical assistance in completing the report required by this section.

Subject	HB145	Department of Administration Proposal	Comment
Add "elimination of sex based wage disparities" to the means of promoting harmonious and cooperative employee relations and assuring effective and orderly governmental operations.	Section 1 of bill, amending AS 23.40.070(3). See specifically, page 2, lines 11 and 12.	Omit	Department of Administration's proposal omits all references that imply a union right to bargain over classifications.
Collective bargaining may not defeat cost reduction provision upon implementation of new classification system.	-	Proposed AS 23.40.210(b). See also proposed AS 39.27.013 below.	Source: HB676, February 17, 1986. This provision reduced implementation costs by approximately 50 percent.
Collective bargaining agreements may provide a freeze upon reclassification downward for up to two years.	-	Proposed AS 23.40.210(c).	Source: 2 AAC 07.345(e). This provision will allow offsetting savings to be realized two years after implementation.
Provide a one-time exception upon implementation of the new classification system of the pay rules that normally apply to a reclassification upward.	-	Proposed AS 39.27.013.	Source: HB676, February 17, 1986. Employees moved upward as a result of the new classification system will receive minimal immediate increases, but will be eligible for future step increases. This provision reduced implementation costs by approximately 50 percent.
Require public employers to report results of new classification system to unions and to use the report in bargaining.	Proposed AS 39.90.210(c). Page 3, lines 4 through 9.	Omit	Department of Administration's proposal omits all references that imply a union right to bargain over classification.
Method of notice to legislature of implementation costs.	Proposed AS 39.90.210(d), sentences 2b and 3.	Delete proposed AS 39.90.210(d) sentences 2b and 3; replace with requirement that implementation cost be included during budget preparation.	This approach better prepares the public employers to implement their plans.
Legislative review and amendment of plan, potential for partial funding.	Proposed AS 39.90.210(e)	Omit	Amendment of a public employer's classification plan should not be subject to collective or political bargaining. Appropriation will be through normal budget process. Implicates separation of powers.
Require public employer to notify union when reporting to the Legislature.	Proposed AS 39.90.210(f).	Omit	Department of Administration's proposal omits all references that imply a union right to bargain over classification. Any report to the Legislature will be publicly available.

Subject	HB145	Department of Administration Proposal	Comment
Protect public employers from unfair labor practice charges over specified amounts of money to be used for specific pay purposes.	Proposed AS 39.90.210(g)	Omit	Department of Administration's proposal omits all references that imply a union right to bargain over classification.
Recognize as public policy the negotiation of pay rate adjustments.	Proposed AS 39.90.210(h)	Omit	Department of Administration's proposal omits all references that imply a union right to bargain over classification.
Pay Equity article does not diminish duty to bargain in good faith.	Proposed AS 39.90.210(i)	Omit	Good faith bargaining requirements are established in PERA and need not be repeated here.
Specify compensation relationships required in preparation for bargaining.	Proposed AS 39.90.220	Change Section Title. Delete portion of first sentence in paragraph (a).	Department of Administration's proposal omits all references that imply a union right to bargain over classification.
Establish pay equity policy.	Proposed AS 39.90.200	No change.	-
Require classification system to determine comparable work value.	Proposed AS 39.90.210(a)	No change.	-
Specify factors in classification system.	Proposed AS 39.90.210(b)	Delete "shift work"	Covered by AS 39.27.025. No need to pay twice.
Require public employers to report plan to create pay equity to the Legislature.	Proposed AS 39.90.210(d)	No change except to method of notice of cost. (See above).	-
Establish reasonable compensation relationship.	Proposed AS 39.90.220	No change except deletion of reference to collective bargaining. (See above.)	-
Definitions.	Proposed AS 39.90.300	No change.	-
Initial Report by January 1, 1996	Proposed Section 3	No change. Proposed Section 4	-
Department of Administration provide technical assistance to Court, Legislature, school districts and REAAs.	Proposed Section 3	No change. Proposed section 4	-

HB-145-

Hudson

PAY TRENDS FOR THE STATE OF ALASKA,  
EXECUTIVE BRANCH OF STATE GOVERNMENT,  
BY SEX AND EDUCATION

By

The Women's Issues Committee  
Pat Jones, Chair

February 1993



ALASKA STATE EMPLOYEES ASSOCIATION  
AFSCME, Local 52, AFL-CIO

Dennis Gellhouse, President  
Jennie Day Peterson, Business Manager

3510 Spenard Road, Suite 110  
Anchorage, Alaska 99503  
(907) 277-5200

## OVERVIEW

The State of Alaska provided a data report listing all job classes in the executive branch of government on January 20, 1993. For the purposes of this study, the education positions at Mt. Edgecombe High School and political appointments were excluded from consideration. Partial exempt and full classified positions were considered.

The study covered 13,542 employees in 957 separate job classifications. Women comprised 45% of the workforce and men comprised 55% of the workforce.

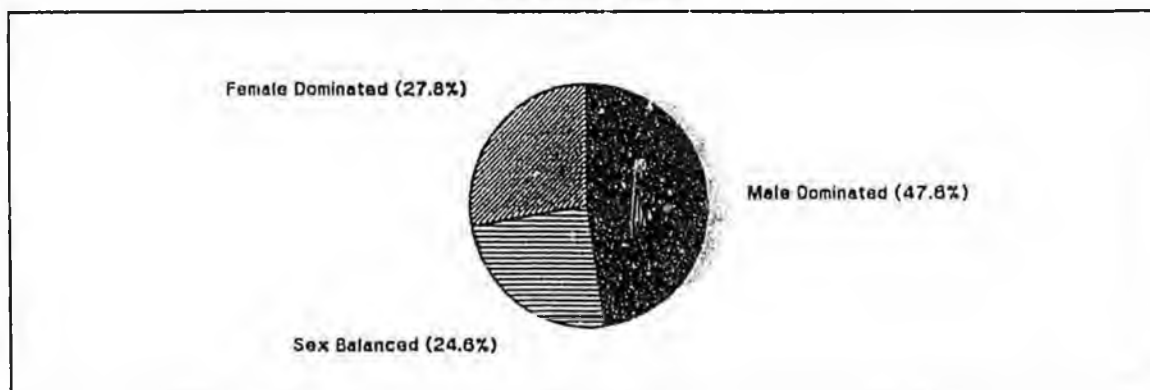
The Union collated the State's workforce with the minimum education requirements found in the class specifications for each of the 957 job classes. When education or experience options were offered, only the first options was considered.

Each job classification pay range was assigned a minimum and a maximum hourly pay rate. The base pay schedule for class 2 and 3 General Government Unit employees was used for pay through Range 24. Other ranges were taken from the Exempt, Public Safety, Labor Trades and Crafts, and the two Marine Highways pay scales. An average pay rate per each range was extrapolated as the mean of the minimum and maximum rates. For comparison purposes, the median "average pay rate" was generally used. The median is the midpoint where half the employees earn less and half the employees earn more.

### Job Class Segregation By Sex

The 957 job classifications were divided by the sex of the employees currently in the class. A job class was defined as "Dominated" if 70% or more of the employees were either male or female. If the job class was 31% to 69% male or female, that job class is defined as "Balanced." The 957 classes are defined as follows:

JOB CLASS BY SEX



# **CORRECTION**

**THIS DOCUMENT  
HAS BEEN REPHOTOGRAPHED  
TO ASSURE LEGIBILITY**

HB-145-

Hudson

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EXECUTIVE BRANCH OF STATE GOVERNMENT,  
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PAY TRENDS IN THE CLASSIFIED SERVICE  
OF THE STATE OF ALASKA, EXECUTIVE BRANCH  
BY SEX AND REQUIRED EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

Equality at work between men and women includes both a pay scale free of sexual bias and equal opportunity for advancement. ASEA AFSCME Local 52 analyzed the employee distribution in the executive branch of the State of Alaska as of January 20, 1993. This report summarizes our findings.

MAJOR FINDINGS

1. A majority of job classifications are sex dominated.

Job classes with 70% or more male employees are defined by the Union as "male dominated." Job classes with 70% or more women are defined as "female dominated." All other job classes are defined as "sex balanced."

Of the 957 job classifications studied, 48% (459) are male dominated, 28% (272) are female dominated, and only 24% (226) are sex balanced.

2. A majority of state employees are in either male dominated job classes or female dominated job classes.

Of the state employees, 55% are men and 45% are women. 39% of state employees work in male dominated job classes. 32% of state employees work in female dominated job classes. The remaining 29% are in sex balanced job classifications.

3. The pay in female dominated job classifications is significantly less than pay in male dominated and sex balanced job classifications.

The pay in female dominated jobs is about 30% less than male dominated jobs and about 24% less than sex balanced jobs.

4. Regardless of required education, women tend to be paid less than men.

Of the job classes requiring skills instead of formal education, those in female dominated job classes earn about 30% less than those in male dominated job classes. As education requirements increase, the pay disparity decreases, but the disparity does not disappear completely.

## OVERVIEW

The State of Alaska provided a data report listing all job classes in the executive branch of government on January 20, 1993. For the purposes of this study, the education positions at Mt. Edgecombe High School and political appointments were excluded from consideration. Partial exempt and full classified positions were considered.

The study covered 13,542 employees in 957 separate job classifications. Women comprised 45% of the workforce and men comprised 55% of the workforce.

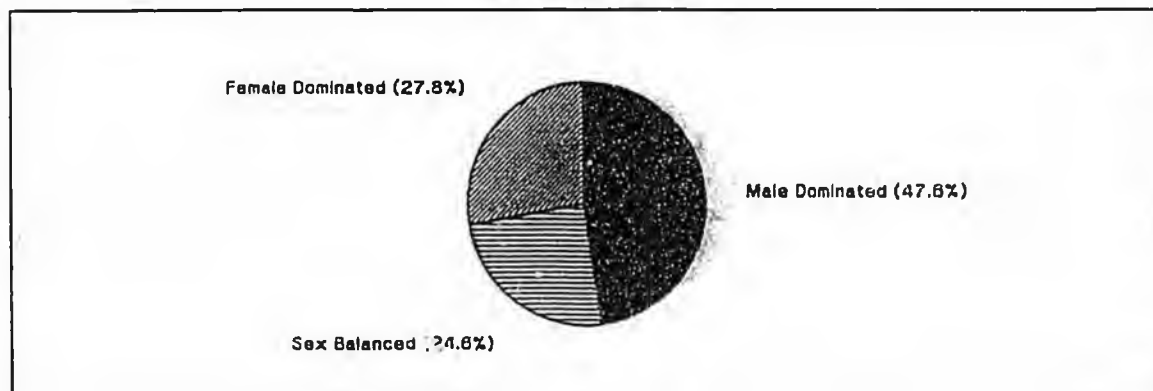
The Union collated the State's workforce with the minimum education requirements found in the class specifications for each of the 957 job classes. When education or experience options were offered, only the first options was considered.

Each job classification pay range was assigned a minimum and a maximum hourly pay rate. The base pay schedule for class 2 and 3 General Government Unit employees was used for pay through Range 24. Other ranges were taken from the Exempt, Public Safety, Labor Trades and Crafts, and the two Marine Highways pay scales. An average pay rate per each range was extrapolated as the mean of the minimum and maximum rates. For comparison purposes, the median "average pay rate" was generally used. The median is the midpoint where half the employees earn less and half the employees earn more.

### Job Class Segregation By Sex

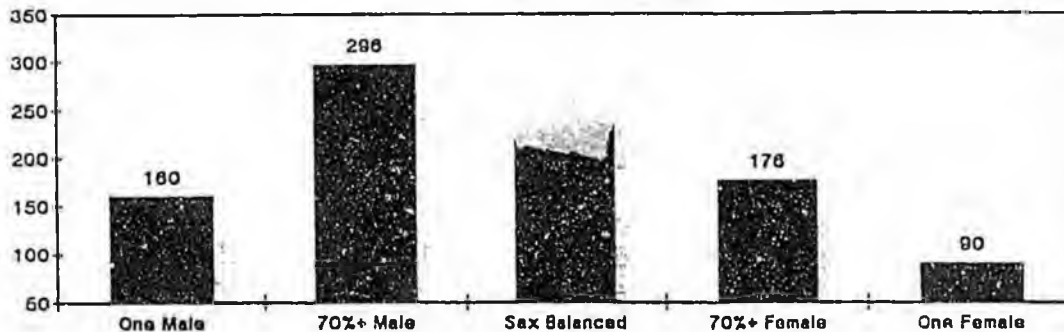
The 957 job classifications were divided by the sex of the employees currently in the class. A job class was defined as "Dominated" if 70% or more of the employees were either male or female. If the job class was 31% to 69% male or female, that job class is defined as "Balanced." The 957 classes are defined as follows:

JOB CLASS BY SEX



A large number of job classes were found to have a single employee. These single employee jobs are mostly at the mid-management and upper management levels. When these job classes are considered separately, the results are:

Job Class Distribution By Sex

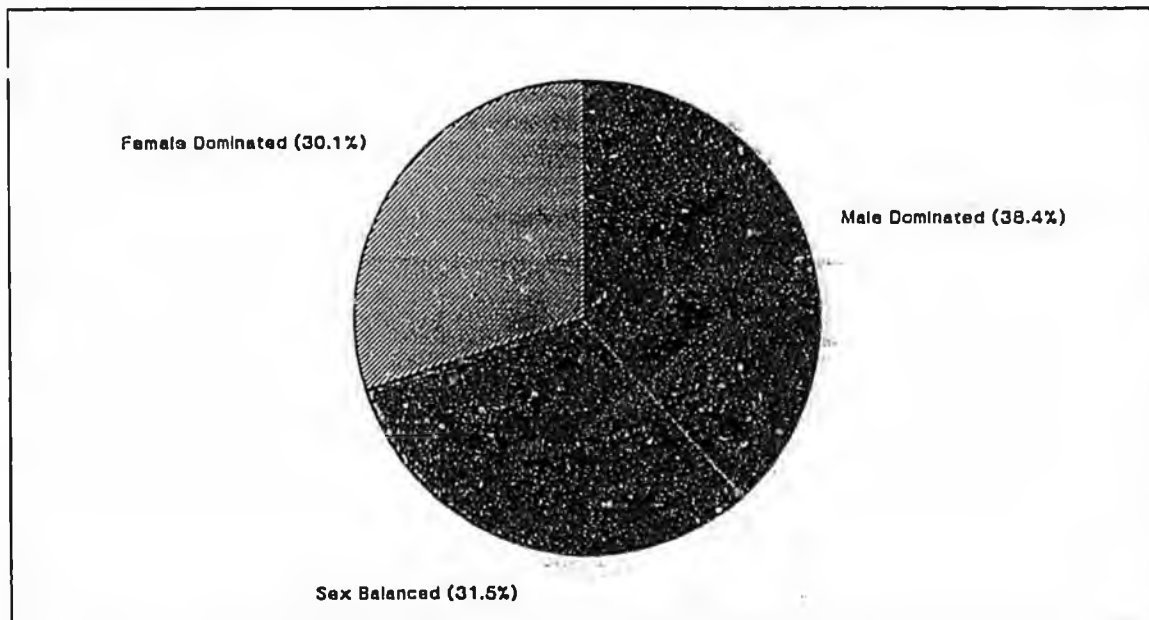


As a total, over 75% of all job classes are defined as dominated by either men or women.

Employee Segregation In Job Class By Sex

On January 20, 1993, there were 13,542 in the classified service covered by this report. A full 68% of these employees were in sex dominated job classes as follows:

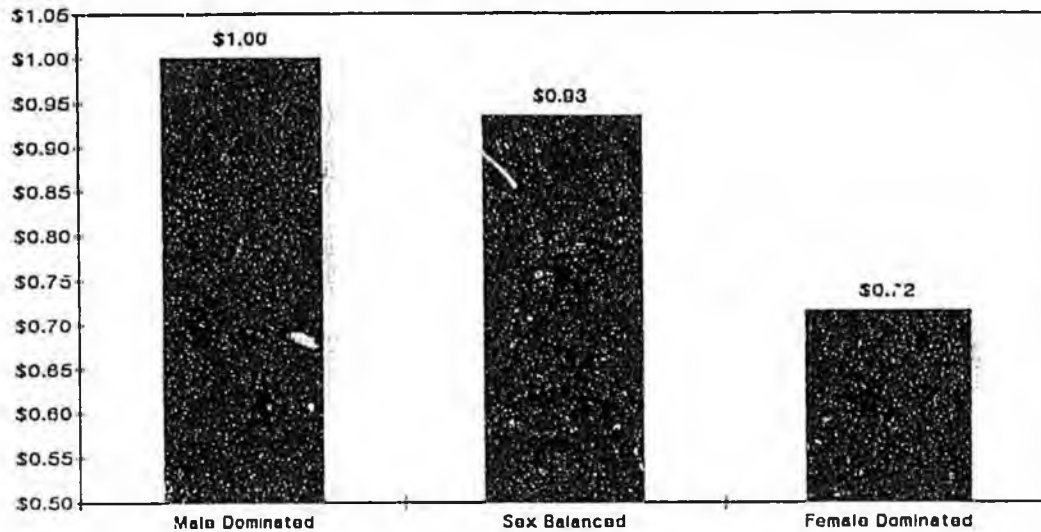
EMPLOYEE DISTRIBUTION IN JOB CLASSES



### Pay Trends Compared to Category of Job Class

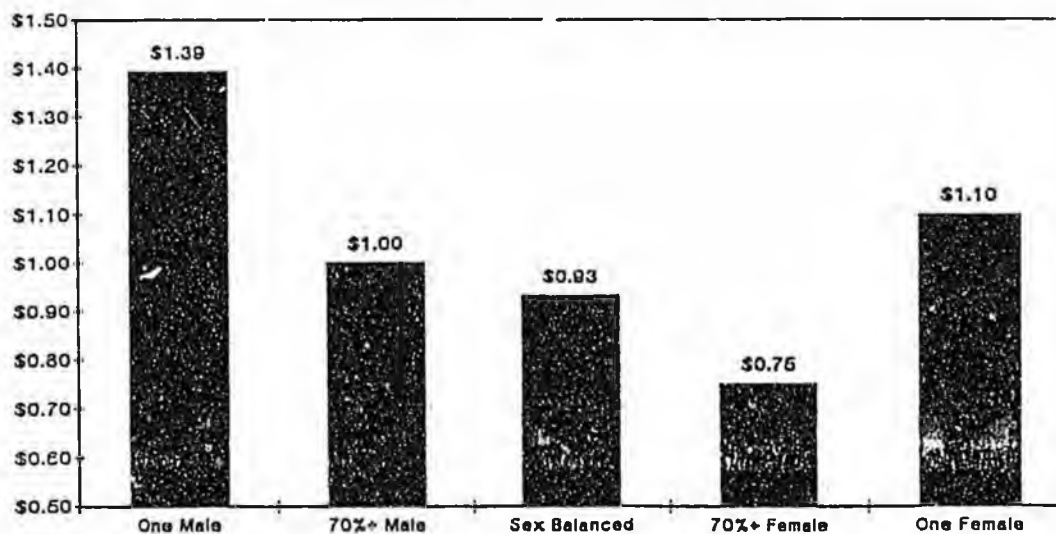
For comparison purposes, the median and mean pay for each category was found. The male dominated job class median pay was converted to \$1.00 and the other categories were calculated as a proportion of that dollar as follows:

MEDIAN PAY ALL JOB CLASSES



When the single employee job classes were considered separately, the following comparison of average pay per hour is found:

AVERAGE PAY TO MALE DOMINATED PAY

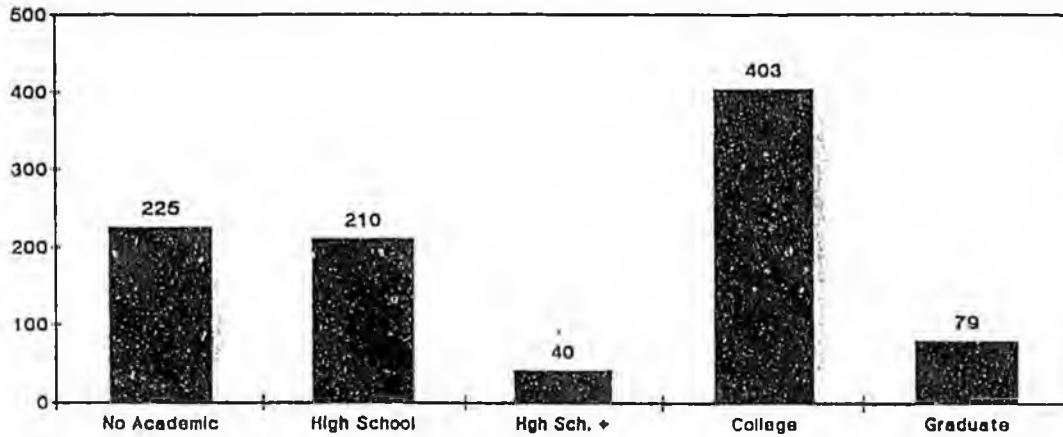


Minimum Education Requirements for Job Classes

Each job class was categorized based on the minimum academic education requirements set by the State of Alaska.

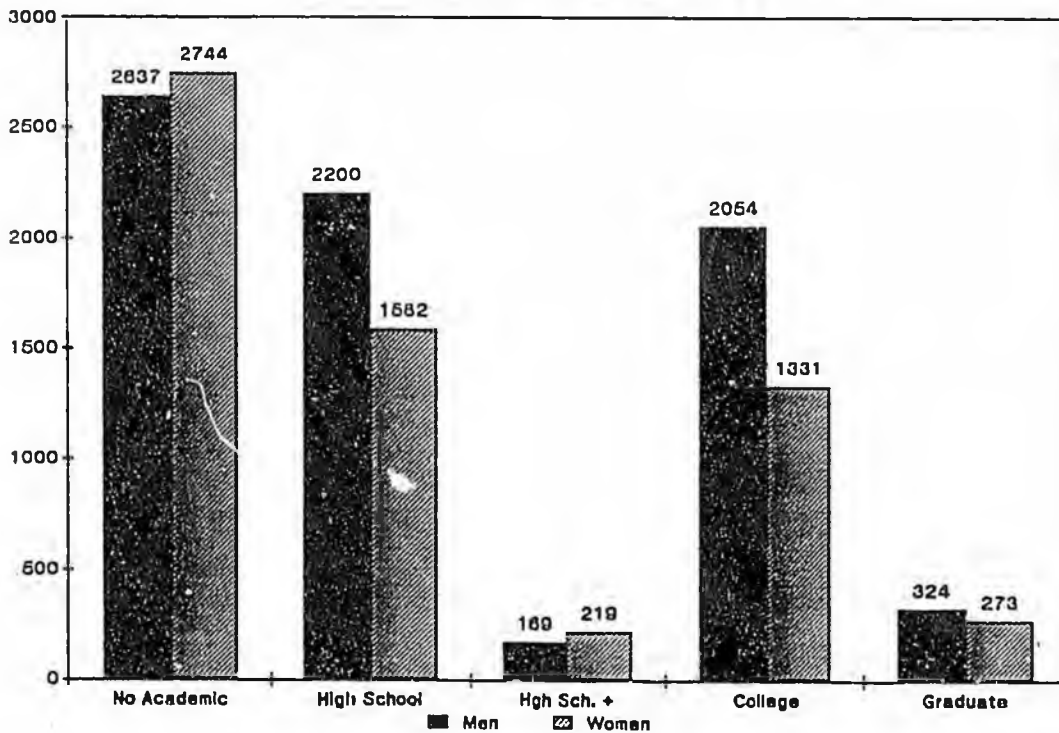
The 957 job classes are categorized as follows:

JOB CLASS DISTRIBUTION BY EDUCATION



Employees were in these job classes as follows:

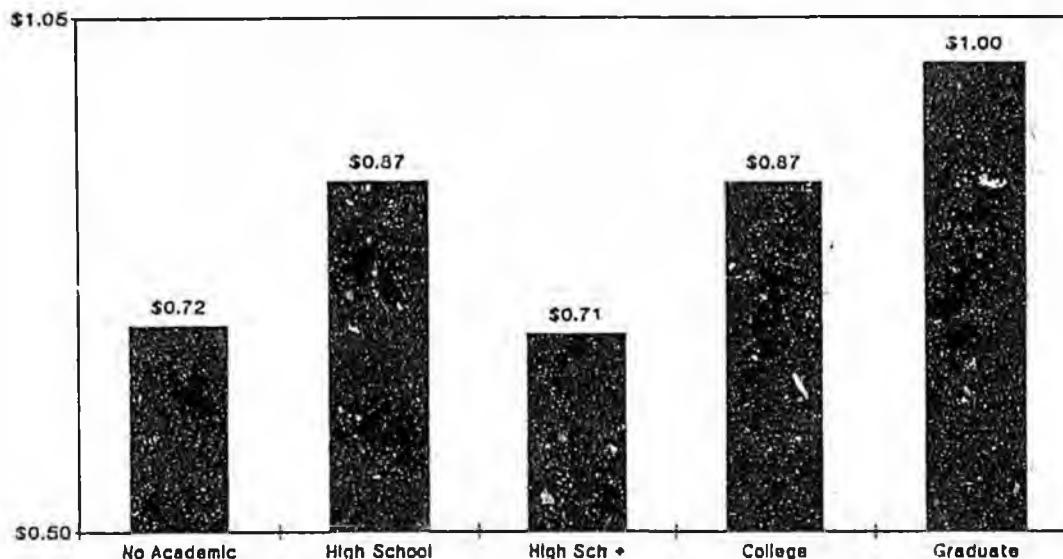
EMPLOYEES BY EDUCATION REQU' RFD IN JOB



Pay Comparison Using Minimum Required Education and Job Segregation By Sex

For each academic category, the balanced and one employee job classes were excluded. The pay between male dominated and female dominated job classes were compared. In each category the male dominated pay is converted to \$1.00, as follows:

PAY IN FEMALE DOMINATED JOB CLASSES BY REQUIRED EDUCATION  
COMPARED TO PAY IN MALE DOMINATED JOB CLASSES WITH SAME EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS  
(MALE DOMINATED PAY = \$1.00)



CONCLUSIONS

The majority of employees of the State of Alaska are in jobs segregated by sex. Female dominated jobs are paid significantly less than jobs held by men. The education requirements of the job do not explain the wage disparities. However, it was found that the largest wage disparity is in those jobs that require specific skills instead of specific degrees. It appears more than coincidental that these jobs with the greatest wage disparity are also the jobs with the greatest number of female employees.

This study is not a full comparable worth survey. Neither experience nor responsibility nor workplace hazards were considered. This study also did not differentiate between the higher wages paid to specific job classes such as class 1 GGU, correctional officer, confidential, and supervisory pay scales. Inclusion of these pay scales would widen the pay disparity.

The data gained by this study does demonstrate the need for an immediate and comprehensive analysis of the State of Alaska job classification system. A comprehensive study will certainly reveal pay discrimination against women employed by the State of Alaska.

\*\*\*\*\*

APPENDIX A.....DISTRIBUTION OF JOB CLASSES

	Number of Classes	Percent of Total
Male Dominated	456	48%
Sex Balanced	235	24%
Female Dominated	266	28%
Totals	957	100%

APPENDIX B.....DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYEES BY JOB CLASS

	Number of Classes	Percent of Total Job Classes
One Male Employee	160	17%
Male Dominated	296	31%
Sex Balanced	235	24%
Female Dominated	176	18%
One Female Employee	90	9%
Totals	957	99%

APPENDIX C.....DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYEES BY JOB CATEGORY

	Number of Employees	Percent of Total
One Male Employee	160	1%
Male Dominated	5040	37%
Sex Balanced	4265	31%
Female Dominated	3987	29%
One Female Employee	90	1%
Total	13,542	99%

APPENDIX D.....COMPARISON OF MEDIAN PAY

Median Average Pay Per Hour Male Dominated Base = \$1.00	
Male Dominated	\$ 1.00
Sex Balanced	\$ .93
Female Dominated	\$ .72

APPENDIX E.....AVERAGE PAY PER HOUR BY JOB CATEGORY

Average Pay Per Hour Base Of \$1.00 for Male Dominated	
One Male Employee	\$ 1.39
Male Dominated	\$ 1.00
Sex Balanced	\$ .93
Female Dominated	\$ .75
One Female Employee	\$ 1.10

APPENDIX F.....JOB CLASS DISTRIBUTION BY EDUCATION REQUIRED

	Classes	Total
No Academic Requirement	225	23%
High School Diploma	210	22%
High School Plus	40	4%
College Degree	403	42%
Graduate Degree	79	8%

APPENDIX G.....NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES BY REQUIRED EDUCATION

	Number of Employees	Percent of Total
No Academic Requirement	5386	40%
High School Diploma	3785	28%
High School Plus	388	3%
College Degree	3387	25%
Graduate Degree	596	4%

APPENDIX H... EMPLOYEES IN JOB CLASS WITH 2+ EMPLOYEES BY  
MALE AND FEMALE DOMINATED JOB CLASS

	Male Dominated	Female Dominated
No Academic Requirement	1910	2329
High School Diploma	1617	373
High School Plus	102	187
College Degree	1334	554
Graduate Degree	77	44

APPENDIX I...COMPARISON OF MEDIAN PAY BY REQUIRED EDUCATION  
BY MALE AND FEMALE DOMINATED JOB CLASS

	Male Dominated	Female Dominated
No Academic Requirement	\$ 1.00	\$ .72
High School Diploma	\$ 1.00	\$ .87
High School Plus	\$ 1.00	\$ .71
College Degree	\$ 1.00	\$ .87
Graduate Degree	\$ 1.00	\$ 1.00

# Alaska State Legislature

## HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES



### REPRESENTATIVE FRAN ULMER

#### HB 145 SPONSOR STATEMENT

If two workers do the same or similar job, it is illegal under federal law to pay them different wages based solely on their gender. Unfortunately, there is good reason to believe that illegal wage disparities -- based on sex -- exist in Alaska state government today. We know that Alaska women working for the state are being paid 33% less than their male counterparts.

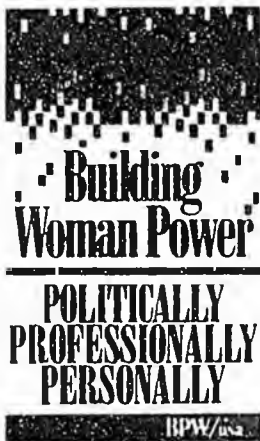
Paying women less than men for doing the same kind of work is just plain wrong. State employees should be paid based on the value of the work they perform, and not based on whether they are men or women. If two jobs require a high school diploma, a year of experience, and have comparable hazards and responsibilities, both jobs should be paid equally.

HB 145 provides a mechanism to bring the state into compliance with federal law and put an end to wage-based sex discrimination in state government. Passage of HB 145 is, in itself, the right thing to do. But for those who are concerned about saving scarce state revenues, there is another reason to support HB 145. Failure to adopt this bill makes the state vulnerable to expensive, time-consuming, and divisive litigation.

We should learn from the mistakes that have been made in other states. In Washington, legislators ignored evidence that women in state government were paid less than men, and refused to enact legislation like HB 145. After years of litigation, state employees in Washington achieved pay equity through court action. The ultimate cost to the state was much higher than it would have been if the legislature had voluntarily dealt with the problem.

We can also learn from the successes that have been achieved in other states. Minnesota is one of the states that voluntarily dealt with the problem of women being paid less than men. In fact, HB 145 is modeled directly after the Minnesota legislation. The approach taken in Minnesota -- and in HB 145 -- is to identify instances in which we are illegally paying women less than men, to develop a plan to eliminate the sex discrimination, and for future legislatures to phase in implementation of the plan.

HB 145 promotes fairness in the workplace and recognizes the valuable work that is being performed by the men and women in state government. In the long run, HB 145 will save the state a great deal of money.



THE JUNEAU

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL WOMEN'S CLUB

P.O. Box 20350, Juneau, AK 99802-0350

3/28/93

Representative Fran Ulmer  
State Capitol  
Juneau, Alaska 99801-1182

*Fran*  
Dear Representative Ulmer,

On behalf of the Juneau and the State Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, I want to thank you for sponsoring House Bill 145 on pay equity. It's a long overdue measure and although the obstacles may not all be surmounted in the next few weeks, we deeply appreciate the efforts you are putting forth.

If there is anything we can do to facilitate this bill's passage, please contact me. We are ready, statewide, to help.

I also want to thank you for sending out the network bulletin on the status and nature of bills. I found it very helpful and have copied it to other members.

Thank you!

Cordially yours,

*Pennelope*  
J. Pennelope Goforth  
Juneau LO President

CC: Ramona Duby, State Federation President



FISCAL NOTE

STATE OF ALASKA  
1993 LEGISLATIVE SESSION

BILL NO. HB 145

Revision Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Title: 'An Act requiring pay equity . . . and requiring compensation . . . based on the value of work performed.'  
Sponsor: Representative Ulmer  
Requestor: House Labor and Commerce Committee

Department Affected: Administration  
BRU: Personnel/OEEO  
Component: Personnel/OEEO  
COMPONENT SERIAL NO. 56

EXPENDITURES/REVENUES:

OPERATING	FY 94	FY 95	FY 96	FY 97	FY 98	FY 99
PERSONAL SERVICES	389.4	0	0	0	0	0
TRAVEL	6.0	0	0	0	0	0
CONTRACTUAL	22.5	0	0	0	0	0
SUPPLIES	0	0	0	0	0	0
EQUIPMENT	0	0	0	0	0	0
LAND & STRUCTURES	0	0	0	0	0	0
GRANTS, CLAIMS	0	0	0	0	0	0
MISCELLANEOUS	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL OPERATING	417.9	0	0	0	0	0

CAPITAL	0	0	0	0	0	0
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REVENUE FUND SOURCE:	0	0	0	0	0	0
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FUNDING:

1002 Federal Receipts	0	0	0	0	0	0
1003 GF Match	0	0	0	0	0	0
1004 GF	417.9	0	0	0	0	0
1005 GF/Program Receipts	0	0	0	0	0	0
1006 GF/MHTIA	0	0	0	0	0	0
OTHER	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	417.9	0	0	0	0	0

POSITIONS:

FULL-TIME	0	0	0	0	0	0
PART-TIME	0	0	0	0	0	0
TEMPORARY	9	0	0	0	0	0

Estimate of current year (FY 93) impact: 0

ANALYSIS: (Attach a separate page if necessary.)  
See attached.

Prepared by: Kevir Ritchie, Director  
Division: Personnel/OEEO

Phone: 465-4429  
Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Approved by Commissioner: Nancy Bear Usura  
Agency: Administration

4/19/93

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FISCAL NOTE

STATE OF ALASKA  
1993 LEGISLATIVE SESSION

BILL NO. HB 145

ANALYSIS: (continued)

This legislation would force the State to change its classification system from the "whole job" system currently in use. The costs shown are required to complete the development of the Alaska Quantitative Evaluation System (AQES), which reached a preliminary stage with a \$500.0 thousand appropriation in 1983. The lapse date should be June 30, 1996, to coincide with the expected implementation of the first report that is required January 1, 1996.

104.52 (8)  
By the year 2000 all of the nation's poor will be women and their children.... You may be among...

# THE NOUVEAU POOR

Avis Strong Parke lives in a summer house on Cape Cod, but when we visited her it was not summer and the wind cutting across the bay shook the plastic covering on the windows and turned her breath white as she spoke. "We don't have any heat," she apologized, almost compensating for the cold with her smile. "You get used to that. The real problem is that the pipes tend to freeze and crack." Her outfit gave us a new perspective on the price of plumbing repairs: trousers outgrown by one teenage son, shoes worn out by another, and thermal underwear shared with another of her six children, three of whom still live at home with her. In her own phrase, Avis is one of the "nouveau poor": middle class by birth and marriage, she is now raising her three youngest children on a tenuous combination of welfare, child support, and her native Yankee ingenuity.

Most people know that the poor, with what the Administration calls their "runaway entitlements," are slated to take the brunt of the federal budget cuts. What most people do not know is that today, more than at any time in recent history, the poor are likely to be women. Two out of three adults who fall

into the federal definition of poverty are women, and more than half the families defined as poor are maintained by single women. In the mid-sixties and until the mid-seventies, the number of poor adult males heading households swelled by 100,000 a year, prompting the National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity to predict:

*All other things being equal, if the proportion of the poor in female-householder families were to continue to increase at the same rate as it did from 1967 to 1978, the poverty population would be composed solely of women and their children before the year 2000.*

The grim economic news belies the image of the seventies as women's "decade of liberation." For some women, in some ways, it was. Women who were young, educated, and enterprising beat a path into once-closed careers like medicine, law, college teaching, and middle management. In the media, the old feminine ideal of the suburban housewife with 2.3 children and a station wagon was replaced by the upwardly mobile career woman with attaché case

BY BARBARA EHRENREICH  
AND KARIN STALLARD

SPECIAL  
REPORT

and skirted suit. Television "anchorwomen" became as familiar as yesterday's news, chairmen became chairpersons, so that at times it seemed as if the only thing holding back *any* woman was a subnormal supply of "assertiveness." But, underneath the upbeat images, women as a class—young, old, black, white—were steadily losing ground, with those who were doubly disadvantaged, black and Hispanic women, taking the heaviest losses.

Sociologist Dr. Diana Pearce, who first flagged the trend in a 1978 article, calls it "the feminization of poverty," and if the phrase is not yet a household expression, it may be because public officials are loath to advertise the fact that the prime victims of service cutbacks are women—women and their dependent children. According to Pearce, the trend is accelerating. Between 1978 and 1980, the number of women who head households recruited into poverty rose to 150,000 per year, and there is every reason to think it will continue to increase. The feminization of poverty—or, to put it the other way, the impoverishment of women—may be the most crucial challenge facing feminism today.

Avis Parke is one of the recent "recruits," and she does not fit any of the stereotypical images of female poverty. She is not an elderly widow. Nor is she a habitu  of what conservatives call "the welfare culture," with the implication that poverty is a congenital and, possibly, racial defect. She is 51 years old, divorced, a welfare recipient for just a little over a year, and—like nearly two thirds of the adult single women who are poor—she is white. If Avis Parke, with her handsome New England features and hearty outgoing manner, is not the kind of person you would expect to catch paying for her groceries with food stamps, she is in some ways typical of the new female poor. The fastest-growing segment of the female poor are single women—divorced or never married—raising their children on their own.

There was little in the first 48 years of Avis Parke's life to prepare her for an existence in which the cost of the laundromat has to be weighed against the price of a haircut for one of her sons, and the pleasure of having guests is offset by the cost of serving coffee. Her ancestors arrived from England in 1630, in what must have been one of the first boats after the *Mayflower*, and on one side she can trace her family back to John and Abigail Adams.

When she was a 19-year-old college student, she married a young man who was studying for the Unitarian ministry, and she began to gear her own ambitions to "being a fully functioning partner in my husband's work as a minister." In deference to the Administration's recent attempts to distinguish the "deserving" from the "undeserving" poor, we should mention that Avis was a virgin when she married, with 300 people in attendance, at Boston's famous Arlington Street Church, and that she believed for many years that decisions about sex and family planning were best left to her husband. In fact, the most striking thing about Avis's life before poverty is how thoroughly and patiently she lived out the mid-century feminine mystique.

When her husband moved, she moved. When they were temporarily set-

## **D**ivorce ended Avis's membership in the middle class.

led, she worked hard at being the minister's wife, attending church functions and visiting parishioners. When he decided he needed to further his theological education, she helped put him through school. Through it all, she was immersed in motherhood. "I just had babies every two years. I wanted at that point to be domestic and be a mother and that was what I knew best how to do." She studied natural childbirth, well before it was stylish, and breast-fed all six babies. She believed in her husband's mission and tried to live through it. "My name was always attached to his . . . people saw us as one unit."

As the babies grew and the moves multiplied, crisscrossing the Northeast, strains developed in their marriage. In her forties Avis discovered that she wanted to be "a personage on my own . . . with self-pride and esteem . . . not just my husband's wife or my children's mother." She also discovered that her husband was, as she puts it, "being intimate" with other women. There were angry confrontations, but she kept on believing that

"when he recognized what a good thing he had going in our marriage and our home and our children and myself, then he would come around . . . and after all this, in twenty years, we would die together." Then, one evening when she was in the kitchen finishing the dishes, he came in and announced that he had filed for a divorce. This was three years ago, and it was the end of Avis Parke's membership in the middle class.

Today, Avis takes a certain pride in another kind of membership—in a spreading network of other local women who are also poor and also single. On the day in late February when we visited, Avis invited five of her friends over to sit around the electric heater in the Hyannis Community Action Center and talk about what it means to be single and poor. There is Mary Ann who, in better times, has made \$5 an hour working in a travel agency but now cannot afford a place to live for herself and her son, who was seriously injured in a car accident several months ago. There is Betsy, a 52-year-old woman who cannot see well enough to hold a job, but is not technically blind, and hence does not qualify for Supplemental Security Income (SSI). There is Janet, who grew up in a Polish-American working-class family believing that the poor were "people who had a lot of kids and didn't know how to talk right"; Sally, in her mid-thirties, who maintains her stylish good looks in defiance of a poverty-level budget; Felicia, the youngest of the group, who is sustained by her personal combination of environmentalism and spiritualism.

The talk was irreverent, wide-ranging, and oddly cheerful—something like one of those early consciousness-raising sessions where shared anger became the basis for a more deeply shared affection. But the subject kept returning to money—wages, rents, prices—and it was *our* consciousness that was being raised. Betsy talked about the petty indignities of poverty: "The government does give me food stamps, so I eat. But when I need certain little basic things, like having my teeth cleaned, well, I can't have them. And I have to curb my habits. Don't walk in a liquor store and buy a bottle. Don't look at the books they sell in supermarkets. Keep away from the stores."

"By the way," she said, standing up and modeling for us. "I want you to know I really dressed for the interview today. The dress comes from a church bazaar; the hat cost a quarter. I bought the glasses because rehab does not buy me the glasses. I also bought the stockings, okay? I

# SPECIAL REPORT

level of decency. In Mississippi, the average payment for a child is 97 cents a day; in Texas, it is \$1.18 a day; in South Carolina, \$1.22. Food stamps help some, but there is no state where the combined benefits of AFDC and food stamps are enough to bring a family up to the official poverty level. And this, we should emphasize, was the situation before the Reagan cutbacks. As the cuts go into effect, says Carmen Gonzales, "it will be hell. People are already pressed to the limit."

## What Makes Women Poor?

The feminization of poverty was under way well before the Administration began its current assault on the poor—before Reagan and even before Carter. The causes are economic and they are also what we loosely call "social," and they are not likely to go away. First, there is the matter of jobs: it is true that more American women are employed now than at any time in this century, but for women, employment is not necessarily an antidote to poverty. The jobs that are available to us are part of the problem.

The list is familiar—clerical work, sales, light manufacturing, and the catchall category, "service work," which includes nurse's aides and grade-school teachers, waitresses, and welfare caseworkers. Only 20 out of 420 listed occupations account for 80 percent of employed women, and it is this occupational segregation—more than any "overt" discrimination—that accounts for women's low average earnings. In general "women's work" not only pays less than men's but is less inflation-proof. The Bureau of Labor Statistics reports dramatic declines in real earnings for the sectors of the work force in which women are concentrated, such as services and clerical work.

Even when men and women share the same occupational category, distinctions of rank and function often maintain the income inequality. On the same floor of a department store, you may find women selling luggage and will probably find men selling washing machines. Men don't know more about washing machines, just as women have no special affinity for valises, but it is the washing-machine sale that brings a commission. Distinctions like this account, in large part, for the fact that, in 1981, women sales workers earned on the average only 52 percent as much as male sales workers, while women college teachers

earned 80 percent as much as their male colleagues, and women bank officers earned 60 percent as much as their male counterparts.

Not that women haven't made heroic efforts to crack the traditionally male skilled trades. "The women who come to us are incredibly determined," says Rosemary Goldford, the director of New York's Nontraditional Employment for Women (NEW), a CETA-funded agency that helps low-income women get training and placement for skilled blue-collar jobs. Thanks to affirmative action, special training programs and sheer chutzpah, the number of female skilled blue-collar workers increased by 80 percent in the seventies, but the magnitude of the change chiefly reflects women's abysmally low starting point. Only 3 percent of machinists are women;

## For women, jobs are no sure antidote to poverty.

2 percent of electricians; 1 percent of auto mechanics—and women's prospects in these usually well paid, unionized occupations are not encouraging. When a New York local of the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers announced in the fall of 1980 that applications were available for a position as an apprentice electrician, 1,300 people lined up to get them. "We sent twenty-five women to that line and they camped out for four nights," Goldford recalls, "just to get an application form."

The extreme occupational segregation of women in our society makes for a crucial difference between women's poverty and men's. For men, poverty is often a consequence of unemployment, and is curable by getting a job. But for women, concentrated in the low-wage stratum of the work force, a job may not be a solution to poverty. According to the National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity, "poverty among hundreds of thousands of women already working underlines the failure of the 'job' solution. Of the mothers working outside the house

who headed households with children less than 18 years old in 1978, more than one quarter had incomes below the poverty level."

But occupational "desegregation" may no longer be an effective, long-term solution to women's poverty, either. Affirmative action can help women out of the low-paid ghetto of "women's work," but the underlying trend in the U.S. labor market has been for intermediate level, skilled and semiskilled jobs to disappear. The skilled trades, for example, which offered generations of European immigrant men a way out of poverty, have been going the way of the blacksmith and the itinerant scissor-sharpener. In her 1981 study of the labor market, MIT professor Emma Rothschild found that 70 percent of all new private-sector jobs created between 1973 and 1980 were low-paid, mostly women's jobs, in the retail and service sectors. One reason for the shift is the "deindustrialization" of America as capital has shifted from heavy manufacturing (e.g., cars and the rubber and steel to make them) to more lucrative short-term or overseas investments. The other reason has to do with automation and what management considers an "efficient" division of labor.

In his classic 1974 study, *Labor and Monopoly Capital*, Harry Braverman argued that low-paid, low-skilled jobs tend to proliferate at the expense of higher paid, skilled jobs, and that this trend stems from the employer's basic drive to maximize profits. Low-paid assembly-line workers, each performing one repetitive process, replace the skilled mechanic, and so forth. As Braverman pointed out, the "dumb" jobs that are left after automation and a redivision of labor are often considered women's work.

Bennett Harrison, a professor of economics and urban studies at MIT, says that his studies of the New England economy bear out the trends that Braverman described. "The reorganization of work that occurs with the introduction of new automation equipment tends to eliminate jobs at the center of the skill spectrum. We call it the case of the disappearing middle. You have more low-skill jobs at the bottom, jobs that are likely to be slotted for women, and then you have managerial jobs at the top—and a growing polarization between them." Sometimes the "disappearing middle" includes those jobs that have traditionally been skilled job opportunities for women. In their 1981 study of the "retail revolution," Barry Bluestone and his coauthors found that as department-

bought those for seventy-nine cents at the grocery store. A friend gave me the boots, and the purse comes from the Salvation Army."

Everyone got into the act, showing off the \$1.99 blouse from the thrift shop, the *haute couture* from Goodwill, the chic-er offerings from the local churches. But, when we returned to the larger issues of subsistence, the laughter faded.

"I've been slammed down, beat down, so much," said Mary Ann, "that my anger is really getting up. I work in an office with fifteen fantastic women who are suffering exactly as I am. You want to talk about mad? Every one of these women is divorced. We come home with a hundred and twenty-three dollars a week. We don't even know how we're going to eat... How the kids are going to be fed." There was an agreement that what had happened to them could happen to almost any woman. But, said Sally, "There is a lot of denial among women. It's like how people are about seat belts. They don't want to wear them because they don't want to face the fact that they're really in danger..."

#### The Descent Into Poverty

For many women like those we talked to in Hyannis, poverty begins with single parenthood—becoming single or becoming a parent, whichever comes first. Avis Parke's was a classic case of the husband leaving for a younger woman. Carla was only 23 when she packed up her two-year-old daughter and left her husband. A moderately prosperous restaurant owner in Long Island, he had a habit of pushing Carla down the stairs and kicking her when she fell. Now she is on welfare and works off the books as a cleaning woman. Louella Johnson's husband took off one day and left no forwarding address. Before moving in with relatives in the black community of Oakland, California, she had to steal to feed her two children. Janice Cagle, who lives in Du Page County, Illinois, entered poverty with the birth of her baby and the almost simultaneous departure of her boyfriend. All in all, the number of female-headed families with children increased by 81 percent during the seventies and approximately one third of these families are poor.

A woman's first line of defense, once she finds herself sinking into poverty, is to try to collect from the missing male. But the chances of sitting pretty on child support and alimony are about equal to the odds of drawing steady income from the state lottery. Despite the "Kramer vs.

Kramer"-inspired myth of paternal reliability, 40 percent of departed fathers contribute nothing to their children's support, and the average payment provided by the other 60 percent is less than \$2,000 a year. (Also contrary to the myth, the latest census figures show that the number of men raising children on their own declined between 1970 and 1980.) Some men, like Louella Johnson's husband, make a clean getaway (though she eventually traced him to the Navy). Others, like Carla's, make themselves intolerable. Carla was awarded child support on the condition that her husband have visitation rights with his daughter, but after two of his visits turned into assaults on herself and a third led to a weekend-long kidnapping of the child, Carla decided she would rather be dependent on welfare than on him.



Even when the father is law-abiding and reasonably affluent, the amount of his court-awarded support is usually painfully meager. Diana Pearce believes the courts take a punitive attitude toward divorced women: "It's as if the judge says, 'You want to be independent? You want to raise children on your own? Then do it.'" Judicial compassion runs especially low in the case of black women, who stand only a 29 percent chance of being awarded any child support by the courts, compared to a 71 percent chance for white women.

The next line of defense for the woman facing poverty is not—contrary to popular opinion—public assistance. A 1978 study by Nancy Mudrick, associate professor of social work at Syracuse University, showed that women's dependence on Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) peaked after a full two years of divorce or separation. This means that most women make a valiant effort to support themselves before turning to welfare; but here, too, the odds are discouraging. First there is the problem

of child care. There were only 467,000 government-subsidized day-care slots allotted in fiscal 1982, and the current federal budget cuts call for a 25 percent reduction. Without low-cost day care, friends or relatives have to be mobilized to watch the children. Carla, for example, worked out an intricate trading system with another single mother next door. Then there's transportation. Janice Cagle gave up her job as a maintenance foreman when her car broke down; Avis Parke had no car until recently and no access to public transportation. And women, if they can get to jobs and arrange for child care, earn, on the average, just over \$10,000 a year, compared to an average of \$21,000 for men. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, it takes \$25,407 a year to maintain a family of four at an "intermediate" standard of living—\$15,000 more than the average women's earnings.

Welfare, for many women, is a last resort. There are about 3 million women receiving AFDC for themselves and their 8 million children and the major reason there are not more is that the system is designed to discourage all but the most determined, or desperate, from using it. Avis Parke's friend Sally laughed as she recalled how naive she was on her first visit to the welfare office: "I walked in and I said, 'Hi, I'm Sally Michaels. I really don't know much about this. Do you have any brochures?'" For her first visit to the welfare office, Carla wore a trim suit and dressed her daughter in a starched pinafore. They sat in the waiting room from 8:30 A.M. to closing time at 4:30 P.M., and they skipped lunch because Carla had only enough money for the trip home. The next day, the same thing happened until, near closing time, Carla "threw a fit, an absolute hysterical fit" and finally won an intake interview. Once on the rolls, the humiliation continues. Carmen Gonzales, who has made her way from being a welfare recipient to being a paid welfare advocate in Brooklyn, New York, told us: "I would cry whenever I came home from welfare. And my kids would ask, 'Mama, what's wrong?' and I just had to be alone for a while afterward because it was so degrading... I felt like a hungry dog going to get a very small bone."

At current benefit levels, that "bone" is very small indeed. In 1980, the average AFDC monthly payment for a family of four was \$398. The Children's Defense Fund, an independent agency in Washington, D.C., reports: "In most states AFDC payments are intolerably low, failing to provide even a minimum

store chains centralize their buying and computerize their inventory control, well-paying, usually female jobs like those of the buyers (who might have risen from the sales force) are being eliminated. (In discount stores like K-Mart and Woolco, even the saleswomen have vanished, and the only women workers in sight are the check-out "girls" earning between \$3 and \$4 an hour.) "We may be approaching a situation like that in some industrializing Third World countries," says Anna Lee Saxenian, an editorial board member of the monthly economic magazine, *Dollars and Sense*, "where there has been a big increase in jobs for women—often more than for men—but the jobs don't lead anywhere, they don't lift women out of poverty."

In the old days, circa 1955, when Americans believed that they had achieved "the affluent society," women's earning power was an esoteric subject that barely rated academic notice. According to prevailing mythology, men got jobs and women—unless they were grossly inept—got men. The fact that about 30 percent of all women (and almost 50 percent of black women) worked outside their homes did not alter the "pin money" theory of women's employment. In the middle-class mainstream, women expected to be supported by their husbands, and men expected their wives to stay at home as visible evidence of their success as breadwinners: this was the unwritten pact between the sexes. But, as we know, the pact has been rather abruptly broken. The divorce rate doubled between 1960 and 1977, leveled briefly between 1977 and 1978, and is now heading upward off the charts, again. Whether through divorce, desertion, or death, an estimated 85 percent of American women can expect to have to support themselves (if not themselves and their children) at some time in their lives. And that is the second major reason for the feminization of poverty in the 1970s.

"The family" as a social issue has one thing in common with the real families most of us grew up in—it is an area where emotions tend to crowd out clear thinking and reasoned analyses. Even the phrase commonly used to describe what happened in the 1970s—"the breakdown of the family"—implies the value judgment that what's left is somehow damaged, "broken." Despite the efforts of pop psychologists to get us to think of "creative divorces" instead of "failed marriages," and despite the efforts

PROGRAM	FISCAL YEAR 1983 REAGAN BUDGET PROPOSALS AND IMPACT ON WOMEN
<b>Nutrition</b>	
<b>WIC (Women, Infants, Children) Food Program:</b> all of the 2 million recipients are women and children identified as "nutritional risks"	Terminate as separate program and include in block grant, giving states broad program discretion; cut money earmarked for WIC by \$300 million, eliminating 700,000 participants unless states choose to fund from own resources
<b>Food Stamps:</b> 85% of the 22 million recipients are women and children	Cut by \$2.3 billion (on top of FY '82 cut of \$2.4 billion); 16% of food-stamp households will lose all benefits; 70% will lose some benefits
<b>School Lunch Program:</b> 48% of families served are headed by women	Freeze funds at FY '82 level (a 35% cut from FY '81) and withdraw "entitlement" status (allowing further administrative cuts); some 9.5 million children will be dropped from the program
<b>Medical Care</b>	
<b>Family Planning:</b> 99% of 4.5 million users are women	Freeze funds at FY '82 level (a 25% cut from FY '81); reduce federal matching funds by half; include program in block grant to states with new regulations for parental notification for birth control prescribed for minors
<b>Medicaid:</b> 61% of recipients are women	Cut by \$2.1 billion and reduce federal funds for optional services (glasses, prenatal care, physical therapy, dental care)
<b>Medicare:</b> 60% of enrollees are women	Cut by \$2.5 billion and increase share of expenses (currently more than 50%) borne by enrollees
<b>Education</b>	
<b>Title I—Compensatory Education for the disadvantaged:</b> 60% of families served are headed by women	Cut service levels by 50%, eliminating 2.5 million children from program
<b>Energy</b>	
<b>Low-Income Energy Assistance:</b> 85% of 8.5 million households served are elderly or headed by women	Cut by 31% and require reductions based on food-stamp allowance, forcing many to choose between food and heat; 2.3 million households will be dropped from program
<b>Income Supports</b>	
<b>AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children):</b> 93% of 4 million served are women and children	Cut by \$2 billion (federal, state, and local funds); tighten eligibility; require "workfare"; at least 600,000 families will lose AFDC (and Medicaid eligibility) or receive reduced benefits; more than 150,000 families will no longer qualify for federally aided child care
<b>SSI (Supplemental Security Income):</b> women make up most of 4.2 million aged, blind, or disabled recipients	Cut by \$286 million; tighten eligibility; 2.6 million, or 65% of recipients, will have benefits eliminated or reduced
<b>Legal Services</b>	
<b>Legal Services Corporation:</b> 67% of clients are poor women	Eliminate program (or restrict kinds of litigation allowed); if eliminated, well over a million poor people will lose access to judicial system
<b>Employment</b>	
<b>CETA (Comprehensive Employment and Training Act):</b> women are more than 60% of those eligible	Eliminate program at end of FY '82 and institute a much reduced, state-controlled substitute

of feminists to promote more pluralistic notions of what constitutes a legitimate family, there is still a stigma attached to the female-headed household. The question of why the numbers of these households are increasing easily be-

comes a question of who's to blame.

In the 1960s, when female-headed households were still seen as a largely black phenomenon, Daniel Patrick Moynihan (now Democratic Senator from New York) advanced the theory that

# SPECIAL REPORT

poverty causes female-headed households and vice versa, in an endless cycle of self-propagating social breakdown. Poor blacks, according to Moynihan, live in a "matriarchy" where the very predominance of strong women inhibits men's talents as responsible breadwinners, and leads to a new generation of female-headed households.

By the end of the seventies, however, this kind of racial—and class—stereotype clearly did not fit the demographic facts. The female-headed family—or to put it less hierarchically, a family consisting of a woman plus her dependent children—is the fastest growing type of family in America. It is true that the change is most spectacular in the black community, where more than 45 percent of families are now headed by women (compared to 31 percent in 1970). But the change cuts across race and class lines, and defies stereotypes. Though only 14 percent of white families are female-headed, the number of white female-headed families has been increasing, throughout the 1970s, almost as fast as the number of black female-headed families. Perhaps surprisingly, college-educated women of both races are more likely than others to become single mothers. In his study, "Economic Policies and Black Progress," issued by the National Urban League, Robert B. Hill found that female-headed households are increasing 10 times faster among college-educated black women than among black women who have not completed high school. Among white women, households headed by college-educated women are increasing five times faster than those headed by women who did not complete high school. By 1980, college-educated women were heading more than one fifth of all female-headed families. Thus the female-headed household can no longer be regarded as a telltale feature of the "culture of poverty."

Yet the tendency to blame someone still runs strong, especially when the female-headed household originates in divorce, and the most recent scapegoat—replacing the black "matriarch"—is the working woman. To the ideologues of the New Right, the baneful effects of female employment are self-evident: it makes women selfish and it makes men irresponsible. George Gilder, President Reagan's favorite social theorist, believes that female wages undermine men's ability to control their

destructive impulses: "If they cannot be providers, they have to resort to muscle and phallus." In his one known departure from a pure free-market economic philosophy, Gilder advocates narrowing wage differentials between women and men—because unemployed men are potentially dangerous, while unemployed women can perform valuable work in creating and maintaining families."

Kathleen Teague, founder of Virginia STOP-ERA and a frequent spokeswoman for the New Right's "profamily" politics, offered several reasons why women's entry into the work force disrupts marriages. For one thing, she told us, "once a woman is earning some money, she tends to want to have some say in how it's spent. Finances become a cause of problems." For another, when a man ceases to be the sole breadwinner, he "doesn't feel needed any more." As she explained:

"If a man doesn't think he's needed by his wife, he'll go out and find another woman who does need him. Take the case of a woman who's been a housewife, then she gets women-libberized [sic] and goes into the work force. No matter what, her husband isn't going to feel he's number one in her life any more. So she will lose him to a more conservative woman."

There is, in the grain-of-truth department, an established correlation between a wife's earnings and the likelihood of divorce, but this sociological observation tells us little about the intimate dynamics of divorce and separation. Though it is easy to find out to whom divorces are granted (mostly women), there is no statistical information on who initiates divorce or on how this might be changing over time. The best guess is that women's employment—inadequate as it is in terms of earnings—has simply made it easier for both partners to leave: a woman who feels she is capable of earning a wage is more likely to dump an abusive husband—as Carla did—even if the wage is not sufficient to support the family. And a man is less likely to feel guilty about leaving a woman who, he thinks, can fend for herself. As men's liberation spokesman Herb Goldberg advised in his 1976 book, *The Hazards of Being Male: Surviving the Myth of Masculine Privilege*: "Support your wife's assertiveness during marriage, her educational and occupational development, and anything else that will make her an autonomous, independent person. Then, during divorce, it will make you

less vulnerable to guilt..."

Another sociologically accepted correlate of marital disruption is very low earnings (on the part of the husband. (In fact, in the case of zero male earnings, things may never get past the premarital stage. There is a clear connection, according to Howard University social welfare professor Harriette McAadoo, between the high rate of out-of-wedlock births among teenage black women and the astounding—some estimates are as high as 60 percent—rate of unemployment among black teenage men.) If the labor market trends discussed above continue, and well-paying (traditionally male), blue-collar jobs continue to vanish, then there would be reason to expect increasing rates of marital disruption among low and lower-middle income people. Men who had once been stably employed industrial workers may find themselves migrant job-seekers, and, if the economy continues to sag, a resident husband may become a status symbol reserved for the executive class.

If so, it may be time to overcome what Diana Pearce calls "our deep social ambivalence toward the woman who is single and economically independent." Robert Hill agrees, pointing out that half of all young black people who go to college come from female-headed households. Summing up the evidence, Andrew Cherlin, professor of sociology at Johns Hopkins University and author of *Marriage, Divorce, Remarriage* (Harvard University Press), says: "A large number of studies have made it unclear that the absence of the father was directly responsible for any of the supposed deficiencies of broken homes." The problem, he thinks, is "not the lack of a male presence, but the lack of a male income."

Of the two major causes of the feminization of poverty—the economic fact that women earn very little on their own and the social reality that they are more likely than ever to be on their own—most experts agree that only the first is likely to be helped by reform efforts. Eleanor Holmes Norton, former head of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, says that she is "alarmed" by the rise in female-headed households in the black community. "You can't underestimate the stress of raising a child in the ghetto by yourself, without a grandma, without an aunt, with no one you can turn to." But she sees no easy way to reverse the trend. "What we can do is remedy the conditions under which poor women are living and raising their children—and that means day care, that

means job training.

Mary Rubin, a research associate at the Business and Professional Women's Foundation in Washington, agrees that female-headed households are "unquestionably" here to stay. "For women who are unable to work or unable to find work," she says, "the government needs to increase income support up to a level that guarantees a reasonable standard of living. And for women who are working, which is most poor women, we need vigorous government action against pay inequities and occupational segregation."

### Does the Right Have a Plan for Poor Women?

If the Reagan Administration worries at all about the feminization of poverty, it won't turn to feminist or liberal policy analysts. On most issues, the Administration is more disposed to listen to the thinkers and spokespeople of the New Right, and, to hear them talk, they do have a solution to all that ails women, financially and emotionally.

First there is supply-side economics to restore prosperity. As David Stockman explained it in the December, 1981, interview in the *Atlantic* that so embarrassed his employer the President, this means tax breaks and other incentives for the rich, which will supposedly lead, through some undisclosed trickle-down process, to more jobs for everyone else. Then there are the "profamily" measures—from quashing gay rights to reinstating school prayers—all of which will restore a dissolute America to "family values." Add the "profamily" measures to the economic ones, and you get, with just a little more sleight of hand, every man in a job and every woman in her home. If that sounds like an unappealing return to the culture that begot "Father Knows Best," don't worry—it won't happen. Though what will happen, if the New Right and near-New Right have their way, should probably worry us even more.

The New Right's solution to the feminization of poverty is, as you may have deduced, marriage. (Actually, none of the New Right spokespeople we interviewed was aware of the statistics on women and poverty, so the "solutions" were only elicited after a short briefing.) Onalee McGraw, who handles education and family issues at the influential Heritage Foundation (the New Right think tank initially bankrolled by beer magnate Joseph Coors in 1973), rejects economic solutions such as efforts to increase women's earnings. "The priorities would be out of whack," she explained,

since her first priority is to make men productive workers and reliable husbands. "I don't oppose equal pay for women," she told us, "but it could possibly exacerbate the whole situation in the long run.... Anything that's more likely to make a woman more independent, more of a powerhouse, more of a threat to men, is not going to help." Her solution? "We need to make it tougher for men to get divorced," and, second, we need to make it tougher for them to remain single or stray, by "withholding sexual favors until they're married."

These are long-term solutions, and possibly difficult to implement, so we pressed Kathleen Teague (who, in addition to her STOP-ERA affiliation is the executive director of the American Legislative Exchange Council, "another New Right institution") for a more immediate

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## The Right's solution—you may have guessed it—is marriage.

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solution for women who are poor and single. They should make more of an effort to attract husbands, she told us: "The reason women aren't remarrying is that they don't have the right strategy.... Some single women are trying to be martyrs, to prove they can be independent, that they can do anything. It would be better to say, 'How much I'd like to find a nice man!' Many men tell me how turned off they are by women who are trying so hard to be independent."

No one in the New Right, however, is demanding an expansion of welfare payments to cover tuition for "total woman" courses, Freudian psychoanalysis, or other aids to the development of a more demure personality. In fact, as we turn from the New Right's profamily philosophy to their economic programs, the scene changes quickly from images of white-fenced cottages to the gray desolation of crumbling tenements and makeshift rural housing. They believe that welfare should be abolished, for the ostensibly charitable reason that, like other forms of female income, it weakens

female responsibility. (George Gilder believes that the expansion of welfare in the 1960s produced "a wreckage of broken lives and families worse than the aftermath of slavery.") Government antidiscrimination efforts should be abandoned. Unions should be weakened. If the right is even partly successful, the future—for women—will look more like Engels's portrait of Manchester in the 1840s than Levittown in the 1950s. For, without the protection of government assistance, the poor assume their historical role as *cheap labor*, and the female poor are cheapest of all—excepting, of course, children.

Consider the trend. In the seventies—beginning at the time that the New Right was still just a gleam in Richard Viguerie's eye—more than a million new women slid into the state of extreme deprivation that the government defines as poverty. They faced, along with the already-poor, a steadily dwindling package of public assistance. Actual dollar value of welfare benefits shrank by 29 percent, nationwide, in the decade of the seventies. Now add the current wave of budget cutbacks. An estimated 15 million women will be directly affected by the cuts in AFDC, Medicaid, food stamps, subsidized school lunches, and dozens of other programs. Many of them will be forced to search for jobs, on or off the books, at any wage. (Ironically, some of Reagan's welfare revisions will decrease the incentive to work—at least on the books—by lowering the welfare payments for every dollar earned. Other welfare cuts, though, are simply throwing women off the rolls.) But the wider effect of the cutbacks, as Frances Fox Piven and Richard Cloward argue in their book, *The New Class War*, will be to drive down the wages of people who are now above poverty, because the social programs that have allowed the poor to subsist have also allowed the non-poor to risk pushing for better wages and working conditions.

There is already a sense of desperation among America's female poor—a desperation that translates into a willingness to do almost anything, on any terms. After losing her maintenance job in a Chicago suburb, Janice Cagle said, "I applied for a job in every rinky-dink place I could walk to on foot... give me transportation, and I'll wash toilets." A mother of three, in Brooklyn's Bedford-Stuyvesant area, who asked not to be identified, told us, "If it's a matter of having food on the table, I would do anything short of prostitution." One major effect of

Reaganomics, comments Queens College economics professor William Tabb, is "the creation of a veritable army of women who would potentially be available to work under extremely exploitative conditions."

There are still laws to enforce the minimum wage, to protect employees' health and safety and ensure their right to organize—but the right has plans to circumvent them. One idea being promoted by the Heritage Foundation and incorporated in Reagan's economic proposals is for urban "enterprise zones"—designated areas in which companies would be offered tax breaks and other incentives to set up shop. The idea comes, via Margaret Thatcher's administration in England, from Third World countries like Malaysia and the Philippines, where special industrial zones were set up in the 1960s and 1970s to attract multinational corporations. In the Third World models, employers were lured not only by tax holidays and suspension of export duties, but by cheap labor and the absence of health and safety regulations. An estimated 90 percent of the workers in Third World enterprise zones are women, employed chiefly in light assembly work, such as in the manufacture of electronics and garments.

Supporters of the "enterprise zone" plan include liberals like Congressman Robert Garcia (D.-N.Y.), who believes the zones could attract business to the inner city through tax breaks alone, without offering cut-rate wages. Cornell University professor William Goldsmith, who has just completed a study of enterprise zones, is less sanguine. "So far they're saying they don't want to go below the minimum wage," he told us in a March interview, "but I think that's rhetoric. The idea in England was to create 'little Hong Kong,' and Hong Kong translates into sweatshops." In case all this sounds remote, the Illinois legislature recently passed a bill that would have allowed industrial zones in which the minimum wage as well as health and safety regulations could have been suspended. (The bill was vetoed by Governor James Thompson in September, 1981.) The kinds of jobs that U.S. enterprise zones are likely to attract, Goldsmith predicts, are low-paid, light-assembly work that, whether here or in the Third World, is seen as "women's work." At worst, Goldsmith told us, the zones would "serve as vehicles through which an increasingly disenfranchised and desperate group of women could be massively exploited in the labor market."

While liberals debate the value of enterprise zones, the New Right has an even more innovative plan for women: they would like to legalize "homework" so that women could do industrial or clerical work right in their own homes. This was proposed to us as a solution for female poverty by New Right leader Connaught (Connie) Marshner, editor of the *Family Protection Reporter*, staff member of Paul Weynich's Committee for the Survival of a Free Congress, and chairman of the Pro Family Coalition and of the powerful Library Court, which brings together representatives from various New Right and antifeminist causes for biweekly strategy sessions. "Business and industries should be able to provide jobs that women can do without leaving their homes, like in micro-electronics," she told us.

Unions are justifiably horrified by the idea of a return to homework, which was widespread in the 19th century. Because it would be hidden in private homes and apartments, no wage regulations could be enforced nor would wages have the same meaning as in a normal workplace, since the homeworker would have to cover all the overhead, and probably supply her own sewing machine, typewriter, or other equipment. Worse still, homework could reopen the door to child labor. Near the turn of the century, poor women and their children worked upward of 14 hours a day to fill their piecework quotas in New York City's garment and hat industries. When we raised this possibility to Marshner, she was not dismayed. "I'm not for child labor," she said. "But if the mother had a computer terminal at home and she had a twelve-year-old to help, I'd say, 'why not?' The humanistic reforms of the 19th century made children into economic liabilities." Moral Majority board member Tim La Haye, who shares Marshner's low regard for humanism, is also campaigning for a return to homework. As a result of these proddings from the New Right, the Department of Labor is currently considering loosening its regulations on both homework (which is now banned in seven industries with histories of particularly exploitative practices) and child labor.

"Hard times," as one of Avis Parke's nouveau poor friends put it, "have a remarkable way of opening your eyes." The Far Right is on the offensive and—despite polls that show a rapid turn against Reaganomics—liberals have been less than aggressive about presenting their

alternatives. And feminists? We wrapped up our research with a new kind of question on our minds: do we, as feminists, have a plan for women?

The question is no longer so redundant, nor the answer as self-evident, as it might once have seemed. Our Movement was born in a time of relative prosperity and economic expansion. Insofar as we had an economic agenda, it was to get into the mainstream and take our chances—or, we hoped, our opportunities—as equals. Equality has been the issue that defined the feminist movement and united women across lines of conventional political affiliation. But now we seem to be faced with the lesson that the black movement learned before us: that legal equality does not guarantee economic survival—and without ERA we will not have even achieved legal equality.

Since our Movement began in the late sixties and early seventies, each recession has bottomed out in a deeper trough; each administration has cut further into that frayed "safety net" of social welfare programs. Men as well as women have seen their aspirations foreclosed and their options narrowed, but after a decade of worsening times, it is women who are left at the bottom. Gender inequality has begun to blur into class inequality, until today even our familiar list of feminist economic reforms—day care, affirmative action, and the more radical demand for equal pay for comparable work—begins to look inadequate to the circumstances.

We need a feminist economic program, and that is no small order. An economic program that speaks to the needs of women will have to address some of the most deep-seated injustices of a business-dominated economy and a male-dominated society. Framing it will take us beyond the familiar consensus defined by the demand for equal rights—to new issues, new problems, and maybe new perspectives. Whether there are debates ahead or collective breakthroughs, they are long overdue: the feminization of poverty demands a feminist vision of a just and democratic economy.

Barbara Ehrenreich is the co-author with Deirdre English of "For Her Own Good" (*Anchor*) and a contributing editor to "Ms." Karin Stallard is a writer living in Brooklyn, New York. The writers thank Rachel Fershko of the Institute for Policy Studies for research assistance in Washington, D.C. This article was made possible by a research grant from the Windom Fund.

# Studies: Bias, economy keep pay gap alive

By DIANE LEWIS  
Boston Globe

Women still have a long way to go before their paychecks equal men's, and the reasons include the nation's changing economy, bias in the workplace and the effect of child-rearing on lifetime earnings, according to two new reports.

The first report, by Working Woman magazine, compares the earnings of men and women from 1973 to 1991 and is based on information gathered by the Economic Policy Institute in Washington.

In the second report, Martha N. Ozawa, a professor of social policy at Washington University in St. Louis, used data from the Social Security Administration to examine the life earnings and retirement of 700,000 black and white women who were 35 and older.

Working Woman found that college-educated women still earn less than males with high school diplomas despite reports that women gained ground in the 1980s.

"When you look at the figures for women in the median-pay bracket, the narrowing of the wage gap in the 1980s was about 75 percent because of men's wages falling, not to female wage growth," said Jared Bernstein, an economist at the policy institute.

Bernstein blamed the changing economy for a decline in wages so pervasive that every group, regardless of social standing, education

or gender, is feeling the effect.

Working Woman also found that as women grow older, the wage gap widens — a situation the magazine attributed to bias. Even in the best occupations, it said, women earn less.

"If you view salaries in a larger historical context, the truth becomes clear," the magazine reported. "In the 1980s women were merely making up ground lost in the 1960s and 1970s."

In her report, Ozawa found that women who stay home with children and resume work after three or more years rarely return to their prior salaries.

"Men are not penalized by having children, but women never quite catch up in terms of pay if they stay home for a while to rear children," Ozawa said in a telephone interview.

Ozawa reported that the white women in her study earned \$237,228 in the years they were employed. Black women's lifetime earnings were \$188,061. However, women with no children earned far more: \$304,631 for white women and \$234,475 for black women.

Ozawa, who examined the effect of race, gender and education on women's earnings, noted that black women with or without children worked for a longer period but earned less than their white peers. The exceptions were black women with college degrees. Such women

Please see Page C-6, PAY

## PAY: Little equality between men, women

Continued from Page C-1

earned 10 percent more than white women who completed college, even though, overall, black women earn 21 percent less than white women.

One reason was the number of children the two groups of women had. Black women with college degrees had, on average, 1.7 children, compared with 2.1 children for white women who graduated from college. Another factor, Ozawa said, was that black women continued to work after the birth of children, unless they had four or more. They also worked past retirement age.

"The data showed that black women worked hard, but most are at the bottom of the pay scale even though their participation in the labor force is higher than that of white or Hispanic women," Ozawa said.

According to the report, white women with no children had very high employment rates that tapered as they approached retirement. By 60, about 40 percent had stopped working.

Ozawa found that white women with one child earned 16 percent less than other white women with the

*•The data showed that black women worked hard, but most are at the bottom of the pay scale . . . •*

— Martha N. Ozawa  
Washington University

same educational levels and no-children. She also reported the salary gap between those women widened with the birth of each additional child.

Working Woman said women's salaries actually peaked in 1973. Back then, women with college degrees plus two years of post graduate study earned an average of \$18.01 an hour compared with \$21.09 for men with the same level of education. But by 1991, the wages of women in that category had dropped to \$16.57 an hour. However, men were earning \$21.11. Meanwhile, women with four years of college were earning \$12.65 per hour — less than the \$13.50 hourly wage that male high school graduates took home 20 years ago.

# Alaska salaries still falling into gender gap

## Survey says women's wages equal 62 percent of male income

The gender gap in wages and salaries in America is an important factor in the continued fragile economic condition of women.

Men make more money than women not only because of historical trends, occupational trends and decades of dominating the ranks of higher-paid management positions, but also because they typically earn more money for doing the same jobs women do.

A recent study by the Alaska Department of Labor found that in 1988, the average wage and salary income of women in Alaska was only about 62 percent of male average income. That compared with women's income nationwide, which is roughly 70 percent of male average income.

The study, which surveyed 114,642 women and 129,378 men, all



of whom had wage and salary income in 1988, and received a Permanent Fund dividend, found a 38 percent wage gap between women and men in the Alaska work force.

While women comprise about 47 percent of the persons in the study group, they account for only about 35 percent of the group's total wage income of \$4.85 billion.

In 1988, the average annual female wage income in Alaska was

about \$14,900, while the average male wage income was \$24,200.

Using statistical analysis, the state Labor Department study also found that women earn about 18 percent less than men of the same age, location, industry group and occupational group.

That implies that age, location, industry group and occupation group account for about 20 percent of the total 38 percent wage gap between women and men.

But the remaining 18 percent reflects pay differences between men and women within the same industry and occupational groups.

The trend was evident in every wage category from Alaska's lowest paid workers to the state's highest paid, and women were more prominently represented in the lower salary categories.

For example, nearly 50 percent of the women earned less than \$10,000 in wage and salary income from Alaskan sources in 1988, compared with 40 percent of the men.

Also, 46 percent of the men in the study earned \$20,000 or more, but only 30 percent of the women fit in that category. And nearly 14 percent of the men earned \$50,000 or more, compared with less than 3 percent of the women.

The study also found that while age is the single most important factor in explaining the variation in the level of wage income of all workers, age probably plays a small role in the wage gap between the sexes.

State labor economists say other possible factors in the huge wage gap between men and women in the same industry and occupational

groups include a tendency among women to work fewer hours than men; to have less job tenure or labor force experience due to family responsibilities; and to face employment, promotion, or wage discrimination.

These findings suggest that as long as women are the principal care givers in the family and in society, there will always be a wage gap between the sexes. However, the study also suggests the gap can and likely will narrow considerably in the future as women make gains in areas such as job tenure and management ranks and laws regarding discrimination are more vigorously enforced.

Meanwhile, women can master their resources to overcome the long-term impoverishing effects of the income disparity they have with men.

Overage Times - 3-13-91

HB 99



ALASKA STATE EMPLOYEES ASSOCIATION  
AFSCME Local 52, AFL-CIO

ALASKA STATE EMPLOYEES ASSOCIATION, AFSCME #52

WOMEN'S ISSUES COMMITTEE

Sherry Saunders and Alma Seward, Co-Chairs

COMPARABLE WORTH PAY EQUITY

Initial Report

Release Date: February 14, 1992

Prepared by Richard Seward

INTRODUCTION:

The ASEA AFSCME Local 52 Women's Issues Committee directed Business Agent Richard Seward to prepare an initial analysis of wage trends for employees of the State of Alaska. The Committee hypothesized that employees in female dominated job classes were paid substantially less than employees in male dominated job classes.

This initial report will be followed in March 1992 by a preliminary comparable worth analysis prepared by the American Federation of State County and Municipal Employees.

METHOD:

The State of Alaska, Department of Administration, Division of Personnel and Equal Employment Opportunity supplied the Union with the following raw data:

- a. Payroll 10/15/91 sorted by job classification and number of men, women, and unknown gender employees in each classification.
- b. List of job classifications and classification codes for the State of Alaska.

The Union obtained the following pay scales showing both salary and equivalent hourly wage:

- a. General Government Unit wage scale for pay ranges 5 through 27.
- b. Public Safety Officers wage scale for pay ranges 71 through 79.
- c. Labor Trades and Crafts wage scale for pay ranges 50 through 60.

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d. Partially Exempt wage scale for pay ranges 28 and 29.

Minimal differences exist between the General Government Unit wage scale and other State wage scales using ranges 5 through 27 such as the Supervisory Unit and Confidential Employees Unit scales. The General Government Unit scale is applied to a majority of state employees and all members of ASEA AFSCME #52.

A data base was created on Microsoft Works capturing:

1. Job Classification
2. Job Classification Code
3. Total Employees in Job Classification
4. Total Men in Job Classification
5. Total Women in Job Classification
6. Percentage Men in Job Classification
7. Percentage Women in Job Classification
8. Pay Range for Job Classification
9. Minimum Wage Per Hour for Pay Range
10. Maximum Wage Per Hour for Pay Range

The data base was transferred to Microsoft Works spreadsheets for sorting, reporting, and charting.

#### INITIAL ANALYSIS:

1041 records were captured in the data base. Of these total job classifications, 123 had no employees paid 10/15/91. An additional 46 job classes held 204 employees for which the Union was unable to determine a pay range. These 204 employees represent 1.65% of the total employees paid.

The remaining 872 job classifications contained 12,182 employees paid on the 10/15/91 payroll.

#### A. Sex Dominated Job Classifications

The Union decided that 70% of either men or women in a job class would define a job class as either "male dominated" or "female dominated." 70% was chosen as the definition because 70% was the defining percentage in Washington State courts.

The Union found 254 female dominated job classifications containing 4,365 employees. 415 job classification were male dominated and contained 4,861 employees. There are 203 job classes containing a 31% to 69% gender balance. Gender balanced classes contain 2,956 employees.

For the October 15, 1991 payroll, 76% of State employees were in gender dominated job classifications.

## B. Wages

The male dominated, gender balanced, and female dominated job classifications sub-groupings were each sorted by wage. The Union found the following relationships among the wages (assuming the male dominated job maximum wage equals \$1.00):

Job Class Category	Number Job Classes	Number Workers	Median Minimum Hourly Wage	Median Maximum Hourly Wage	Percent Total Workers
Female Dominated	254	4365	\$ .50	\$ .66	36%
Gender Balanced	203	2956	\$ .73	\$ 1.00	24%
Male Dominated	415	4861	\$ .73	\$ 1.00	40%

(Female Median = Range 12 GGU, Other Median = Range 16 GGU)

By striking a mean between the minimum and the maximum hourly rates in the median pay ranges, the Union finds:

For every dollar earned in a male dominated job, an employee earns 67 Cents in a female dominated job.

### CONCLUSION:

The ASEA AFSCME #52 Women's Issues was correct in suggesting sex discrimination in the State of Alaska pay system. Further study, such as that proposed in HB 99 will determine the extent to which comparable worth pay will end this apparent sex discrimination.

## THE WORKING WOMAN'S IMPACT ON FAMILY INCOME

If the U.S. middle class is alive and well, it is largely due to the unsung labors of American women, who have been entering the job market at a record clip. That is the main implication of a new Conference Board report on working women, which notes that the number of employed females has risen by about 50% over the past 20 years, compared with 27% for males. Already, it says, more than 50% of all married women work, including women with children. And in homes where the husband has a job, nearly two-thirds are employed.

The influx of women into the labor force, claims the study, is a major reason why some 46% of all families now earn more than \$25,000 a year—in today's dollars—compared with only 28% two decades ago. Although only one-third of all wives in families earning \$10,000 to \$15,000 a year are employed, the report estimates that more than two-thirds of wives in families in the \$30,000 to \$35,000 range bring home paychecks. And in families with income between \$40,000 and \$50,000, some 70% of wives have jobs. "An impressive 60% of all family income is now earned by households where wives are working," says Conference Board consumer economist Fabian Linden.

The picture isn't all positive. To be sure, more than half of all college students are now women, and females earn 23% of all medical degrees and 30% of law degrees. Moreover, more than 50% of all accountants, college teachers, bank officials—and more than 47% of bus drivers—are women. On the other hand, college-educated women working full-time still earn only 55% of the pay of their male counterparts. Although differences in age, experience and occupation help explain this gap, the study also blames the practice of "not paying women as much as men for equal qualification."

24 BUSINESSWEEK/OCTOBER 29, 1994



### The "Typical" Alaskan Woman Today

She is 25, a working woman who earns half as much as most men. She's younger and better educated than her counterparts in the Lower 48, but she runs a higher risk of getting divorced.

She will have her children earlier and will bear more of them than women Outside. But like women throughout the country, the chance that she will spend her adult and later years alone is increasing.

Alaska Women, A Databook

"Economic inequality persists in Alaska" Barbara Baker, Alaska Women's Commission

#### FACTS:

- 60% work outside the home
- 43% of all jobs in Alaska are held by women
- 30% of all family income in Alaska is earned by women
- average income is 11K (compared to 22K for men)
- 1 out of every 4 women heading households lives in poverty



20 FACTS ON WOMEN WORKERS

1. A majority of women work because of economic need. Nearly two-thirds of all women in the labor force in 1978 were single, widowed, divorced, or separated, or had husbands whose earnings were less than \$10,000 (in 1977).
2. About 42 million women were in the labor force in 1978; they constituted more than two-fifths of all workers.
3. Fifty-nine percent of all women 18 to 64—the usual working ages—were workers in 1978, compared with 88 percent of men. Fifty percent of all women 16 and over were workers. Labor force participation was highest among women 20 to 24.
4. The median age of women workers is 34 years.
5. Fifty-three percent of all black women were in the labor force in 1978 (4.9 million); they accounted for nearly half of all black workers.
6. Forty-five percent of Spanish-origin women were in the labor force in March 1978 (1.8 million); they accounted for 39 percent of all Spanish-origin workers.
7. Women accounted for nearly three-fifths of the increase in the civilian labor force in the last decade—13 million women compared with 9 million men.
8. More than one-fourth of all women workers held part-time jobs in 1978.
9. The average worklife expectancy of women has increased by more than one-half over the two decades since 1950. In 1970 the average woman could expect to spend 22.9 years of her life in the work force.
10. The more education a woman has the greater the likelihood she will seek paid employment. Among women with 4 or more years of college, about 3 out of 5 were in the labor force in 1978.
11. The average woman worker is as well educated as the average man worker; both have completed a median of 12.6 years of schooling.
12. The number of working mothers has increased more than tenfold since the period immediately preceding World War II, while the number of working women more than tripled. Fifty-three percent of all mothers with children under 18 years (16.1 million) were in the labor force in 1978.

13. The 5.8 million working mothers 1/ with preschool children in 1978 had 6.9 million children under 6 compared with 4.8 million working mothers with 6.0 million children under 6 years of age in 1973.
14. The unemployment rate was lowest for adult white men (20 and over) and highest for black young women (16 to 19) in 1978:

<u>Adults</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Teenagers</u>	<u>Percent</u>
White men	3.7	White men	13.5
White women	5.2	White women	14.4
Hispanic men	6.3	Hispanic men	19.5
Hispanic women	9.8	Hispanic women	22.0
Black men	9.1	Black men	36.5
Black women	11.1	Black women	41.0

15. Women workers are concentrated in low paying dead end jobs. As a result, the average woman worker earns only about three-fifths of what a man does, even when both work full time year round. The median wage or salary income of year-round full-time workers in 1977 was lowest for minority-race 2/ women--\$8,383. For white women it was \$8,737; minority men, \$11,053; and white men, \$15,230.

The median earnings of full-time year-round women farm workers were \$1,635, private household workers, \$2,714; sales workers, \$6,825; and clerical workers, \$8,601.

16. Fully employed women high school graduates (with no college) had less income on the average than fully employed men who had not completed elementary school--\$8,462 and \$9,332, respectively in 1977. Women with 4 years of college also had less income than men with only an 8th grade education--\$11,134 and \$11,931, respectively.
17. Among all families, about 1 out of 7 was headed by a woman in 1978 compared with about 1 out of 10 in 1968; 39 percent of black families were headed by women. Of all women workers, about 1 out of 8 was a family head; about 1 out of 4 black women workers was a family head.
18. Among all poor families, nearly half (49 percent) were headed by women in 1978; more than 2 out of 3 poor black families were headed by women. In 1968 about one-third (35 percent) of all poor families were headed by women and 51 percent of poor minority 3/ families had female heads.

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1/ Includes never married mothers.

2/ "Minority races" refers to all races other than white. Blacks constitute about 90 percent of persons other than white in the United States. Spanish-origin persons are generally included in the white population; about 93 percent of the Spanish-origin population is white.

3/ Data on black families are not available for 1968.

19. It is frequently the wife's earnings which raise a family out of poverty. In husband-wife families in 1978, 6.1 percent were poor when the wife did not work; 2.7 percent when she was in the labor force. Among all wives who worked in 1978, the median contribution was more than one-fourth of the total family income. Among those who worked year round full time, it was nearly two-fifths.
20. Women were 80 percent of all clerical workers in 1978 but only 6 percent of all craft workers (women were about 3 percent of all apprentices as of June 1978); 63 percent of service workers but only 43 percent of professional and technical workers; and 64 percent of retail sales workers but only 23 percent of nonfarm managers and administrators.

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Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census; U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Social Statistics; U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics and Employment and Training Administration.

## Pay Equity

Comparable worth pay equity is NOT equal pay for equal work. It is equal pay for jobs of comparable value.

This means female dominated jobs should be paid equally to male dominated jobs requiring equivalent education and training, skill, effort, and responsibility, and involving equivalent work hazards.

On average, a woman with 4 years of college can expect to earn the same salary as a man with an 8th grade education. Female high school graduates can expect to earn less than men who have not completed elementary school. (Statistics from US Dept. of Labor)

In California, a registered nurse earns less than tree trimmers and parking lot attendants.

In Alaska, a registered nurse earns less than a supply officer or an electrical technician.

In Alaska, women earn 62 cents for every dollar men earn.

The average annual wage for men in 1990 was \$27,655.  
The average annual wage for women in 1990 was \$16,934.

The proportion of poor families headed by women is steadily increasing.  
•1 of every 4 women heading households lives in poverty.

About 80% of working women are employed in the low-paying, deadend jobs where women have traditionally worked.

•Women are approx 80% of all clerical workers, but only 6% of all craft workers.

Many states are approaching the issue of pay equity.

Some states have begun to implement pay equity by increasing the wages for workers in underpaid job classes: Washington, Hawaii, Oregon, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Massachusetts, Iowa, Michigan and others.

The courts have ruled that the cost of ending pay discrimination may NOT be a consideration in whether the discriminatory practices are corrected.

So far, pay equity costs in the public sector have amounted to 2% to 4% of payroll.

Under the 1963 Equal Pay Act, it is illegal to pay men less in order to create pay equity.

There are widely accepted methods of evaluating and comparing jobs in order to establish equity. In job evaluation, factors common to all jobs are identified, such as skill, effort and responsibility, and point are assigned to each factor. The total points measure job value.

Pay equity will not eliminate pay differences based on performance and years of service.

Pay equity will not hurt the economy. In other states, pay equity in public employment has been implemented without disrupting the economy and without an excessive cost. For example, the cost of implementing pay equity in Minnesota state government was less than 4% of payroll.

# Gender Gap: No Progress for Alaskan Women

by F. Terry Elder

**B**etween 1988 and 1990, the income "gender gap" widened by 0.5% for Alaskan women. The ratio of female-to-male average wage income fell from 61.7% in 1988 to 61.2% in 1990<sup>1</sup>. (See Table 1.) Although the sex distribution of employment and total wage income in 1990 was about the same as in 1988, the average wage income of men outpaced that of women.

## Comparisons by age group

The sex distribution of employment by age group in 1990 showed the same pattern as in 1988<sup>2</sup>. (See Figure 2.) Women account for a larger share of employment at younger age groups than at older age groups. This is due to the relatively rapid increase of female participation in the labor force in recent decades. Older age groups partially reflect labor force composition prior to the time women began to enter the labor market in ever-increasing numbers.

Between 1988 and 1990, the average annual wage income of both men and women rose for every age group except the oldest age groups. (See Figure 2 for 1990 income.) For men aged 65-74 and for men and women aged 75+, average wage income fell. This probably reflected the larger number of workers aged 65-74 in the 1990 data set and possibly some reduction in seasonal and part-time employment. Part-time employment is especially important for the youngest and oldest age groups of both sexes.

The pattern of wage income for age groups did not change from 1988. Peak average wage income for men occurred in the 45-49 year-old age group at \$41,600. The same age group for women earned a peak average of \$23,800. As in 1988, women earned less than men in every age group (See Figure 3.) The female-to-male

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## Note

<sup>2</sup>Compared to the 1988 data set, the 19-24 year-old age group was the only age group in which women's share of employment declined. Their employment share of every other age group rose. The largest share increases, ranging from 1.2 percentage points to 1.5 percentage points, were in the 35-39, 45-49, and 55-59 year-old age groups.

## Note

<sup>1</sup>A detailed comparison of male and female wage and salary employment and earnings using 1988 data is found in our August 1990 publication, *The Gender Gap*. The 1988 data base contained information on 244,020 people, and the 1990 data base covered 235,657 people. No conclusion should be drawn from this decline, since the data bases are constructed with data for individuals for whom the relevant information is known. As such, they are subsets of total employment, and increases or decreases do not imply commensurate increases or decreases in total employment. Given the size of the subsets, however, there is no reason to believe that the share of employment and the average annual wage income by sex are not true reflections of actual comparative performance of the sexes. Those are the key aspects dealt with in this article. For the readers' information, the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis reported 1990 total personal income for Alaska of \$11.96 billion, up 18.3% from 1988

Table 1

## Wage and Salary Employment and Earnings Alaska, 1988-1990

	1988	1990
Employment Distribution By Sex (%)		
Male	53.0	52.7
Female	47.0	47.3
Annual Wage Income Distribution By Sex (%)		
Male	64.6	64.5
Female	35.4	35.5
Average Annual Wage Income (\$)		
Male	24,232	27,655
Female	14,962	16,934
Total	19,877	22,580
Female/Male Wage Ratio (%)	61.7	61.2

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research and Analysis Section.

average wage income ratio declined in 8 out of 12 age groups between 1988 and 1990. Within the age groups 40-44, 45-49, 55-59 and 65-74 the gender gap narrowed.

### Comparisons by occupation group

As in 1988, most occupation groups in 1990 were dominated by female or male workers (see figure 4)<sup>3</sup>. The average annual wage income of men rose in eight of nine occupation groups between 1988 and 1990 (see figure 5). In contrast, average wage income for women fell in six of nine occupation groups.

Unavailable data for some men and women, however, may have influenced this result. The average income of men for whom occupation data were available was higher (\$28,400) than income for all men. The average wage income of women for whom occupation data were available was lower (\$16,700) than income for all women. Therefore, occupation data were probably not available for more high-income women than for low-income women and for more low-income men than for high-income men.

With that caveat in mind, women earned less than men in every occupation group (see figure 6). The gender gap increased for every occupation group except Service Workers.

### Comparisons by occupation

Not only were occupation groups male or female dominated, but individual occupations were, too. In the 100 largest occupations ranked by female employment, women made up 60.9% of employment compared to 47.3% of overall employment. (See Table 2, page 7.) The female-to-male wage income ratio was 73.5% compared to 61.2%. In contrast, in the 100 largest occupations ranked by male employment, women accounted for only 42.5% of employment. The female-to-male wage income ratio was only 54.8%. (See Table 3, page 10.)

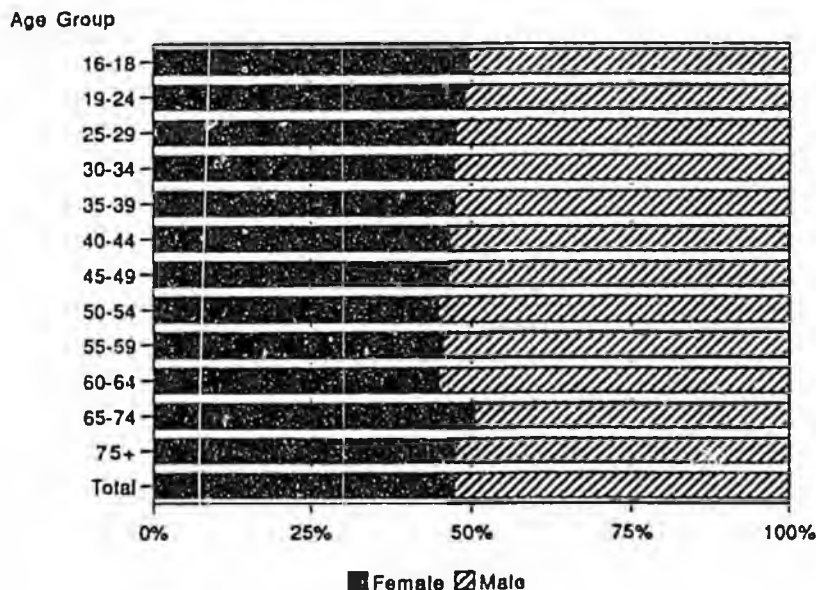
Women's average wage income exceeded men's average wage income in 12 of 100 occupations ranked by female employment, but only in 5 of 100 occupations ranked by male employment. These figures were similar to those in 1988. Little has changed during the two-year period to close the gap in employment and earnings

Figure 1

## Sex Distribution of Total Employment by Age Group — Alaska, 1990

Note: Data for 122,030 males and 109,763 females for whom age data are available.

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research & Analysis Section.

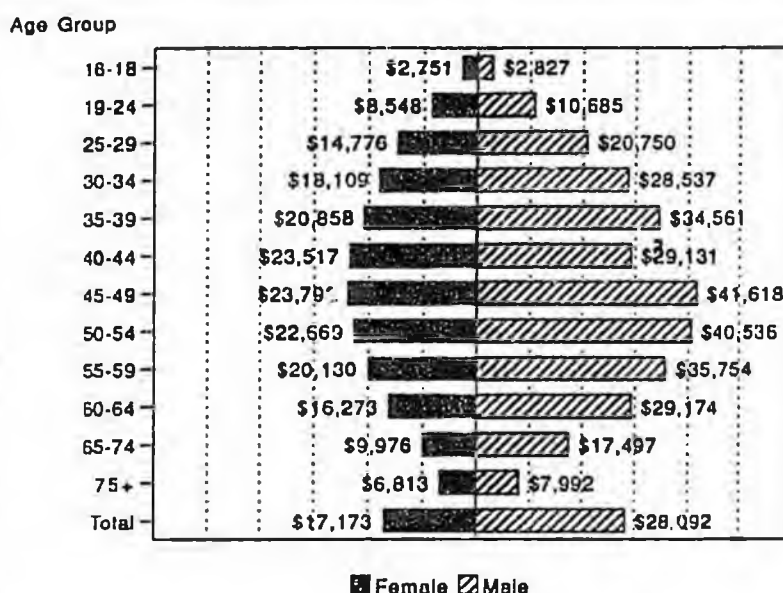


### Note

<sup>3</sup>Since occupation data are not available for a large portion of female and male workers, conclusions should be tempered since they may be affected in unknown ways by the excluded data.

Figure • 2

### Male & Female Average Annual Wage Income by Age Group — Alaska, 1990



Note: Data for 122,030 males and 109,763 females for whom age data are available.

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research & Analysis Section.

patterns between men and women.

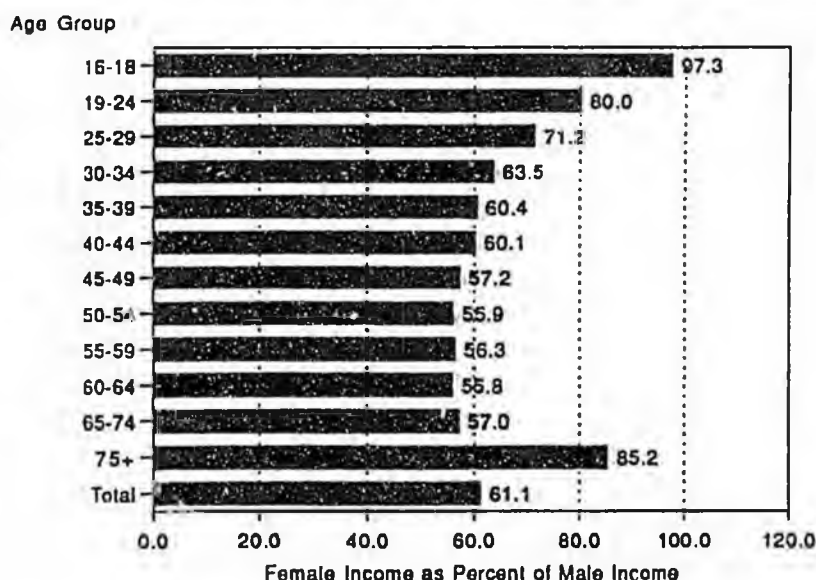
#### Comparisons by Industry group

In 1990 as in 1988, women predominated in the finance/insurance/real estate, services, and local government sectors. Mining, oil and gas and construction were male-dominated industries. (See Figure 7.)

Oil and gas industry workers had the highest average wage income. (See Figure 8.) Other industry sectors with above-average income included mining, state government and transportation/communication/public utilities. Compared to 1988, the average wage income of both men and women rose in every industry sector except one<sup>4</sup>.

Figure • 3

### Female/Male Ratios of Private & Public Sector Average Annual Wage Income by Age, Alaska, 1990



Note: Data for 122,030 males and 109,763 females for whom age data are available.

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research & Analysis Section.

#### Note

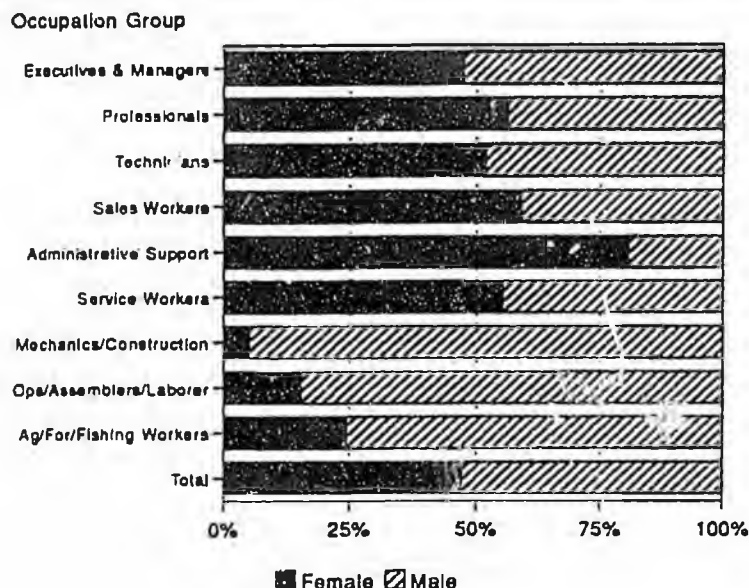
<sup>4</sup>The exception was for male workers in the Nonclassified sector, which represented less than 1 percent of male employment.

Figure • 4

### Sex Distribution of Total Employment by Occupation Group — Alaska, 1990

Note: Data for 82,134 males and 73,224 females for whom occupation data are available.

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research & Analysis Section.



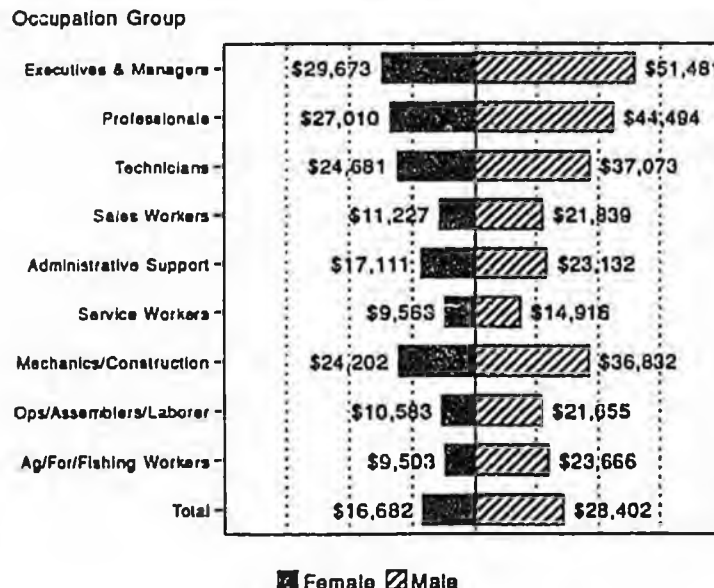
In 1990, as in 1988, women earned less than men in every industry. (See Figure 9.) Overall, they earned 61.2% of male income in 1990 compared to 61.7% in 1988. Working women lost ground over the two-year period in both the private and the public sectors. In the private sector, the gap widened by 0.4% as women earned 55.7% of male income in 1990 compared to 56.1% in 1988. In the public sector, they earned 70.7% compared to 71.4%, an increased gap of 0.7%. The female-to-male wage income ratio fell in 8 of 14 industry groups. Mining, food manufacturing, wholesale trade, finance/insurance/real estate, nonclassified and local government showed an increase.

Figure • 5

### Male & Female Average Annual Wage Income by Occupation Group — Alaska, 1990

Note: Data for 82,134 males and 73,224 females for whom occupation data are available.

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research & Analysis Section.



### Women really haven't come a long way

There is no doubt that women increased their share of employment dra-

Figure 8

### Male & Female Average Annual Wage Income by Industry Group — Alaska, 1990

Note: Data for 124,121 males and 111,546 females.

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research & Analysis Section.

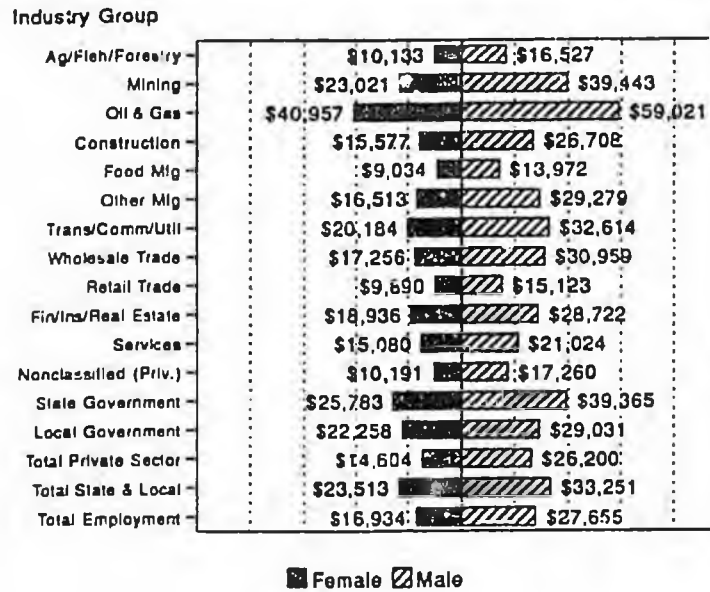
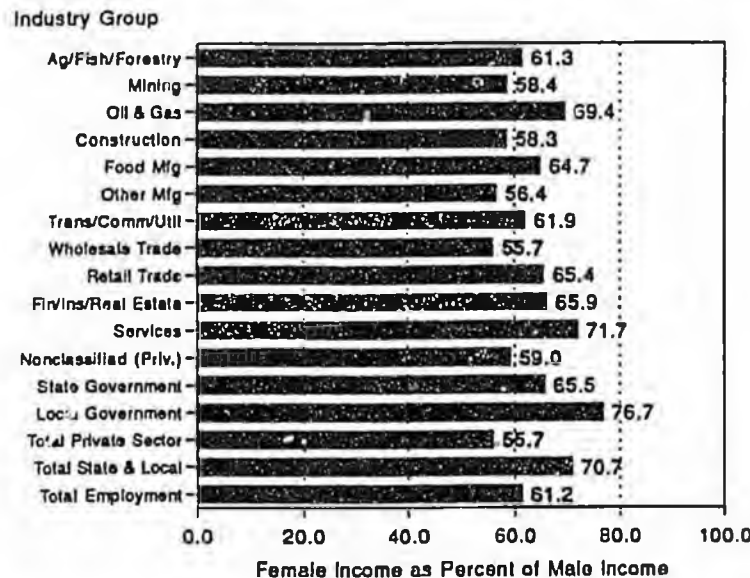


Figure 9

### Female/Male Ratios of Private & Public Sector Average Annual Wage Income by Industry Group, Alaska, 1990

Note: Data for 124,121 males and 111,546 females.

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research & Analysis Section.

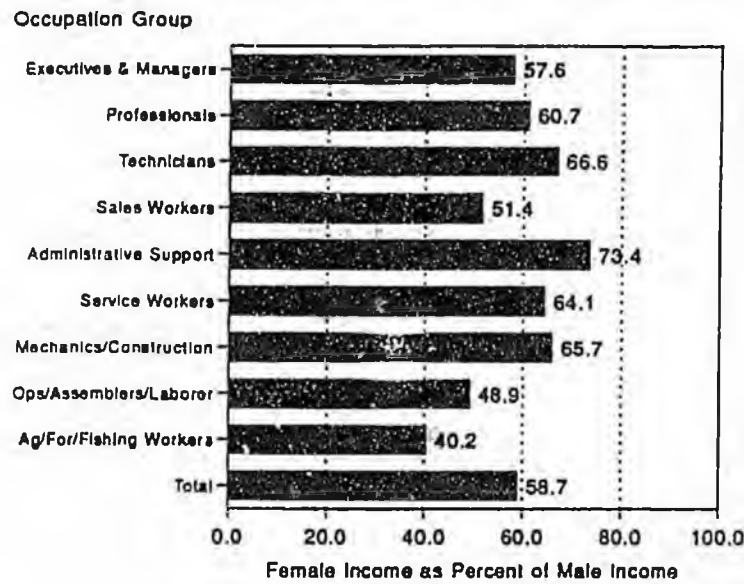


matically in recent decades. State economic and demographic forecasters predict women will continue to increase their share of the labor market in the foreseeable future. On the other hand, the occupational and industry employment patterns of men and women differ markedly. The most dramatic difference is that women generally earn less than men.

In Alaska between 1988 and 1990, little or no progress is evident in balancing the employment and income patterns of men and women. As a result, occupations and industries continue to be male or female dominated. And the ratio of female-to-male wage income actually has declined.

Figure 6

### Female/Male Ratios of Private & Public Sector Average Annual Wage Income by Occupation Group, Alaska, 1990

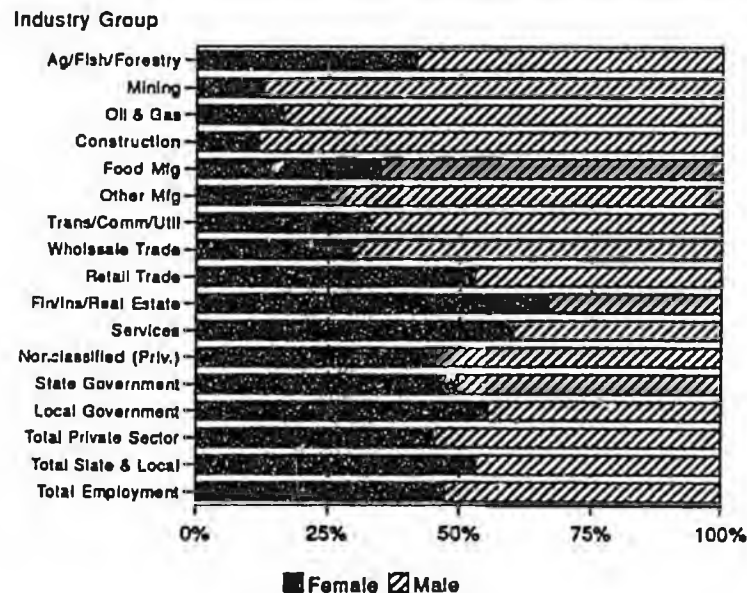


Note: Data for 82,134 males and 73,224 females for whom occupation data are available.

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research & Analysis Section.

Figure 7

### Sex Distribution of Total Employment by Industry Group — Alaska, 1990



Note: Data for 124,121 males and 111,546 females.

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research & Analysis Section.

T a b l e 2

**100 Occupations With the Largest Employment Ranked by  
Female Employment — Alaska, 1990**

Occupational Title	Employment			Average Annual Wage Income		
	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	Female/ Male Ratio
General Office Occupations	1,168	5,319	82.0	17,924	13,429	74.9
Sales Clerks	1,562	3,931	71.6	11,864	8,735	73.6
Secretaries	130	3,858	96.7	20,630	21,262	102.8
Bookkeeping and Accounting and Auditing Clerks	281	2,731	90.7	22,573	19,895	88.1
Waiters and Waitresses	518	2,697	83.9	8,926	7,356	82.4
Teacher Aides	469	2,041	81.3	14,050	11,262	80.2
Receptionists	93	1,725	94.9	10,873	13,096	120.4
Cashiers	504	1,586	75.9	11,329	10,578	93.4
Janitors and Cleaners	2,803	1,521	35.2	13,039	11,550	88.6
Child Care Workers, Except Private Household	196	1,475	88.3	11,739	7,448	63.4
Kitchen Workers, Food Preparation	1,088	1,347	55.3	11,304	9,992	88.4
Miscellaneous Food and Beverage Preparation Occupations	1,565	1,280	45.0	6,817	7,385	108.3
Elementary School Teachers	395	1,260	76.1	36,672	33,352	90.9
Counter Clerks	981	1,252	56.1	12,183	7,854	64.5
Registered Nurses	65	1,251	95.1	34,630	27,165	78.4
Management Related Occupations, NEC	806	1,179	59.4	45,902	26,024	56.7
Maids and Housemen	256	1,150	81.8	11,824	8,300	70.2
Food Counter, Fountain and Related Occupations	524	1,050	66.7	5,142	5,065	98.5
Barenders	457	888	66.0	12,774	11,135	87.2
Adult Education and Other Teachers, NEC	512	865	62.8	22,120	16,200	73.2
Cooks, Except Short Order	1,223	861	41.3	15,132	10,426	68.9
Administrative Support Occupations, Including Clerical	150	814	84.4	35,688	17,944	50.3
Managers: Administrative Services	482	790	62.1	47,103	28,915	61.4
Miscellaneous Hand Working Occupations	1,043	789	43.1	9,292	6,794	73.1
Manual Occupations, NEC	3,080	753	19.6	12,250	8,458	69.0
Teachers: College, University and Other Postsecondary	992	726	42.3	36,937	24,472	66.3
General Managers and Other Top Executives	1,448	720	33.2	59,176	30,989	52.4
Reservation Agents and Transportation Ticket Clerks	158	673	81.0	22,300	16,810	75.4
Accountants and Auditors	351	617	63.7	48,451	35,407	73.1
Salespersons: Garments and Textile Products	89	602	87.1	12,481	10,292	82.5
Secondary School Teachers	549	593	51.9	41,078	31,744	77.3
Bank Tellers	35	589	94.4	11,939	12,376	103.6
Personal Service Occupations, NEC	315	576	64.6	14,884	11,626	78.1
Short-order Cooks	660	562	46.0	6,525	5,132	78.6
Social Workers	201	535	72.7	23,521	18,801	79.9
Health Aides, Except Nursing	56	526	90.4	18,585	15,987	86.0
Supervisors: General Office Occupations	147	490	76.9	45,310	28,753	63.5
Attendants, Amusement and Recreation Facilities	534	453	45.9	6,708	6,461	96.3
File Clerks	75	424	85.0	11,269	11,521	102.2

Table • 2 (cont.)

**100 Occupations With the Largest Employment Ranked by  
Female Employment — Alaska, 1990**

Occupational Title	Employment			Average Annual Wage Income		Female/ Male Ratio
	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	
Salespersons: NEC	663	409	38.2	33,631	15,455	46.0
Stock and Inventory Clerks	933	408	30.4	22,023	12,636	57.4
Hairdressers and Cosmetologists	29	399	93.2	11,480	10,821	94.3
Inspectors and Compliance Officers, Except Construction	256	382	59.9	31,734	15,708	49.5
Nursing Aides, Orderlies, and Attendants	62	381	86.0	17,544	15,378	87.7
Data Entry Keyers	82	377	82.1	20,426	16,206	79.3
Dental Assistants	11	358	97.0	22,140	16,512	74.6
Health Technologists and Technicians, NEC	155	346	69.1	31,808	19,525	61.4
Telephone Operators	43	340	88.8	21,607	22,051	102.1
Supervisors: Food and Beverage Preparation and Service	232	323	58.2	23,911	15,557	65.1
Typists	20	309	93.9	13,978	15,388	110.1
Bus Drivers	480	298	38.3	17,104	10,176	59.5
Library Clerks	48	292	85.9	9,557	13,789	144.3
Billing Clerks	20	286	93.5	22,628	19,491	86.1
Prekindergarten and Kindergarten Teachers	11	284	96.3	22,901	20,148	88.0
Teachers, Ex Postsecondary	123	283	69.7	42,860	30,745	71.7
Welfare Service Aides	55	281	83.4	3,246	5,486	169.0
Dispatchers	188	280	59.8	31,709	17,927	56.5
Supervisors: Sales Occupations, Retail	377	277	42.4	36,986	21,092	57.0
Teachers: Special Education	83	271	76.6	44,906	40,856	91.0
Stock Handlers and Baggers	956	264	21.6	13,673	7,520	55.0
Recreation Workers	198	264	57.1	12,330	10,044	81.5
Payroll and Timekeeping Clerks	27	262	90.7	29,146	22,949	78.7
Construction Laborers	2,722	261	8.7	19,552	11,245	57.5
Officials and Administrators: Other, NEC	355	252	41.5	47,594	32,849	69.0
Record Clerks, NEC	37	247	87.0	24,199	21,838	90.2
Sales Occupations: Services, NEC	136	236	63.4	17,497	15,085	86.2
Librarians	27	227	89.4	33,528	29,660	88.5
Vocational and Educational Counselors	134	224	62.6	35,815	28,318	79.1
Licensed Practical Nurses	14	222	94.1	23,037	22,103	95.9
Computer Operators	153	221	59.1	29,925	24,444	81.7
Financial Managers	226	218	49.1	66,524	44,535	66.9
Bill and Account Collectors	44	212	82.8	23,113	21,454	92.8
Legal Technicians	58	206	78.0	26,545	29,247	110.2
Order Clerks	64	204	76.1	26,227	20,635	78.7
Waiters'/waitresses' Assistants	257	201	43.9	7,305	5,251	71.9
Billing, Posting, and Calculating Machine Operators	19	198	91.2	26,148	20,673	79.1
Managers: Food Serving and Lodging Establishments	200	194	49.2	25,897	17,470	67.5
Public Transportation Attendants	32	178	84.8	22,509	18,173	80.7

Table • 2 (cont.)

**100 Occupations With the Largest Employment Ranked by  
Female Employment — Alaska, 1990**

Occupational Title	Employment			Average Annual Wage Income		Female/ Male Ratio
	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	
Dental Hygienists	8	177	95.7	NA	26,173	NA
Hand Cutting and Trimming Occupations	435	175	28.7	9,292	7,629	82.1
Business Service, Except Advertising, Sales Occupations	170	167	49.6	40,749	23,855	58.5
Personnel, Training, and Labor Relations Specialist	112	159	58.7	47,222	29,955	63.4
Truck Drivers, Light (Including Delivery and Route)	1,343	155	10.3	20,264	11,110	54.8
Supervisors: Financial Record Processing Occupations	26	153	85.5	45,796	31,229	68.2
Managers: Medicine and Health	76	151	66.5	47,807	37,958	79.4
Guards and Police, Except Public Service	934	143	13.3	24,192	16,979	70.2
Advertising and Related Sales Occupations	89	141	61.3	27,180	27,229	100.2
Insurance Adjusters, Examiners, and Investigators	76	138	64.5	49,514	32,061	64.8
Designers	65	136	67.7	37,184	16,283	43.8
Managers: Marketing, Advertising, and Public Relations	244	135	35.6	51,075	33,569	65.7
Technicians, NEC	187	134	41.7	29,447	19,089	64.8
Clinical Laboratory Technologists and Technicians	28	127	81.9	34,891	26,799	76.8
Freight, Stock, and Material Movers, NEC	1,219	125	9.3	20,171	15,367	76.2
Managers: Property and Leasing	94	125	57.1	38,737	20,499	52.9
Science Technologists and Technicians, NEC	114	122	51.7	23,690	20,896	88.2
Education Teachers	100	122	55.0	43,752	41,283	94.4
Lawyers	266	120	31.1	64,618	46,504	72.0
Traffic, Shipping, and Receiving Clerks	297	112	27.4	23,571	20,507	87.0
Officials and Administrators, Public Administration	46	112	70.9	28,318	8,694	30.7
Demonstrators, Promoters, and Models	34	111	76.6	13,059	8,897	68.1
Personnel Clerks, Except Payroll and Timekeeping	7	106	93.8	NA	24,594	NA
Total Top 100	41,462	64,520	60.9	21,609	15,872	73.5
Total	124,121	111,546	47.3	27,655	16,934	61.2

Note: Shaded areas highlight occupations in which female average wage income equals or exceeds male average wage income. These data cover 4-digit Standard Occupational Code (SOC) occupations for people who reported both income and 4-digit occupational codes. Employment is defined as the number of workers who worked in an occupation at any time during the year. Workers, who worked in more than one occupation, are assigned to the occupation in which they earned the majority of their annual wage income. Average wage income is not disclosed for occupations with male or female employment of less than eleven workers. NEC means "not elsewhere classified".

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research and Analysis Section.

**100 Occupations With the Largest Employment Ranked by  
Male Employment — Alaska, 1990**

Occupational Title	Employment			Average Annual Wage Income		
	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	Female/ Male Ratio
Manual Occupations, NEC	3,080	753	19.6	12,250	8,458	69.0
Janitors and Cleaners	2,803	1,521	35.2	13,039	11,550	88.6
Construction Laborers	2,722	261	8.7	19,552	11,245	57.5
Carpenters	1,939	53	2.7	21,221	13,887	65.4
Miscellaneous Food and Beverage Preparation Occupations	1,565	1,280	45.0	6,817	7,385	108.3
Sales Clerks	1,562	3,931	71.6	11,864	8,735	73.6
General Managers and Other Top Executives	1,448	720	33.2	59,176	30,989	52.4
Truck Drivers, Light (Including Delivery and Route)	1,343	155	10.3	20,264	11,110	54.8
Mechanics and Repairers, NEC	1,255	66	5.0	36,373	22,958	63.1
Cooks, Except Short Order	1,223	861	41.3	15,132	10,426	68.9
Freight, Stock, and Material Movers, NEC	1,219	125	9.3	20,171	15,367	76.2
General Office Occupations	1,168	5,319	82.0	17,924	13,429	74.9
Kitchen Workers, Food Preparation	1,088	1,347	55.3	11,304	9,992	88.4
Automobile Mechanics	1,084	17	1.5	27,745	22,736	81.9
Electricians	1,069	31	2.8	39,331	24,019	61.1
Miscellaneous Hand Working Occupations	1,043	789	43.1	9,292	6,794	73.1
Truck Drivers, Heavy	1,029	35	3.3	30,043	21,021	70.0
Teachers: College, University and Other Postsecondary	992	726	42.3	36,937	24,472	66.3
Counter Clerks	981	1,252	56.1	12,183	7,854	64.5
Stock Handlers and Baggers	956	264	21.6	13,673	7,520	55.0
Guards and Police, Except Public Service	934	143	13.3	24,192	16,979	70.2
Stock and Inventory Clerks	933	408	30.4	22,023	12,636	57.4
Operating Engineers	839	83	9.0	36,507	30,512	83.6
Airplane Pilots and Navigators	812	18	2.2	40,053	29,728	74.2
Management Related Occupations, NEC	806	1,179	59.4	45,902	26,024	56.7
Heavy Equipment Mechanics	774	7	0.9	42,427	NA	NA
Plumbers, Pipefitters and Steamfitters	751	17	2.2	36,327	28,185	77.6
Stevedores	707	48	6.4	13,751	6,631	48.2
Garage and Service Station Related Occupations	667	62	8.5	12,354	7,211	58.4
Salespersons: NEC	663	409	38.2	33,631	15,455	46.0
Short-order Cooks	660	562	46.0	6,525	5,132	78.6
Machinery Maintenance Occupations	652	18	2.7	38,283	38,350	100.2
Supervisors: Mechanics and Repairers	612	29	4.5	52,609	49,230	93.6
Police and Detectives, Public Service	599	55	8.4	41,744	40,895	98.0
Extractive Occupations, NEC	588	23	3.8	39,144	29,068	74.3
Communications Equipment Repairers	583	67	10.3	53,070	36,711	69.2
Secondary School Teachers	549	593	51.9	41,078	31,744	77.3
Attendants, Amusement and Recreation Facilities	534	453	45.9	6,708	6,461	96.3
Food Counter, Fountain and Related Occupations	524	1,050	66.7	5,142	5,065	98.5
Waiters and Waitresses	518	2,697	83.9	8,926	7,356	82.4
Adult Education and Other Teachers, NEC	512	865	62.8	22,120	16,200	73.2

Table 3 (cont.)

**100 Occupations With the Largest Employment Ranked by  
Male Employment — Alaska, 1990**

Occupational Title	Employment			Average Annual Wage Income		Female/ Male Ratio
	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	
Cashiers	504	1,586	75.9	11,329	10,578	93.4
Painters (Construction and Maintenance)	492	17	3.3	22,656	8,320	36.7
Welders and Cutters	492	4	0.8	34,996	NA	NA
Managers: Administrative Services	482	790	62.1	47,103	28,915	61.4
Bus Drivers	480	298	38.3	17,104	10,176	59.5
Petroleum Plant Operators	478	25	5.0	76,440	68,032	89.0
Vehicle Washers and Equipment Cleaners	471	67	12.5	12,347	10,385	84.1
Teacher Aides	469	2,041	81.3	14,050	11,262	80.2
Excavating and Loading Machine Operators	460	13	2.7	37,511	27,917	74.4
Bartenders	457	888	66.0	12,774	11,135	87.2
Hand Cutting and Trimming Occupations	435	175	28.7	9,292	7,629	82.1
Salespersons: Parts	411	70	14.6	25,189	15,409	61.2
Elementary School Teachers	395	1,260	76.1	36,672	33,352	90.9
Supervisors: Sales Occupations, Retail	377	277	42.4	36,986	21,092	57.0
Misc Material Moving Equipment Operators	375	8	2.1	31,275	NA	NA
Aircraft Engine Mechanics	368	14	3.7	31,663	27,942	88.2
Truck Drivers, Tractor-trailer	362	5	1.4	29,812	NA	NA
Officials and Administrators: Other, NEC	355	252	41.5	47,594	32,849	69.0
Accountants and Auditors	351	617	63.7	48,451	35,407	73.1
Industrial Machinery Repairers	345	44	11.3	42,873	26,294	61.3
Logging Occupations, NEC	340	29	7.9	29,331	10,460	35.7
Civil Engineers	321	28	8.0	51,224	42,102	82.2
Personal Service Occupations, NEC	315	576	64.6	14,884	11,626	78.1
Baggage Porters and Bellhops	307	53	14.7	17,347	19,405	111.9
Traffic, Shipping, and Receiving Clerks	297	112	27.4	23,571	20,507	37.0
Sailors and Deckhands	288	38	11.7	20,122	12,986	64.5
Bus and Truck Engine, and Diesel Engine Mechanics	284	5	1.7	35,626	NA	NA
Bookkeeping and Accounting and Auditing Clerks	281	2,731	90.7	22,573	19,895	88.1
Supervisors: Overall Construction	273	3	1.1	56,632	NA	NA
Supervisors: Production Occupations	271	45	14.2	57,543	25,090	43.6
Aircraft Mechanics (Except Engine Specialists)	268	6	2.2	31,702	NA	NA
Lawyers	266	120	31.1	64,618	46,504	72.0
Petroleum Engineers	261	30	10.3	94,118	73,644	78.2
Garbage Collectors	258	53	17.0	14,583	9,956	68.3
Waiters'/waitresses' Assistants	257	201	43.9	7,305	5,251	71.9
Maids and Housemen	256	1,150	81.8	11,824	8,300	70.2
Inspectors and Compliance Officers, Except Construction	256	382	59.9	31,734	15,708	49.5
Supervisors: Handlers, Equipment Cleaners, Helpers	246	61	19.9	32,221	14,631	45.4
Managers: Marketing, Advertising, and Public Relations	244	135	35.6	51,075	33,569	65.7
Helpers: Miscellaneous Mechanics and Repairers	240	8	3.2	27,874	NA	NA

Table 3 (cont.)

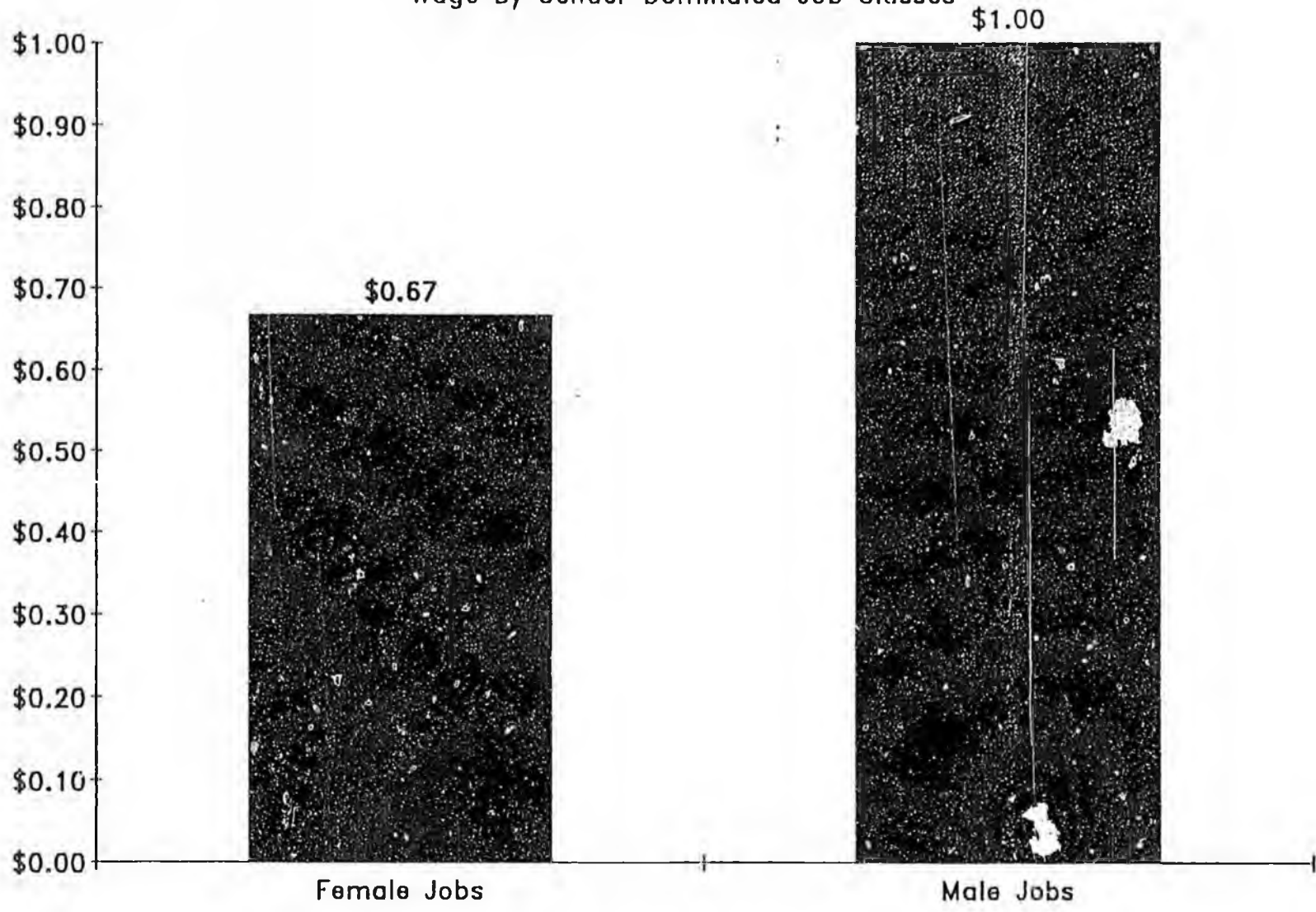
**100 Occupations With the Largest Employment Ranked by  
Male Employment — Alaska, 1990**

Occupational Title	Employment			Average Annual Wage Income		Female/ Male Ratio
	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	
Electrical Power Installers and Repairers	240	5	2.0	51,880	NA	NA
Hand Packers and Packagers	236	50	17.5	11,965	7,891	66.0
Groundskeepers and Gardeners, Except Farm	233	67	22.3	10,702	9,412	87.9
Supervisors: Food and Beverage Preparation and Service	232	323	58.2	23,911	15,557	65.1
Machine Feeders and Offbearers	231	77	25.0	14,130	6,159	43.6
Industrial Truck and Tractor Equipment Operators	231	10	4.1	33,776	NA	NA
Automotive Body and Related Repairers	230	2	0.9	29,929	NA	NA
Financial Managers	226	218	49.1	66,524	44,535	66.9
Heating, Air-conditioning, and Refrigeration Mechanics	224	5	2.2	34,752	NA	NA
Salespersons: Hardware	222	88	28.4	19,858	12,980	65.4
Construction Managers	222	17	7.1	58,761	27,283	46.4
Driver-sales Workers	220	26	10.6	17,018	15,001	88.1
Power Plant and Systems Operators, Exc. Stationary	213	7	3.2	32,841	NA	NA
Expeditors	207	60	22.5	25,233	19,769	78.3
Social Workers	201	535	72.7	23,521	18,801	79.9
Managers: Food Serving and Lodging Establishments	200	194	49.2	25,897	17,470	67.5
Grader, Dozer, and Scraper Operators	199	5	2.5	30,630	NA	NA
Recreation Workers	198	264	57.1	12,330	10,044	81.5
Child Care Workers, Except Private Household	196	1,475	88.3	11,739	7,448	63.4
Engineers, NEC	196	16	7.5	85,990	58,824	68.4
Total Top 100	62,231	45,953	42.5	26,107	14,301	54.8
Total	124,121	111,546	47.3	27,655	16,934	61.2

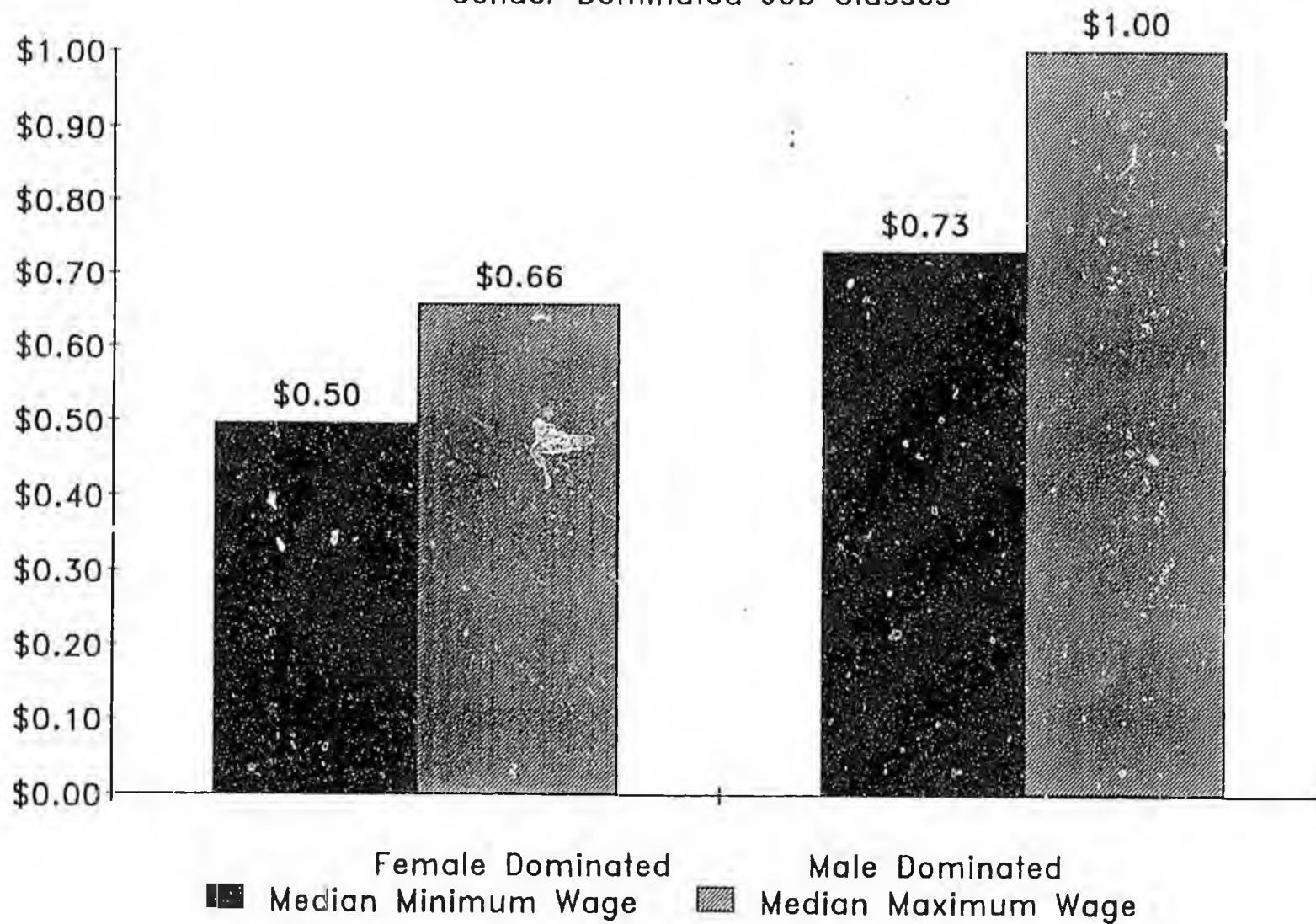
Note: Shaded areas highlight occupations in which female average wage income equals or exceeds male average wage income. These data cover 4-digit Standard Occupational Code (SOC) occupations for people who reported both income and 4-digit occupational codes. Employment is defined as the number of workers who worked in an occupation at any time during the year. Workers, who worked in more than one occupation, are assigned to the occupation in which they earned the majority of their annual wage income. Average wage income is not disclosed for occupations with male or female employment of less than eleven workers. NEC means "not elsewhere classified".

Source: Alaska Department of Labor, Research and Analysis Section.

State of Alaska, October 1991 Payroll  
Wage By Gender Dominated Job Classes



State of Alaska 10/15/91 Payroll  
Gender Dominated Job Classes



March 18, 1993

Representative Fran Ulmer  
State Capitol  
Juneau, AK 99811

Dear Representative Ulmer:

I am very alarmed at what is happening to the job class in which I work for the State of Alaska. It appears that the backbone of state employees, the support staff in the accounting and clerical series are being reclassified into a new job series which will ultimately lead to these people being paid less. The reason why I am alarmed is that many of these are the divorced or unwed mothers supporting broken families with very little financial assistance from absent fathers. I am very concerned when I look at the high cost of living in Alaska and the take home pay of these people. It simply is not enough upon which to survive. Before I remarried, my take home pay left me \$40 extra dollars a month to buy meat. Yes, hamburger and chuck steak wouldn't have been on my menu if I hadn't had some money left to me by my father.

It seems terribly unreasonable to place yet more of a burden on this low paid job series. If women, who comprise the major percentage of this job class, cannot afford to work, we Alaskans will have more people on the unemployment and welfare rolls, more poverty, more alcoholics and druggies, more social problems to deal with, and that's far more expensive in the long run.

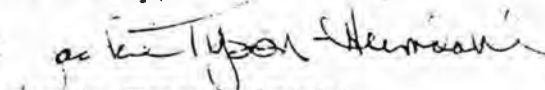
It has always been spouted to me from the private sector that the majority of the cost is in the higher paid classes. Instead of starting at the bottom of the heap, why doesn't Administration start at the top where it would be affordable and make a bigger savings to the State. Nickel and diming those who are paid so little while those at the higher scales are upgraded and get more is very galling.

There are so many places state government could save money if the working people aren't demoralized. Encouraging cost saving practices from the top on down would be a start.

I have no idea how many letters are mailed each day by state employees, but just one letter of a few pages sent in a manila envelope rather than a standard white envelope costs an extra 40 cents. Expand that 40 cents to the 248 working days per year and only 500 people making that choice, the choice to be wasteful without realizing it, and the state has spent an extra \$47,000. There are thousands of letters sent every day. The waste in this small area alone must be astronomical. This is the sort of thing your support staff notices. Why can't we get a drive, get people motivated to be more conscientious about careful spending. Recognize people for good ideas and implement them.

I thank you for your time and the concern you have for your constituents.

Sincerely,

  
Jackie Tyson-Heimdahl

March 17, 1993

Dear Representative Ulmer,

Just wanted to drop you a line to say thank you for attending the ASEA Women's Committee meeting last evening. Your input and knowledge was very valuable!

I fully agree with you and your "hard headedness" attitude in keeping at putting out information to the public, education, etc., to better understand what Comparable Work; Pay Equity is really about. I don't want to fall back into a traditional role for women of when met with resistance, I'd roll up into a ball and keep quiet. We need to be noisy, and consistently noisy.

I'm gratified to know that aware people as yourself are in office now, even though your numbers may be small.

Thanks again for your attendance to our meeting, and for support!

Barbara J. Rinker  
PO Box 74868  
Fairbanks, AK 99707

Sincerely,  
Barbara J. Rinker  
- Women's Committee Member  
- Admin. Support Rep for  
ASEA Bargaining Team.