

1. INTRODUCTION

Career research has been largely directed at and focused on men. Since 1940s when women started entering workforce in significant numbers, women's careers have received increasing attention and researchers have started to investigate issues related to women's work. Women's working experiences are different and more complicated than those of men, and gender inequalities continue to impede women's work. A great many studies reveal that females still lag behind males in terms of employment opportunities and compensations (Alicia, 2002: 1).

There are different social factors that influence women's career. This study focuses on the social factors, which affect women's job security. It is going to explain different social factors that affect job continuity of women. This is because of their role description and social determinants. Also this study is concerned with how the less regular system of private and social factors influences women's job security.

2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

One of the fundamental approaches to achieve a sustainable development is through training skillful and healthy people. Women make up half of this skilled human resource. Only the appropriate application of these valuable human resources, whether in governmental or private sector, can enable the authorities to bring about extensive social and economic changes for development. The best way to make use of human resources is to motivate people. Also optimistic condition should be provided in the workplace, so that people can make an effort to accomplish the organizational as well as their own personal goals. In other words, although physical and health along with profession skills are indispensable parts of accomplishing sustainable development, providing proper atmosphere in the workplace and the fulfillment of the individual and organizational needs are more important. The reason is that an unhealthy work environment can not cater for human needs. Also there would be no motivation for the skilled people to use their expertise. The lack of motivation among woman has a more sever affect on women than men, so that they may give up working and this renders them isolated.

3. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The debate on employment security has been widespread and controversial. It has been shaped by the ideological agenda. The neo-liberal literature for example, has discussed in great detail the costs of institutional employment security provision, through employment protection laws, which relate to hiring and firing and rules governing unfair dismissals. From the employers' perspective, employment security is a constraint variable that interferes with the firm's efficient working (Dusqupta, 2001:6).

Over and above these arguments based on women's right and protection against loss of employment as a human right, employment protection encourages stable employment relationships that create an atmosphere of macroeconomic stability. "Secure employment means stable employment relations that encourage investment in worker motivation of workers, and the productivity of the firm. Employment security, also leads high loyalty and discipline among workers". (Sengenberger, 1992: 25).

Job security has been considered a very fundamental need in the literature regarding human resources and organizational behavior. In normal situations, reaching higher human needs is impossible without job security. Although this seems an inevitable phenomenon due to man's different feelings and perceptions, its various useful and destructive aspects must be known and some measures must be taken to maximize its usefulness. Furthermore, strengthening women's job security and analyzing the positive and negative influencing factors are essential in private sectors, which are less regulated as compared with governmental organizations. The reason is that women's occupation is a relatively recent phenomenon, which is in line with the overall and sustainable development. It should be mentioned, however, that we are far away from achieving sustainable development unless we create the appropriate professional conditions for women who are suffering from special problems in our society (Mehr Farhang Institution, 1996: 8).

4. LITRATURE REVIEW

Khaleghi (1997) has studied job security in a research titled "The study of effective factors on job security among the employees of the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education". She studied factors such as income satisfaction, job development, job progress and employees training. The result shows that there is a significant

relationship between job security and income satisfaction, there is a significant relationship between job security and job development, also job progress and employees training have affected the job security (Khaleghi, 1997).

Mehr Farhang Institution (1999) in its report titled "A survey on job security among governmental employees" studied subjective and objective dimensions of job security. At the end of this study they concluded that governmental employees are the people who need to high job security and they take low risks. Although they have low wages and less advantages, they are satisfied with governmental jobs, because of continuity of governmental employment, also they found that perceived level of job security among employees was average (Mehr Farhang Institution, 1999).

George (1998) studied job security among Australian women untitled "Women work and job security ". In this paper women's right to work and responsibility for family members has been considered. He concluded that in the deregulated working environment fostered and promoted by Howard and Reith, women need more, not less support. Women want on effective industrial rights such as secure and regular hours of work, equal pay, and to balance work and family responsibilities. Women need trade unions to be free to represent them effectively, i.e. Women need a supportive regulatory environment and a Government actively committed to, and promoting, equal employment opportunities (George, 1998).

Dusqupta (2001) in the study titled "Employment security: conceptual and statistical issues" concluded that as labor markets become more flexible, employment security is negatively affected. Protected formal employment has fallen, and various kinds of non-standard employment have emerged. This paper explores some conceptual and related empirical issues surrounding employment security in the light of recent developments in the labor market. It takes into account subjective and objective elements of employment security, and differentiates between contractual, behavioral and governance indicators at the national, enterprise and individual levels (Dusqupta, 2001)

Jorge et.al (2001) studied "Perception of job security in a process of technological change". The main objective of their study was to investigate the perception that workers have of technological change and its relation with psychological variables. The hypothesis investigated are based on the existence of the perception of technological changes thereat to job security and how this affects levels of anxiety,

general stress and depression. The study was carried out in two departments of a car component factory: Engine Dep.-1 and Engine Dept.-2, outstanding for the different degrees to which technological innovation had been implemented. As procedure, a questionnaire mad up of different scales was administered to a sample of 148 workers. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used as the fundamental statistical instrument. The results indicate that some variables (studies, department type, occupational category, technology type) significantly affect the perception that workers have of technology in relation to job security. The significant relation between technological perception and psychological well-being is also confirmed, although no significant differences were found in stress. In conclusion, the results indicate the importance of modifying workers' perceptions of technology in order to prevent problems of psychological well-being (Jorge & the others: 2001).

Tahira (2003) in his study named " Development and validation of the job security index and the job security satisfaction scale: A classical test theory and IRT approach" describes the development and validation of two scales measuring job security: the Job Security Index (JSI), measuring an individual's cognitive appraisal of the future of his or her job with respect to the perceived level of stability and continuance of that job, and the Job Security Satisfaction (JSS) scale, measuring employee satisfaction with a perceived level of job security. Item response theory and classical test theory analyses indicate that the scales are highly reliable and exhibit good discriminate and criterion-related validity. Future researchers are advised to apply confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to the scales to confirm their factor structures (Tahira, 2003).

Women's job security and its social effective factors, as mentioned before are almost unknown, especially in Iranian society. There is not any study about this subject in Iran. All reviewed studies paid attention to job security, regardless of effective social factors and most of them do not consider women as a special group. The objective of this thesis is to study determinant social factors on women's job career, also social factors affecting women's job security.

5. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

5.1 WOMEN GENDER AND WORK

“Women have entered paid employment in enormous numbers since 1990- in a century which saw many from being dependent on agriculture to industry and then to a predominance of services. But the more important story concerns the dramatic change in women's status, notwithstanding the glaring inequalities that remain. That change has helped to provoke a wide- ranging debate on the appropriate roles of men and women, but also deep reflection on basic human values, including the place of work life as a whole. Drawing together the results of analysis by philosophers, economists lawyers and statisticians we can better understand the process under way and what is needed to achieve equality in practice – which is in the interest of us all” (Loutfi, 2001: 28).

5.2 TREND AND FACTORS IN WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT

The rise in women's participation in the labor force has been the result of these two, sometimes overlapping, factors: a greater choice open to women, and more pressure on them to ensure the maintenance or survival of their families. The third factor is the need of economies for type of labor women can provide. Although most women have to bring in an income, a job can be more than mere drudgery and survival. Many women, and not only in better-paid and professional occupations, have gained a sense of worth and self-confidence through their work. However, the reasons for and rewards from work vary enormously between industrialized and developing regions, and between classes, ethnic and age groups (Edmund & Salmon, 2000: 16).

5.3 THE DUAL LABOR MARKET

Dual labor market theory distinguishes between labor markets. The primary is (made up of jobs offering training and promotion) and the secondary (comprising insecure and lowly paid unskilled jobs). Workers in the secondary sector are easily dispensed

with in times of recession, are poorly remunerated and have poor conditions of employment (Abbot & Wallace, 1990: 146).

5.4 MARXIST FEMINIST EXPLANATIONS

The Marxist theory that women in paid work largely constituted a reserve army of labor, drawn upon in times of labor shortage and discouraged from the workforce during periods of over-supply – thus by definition subject, in general, to greater employment insecurity than men provided considerable insight into trends in women's economic activity, relating to major challenges insight into trends in women's economic activity, relating to major challenges to the labour supply such as war. However, technological change and industrial restructuring as well as demographic pressures have led to increased demand for women's labour and, in some cases, employer preference for female employees. The decline of manufacturing employment, accompanied by expansion in private services industries, has been characterized by progressive decline in full –time traditionally male jobs and an increase in part-time jobs mainly filled by females. Women's labor has historically been cheaper than men's, in acknowledgement of the male breadwinner model, and despite equal pay and equal opportunities legislation, female average earnings and hourly pay remain substantially below that of males. Women are twice as likely to be in low paid jobs as men, and low pay is concentrated in numerically female-dominated sectors such as retail and hospitality. Of the two million employees who earn below the agreed minimum wage of £3.60, 5.5 per cent are women in part- time employment (Edmond & Salmon, 2000:13).

Marxist feminist argues that the sexual division of labor within the family and familial ideology explain why women enter the labor market on disadvantageous terms and are used by capitalist in distinctive ways. They suggest there is congruence between the sexual division of labor in the domestic sphere, which consigns women to domestic labor force, part time, lowly paid, and flexible. This explains the job segments that are occupied by women in the labor market (Abbot & Wallace, 1990: 147).

5.5 SOCIALIST FEMINIST EXPLANATIONS

Social feminist argues that capitalism and patriarchy interact at every level within society. Heidi Hartman (1978), for example, argues that job segregation by sex and

the introduction of the family wage can only be understood in terms of the way capitalism and patriarchy articulate together. She suggest that men have organized to exclude women from much paid work, to ensure that they receive low wages in the jobs that remain open to them and that they are forced to remain dependent on men within the family, she argues that both men and capitalism benefit from this arrangement. With the concept of the family wages, she argues capitalism and patriarchy find a mutual accommodation (Abbot & Wallace, 1990: 148).

5.6 WOMEN IN CLASS THEORY

"Feminists have gone on to demonstrate that the incorporation of women in research on social class necessitates at the very least a modification of existing theories and conclusions, if not a complete rethinking of them. Elizabeth Garnsey (1978) argues that inequalities between women and men within it and also the different market and work situations which they face outside it. Women are at the bottom within each occupational class, and this pervasive inequality needs to be seen as central to the study of social stratification. The participation of women in the labor market affects the nature of that market for men. Women are concentrated in low paid, low status jobs, and this affects the range of jobs available for men. The ways in which female wage labor and domestic labor are combined and interact with each other and with the capitalist system also have complex consequences for class structure and class consciousness" (Abbot & Wallace, 1990: 21).

Education is an important factor in occupational mobility, as with men, and in the case of women it appears a crucial variable for upward mobility. However, women are overall more likely to be downwardly mobile than men and less likely to be upwardly mobile, because of labor market distortions – the excess of jobs for women at the bottom of the non-manual classes and at the bottom of the manual ones. Daughters are somewhat less likely than sons to be employed at the same occupational level as their fathers if this was a 'high' one, and less likely than men to be counter mobile (to move up from an initial decline in status). The manual/non-manual divide acts as a barrier for women in a different way from its effects on men because of the high concentration of women in routine non-manual work: it blocks downward mobility into the working class to some extent, but the considerable upward mobility from the working class is largely confined to movement into this routine class. In other words, the daughters of manual workers who are upwardly

mobile into middle class occupations tend to end up in the routine non-manual category, as do the daughters of professional men of managers who are downwardly mobile (Abbot & Wallace, 1990: 25).

6. CLASSICAL THEORIES OF JOB SECURITY IN MANAGEMENT THEORIES

6.1 SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT AND JOB SECURITY

Taylor (1911) identified the following characteristics of scientific management:

1. Science, not rule of thumb.
 2. Harmony, not discord.
 3. Cooperation, not individualism.
 4. Maximum output, in place of restricted output.
 5. The development of each man to his greatest efficiency and prosperity
- (Hicks & Gullett, 1975: 181).

Thus, Taylor indicated that the best interests of both management and the worker would be served by giving each worker the highest grade of work he can do, require productivity to be at the maximum level of what a first rate man can do, and pay at a level well above (30to 100 percent) the going rate. Taylor in his studies observed a kind of paradox between perceived level of job security and efficiency (Hicks & Gullett, 1975: 181).

6.2 ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY AND JOB SECURITY

“In 1916 Henri Fayol, a French industrialist, wrote a landmark book. He described a number of management principles that go far toward capturing the entire flavor of the administrative theory movement. He present fourteen principles for organizational management that are includes: Division of work, authority and responsibility, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interest to general interest, stability of tenure of personnel, initiative, esprit de corps” (Hicks & Gullett, 1975: 166).

In "stability of tenure of personnel" he argues that time is required for an employee to get used to new work and succeed in doing it well. Job security should reward good performance (Hicks & Gullett, 1975: 166).

6.3 BUREAUCRACY AND JOB SECURITY

Max Weber, who established theory of bureaucracy, suggests principles about scientific organizations. He explains his idea about job security:

Employing in bureaucratic organizations is based on technical adequacy and job security and job stability (Hicks & Gullett, 1975: 154).

“Bureaucracy has a number of career aspects that closely relate to and perhaps in some cases overlap professional elements just described. Employment is usually the sole, certainly primary, occupation. The work is a career with tenure and pension right promotion is based on seniority and achievement, decided "Abraham Maslow, a psychologist, first presented his need hierarchy in the 1940s. Influenced by the human relations school of thought, Maslow argued that human beings "wanting" animals: they have innate desires to satisfy a given set of needs. Furthermore Maslow believed these needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance, with the most basic ones being at the bottom of the hierarchy” (Moorhead & Griffin, 1989: 109).

According to Maslow's theory in the framework of our discussion security in job is one of the basic needs that if it is not ensured, people won't be able meet their needs such as fertilities their abilities.

7. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The following theories according to different dimensions of this study have been used. I plan to use Marxist feminist theory about domestic sphere which congruence women to domestic labor force, part time, lowly paid, and flexible. The recent explanations put forward by Marxist feminist have differed to some extent. Some have argued that women are an industrial 'reserve army of labor that is pulled into productive work in periods of economic expansion when there is shortage of labor, and disposed of in periods of recession. An alternative view is that women were drawn into the labor force as work became de-skilled- as work was broken down into smaller units and was seen as less skilled. Cheap female labor was used to replace expensive male labor. However, some Marxist feminists have argued that occupational segregation is so established that women are unlikely to substitute for men-that the labor market is divided into men's and women's jobs. Also dual labor market theory that indicates two types of jobs distinguishes between labor markets.

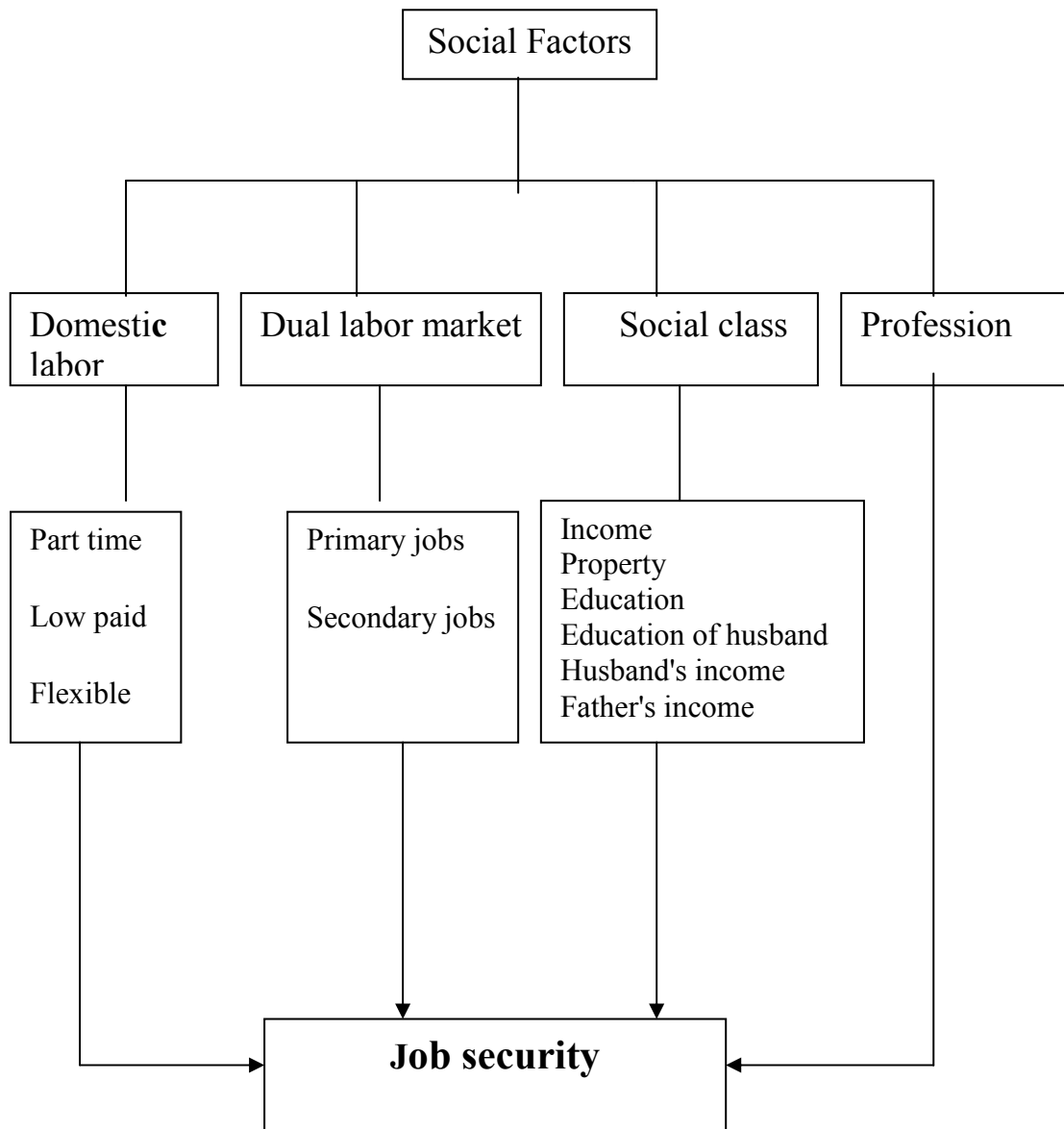
The primary jobs mean (meal up jobs offering training and promotion) and the secondary jobs mean (comprising insecure and lowly paid unskilled jobs). This theory argues that sex is an obvious way of segregating the work force, which raises little opposition from male employees, and women should work for less money than men, neither being nor so committed to employment on account of their domestic roles. They frequently leave work of their own accord and should be easier to lay off at short notice.

Feminist theory of social class of women argues that social class of women which relates to their father and their husband's social class can be a determinant factor for having professional or nonprofessional work, primary or secondary jobs which these types of jobs are different in their stability and possibility for continue of work.

Women's labor market is dependent on husbands' class receives little support even from Gold Thorpe's own data (the oxford mobility study), and the timing of a woman's with occupational class than by the class of her own job.

This theory also argue that women education is important factor in type of job that lead to professional or nonprofessional jobs and consequently the strength of need to employees affects their job stability.

7.1 CONCEPTUAL MODEL



7.2 PART TIME WORKING

Over the past 20 years there has been a trend increase in part-time relative to full-time employment especially in many developed countries. In some cases this is the result of a political decision to promote part time work, particularly in countries suffering from high unemployment. Indeed there has been much public praise of its supposed merits as a means of reducing unemployment as well as of its benefits for workers and employers. For workers it may offer the chance of a better balance between working life and family responsibilities, training, and leisure of civic activities. It can also make it easier for workers progressively to enter the labour market or retire from employment. For employers it can permit not only greater flexibility in responding to market requirements_ e.g. by increasing capacity utilization or extending opening hours _ but also productivity gains. For policy – makers confronting high unemployment the growth of part –timework may reduce the number of jobseekers or, at least, the number of people registered as such. In other words, it can lower politically – sensitive unemployment rates without requiring an increase in the total number of hours worked (Loutfi, 2001: 217).

Part time work may be an example of under employment, a response to unemployment, or an indirect form of exploitation. It may also fulfill particular function in an individual's life cycle; it can be a stepping-stone to full-time employment for young people, help for workers with family responsibilities and an option for older workers or those wishing to pursue an educational or leisure activity. Many women are forced into part-time work as the only way to combine a job with their domestic responsibilities. This is also true outside formal sector employment; millions of poor women have limited opportunities to increase their incomes because of their heavy domestic tasks and lack of access to services or technology that might relieve their burden. Were over half of those created in Australia, New Zealand, and Japan? In all countries, the majority of part-time workers are women, although there is a clear trend in most OECD countries for the numbers of men in part-time work 9as a proportion of all male employees)

7.3 DOWNSIZING AND JOB INSECURITY

"Downsizing has been accompanied by an increase in temporary and part time jobs in many countries. Temporary jobs are increasing more quickly than any other category of work temporary worker, apart from being cheat, enable firms to expand and

contract their workforces easily as determined by production requirements at any particular time. This is supposed to help the firms be competitive, as they don't have to pay for employees when they don't have work for them. For the same reason may firms rely on contracts, which do chunks of work for them as it becomes necessary. These contractors mainly use temporary workers, hire them and fire them as they get each contract" (Beder, 2000: 133).

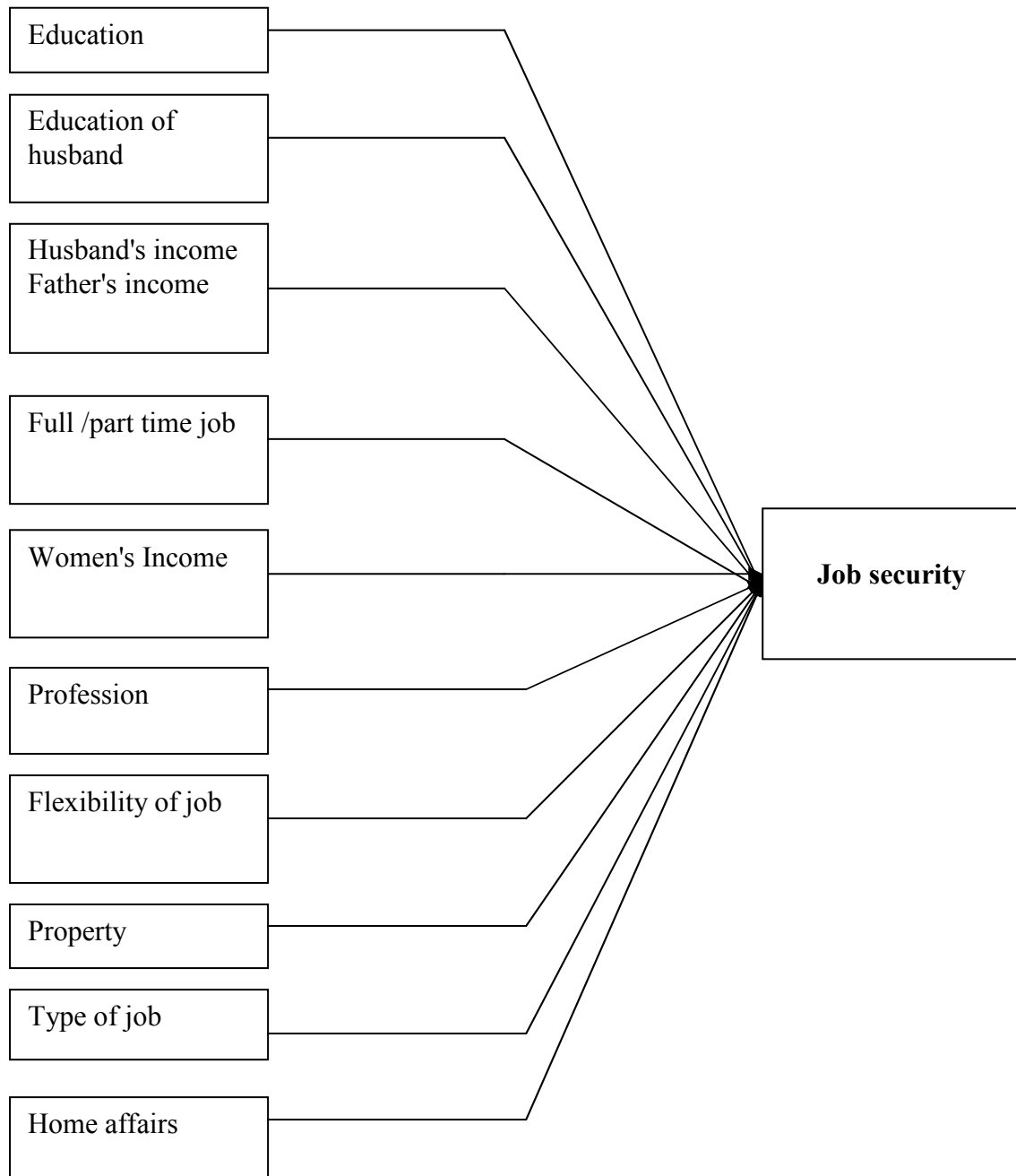
7.4 FLEXIBLE WORK AND FLEXIBLE EMPLOYMENT

The most common way of analyzing flexibility in the labor market and in production systems is to start with firms as the unit of analysis. In this framework, firms can pursue both internal flexibility and numerical flexibility. Internal or functional flexibility involves a series of labor practices that increase the ability of workers inside the firm to adjust to changing demands. It includes aspects such as polyvalent skills broad job categories; redeploy ability, teamwork, and so on. External flexibility or numerical flexibility is a series of practices that allows firms to take advantage of external relations, either to access specialized skills and expertise or to adjust to fluctuating labor demands. It includes practices such as high levels of employee turnover, the use of temporary and part-time employees, increased levels of subcontracting or use of home – workers. In addition, flexibility in both arenas may relate to trying to link wage rates and other forms of compensation schemes (piece-rate, incentive schemes, and so on), or simply on an individualized basis. Firm's pay wages determine hiring and firing decisions, and provide the bulk of training and career development opportunities. Public policy is most frequently centered on how to influence the behavior of firms and the consequences of particular policies for the ability of employers to compete (Sillicon & Banner, 2002: 21).

Employment flexibility, on the other hand allows greater leverage to adjust firms' production according to the market – which includes demand for products, technology and competition. The actual impact of flexible labor markets on total employment has been debates (Buchele & Christiansen, 1998:123).

7.5 OPERATIONAL MODEL

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES



8. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

8.1 TYPE OF STUDY

This research is conducted based on the survey method. Survey method is the best describing a population too large to be observed directly. Survey produces quantitative information about the social world and describe feature of people or the social world. The survey asks many people their beliefs, opinions, characteristics, and past or present behavior (Neumann, 1997: 228).

8.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Population of this study is all women employees in private hospitals of Shiraz except Doctors. According to the obtained information from medical Science University of Shiraz, there are 14 private hospitals in Shiraz, and total number of women employees (except doctors) in these hospitals is 1972 people. The sample size according to Cochran formula, from these 1972 people was 322.

The sample for doing this study was carried out through stratified sampling, and simple random sampling. In the event that there are diverse groups in the society at one variable, it should be dividing to these groups and allocated a proportion of those groups to sample. (Sarokhani, 1994: 101)

So because this society has variety of jobs such as nursery midwifery, staff, and so on, the stratified sampling has been used. Then for selecting sample from these hospitals a list from a list from hospitals has been provided one by one. And by simple random sampling sample has been chose for each stratum.

$$n = \frac{\frac{t^2 pq}{d^2}}{1 + \frac{1}{N} \left(\frac{t^2 pq}{d^2} - 1 \right)} \cong \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.50)(0.50)}{(0.5)^2} \cong 322$$
$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.5)(0.5)}{(0.5)^2} \cong 322$$

n= statistical sampling

N=statistical society (the number of women employees in private hospitals of Shiraz city)

d= probable precision or confidence interval

p= proportion of those which have a special variable in the sample population.

q= proportion of those which don't have a special variable in the sample population.

t= confidence coefficient at 95 percent significant

In the following table total number of society and the number of employees in each group has been shown.

Table.1. the number of employees in each job group

Number	Type of job	Proportion of total	Sample for each job
1	Nursery	869	142
2	Midwifery	195	32
3	Nurses aid	71	11
4	Laboratory	65	11
5	Pharmacy	14	2
6	Radiology	36	6
7	Surgery room	181	30
8	Staff	326	53
9	Secretary, typist, reception,	79	13
10	operator Services	136	22
Total		1972	322

The way of selecting sample for each job group was:

First each proportion has been divided to total number of society. Then obtained percent has been timed at total number of sample. At the end by using simple random sampling a list of number of women in each job group in each hospital has been provided and by using random table the sample has been chose.

8.3 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

The survey carried out by means of a self –administrated questionnaire. It includes close-ended questions. The questions are at the nominal, ordinal and interval scale. The number of questions is 36 which some of them are at likert scale. Reliability and validity of them has been calculated.

8.4 ANALYTICAL METHOD

The collected data will be analyzed descriptively and inferentially. The descriptive findings will be organized and presented in tables, graphs, scatter plots etc. The inferential findings will include univariate, bivariate. Appropriate statistical calculation will be applied by the use of SPSS, EXCEL, and the other new soft wares if it would be required.

8.5 MEASURES

Each information interviewed through a questionnaire that included some single as well as group of items to be combined for creating scale variables. The scale variables are indicators of "evaluation of job security among respondents" and "job flexibility".

To corroborate the validity of indicators, they were given to and revised by a number of experts of this study.

Following results obtained:

Evaluation of job security: for creation of this indicator there were 6 items in the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this indicator was 0.76.

Job flexibility: Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this indicator which has 5 items obtained 0.67.

9. FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

9.1 DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION

This information describes the variables such as age, education level, and any other relevant background information in the form of frequency distribution, percentage tables (column, percentage tables) by the use of univariate and bivariate descriptive statistics, graphs.

The sample of this study includes nurses, aid nurses, midwives, administration staff, and members of pharmacy, surgery, laboratory, radiology, typists, receptionists, secretaries, operators, and servants (Doctors have not been considered in this research).

From the education point of view the most frequency of the respondents 178 people (55.1%) had bachelor degrees, 69 people (21.4 %) had diplomas, 44 people

(13.6%) had upper diplomas, 28 people (8.7%) did not have diploma, and 3 people (.9%) had master degrees.

114 people out of 322. (35.4%) have been graduated from Azad University, 110 people (34.20%) have been graduated from governmental universities, and 4 people (.3%) have been graduated from Payame Noor University and other universities.

Out of 322 people, 195 people (60.6%) were married, 110 people (34.2) percent were single, 9 people (2.8) percent were divorced, and 5 people (1.6) percent of them were widows.

153 people out of the total number, (47.5%) had children, and 64 people (19.9 %) did not have children. 61 people (18.9 %) had 1 child, 57 people (17.7 percent) had 2 children, 13 people (.4 percent) had 3 children, and 2 people (.6 percent) had more than 3 children.

The respondent's property has been measured by considering whether or not they have houses, cars, land, stocks, savings, and gold. 58.4 percent had houses, 58.1 percent had cars, 75.2 percent had gold, 56.5 percent had savings, 22.4 percent had land, and 15.5 percent, had stocks.

161 people (50 percent) had an average income of 101-150000 toomans, 110 people (34.2 percent) had an average income of 151-200000 toomans, and 19 people (5.9 percent) had an average income of 50000-100000 toomans. 9 people (2.8 percent) had an average income of 201-250000 toomans, and 2 people (.6 percent) had an average income of 251-300000 toomans. As you can see the range of income among these women are pretty low.

187 people (57.1 percent) had private houses although it doesn't mean that these 187 people owned the houses. It is possible that their husbands had the ownership of the houses. 11 people (34.5 percent) had rental and mortgage houses, 15 people (4.7 percent) had governmental houses, and finally 4 people (1.2 percent) responded to category 4 which is the other cases, meaning that somebody might live in a house belonging to another person, for example father or husband's father.

The majority of respondents, 110 people were in the class "25-29" years old, 70 people were "30-34" years old, 41 people were "34-39", 36 people were "40-44" years old. 21 people were "45-49" years old. 14 people were "20-24" years old. And 16 people were "50-64" years old.

229 people (71.1 percent) worked full time, and 88 people (27.3 percent) worked part time.

It is indicated by the table (5. 2. 16) that there is low job security in our study sample. Actually perceived level of job security of respondents shows low security.

9.2 INFERENTIAL ANALYZIZ

In this part, effects of independent variables on dependent variable have been indicated by the use of Cross tabulation and Chi-Square test for some variables at the nominal and ordinal scales, and regression for some interval variables.

These hypotheses were tested by the chi square test, and the results have been showed in the following table.

Table.2. Testing Hypothesis by Chi Square

Hypothesis	Value	df	sig
Flexibility	13.284	4	.010
Full/part time job	6.511	2	.039
Husband's Education	8.125	5	.036
Type of job	18.459	6	.005
Women's Education	17.577	8	.025
Profession	26.007	2	.000

According to my findings an important factor is flexibility of work. According to feminist theories of employment, domestic labor leads to work flexibility. Women's work is not considered serious. When they are part time workers their responsibilities at work change simply in terms of employer's decision and the requirement of the workplaces. Lack of work stability leads to flexibility, and lack of promotion, which these affects job security. Regarding to significance of the chi square test for this hypothesis (.010) we can conclude that there is a negative relationship between flexibility and job security.

Part time or full time working is another important factor in women's employment it shaped by domestic labor theory according to feminist theory about women's employment. Also it affects job security because when women works part time, it usually means that her work is not so important and when the employer decides to

downsize the workforce, the job security of these women is at stake. As the above table shows the relationship between this variable and dependent variable is accepted.

Husband's education is also another factor that has been considered here as an effective factor. As I expected it plays an important role on independent variable so this hypotheses can be accepted. This variable also refers to women's social class theory. So husband's education affects their jobs and finally their income, which is one of the factors of women's social class.

The other important factor in the model of this study is the type of job. It is necessary to mention that in spite of significance of the relationship between type of study and job security in this study, the obtained number for showing this relation is not very strong and it is because of similarity of hospital jobs. But as a matter of fact, there is a different between jobs in the job security point of view.

Education has an affect on women's job security. It also plays an important role on women's employment. And the findings confirm the theory of women's education and their employment. So this hypothesis can be accepted.

Profession is one of the considerable factors affecting job security. Women's job security is more guaranteed when they have professional jobs. In this study as you can see the relation between profession and job security was confirmed and it has positive affect on dependent variable.

Table.3. Testing Hypothesis by Regression

Hypothesis	R Square	F	sig	Beta	t	sig
Property	.071	12.151	.001	.262	3.566	.000
Husband's Income	.062	7.666	.007	.268	2.769	.007
Father's Income	.015	4.372	.018	.121	2.15	.031
Home affairs	.054	10.035	.002	-.232	-3.168	.002
Women's Income	.001	.141	.707	.024	.376	.707

Property is another accepted effective factor on women's job security in this study. This variable refers to women's social class theory. It explains that women at high level of social class have better jobs than women of lower classes. According to theory of dual labor market of women, primary jobs have better conditions. A job is called appropriate when there is security, stability, and good future. People in higher social class have better educations, better relationship, and more influence, the total of these factors leads to job stability.

Husband's income is another effective factor on women's job security. So when husband's income increases, women's job security also increases. It refers to women's social class theory. This theory mentions that women actually do not belong to a certain class without considering their husband's and father's social status. So as I expected it has affect on the dependent variable.

According to women's social class theory, father's income is an affective factor on women's job security. But in this study doesn't play any role as an independent variable. It refers to the fact that the majority of respondents married and most of the single people didn't answer this question.

Home affaires as mentioned before are another important factor in women's job security. When women's responsibilities at home increase they must pay attention to them as a wife or mother and spend a lot of their time for doing those responsibilities. It has a negative effect on their work and finally on their job security. In other words, they can not work when their mind is preoccupied by home affairs. In this study as we predicted there is a negative relationship between this variable and job security.

And finally my study shows that women's income is not an effect factor in job security. The reason is that a high income does not necessarily guaranties job continuity. In addition income of these respondents was not so high to enable us to measure its effect.

10. CONCLUDING REMARKS

As mentioned before job security among the respondents is low. So that, perceived level of job security among 87.9 percent of the respondent is low.

This study has some similarity and differences with the pervious studies in the literature review

Literature 5 performed by Clark (1995) titled, “Job satisfaction and gender: why are women so happy at work?” concluded that, women’s jobs are worse than men’s, yet women report higher levels of job satisfaction than men. The difference between this finding and present study is that, the level of satisfaction among my sample should be low because job security is an indicator for satisfaction. But as a matter of fact the this hypothesis is supported by the finding that the gender satisfaction differential disappears for the young, the higher –educated, professionals and those in male dominated workplaces.

Also the literature number 6 performed by Callan, J (1995) indicated that women are in general, satisfied with their careers and do not intend to leave the security field. Because they do not believe that they have the same chances for promotion. This finding show satisfaction regarding women's believes towards their differences with men. They accept gender inequalities and justify their expectations, for being satisfaction. Hence the mentioned finding is not very reliable. It seems that for obtain better responses from women first they must be empowered and recognize their rights.

Literature number 9 suggests women want on effective industrial rights such as secure and regular hours of work, equal pay, and to balance work and family responsibilities. Women need trade unions to be free to represent them effectively. So this study supports one of the hypotheses about women responsibility and home affairs.

Literature number 10 which has performed by Dasgupta (2001) in titled “Employment security: conceptual and statistical issues” the same as this study, reveal that as labor markets become more flexible, employment security is negatively affected, Protected formal employment has fallen, and various kinds of non-standard employment have emerged. This paper explores some conceptual and related empirical issues surrounding employment security in the light of recent developments in the labor market. Literature number 9 suggests women want on effective industrial rights such as secure and regular hours of work, equal pay, and to balance work and family responsibilities. Women need trade unions to be free to represent them effectively. So this study supports one of the hypotheses about women responsibility and home affairs.

There are some reasons why we observe low level of job security in Iran:

The first reason is that our country is a developing country and we face unemployment the same as other developing countries do. As a whole regardless of being a woman or man the labor market in Iran is not stable so it affects employment security especially in private sector.

In addition private sector has its own obstacles. The employees in the private sector are threatened by employer's decisions. Any change in workplace strategies first affects employees work. They are victims of employer's decisions. Because the private system acts almost independently and has its own laws about work and employee's rights.

Religious backgrounds and traditional attitudes towards women, their family role and responsibilities, have set a distinct role for the women in the society. So women's employment and their job security are not considered very important. There are some ways and recommendations for improving possibility of work and making stable work for women.

11. RECOMMENDATIONS

11.1 TO POLICY MAKERS

1. Making plans for raising women's education and creation of education opportunities.
 2. Creation of job opportunities for women.
 3. Empowering women financially and providing credit to them.
 4. Providing on the job training for the women.
 5. Establishing NGOs to support women's right in the workplace.
 6. Changing men's attitudes toward women's employment.
 7. Changing men's attitudes toward home affairs so that women can share domestic responsibilities with men.
 8. Revising employment laws and eliminating discriminatory laws.
 9. Modification to make women working hours flexible.
 10. Modification to the physical conditions of the workplace.
- Providing welfare and supporting the women employees financially

11.2 FOR FURTHER RESEARCHES

1. Studying women's job security in the governmental sector and comparing it with the private sector.
2. It is strongly recommended that comparison between women's and men's job security to be further explored.
3. Studying women's job security in comparison with developed countries.
4. Exploring practical approaches for increasing job security among women.

REFERENCES

- Abbott, P. & C. Wallace (1990). *Sociology, Feminist Perspectives*. USA and Canada: Rutledge.
- Alicia, S. & M. Leung. "Gender and Career Experience in Mainland China's State-owned". *Persona review*. 2002 [Online]. <http://proquest.umi.com/pqd-web?> [22.11.2004].
- Beder, Sh. (2000). *Selling the Work Ethic: From Puritan to Corporate*. The first publishing, London: Zed Books Ltd.
- Bagguley, p. (1991). *From Protest to Acquiescence: Political Movement of the Unemployed* (London, MCMillan).
- Buchele, R. & J. Christansen (1998). "Do employment and income security cause unemployment? A comparative study of the US and the E-4' in Cambridge" *Journal of Economics* (Cambridge) Vol. 22, No. 1.
- Callan, J. M. "Women in Security Management: A Status Report". *Security journal*. Vol: 6, Issue: 3. English: ElsevierScience. 2002. [Online]. <<http://elsevier.rose-net.co.ir/cgi/sciserv.?collection=journalsjournal> [22.11.2004].
- Cappelli, P. (1995). "Rethinking Employment" *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 33, 4: 563 602.
- Cazes, S. & A. Nesporara (2003). *Labor Market in Transition: Balancing Flexibility and Security in Central and Eastern Europe*, Geneva: international Labor Office
- Clark, A. E. "Job Satisfaction and Gender: Why Are Women So Happy at Work?". Elsevier science 1997. [Online]. <http://elsevier.rose-net.co.ir/cgi-bin/sciserv.pl?collection=journals_journal>.[10/11/2004].
- Cranfield Network. (1997). *Working Time and Contract Flesibility in the EU* (Cranfield University School of Management).
- Dusqupta, S. "Employment Security: Conceptual and Statistical Issues" Geneva: International Labour Office 2001. [Online].<<http://www.ilo.org/ses> [12.3.2005]
- George, J. "Australian Women Deserve Better: A Satellite Discussion". Australia: Actupresident 1998. [Online].<<http://www.actu.asn.au/public/news/files/austwomen-ddjdjulb.rtf>>. [22, Oct, 2004].

- Gregg, P. Kinght, G and Wadsworth, J. (1997). *Heaven Knows I'm Miserable Now: Job Insecurity in the British Labour Market' Working Paper No. 892*, London: Centre for Economic Performance, London School of Economics.
- Herry, e. & J. Salmon (2000). *The Insecure Workforce*, UK: Northampton
- Hicks, H. G. & C. R. Gullett (1975). *Organizations: Theory and Behavior*. New York: McGraw Hill, Inc.
- Kar, M. (1994). *Women in the Labour Market of Iran: Theories of Gender Inequalities*. Tehran: Roshangaran.
- Khaleghi, F. (1997). "A survey of Job Security among Personnel of Education Ministry". M. A. Thesis, Department of Management, *Tehran University*, Tehran Iran.
- Kuhnert, K. W. & D. R. Palmore (1991). "Job insecurity Health and the Intrinsic and Extrinsic Characteristics of Work". *Group and organization studies*. vol. 16, No.2.
- Loutfi, M & Fetherolf (2001). *Women, Gender and Work: What is Equality and How Do We Get There?*. Geneva, International Labour office.
- Marshall, G. (1998). *Dictionary of Sociology*. Oxford: Oxford University.
- MehrFarhang Institution. (1999). *A Survey on Job Security among Governmental Eemployees*. Tehran: Mehr Farhang Institution.
- Moorhead, G. & R. W. Griffin (1989). *Organizational Behavior*. USA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Newman, W. (1997). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. United States of America: Allyn and Bacon inc.
- OECD, (1994). *Labour Market Trends and Underlying Forces of Changes in the OECD Jobs Study Evidence and Explanations Part 1*(Paris, OECD).
- Posner, R A. (1989). "Some Economies of Labour Low" in university of Chicago law Review (Chicago), Vol. 51.
- Roskies, E. & C. Louis (1990). "Job Insecurity in Managers: Antecedent and Consequence". *Journal of Organization Behavior*. Vol. 11, 345-359.
- Sarookhani, B. (1994). *Research Methods in the Social Science*. Tehran: Human science and cultural studies center.
- Sengenberger, W. (1992). "Revising the Legal and Institutional Framework for Employment Security: An International Comparative Perspective', in

- Koshiro, K. (ed) *Employment Security and Labour Market Flexibility* (Detroit, Wayne State University Press).
- Silicon, V. & C. Banner (2002). *Work in the New Economy; Flexible Labor Markets*. USA: Blackwell publishing.
- Statt, D. A, (1991). *The Concise Dictionary of Management*. The first publishing, USA: Rutledge.
- Tahira, M. (2003). "Development and Validation of the Job Security Index and Classical Test Theory and IRT Approach". *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, vol. 76, pp. 451-467.
- Vieitez, J. C & A. Carcia. (2001). "Perception of Job Security in a Process of Technological Change: Its Influence on Psychological Well-being". *Behaviour & Information Technolog*, vol. 20, No. 3, 213-223

**A SURVEY ON SOCIAL EFFECTIVE FACTORS ON
WOMEN'S JOB SECURITY
A CASE STUDY OF PRIVATE HOSPITALS OF SHIRAZ (IRAN)**

By:
AREZOU SAYADI

IN
POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT
SHIRAZ UNIVERSITY
SHIRAZ
IRAN

ABSTRACT

SOCIAL EFFECTIVE FACTORS ON WOMEN'S JOB SECURITY IN THE PRIVATE HOSPITALS OF SHIRAZ

By:

AREZOU SAYADI SAMANI

This study examines the effect of social factors on women's job security among women employed in private hospitals of Shiraz. A sample of 322 women was interviewed during May 2005. The information collected related to social class, job factors such as flexibility of work, part time or full time working, profession and home affairs. Findings of the study reveal that job security in target population is determined by women's education, their husband's education, women's income, husband's income, father's income, property and home affairs. Job security is also influenced by profession, part or full time job, job flexibility and type of job. Regarding the findings of the present study and reviewing the condition of job security, it is concluded that perceived level of job security among the respondents is low.