AN INTRODUCTION

TO RESEARCH ON WORK-FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS:

A COLLECTION OF "TOP TENS"

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Within the realm of the study of families and children, work and family issues are relevant almost at every turn. Work conditions have been linked to our individual well-being, the quality of our relationships, and the life chances and socialization of our children. In the Department of Child Development and Family Studies at Purdue University, the relationship between work and family life has been a focus of faculty research, student education, and departmental outreach for many years.

This annotated bibliography was created by the graduate and undergraduate students of CDFS541: Work-Family Relationships during the spring semester of 1994. The goals of this course were to provide students with opportunities to become familiar with current perspectives and investigations of the relationships between jobs and family life; to consider these relationships in the context of race, class and gender; to consider public and private policy implications of work-family issues; and to locate information about work and family from both familiar and unfamiliar sources. Students divided the work-family literature into several topics and then searched as many library sources as they could find to identify the top ten books, articles or chapters published from 1984-1994. Each student also prepared a demographic introduction providing a statistical background to the topic. The criteria for inclusion in the "top ten" were one or more of the following: substantive importance (i.e., takes the field forward significantly); innovativeness (i.e., proposes ideas, methods or findings that are new or put together in a new way); and influential (i.e., widely cited and referred to by others as important).

My role in the process was to serve as a consultant regarding places to look and choosing from among the many resources located. I also reviewed and edited or revised each section of the bibliography, combined the demographic material into a single chapter, and wrote the final chapter of this document.

I am grateful to Suzanne, Kevin, Amy, Gyesook, Peg, Jennifer, and Christy for their willingness to engage in such an ambitious and new adventure. Gail Melson and Susan Kontos also worked hard to ensure that the CDFS541 students could be fully involved in the Hoosier Family Policy Summit II, which inspired this project. We hope that this bibliography will be useful for practitioners, policy makers, teachers, students, and others who want to quickly become familiar with the range of ideas which have emerged from the study of relationships between jobs and family life.
CHAPTER TWO

THE LAY OF THE LAND

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Labor Force Participation

During this century, women have been entering the labor force in large numbers. Between 1960 and 1992, the labor force participation of single women increased from 44% to almost 65% (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993). The percentage of married women in the labor force increased from almost 31% to 59% during this same period. The percentage of widowed, divorced or separated working women increased from 40% in 1960 to 46% in 1992. Married women's labor force participation historically has differed across ethnic groups. In 1980, almost 61% of married African American women were in the labor force, compared to 48% of European American women and 45% of U.S. Puerto Rican women (Amott & Matthaei, 1991). These differences in labor force participation rates by ethnic group have existed since 1920.

Labor force participation rates vary by both race and gender: Hispanic males have the highest labor force participation rates (both current and projected), while Hispanic females have the lowest participation rates. White females have the second lowest labor force participation rate, but it is still 57.8% (compared with 27.5% in 1970). Married men have the highest overall labor force participation rates (77.6%), followed by single men (74.6%) and other–marital status men (68%). Among women, single women have the highest labor force participation rate (66.4%), but nearly 60% of married women were in the labor force in 1992 resulting in a large number of dual–earner or non–traditional earner families.

Husband and wife dual–earner families made up almost 37% of all working families in 1992, and made up almost 50% of families among married couples (compared to 32% of overall families and 38% of married couples in 1980). The modal family type is now two or more earners in the family (50.0% of all working families and 64.4% of all married couples in 1992 were dual–earner, compared to 27.6% of the total working families having just one earner). The trend is similar in Black and Hispanic families, with one–earner families comprising only 17% of employed Black families. Given the income levels of dual–earner families and the economic hardships that many families endure, it seems likely that the percentage of dual–earner couples will continue to increase.

The increase in married women's labor participation has been dramatic and it has affected society, particularly because now many women are in the labor force when their children are very young. In fact, between 1960 and 1992, the number of working married women with children under 6 years of age almost tripled (from 2.5 million to 7.3 million). The number of employed married women with children between the ages of 6 and 17 doubled from 4.1 million to 9.5 million between 1960 and 1992. Seventy percent of all ever–married women with children ages 3 to 5 worked full time in 1988, and almost thirty percent worked part–time (Bureau of
Labor Statistics, 1989). In 1988, almost 68% of ever–married women with children under 3 worked full time (35 hours or more per week), and 33% worked part time. Many married women are no longer staying home with their children, and have decided to combine their family and work roles.

Marriage

Approximately 61 percent of the population in the United States is currently married (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993), although rates of marriage differ by race and gender. Whites are more likely than Blacks to be married (63.5% vs. 43%, respectively), and less likely than Blacks to be divorced (8.6% vs. 10.8%) or never married (20.5% vs. 37.4%). Hispanics= marriage rates are similar to those of Whites (60.3%).

There are more single–parent families today than ever before. Between 1980 and 1992, the percentage of family households decreased, while the percentage of single–parent and single adult households increased (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993).

Obviously, because more married women are now in the labor force, the face of the American family has changed as well. The number of traditional families with the husband as sole provider is decreasing. In 1989, there were 25.2 million two–earner families in the United States (Bureau of National Affairs, 1989). Of those, 14.1 million have children under 18. In 1990, 28 percent of married-couple families with children had both husbands and wives who worked year-round full-time. About the same proportion (30 percent) had husbands who worked year-round full-time and wives who worked part-time. A substantially smaller proportion of married-couple families with related children (21 percent) had husbands who worked year-round full-time and wives who did not work. A similar proportion (21 percent) had husbands who worked part-time or who did not work. Most female householder families with children had householders who worked. In addition, in some of these households the householder did not work but another household member did work. However, substantial proportions of female householder families with children had no one in the home who had worked during the previous year.

Earnings

The median incomes of married-couple families with children differed greatly depending on whether the husband worked, on whether the wife worked, and on how much the wife worked. Incomes were highest in married-couple families with children in which both the husband and wife worked year-round full-time. They were lowest in married-couple families with children in which the husband did not work. In families with wives who did not work, however, median incomes were much lower regardless of the work experience of the husband.

Many families cannot earn enough to cover basic expenses, and are below poverty level (approximately 14%). Dual–earner families earn much more ($913) than single-earner families ($546 if the husband is employed; $282 if the single earner is a wife) and many families can survive only with two earners. Among married couples in the U.S., 35.6% are single earner, and 64.4% are two or more earner (47.3% husband and wife–only dual–earner families). These rates are almost identical for White families, but for Black families, only 52.5% of working families
are married couples. Of those married couples, only 32.9% are single–earner, 67% are two or more earner, with 48.7% husband and wife–only dual–earner families. Among Hispanics, 78.6% are married couples, 41.4% single earner, 58.6% two or more earner, and 35.9% husband and wife–only dual earner. Across the board, two or more earner families have higher weekly earnings ($942), with dual–earner (husband and wife) close behind ($913). In couples where the single earner is the wife, the highest income (Whites) was $296 a week ($265 less than their white male counterparts). Hispanic women as single earners only took in $264 a week in 1992. Blacks make about 66.7% of Whites overall median income, and Hispanics make about 69.3% of Whites overall median income.

Childbearing and Rearing

Eighty percent of women in their prime childbearing years (ages 25–44) will be in the labor force by the turn of the century (Bureau of National Affairs, 1989). Information on women's maternity leave patterns indicate that older women, white women, and women with more years of schooling are more likely to work during their first pregnancy than are other women (Bureau of the Census, 1990). The proportion of expectant mothers who worked during their pregnancy increased by almost 20 percentage points between 1961–65 and 1981–85. There has been an increase in the percentage of women taking maternity leave, sick leave or unpaid leave of absence since the 1960's. By 1981–1985, almost 47% of women took this type of leave, compared to 16% in the early 1960's.

In addition, fewer women (about 28%) quit their job either during or after pregnancy in 1981–1985 (Bureau of the Census, 1990). More than twice that many did so in the early 1960's. Women over 25 at first birth, full time workers and women who worked in their last trimester of pregnancy were the least likely to quit work during their pregnancy. There are no significant differences by race in taking maternity leave or unpaid leave or quitting work. However, black women were twice as likely as white women to be let go from work when pregnant (these figures are 8.7% and 4.2%, respectively). Women are returning to work very soon after the birth of their child. In 1981–1985, 44% of women had returned to work 6 months after childbirth and 53% had by 12 months after childbirth. These figures can be compared to the early 1960's when only 14% of mothers had returned to work by the sixth month and 17% by the twelfth month.

Most children of elementary school age spend much of the day in school. But where do younger children stay when their parents are at work? Care was provided in the child's home or the provider's home for over half of employed mothers with children 3 and 4 years old in 1987. Day care / nursery school was the arrangement used by 34 percent of employed women with children 3 and 4 years old in 1987. Almost three-fourths of employed mothers with 1- and 2-year-olds and similarly 70 percent of those with a child under 1 year old had care provided at the child's home or at the provider's home. Caring for family members, whether they be children or aging parents, can result in absences from work. Women are still responsible for providing most of the family care (Bureau of the Census, 1989). Fifty–five percent of elderly caregivers work outside the home and of these 38% report losing time at work because of their elder care duties. In addition, an estimated $100 billion in earnings are lost annually when trained and experienced workers are absent from work for more than fifty hours due to their own or a family member's illness.
The increase in labor force participation among mothers with preschool children was not limited to mothers with older preschoolers. By 1990, 53 percent of women 18 to 44 years old who had given birth within the last 12 months were in the labor force. Only 14 years earlier, in 1976, the proportion of women with children under age 1 who were in the labor force was only 31 percent. The rapid increase in the proportion of women with infants who were in the labor force has produced a corresponding increase in the demand for child care for children under age 1.

Unpaid Family Work

Family work can be defined as anything outside of paid employment from cooking and doing the laundry to child care and elder care. However, "women will be the major source of new entrants into the labor force by the year 2000, accounting for 63 percent of the net labor force growth" (Women=s Bureau at the U.S. Department of Labor, as cited in BAN, p. 1). If women will be spending more time in the labor force, who will be doing most of the family work? Will men share these responsibilities, or are they already doing so? Categories were developed by the Survey Research Center of Maryland so that housework could be split into eight categories (Robinson, 1988). Cooking, cleaning house, laundry, and clothing care were seen as women=s household activities; outdoor work and home repairs were seen as men=s household activities; and two activities that are seen as shared housework are pet care and managing finances. Traditionally, women performed all eight household tasks. However, from 1965 to 1985 the percentage of women performing the eight household tasks dropped by almost 20 percent. In detail, A women did 85 percent of all eight household tasks in 1965,...and by 1985 their burden had dropped to 67 percent@ (Robinson, p.26). Men contributed to the decrease in time women spent on family work by participating in more of the tasks, such as cooking, cleaning, and laundry, that were typically viewed as women=s activities.

Single men and women and families without children vary in the amount of time they spend on housework tasks. In 1985 single women spent approximately eight hours less on housework compared to married women. Overall, married men and women perform approximately 40 percent more household tasks than single men and single women (Robinson, 1988). Another family form that spends less time devoted to housework is the childless family. AWomen with children do more housework than women without children, although the differences are narrowing@ (Robinson, p.27).

The Special Case of Single Parent Families

Family structures in the U.S. have dramatically changed over the past 30 years. In the 1960s the traditional nuclear family was considered the norm, and was characterized by a father who supported his family by working, and a mother taking full-time care of the home and children. Today, family structure has become more diverse, and includes traditional families as well as, dual-earner families, stepparent families, househusband families, gay families, communal families, childless couple families, and single parent families (Edmondson, B., Waldrop, J., Crispell, D., & Jacobsen, L. 1993).

The Increase in Single-Parent Groups and Households
From 1970 to 1988 the number of one-parent family groups more than doubled from 3.8 million to 9.4 million. Of these, 3.2 million were classified as one-parent family households in 1970. In 1988, 7.3 million were one-parent family households (Rawlings, 1988). The estimate of one-parent family households in 1990 was 7,752 million, with a projection of 8,761 million by 1995 (Edmondson, et al. 1993).

With regard to the racial composition of one-parent families, although almost two-thirds of single parents are classified as White, one-parent family groups are more prevalent among Blacks than Whites. In 1990, about 60 percent of all Black family groups with children under age 18 present were single-parents, compared with about 20 percent for Whites. Among Hispanic family groups in 1990, single parents represented about 32 percent of those in which children under 18 were present, percentage wise falling between White and Black family groups (Current Population Reports, 1992).

Gender Composition of Single-Parent Households and Groups

The vast majority of one-parent family groups are maintained by the mother. There were an estimated 8.1 million mother-child families in 1988. These single mothers accounted for about 87 percent of all single-parents. The incidence of single-fathers was higher among Whites than Blacks. The percentage of one-parent family groups maintained by White single-fathers has increased from 12 percent of all White single-parents in 1980 to 16 percent in 1988; but the corresponding proportion among Blacks was about 6 percent in both 1980 and 1988. Of the estimated 1.2 million one-parent family groups maintained by a lone father in 1988 about 81 percent of them were White. This figure suggests that very few minority fathers are maintaining the family group (Rawlings, 1988). In 1990, the percentage of single-mother family households was estimated to be 85 percent with about 15 percent single-father family households. By 1995, it is estimated that about 83 percent of single-parent family households will be mothers, leaving about 17 percent single-parent fathers. These estimates reflect the growing number of single-fathers who are maintaining single-parent households. It is expected that in the next two decades single-fathers will grow more than twice as fast as single mothers. The number of single fathers could grow 44 percent between 1990 and 2010. It is probably safe to assume that the great percentage of these single-fathers will continue to be White (Edmondson et al. 1993).

Single-fathers tend to be older than single-mothers, because most of them become single-parents through divorce rather than having a child out of wedlock. Currently, 62 percent of single-fathers are aged 35 and older, compared with 48 percent of single-mothers (Edmondson, et al. 1993).

Single-Parent Educational Level and Income

The parent's educational level is an important aspect of the socioeconomic profile of children and their families. Children in single-parent families are more likely to live with a parent who has not completed high school than children in two-parent situations. For example, in 1990, the proportion of children living with a parent who had not completed high school was 30.1 percent among those in single-parent family groups versus only 16.1 percent of children in two-parent family groups. Further, children living with two parents have a greater likelihood of having a
parent who is a college graduate than do children with an absent parent. In 1990, about 27.1 percent of children with both parents present were in families maintained by a parent who had completed 4 or more years of college, but the corresponding proportion for children who lived with single parents was only 8.5 percent (Current Population Reports, 1992). If the single-parent was the child's father, the college-educated proportion was 14 percent, still well below the proportion for children living with both parents. In addition, among White children, 29 percent of those with just one parent present in 1988, had parents who had not completed high school, compared with 39 percent of Black children, and 60 percent of Hispanic children (Hispanic children may be of any race). Clearly, to the extent that the parent's educational level is an important determinant of a child's general well-being, children in one-parent situations are at a disadvantage (Rawlings, 1988).

Single-parents with low educational levels, are at a great disadvantage in competing for and holding good jobs. In 1988 about 84 percent of children living with both parents had a parent who was employed full-time, compared with only 42 percent of children living with the mother alone. However, only 12 percent of children living with both parents were in a setting where the householder was unemployed or not in the labor force, but the proportion among children with single mothers was about four times higher or 48 percent (Rawling, 1988).

In 1988 among Black children living with single mothers, only 34 percent had a mother who was employed full time, while the majority (58 percent) lived with a mother who was either unemployed or not in the labor force. Of Hispanic children with single-mothers, 29 percent had a mother working full-time, an even lower percentage than for Whites or Blacks (Rawlings, 1988).

In 1990 children living with two parents were more likely than children in a single parent family to be living with a parent who had 4 or more years of college, who was employed, who had higher income, and who was a homeowner. Of the 46.5 million children under 18 living with two parents, 27 percent had an employed parent, 49 percent had family income of $40,000 or more, and 73 percent lived in a home their parents owned. Conversely, of the 15.9 million children under 18 living with one parent, 9 percent had a parent with 4 or more years of college, 58 percent had an employed parent, 11 percent had family income of $40,000 or more, and 35 percent lived in a home their parent owned (Current Population Reports, 1992).

To conclude, based on the demographic profile outlined above, the "single-parent family" can be thought of as a mother, divorced or never married, who is poorly educated, and whose family is impoverished because of her inability to find a job at an income level that is adequate to sustain a decent standard of living. The current data indicate that a large number of single-parent families are seriously disadvantaged in a number of ways when compared to two-parent families.

However, it should be considered that single-parent families encompass a wide spectrum of possibilities, and differ among themselves. Very little research has approached the single-parent family from the perspective of strength and diversity. As a result, all that is known about single-parenting is based on comparisons of single-parent families with two-parent families. Future research and demographic analyses will also need to consider this family structure from a perspective other than a "deficit model."
Workplace Policies and Practices

As corporations expand and the number of mothers in the workforce grow, it becomes increasingly necessary for companies to provide benefits for all of their employees to aid them with their family responsibilities. Benefits provided by companies to help working parents may include on-site/near-site child care, day care for sick children, maternity/paternity leave (paid or unpaid), job sharing, parenting seminars, spousal relocation assistance, or help with the care of elderly dependents (Bureau of National Affairs, 1988). A summary of the available benefits offered by small, medium, and large private establishments can be seen in annual summaries in the Statistical Abstracts of the United States (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1993).

According to the Statistical Abstracts of 1993, the labor participation rate of married women with children under six years old in 1992 was 59.9. Some of the family-friendly benefits available to these mothers and other men and women in the workforce in 1992 can be seen in a survey of 1,026 employers during this time (Data Watch, 1993). Of these, only 10% provided child care centers for their employees; however, 93% provided dependent care spending accounts. Forty-three percent provided child care assistance, 58% provided flexible scheduling, 63% provided parental leave, 56% provided medical leave, and 15% provided adoption assistance (Data Watch, 1993).

Alternative schedules were used by these companies in 1992 with 73% of these companies providing flextime, 67% providing the option of part-time employment, 32% providing job-sharing, and 21% providing compressed work schedules (Data Watch, 1993). Alternatives to the traditional work schedule give employees a chance to pick the schedule that best fits their needs. Other benefits provided by these employers included paid and unpaid leave. Of the twenty companies that provided paid leave, 85% provided it for either parent. Ninety-one percent of the 641 employers that provided unpaid leave provided it for either parent (Data Watch, 1993).

The increasing number of mothers in the workforce is not the only cause for the need of the development of family-friendly benefits. Changes in the make-up of the population also influence this development. In 1992, 54% of women 18-44 years old in the labor force had bore a child in the last year, thus increasing the number of children needing child care and related benefits (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1993).

Also individuals who were 65 years old in 1990 are expected to live on the average until they are 82 years old. Those who were 70 years old in 1990 are expected to live to 84 years old. With advancements in technology people are able to live longer and thus our aged population is growing. Many of these elderly individuals will eventually require some kind of dependent care due to illness or injury. Corporations willing to implement family-friendly benefits focused on eldercare would be taking care of their employees by recognizing the inevitable aging of society.
References


CHAPTER THREE

HOW FAMILY LIFE AFFECTS MEN AND WOMEN AT WORK

Suzanne Cook


This longitudinal study examines how household responsibilities affect the work effort of employees, with work effort defined as the effort that men and women employees devote to work outside the home. The researchers test the assumption that women allocate less effort to work because of their family and household responsibilities. Subjects were 531 women and 938 men. Findings indicate that women allot more effort to their work activities than men do, even when they are in comparable family situations. Although women with preschool-aged children devote less effort to work than do other women, the effort devoted by these mothers is comparable to that of men who do not have any child care responsibilities. The researchers discuss the findings in terms of human capital theory. This study was chosen to be among the top ten annotations because it was widely cited and innovative. It is also an important study because it expands on previous research that examines possible reasons for differences in men's and women's socioeconomic attainments.


This chapter is a study that investigates the overlap of work and family stress among 389 married, employed working class women. It also looks at the potential health consequences of work–family stress for these women. Findings indicate that the majority of women reported stress from either or both work and family domains, with slightly more than half reporting spillover in both directions. Women reporting spillover were younger and somewhat more educated than women not experiencing spillover. They were also under more job strain, experienced less co–worker support and were under more marital strain than those stating they did not experience spillover. In fact, women reporting only work-to-family spillover reported the most job strain. Those reporting only family-to-work spillover were most likely to report marital strain. The women experiencing spillover in both directions were more likely to report more depression, more anxiety–related problems and poorer health and health habits than were other women. This study is among the top ten because it looks at a large sample of working class women. It is also important because it attempts to look for any patterns of spillover that these women experienced. Finally, it fills a gap in the literature by examining the relationship between work and family spillover and women's health.

This article discusses the reaction to F. Schwartz's (1989) identification of a "mommy track" and asks whether there is also a "daddy track." It then describes what organizations can do to promote work and family balance. The author argues that a "daddy track" does exist, based on research that shows men are juggling family and career issues. He argues that while women spend more time on childcare than do men, men spend significant amounts of time caring for their children and therefore, men's careers are affected by their parental responsibilities. Data are cited that support the argument that men are able to spend time on family responsibilities while staying in the fast–track through the use of a highly refined balancing strategy. The author views this as an "invisible daddy track", where fathers keep their child care and family responsibilities to themselves while maintaining a fast–track career. This is because men want to be seen as dedicated and committed workers, and doing otherwise would jeopardize their future career success. The author argues that workers can learn new ways to balance work and family by observing men's methods of balancing work and family demands. Finally, the author offers ways that organizations and top management can promote work/family balance. Some of the suggestions include: top management should examine its own values and basic assumptions about what a good executive is, what a good parent is and what a good career is; top management should focus on how successful its executive succession-planning process is in advancing women; and top management should create a task force on work/family issues to promote a corporate wide dialogue about work and family life. This article was chosen because it is innovative and substantively important: it analyzes how men's family lives influence their work and offers suggestions for organizations to help working men and women.


This article reviews research on work and family issues. Three current theories of work and family linkages-- segmentation, compensation and spillover-- are described. These three theories are then considered and critiqued in light of the research literature. The author concludes that all three processes operate to link work and family, and that these processes occur simultaneously. The author also demonstrates how the effects of spillover are not only both direct and indirect but also both objective and subjective. The author argues that the process of accommodation should be added to the three current theories because it seems to fit women's experience of work and family life more accurately. The author provides formal models of the processes involved in segmentation, spillover and compensation. In this revised model, the process of accommodation is tied to the process of compensation because both processes result in an imbalance between work and family. Recommendations for future research are also made. For example, Lambert stresses the need for longitudinal research of these processes in order to determine which job and household characteristics are related to which process(es) and the subsequent effects on work and home life. This is an important and innovative article because it expands on previous theories about work and family interaction by presenting new ideas to improve these theories. In addition, this article is widely cited.

This study investigates the relationships among family–related variables which may be associated with work–family conflict for 156 working men and women living in single-earner, dual-earner, and single-parent families. The authors examined three categories of family–related antecedants of conflict: time–based, strain–based, and behavior–based. Time–based antecedents refer to those factors that require someone to spend large amounts of time in family activities, such as the presence of children or having a spouse who works long hours. Strain–based antecedents are those variables that can produce symptoms of anxiety, fatigue or tension, such as conflict within the family and lack of spouse support. Behavior–based antecedents refer to incompatible expectations for appropriate behavior in family roles versus work roles. The types of work and family conflict examined were family intrusions on work, total role involvement at work and at home, time conflict, strain conflict and behavior or role conflict. Findings indicated that women experience more time–based conflict than men do, with women being more likely to be members of dual–income families and to report that their spouses worked a greater number of hours per week. Family variables were most strongly related to strain-based conflict and explained more variance in work–family conflict for men than for women. Family conflict was significantly related to time-based (for women) and strain-based (for both men and women) conflict between work and family. Family intrusions were related to time–based conflict for men and to strain–based conflict for women. Finally, total role role involvement was related to time–based conflict for men only. This study in among the top ten annotations because it has a sample of many different types of families and it expands upon previous research in this area. Also, it looks at both male and female employees.


This book chapter reviews research on the influence of families on work by focusing on four areas: family influences on 1) labor force participation, 2) occupational aspirations and career development, 3) work–place attitudes and performance, and 4) business programs and policies. Research from the 1930's through 1990 is examined. Decade reviews describe research trends for each decade. There has been a steady increase in the amount and quality of research on the influence of family–related variables on work. Research on labor force participation has remained fairly constant during the time period, with a slight increase in the 1970's. Interest in occupational choice peaked in 1950 and has been declining since except for research on family influences on the development of sex role attitudes and the impact of these attitudes on decisions to work and on career choice. Research on work–place attitudes and performance and on workplace programs and policies has been expanding rapidly. The variety of family–related variables examined also has increased over the 60 year period. The author concludes that the evidence is overwhelming that family variables influence work. This chapter is among the top ten annotations because it provides a comprehensive review of the literature from 1930–1990.

The researchers interviewed 899 men and women responsible for the majority of household management in their home–based work families. Single adult, single–parent, spousal and full–nest families were included in the sample. A variety of family–related variables and work–related variables and their relationship to restructuring work and to work–family conflict was examined. Findings indicate that women in single–parent and full–nest families do the most restructuring of work time and work space. Female home–based workers also generate significantly less income from work than do males. Male home–based workers report less conflict between family and work scheduling. They are also more likely to receive help with their home–based work from either paid employees or from paid and unpaid family members. In addition, male home–based workers in every type of family situation are more likely than women to have an exclusive work space. Women living in single adult and single–parent families were more likely than those in adult–only and full–nest living situations to have an exclusive area for work. This study is important because it examines home–based work and how family–related variables may affect this new form of work.


This study examines workers who are caring for an elderly relative and how this affects their work. Three hundred and forty one male and female employees were surveyed. Demands of parental roles also were examined. The study looked at many different types of effects that eldercare responsibilities could have on employees' work, including work behaviors such as taking a day off, tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover; and missed job opportunities such as turning down a change in job location or missing a training opportunity. Employees providing this type of caregiving were more likely to experience interference between their jobs and their family responsibilities when compared to other employees. In fact, almost 74% of caregiving employees reported interference between work and family. They were also more likely to miss work, and their responsibilities to provide care interfered with their work activities. The employees gave suggestions for employer–sponsored programs that could improve the situation for caregivers. Some of these suggestions were for employers to offer job sharing, part–time job options and daycare for elders. Most employees felt that flexible hours were helpful to them when balancing work and family roles. This study is included in the top ten because it was widely cited and it is innovative in suggesting that elderly caregiving, like child caregiving, can affect work. It was also the only research article that examined the effect that elderly caregiving has on men's and women's work.


This longitudinal research study examines the relationships between family–related variables and wage attainment at mid-life. Some of the variables examined were family life-cycle stage, family
and employment timing patterns, current employment status, and field of employment. One thousand four hundred seventeen white, married mothers were studied who experienced four types of employment patterns: all stage employment (wives employed during all life stages); interrupted employment (wives employed before and after but not during the childbearing years); childbearing employment (wives enter the work force sometime during the childbearing stage); and midlife employment (wives begin paid employment after childbearing has ended). The findings indicated that women who had interrupted careers due to childbearing earned less per hour on average than those who were employed during every family life cycle stage. Women with interrupted careers earned more than women who delayed working until either during or after the childbearing stage. Women in the interrupted career pattern were the group affected most by the age at which they married. For these women, there was a 3.4% increase in hourly wage at midlife for each year of delay in marriage. Being in the cohort who entered the work force during the postwar rather than the wartime period also benefited these women. This study is among the top ten because it indicates how family–related factors can effect wives wage attainment.


This study investigates the factors which contribute to women's decisions to resume employment within a year after the birth of their first-born child. The subjects were 164 middle and working class women and their husbands. The spouses were interviewed multiple times between the third trimester of pregnancy and nine months after the birth of the baby. Mothers were categorized into four groups depending on the decisions that they made regarding returning to work. Two groups were those women who indicated they would return to work and then actually returned to work, either full- time, or part–time. A third group consisted of women who planned to stay home during the first year after the birth of their baby and actually did so. The fourth group was made up of women who planned to return to work before the birth of their baby, but later decided to stay at home for the first year. For women returning to work within three months of the baby's birth, financial needs, personal desire to develop a career and personal enjoyment of working were the reasons given. The findings also indicate that those women who returned to work full-time after the birth of their baby were earning significantly more money than the women returning to work part–time or the women who decided to stay home for the first year of their baby's life. In addition the mothers who returned to full-time or part–time employment held significantly higher status jobs than those mothers who planned to stay home and did. Women who planned to stay home and then did reported significantly less job stress before the infant's birth than either the part–time or full-time employed mothers. Another finding was that mothers who originally planned to return to work and then decided not to performed significantly more of the prenatal household division of labor than part–time employed mothers did. However, these women did not differ from the two other groups of mothers in the prenatal household division of labor. This study is important because it increases our knowledge about working mothers with infants under 12 months of age and how this family situation affects employment. While the sample size is small, the study is of high quality: it expands on previous research; the context of the family is examined; it is a longitudinal study; it compares working class families to middle–class ones; and it interviews both husbands and wives.
CHAPTER FOUR

THE IMPLICATIONS OF EMPLOYMENT FOR MARRIAGE

Kevin Lyness

Introduction

A common historical theme regarding work-family relationships is concern about the implications of employment for workers' marriages. Since employment has long been considered normative for men, most research has focused on women's employment and whether or not it is related to marital quality and divorce.


This study used data collected in 1980 during interviews with a nationally-representative sample of 2,034 married persons to explore the relationship between wives' outside employment and marital instability (i.e., thinking about, discussing or filing for divorce or separation). A path analytic model was used to test the extent to which wives' income, family income, family division of labor, spousal interaction, marital disagreement, and marital satisfaction mediate or explain a positive correlation between wife=s employment and marital instability. The authors concluded that wives' income and a combination of marital disagreements and low marital satisfaction lead to marital instability when wives are employed. This article has been very prominent in the literature (cited 43 times since publication in 1984 according to Social Sciences Citation Index) and appeared in a prestigious journal. In addition, it utilized a large, representative sample and sophisticated statistical methods to examine the mechanisms through which women=s employment affects marital stability (although the data were cross-sectional).


This study tests two competing theories about husband=s and wife=s earning capabilities on the wife=s labor force participation and the probability of marital dissolution. The first is Parson=s status competition model which suggests that wives' employment violates the desirable complementarily of men's and women's roles and may lead to marital dissolution. Thus, the higher a woman=s wage potential relative to her husband=s the more peripheral should be her labor force attachment (in order to avoid competition and the stress inherent in such competition). The second theory is Oppenheimer=s status maintenance model, which proposes that women's employment can enhance family social status and that women will be more likely to be employed when their wage potential is closer to that of their husbands. These theories were tested on a national sample of 2,082 women, 1,151 of whom were employed. Oppenheimer=s model received the most supportBwomen with an earning potential closer to her husband=s were
more likely to work and worked more. Status competition comes into play in that women whose wage potential approaches their husbands may be more likely to be underemployed and subordinate their careers to their husbands. Women with higher relative potential wages were more likely to suffer marital disruption. This is a relatively frequently cited (approximately 2 citations a year since publication) study which utilized a large, representative sample to test two competing theories using sophisticated statistical methodology. This is one of few work/family studies which compares and tests competing theories.


This study examines the simultaneous effects of multiple indicators of wife’s employment on marital disruption for a national probability sample of women who first married between 1968 and 1982 (5,159 women aged 14 to 24 in 1968, reinterviewed 11 times between 1968 and 1982). Based on a multivariate proportional–hazards model, the results were surprising in a variety of ways. Specifically, the rate and timing of marital disruption was negatively related to wife’s income (when women earned more, marital dissolution was less likely) and positively related to number of hours worked per week and to amount of premarital work experience (when women worked more and had worked for longer prior to marriage, marital dissolution was more likely, and likely to occur sooner). The pattern of these effects was similar for Whites and Blacks. This study is one of very few to utilize a large sample of longitudinal data to examine linkages between marital disruption and wives employment and to include both Whites and Blacks.


This study evaluated a conceptual model which hypothesized that two dimensions of work–family interference (structural role difficulties and negative mood spillover) intervene in the direct relationship between work characteristics and marital quality, using a sample of 334 male and 189 female married white–collar workers (predominantly white, upper middle class). The authors found that job characteristics predicted dimensions of work–family interference that, in turn, predicted marital quality. Job characteristics were directly related to marital companionship (people with more enriching jobs engaged in more marital companionship). The authors concluded that there was some support for the idea that employees' perceptions of work–family interference mediated the relationship between job characteristics and marital quality for both men and women. This study tested a conceptual model using relatively sophisticated methods, examined job characteristics (including structural and psychosocial characteristics) instead of treating work categorically (i.e., working or not working), examined both men’s and women’s work, and utilized a relatively large sample. In addition, this article was written by prominent authors in the field and appears in a prestigious journal.

This article examined incongruencies between spouses= sex–role attitudes and the division of family work and their links with spouses= marital evaluations and family characteristics. The sample consisted of 153 couples with firstborn school–age children, examined over a two year period. AAt risk@ forB-and exhibiting-Bnegative marital evaluations were couples where either the wife had nontraditional sex–role attitudes but traditional family work roles or where the husband had traditional attitudes but egalitarian work roles (i.e., wives and husbands who were performing more family work than their gender role attitudes deemed appropriate). These findings persisted for a one–year period for husbands and for a two–year period for wives. Husbands and wives who brought more resources to their marriages in the form of income and education were more likely to be able to negotiate favorable family work arrangements. This paper was theory–based, longitudinal, and included the perspectives of both husbands and wives. Both the authors and the journal are prominent in the field.


This article examined the role of women=s work conditions in two–earner couples on the marital satisfaction of both the wife and the husband (data were collected from both; N = 86 couples). The authors tested both a spillover mediational model (wife=s work affects wife=s marital adjustment) and a crossover mediational model (wife=s work affects husband=s marital adjustment) using a structural model. The spillover model was supported, while the crossover model was not B that is, women=s work stress and global stress mediate a link between their work conditions and their perceptions of marital adjustment, but do not mediate such a link for their husbands. This study was one of few to be theory–based and theory–testing, was methodologically sophisticated, and examined multiple perspectives within the family.


This study presents evidence for the construct validity and internal reliability of a new multidimensional measure of work spillover, provides insight into three processes by which work can affect an individual=s personal and family life (i.e., time, energy, and psychological interference), and examines four primary nonwork role contexts (i.e., the parent–child relationship, the marital relationship, leisure activities, and the home management role) and assesses how likely each is to be affected by work spillover. The sample was composed of 130 male executives and their spouses. Strong support was found for the construct validity and internal consistency of the measure of work spillover. The data did not support the hypothesis that work stress spills over into some role contexts more than others. In contrast, the data provide support for three processes (i.e., time, energy, and psychological interference) by which work
can spill over and separately affect family and personal life. While the sample was relatively small, this article fills a gap in the literature by providing a measure of work spillover. In addition, this article has been frequently cited since publication and was methodologically sophisticated.


This study used qualitative methodology to examine themes differentiating high quality and low quality dual–career marriages in 34 professional dual career couples. Lewis and Spanier’s model of marital quality was selected as the theoretical framework for the qualitative analysis. The findings can be summarized as follows: the higher the husband’s satisfaction with the wife’s working, the higher the marital quality. Job satisfaction for wives was related to greater marital quality (perhaps through greater overall self–worth). Couples in high quality marriages had older children and perceived less stress from child care than couples in low quality marriages, and sharing of child care responsibilities was characteristic of higher quality marriages. High quality marriages were characterized by positive regard between the spouses and higher emotional support by the husband, by couples with similar career pursuits, by couples who were satisfied by the emotional gratification within the marriage, and by couples who communicated more effectively However, dual–career couples were at risk for poor communication and emotional dissatisfaction. Finally, discrepant role–fit resulted in problems for dual–career couples. This study was the only qualitative study of the implications of employment for marriage, was grounded in theory, used a large sample for a qualitative study, paid attention to both wives and husbands work and appeared in a prestigious journal.


This study examined problems of dual–career black couples (N = 41 couples). Structured interviews, including both open–ended and forced choice questions were used, explored general problems concerning dual–career couples as well as problems specific to Black dual–career couples. Difficulties in 12 domains of marriage were also explored, as was overall marital happiness. The author concluded that dual–career Black couples, similar to White dual–career couples, experience a number of difficulties in their marriages due to their lifestyle. They had additional concerns due to their race; including racial discrimination, social isolation, and money management issues. This was the only study specifically relating work and marital variables for Black couples in the literature in the last ten years.

This article reviewed research on gender, focusing on three domains of family life—marriage (intimacy, communication and conflict, and wife-battering), work (both wage work by women and men as providers, and resistance to wives as co-providers, and family work by both the nature of family work and resistance to sharing housework and child care), and parenthood (the images of motherhood and fatherhood, activities and experiences of mothering and fathering, and the gender differentiation that accompanies parenting). The authors offer recommendations for further research and encourage family scholars to conceptualize gender as relational or international rather than as individual property or role. Regarding work, the authors suggest that researchers should attend to responsibility and recognition for paid and family work; the symbolic meaning of co-provision and shared family work; the connection between wage work and family life; the context of housework and childcare . . . division of labor . . . family work as a source of and an occasion for power; and how partners support and sabotage each other's involvement in wage and family work (p. 864). While this is not a research study nor does it look exclusively at the implications of employment for marriage, it has been cited 47 times since its publication in 1989 (citations listed in the Social Sciences Citations Index). This is one of the most influential reviews of the literature on gender and work.
CHAPTER FIVE
THE IMPLICATIONS OF PARENTS' EMPLOYMENT FOR THEIR PARENTING
AND FOR THEIR CHILDREN'S DEVELOPMENT

Gyesook Yoo


This is a very recent and comprehensive chapter considering several issues concerning fathers' employment and their children's behavior. Through a review of relevant literature, the author finds several consistent patterns. First, fathers shape their children's attitudes about work both directly and indirectly through the father-child relationship. Fathers' normal absences due to employment does not appear to negatively influence children, but unusual absences related to employment may be related to children's behavior problems. Sons' career choices are related to those of their fathers. This chapter is important because of its focus on the effects of fathers' employment on father-child interactions and children's behavior; most other studies concern the influence of maternal employment on children.


In this chapter, the authors point out that studies of the relationship between employment and parenting historically have taken quite different approaches depending upon their primary interest in employment or family conditions. The strengths, limitations, and frontiers of each of these approaches are summarized. What is now needed, according to the authors, is a synthesis of these multiple approaches. Future research should focus not only on parents' childrearing activities within families but also on the effects of particular job characteristics on such activities. The importance of this chapter rests in its ecological approach to the connections between parents' jobs and their parenting.


In this concluding chapter of a comprehensive volume, the authors sum up the conclusions of several longitudinal studies of mothers' employment and children's development. An important conclusion is that mothers' employment is a family issue, rather than a women's issue because
the entire family context can change when the mother is employed. By itself, the knowledge that a mother is employed says little about family processes. Future research is needed to understand how mothers' employment and children's development influence one another via characteristics of the individuals involved and the environment. The authors also discuss the implications of the findings for social policies related to the dissemination of scientific knowledge, stable child care of high quality, and maternity policies. This chapter is important because it is comprehensive and deals with longitudinal effects of maternal employment, focusing on the stability of the environment rather than on maternal employment per se.


This article critiques earlier research which found a "small but consistent" negative effect of maternal employment on children's achievement, thought to be cumulative and to increase with the number of hours mothers worked. The authors show that when structural, attitudinal, and socioeconomic aspects of mothers' employment, such as age, work history, number of children, family income, and parents' education, are taken into account, the negative effect is much smaller. Erratic work histories and periodic unemployment were found to be more problematic than the length of mothers' work histories. Data for this study were collected in 1980 from over 3500 respondents. In sum, the effect of mother's employment on children's achievement is a complex phenomenon. The importance of this article is its innovative, fine methods and broad view linking maternal employment and children's achievement with contextual variables.


In this article, the authors profile the non-parental care arrangements experienced by children during the past two decades. While infants and toddlers are most likely to be cared for by relatives and family day care providers, preschool children are likely to be cared for by relatives or in group care settings. School-aged children are likely to be with relatives or in school-aged child care. They then present the most recent information on the current supply of child care and consider likely future trends. While family day care is becoming more common, group care is growing faster. Implications of the continued growth in maternal employment for child care services and schools also are discussed. The authors conclude that public and private response to the need for child care will depend upon the cost of care, the increased participation of women in politics, change in political ideology with respect to the role of the federal versus private sectors in subsidization of child care, and the neutrality of the research literature about the effect of maternal employment on the child. The importance of this article is its timely topic and its implications for child care policy and research.

This article reviews research conducted during the last 10 years, which has dealt mainly with maternal employment during children's preschool years. Attention is also given to the effects of family processes that modify the impact of maternal employment on children's development, such as the psychological well-being of the parents, their marital relationship, the father's role, and parent-child interaction. The influence of maternal employment on these variables, as well as on child outcomes, depends upon the attitudes of the parents regarding mothers' employment, the number of hours the mother is employed, social support, and the child's gender. This article is very influential and widely cited in the area of effects of maternal employment on children's development. It is also comprehensive in that it connects maternal employment, family processes, and children's development.


In this chapter, the authors provide an overview of existing research on balancing job and family demands and describes the findings of their cross-national study, the Bank Street College Corporate Work and Family Life Study (CWFLS) that examines the sources of stress and satisfaction in a sample of corporate employees. It reveals that having a child under 18 is associated with higher stress levels and greater work-family interference and that job conditions and child care arrangements are highly associated with negative outcomes of working parents. Finally, summarizing recent corporate work and family programs, they recommend increasing employers' responsivity to families, particularly with regard to child care. The importance of this chapter is to focus on not only working parents' needs but also employers' responsivity. This kind of action-oriented approach is very helpful for stimulating corporate family responsive services and benefits.


This chapter considers infant care (or parental) leave for fathers - the topic generally known as paternity leave. The author considers the background of parental leave policies as they apply to fathers in the United States and examines data on the availability, utilization, and effects of parental leave by fathers in the United States and Sweden. With regard to the future of paternity leave, Pleck points out that while the term "parental leave" is intended explicitly to include fathers, it may not be the case that fathers will use such leaves at the same rate or in the same way that mothers do. The importance of this chapter is its focus on fathers' employment and child care and its usefulness for application to policy.

This article explores the unexpectedly common phenomenon of non-day shifts among dual earner families with children. The author uses a sample of 800 married respondents with young children from the 1984 wave of a National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Market Experience to demonstrate that non-day shifts are related to high rates of parental child care, including father care, when both primary and secondary care and the extent of nonoverlapping hours of spouse employment are taken into account. About one-half of the couples had non-day shifts, and fathers employed full-time were relatively extensively involved in child care. The author predicts that shift work will increase, at least for women, and this will increase male participation in child care more than ideological changes about children's need for more fathering or women's needs for more role sharing. This article is innovative because it is the first direct examination of the relationship between shift work and child care for a national sample of both parents. It is also distinctive in its focus on young dual-earner parents who are at a potentially stressful time in the life cycle both economically and psychologically.


In this chapter, the authors discuss the effects of maternal employment during the developmental periods of adolescence: early adolescence (ages 11 to 13), and mid-adolescence (ages 14 to 17). Considering the family environment as a mediator of maternal employment effects on adolescent well-being, the authors conclude that maternal employment by itself does not affect adolescent development. Instead, the quality of guidance, support, and after-school activities made available to the adolescent by his or her family, school, and community appear to be salient to the adolescent's adjustment. Increasing the number of available after-school programs is thus desirable. This chapter is important because it focuses on adolescents, an understudied group. Attempting to examine maternal employment in relation to the entire family, not simply mother and child, is another strength.
CHAPTER SIX

FAMILY WORK

Christy Haug


This article uses data from the National Survey of Families and Households to research husbands participation in housework. High divorce rates is a theme of the article, and because of this husbands within the following four types of families are studied: first–married couples with their biological children, remarriages with their biological children, remarriages with stepchildren, and remarriages with both biological and stepchildren. Men in their second marriage engaged in slightly more housework than men in their first marriage. This article is among the top ten articles because it looks at various forms of the family.


This article researches how time is allocated to particular household task among men and women. Although many articles have covered this topic, what makes this among the top ten is the measurement used. The index of dissimilarity, which has been used to study racial segregation, is used to show that there is sex segregation within housework. Specific household tasks and the percentage of time spent on them by men and women are given, and the study also reveals that household tasks are sex–typed by both men and women.


This article researches what makes a married couple more satisfied or unsatisfied with their division of household labor, and what arguments stem from the level of satisfaction. Although many studies investigate the division of household labor, what makes this article part of the top ten is the way it investigates the relationship between division of labor and the level of satisfaction of the couple. One finding was that men are more satisfied with equality in the relationship, yet they do not want to spend as much time in family work as their wives.


This article gives findings on sex and age differences among children in performing household tasks, and the influence parents have on them. Six hundred families with a child aged 5–18 were
studied to get estimates of time that parents and children spent doing particular household tasks. This article is among the top ten because children are often overlooked when researching who is doing family work. This article pays attention to how much time children spend on family work, and the differences parental influence can have over the type of household work the child performs.


This article details a short-term longitudinal study of 125 families in relation to how the dynamics of family process (i.e., parental work, child care, etc.) change throughout the seasons of the year. The three data collection points were in the winter, summer, and in the winter once again. In the summer when school is not in session, parents that were in the dual-earner group remained more egalitarian with their parental duties. The article makes the top ten list because it specifically looks at how the seasons of the year change how involved or how much child care is maintained by one or both parents.


This article reviews many issues that have been affected by women's employment over the past decade. Housework is discussed with regard to who has power in relationships. This review article is among the top ten because it illustrates how many family issues such as marital satisfaction, divorce, child care, and housework are interrelated with women's paid employment.


This article is a study of married black adults and the relationship between housework and their level of family satisfaction. Emphasis is placed upon spouse's employment status. An employed spouse who feels that they perform most of the housework report feeling less satisfied with their family life. There is not much literature on black families, and because this article looks at the difficulties blacks face and the impact those circumstances have on division of housework and family satisfaction, it qualifies to be among the top ten.


This article discusses gender in its relation to the processes of marriage, work, and parenthood within the context of race, ethnicity, class, and age. Work is broken down into many subheadings
including provider roles, timing, earnings, and the nature of family work and child care. The extensive reviews of family work, division of household labor, and child care qualify this to be part of the top ten.


This article investigates reasons for men's involvement level with respect to housework. The main focus is on how the timing of the first–born child is associated to the division of housework at the time of birth and after the birth. Husbands with wives who have less traditional values and become early parents share more of the household responsibilities. There is little literature that focuses on men's housework and that also gives explanations for the gender division of housework; therefore, that is why this article is among the top ten.


This article investigates the differences found among 440 couples, that work full–time, in regards to whether or not rural or urban settings contributed to the division of housework, and time spent on housework. Although traditional household roles are found in both rural and urban settings, urban wives spend less time on housework than rural wives. This article is among the top ten because it demonstrates how different lifestyles in different settings can influence family work.
CHAPTER SEVEN

WORK AND SINGLE PARENT FAMILIES

Margaret E. Walls


This study of 293 employees in a large corporation, compared job and home management demands of 31 single parents with their married parent and nonparent co-workers. Information was gathered by questionnaire on a number of issues relating to work and family, social support networks, and the physical and emotional well-being of the workers.

Single mothers experienced stress related to meeting job and family demands, and lower physical and emotional well-being than other groups. However, in spite of the stress associated with managing work and family, single mothers did not report significantly more problems with children, or miss more days of work than their co-workers. In addition, single parents reported high levels of job satisfaction.

Society appears to be moving away from the traditional separate worlds model of work and family. As a result, flexible work schedules, child care programs, staff training on work/family issues, employee assistance programs and affirmative action programs were recommended by this researcher. In addition, the following government policies were suggested: the development of a comprehensive child care policy, job training programs for women, comparable worth legislation, incentives for employer-based policies and programs, and vigorous enforcement of child support legislation.

This study was selected as one of the decade's top ten publications because it addresses the role of employment in the lives of single parents, and includes research-driven recommendations for employer and government work/family policies.


Demographic information on the circumstances of one-parent and mother-child families was presented in this paper. The authors concluded that single-parent families are considerably less well-off than other family groups. For example, single-parents are disproportionately poor, members of minority groups, less well educated, and highly mobile.

Based on this study it is suggested that 37% of women in their late 20's in 1984 will maintain a single-parent family with children under 18; single-parenting thus is more prevalent than the usual demographic figures suggest. Further, the magnitude of the task of providing assistance to single-parent families is great.
The authors conclude that there will be continued high levels of one-parent families. However, the percentages of one-parent families as a proportion of total family groups may not continue to increase.

This article was selected as one of the top ten publications for its comprehensive analysis of the demographic information available regarding single-parent families, and for its life course interpretation of these demographics.


Weiss reported studied separated and divorced mothers who were among five thousand participants in the University of Michigan Panel Study of Income Dynamics. Marital separation and divorce brought about considerable change in the amounts and sources of household income of single women at different income levels. There was a significant drop in household income for single parents of all income levels. Income sources of households differed by income level. Higher income households relied on earnings of the new head, and later on earnings of others in the household. In the early years income was supplemented by alimony and child support. In lower-income households there was more reliance on public subsidies such as AFDC and food stamps.

After five years, the income of higher-level households relied even more on household members, while lower-income households continued to be dependent on public assistance programs. Further, as long as households were headed by single women the reduction in income continued. In time, lower-income singles who remarried did better financially, while parents remaining single did not.

Single parents reduced their expenditures for items such as food and other necessities. Because single-parent households headed by women did not increase in real income with time, this reduction in standard of living appeared to continue as long as the household head is a female single-parent. In addition, in the lower income category, many single-parents continued to be dependent on welfare programs and food stamps.

This research was selected as a top ten publication because it utilized the large scale PSID data which was collected over an eleven-year period. As a result, the long-term economic effects of single-parenthood were assessed. Single-Mother Families


Exploring ways to overcome the negative stereotype of noncustodial mothering was the purpose of this study, which examined child variables, circumstances surrounding the divorce, relationship with the former spouse, and economic and demographic factors. The study investigated mothers' decisions to relinquish custody including how voluntary the relinquishment was, the mothers' feelings about their noncustodial status, and their perceptions of others' attitudes.
The results of the study indicated that the most common reasons reported for relinquishing custody were the children's choice, intimidation, court decisions, and financial problems. These reasons were associated with lack of choices on the mothers' part and feelings of helplessness. Mothers reported being dissatisfied with the custody arrangements while they believed that their former spouses were satisfied with the custody arrangements. Non-custodial mothers reported feeling less close to their children. They also felt less involved in their children's activities after the divorce. In addition, they believed that their relationship with their children changed after the divorce. Difficulties with visitation arrangements were reported. In addition, the noncustodial mothers reported feeling hesitant about disciplining. Further, noncustodial mothers perceived their divorce proceedings as hostile.

The authors concluded that it is time for a new woman-centered language for motherhood. From this perspective, rather than assuming that non-custodial mothers are deficient or do not want their children, non-custodial mothers are perceived as mothers who parent without living with their children. Changes are also recommended in the resources and intervention services available to women. For example, support or self-help groups could be a source of empowerment and assistance for non-custodial mothers.

This study was included as a top ten publication because it emphasizes the process and experience associated with mothering. The results of the study suggest that in order to understand family strengths beyond those considered traditionally, a wider variety of parenting arrangements and relationships may be necessary.


Little is known about how single mothers feel about becoming the family breadwinner. By using open-ended interviews and qualitative methodology, this study developed a typology of three marital history types in order to examine how mothers felt about supporting their families: The segregated marriage, modified-segregated marriage, and wife-shaped marriages.

The results indicated that mothers with similar marital histories often have similar reactions to work force participation. Women from segregated marriages were found to have planned to be full-time homemakers. While becoming the family breadwinner created frustrations, in time these mothers often became proud of supporting their families.

Although mothers from modified-segregated marriages wanted part-time work, they became full-time workers as a result of their single parent status. This change resulted in little of the frustration reported by women from segregated marriages. Their major complaint was difficulty in participating fully in their children's activities. However, in contrast to the women from segregated marriages, these mothers did not report pride in supporting their families.

Mothers from primarily wife-shaped marriages had experienced working full-time during marriage. As a result, supporting their families was not a source of newly found pride. However, they were the most likely of the three groups to speak of their jobs as a priority. In addition, these
mothers were more likely to report stress associated with their job demands rather than with work and family conflicts.

This study was chosen as a top ten publication for its use of qualitative methodology as a means of discovering how single mothers differ in their feelings toward work and family conflicts.


Poor black single mothers who had received AFDC were the focus of a survey that examined the relationships between employment preferences and role strain, emotional well-being, perceptions of children, working hours, educational attainment, and gender of children.

Mothers educated at the high school level or less, and parents of young sons were found to have greater role strain, depression, less favorable perceptions of their children, and lower overall life satisfaction. However, work hours were unrelated to strain, depression, and perceptions of children.

An important finding of this study was that mothers who were able to obtain education or training beyond high school reported less strain and depression. These mothers also perceived their children more positively and reported higher life satisfaction. These findings suggest that there is the need for policies that encourage education for single women in poverty who are heading households.

This study was chosen as a top ten publication because previous research has given little attention to the consequences of employment for black single mothers with young children. The findings have implications for future legislation aimed at education and training of poor single-parents.


The economic circumstances of young families with young children at various wage levels was the subject of this cross-national study. The sample consisted of fifteen types of families varying in marital status, labor force status, number and age of children, work history, and wage as a proportion of each country's average wage. One focus was on the families' financial situation at the end of a year of receiving earnings and government income transfers. A second focus was on the types of and approaches to government subsidies to families in the seven industrialized countries studied.

The findings indicated that several countries make far less use of welfare (public assistance) than the United States. However, these countries provide mother-only families with a standard of living that is much closer to their national average. In addition, these types of subsidies do not discourage paid work or encourage long-term dependency on government assistance.
Suggestions for the United States include a family or child allowance offered to all parents, regardless of income; child support, or a form of an advance maintenance payment for all children with an absent parent failing to provide support; a housing allowance; health insurance for single mothers who have jobs but inadequate benefits; maternity and parenting policies that assure mothers of an eight-week minimum paid disability leave following child-birth, and either parent a minimum of four additional months of unpaid leave with full job protection; improved subsidies for child care, enlarged either by raising the benefit level of the current child care tax credit and making it refundable, or by increasing the federal social services grants for child care, or some combination of these methods.

Although this study was published in the early 80s, it was chosen as a top ten publication because it is often cited in the single parent literature for its comparison of the United States with seven other major industrialized countries.


This chapter from the book Mothers Alone emphasized problems related to time management and single mothering. Based on previous research, the authors suggest that single employed mothers are time-poor, having less time to spend on household tasks, child care, personal care, leisure, and recreational activities than all other mothers. In addition, to meet the time demands of their families, single employed mothers must sacrifice time in personal care activities. The authors conclude that there is cause for serious concern when families suffer the stress of this pattern of time allocation.

In addition, research findings suggest that single employed mothers may suffer from social isolation, and lack parenting help. Surveys of family service agencies indicated that single mothers seek counseling and treatment because of problems associated with lack of quality affordable child care, need for legal and psychological counseling, lack of social support, need for community services, and problems with housing.

This chapter was selected as a top ten publication because it focused on the needs of single working mothers and their children rather than the burdens of single-motherhood on society.


This essay examines the impact on children and the economic and social well-being of mother-only families. The role of mother-only families in the politics of gender, race, and social class are also addressed. Mother-only families were described as more likely to be poor than two-parent families because of low paying jobs, lack of child support, and low public benefits. In addition, mother-only families are described as subject to stress due such factors as necessary changes in residence, income insecurity, loss of social status, and some loss of their social support, though reasonably successful at building networks.
The essay also addresses the issue of parent-child relationships in mother-only families, and concludes that little evidence exists to support the notion that single mothers have lower educational expectations for their children than do married mothers, although single-mothers were found to have different views about independence and gender roles. However, contrary to previous research, recent findings suggest that children from mother-only families are disadvantaged. Income appeared to account for only part of the lower success of children from mother-only families. In addition, the effects of single motherhood were different across different types of mother-only families with widowed offspring doing better. Single motherhood effects were consistent across racial and ethnic groups. Three theories of the intergenerational consequences of single-parenting are presented: the economic-deprivation argument, the socialization argument and the neighborhood argument.

Debates between liberals conservatives, and feminist activists over the problems associated with mother-only families are also presented. The debates center around society's views about the acceptability of families that do not conform to the traditional nuclear family structure, and how limited economic resources are to be distributed. The authors point out that single motherhood has become the center of the broader issue of changes in women's roles, the relationship between the state and the family, and class and racial inequality.


Insight into work/family issues for single-fathers who have custody of their children was the purpose of this qualitative study. The study investigated how parenting demands, resources, and workplace flexibility influence the ease or difficulty of combining work and family for fathers with custody. The study findings suggest that custodial fathers are more likely to consider combining work and child care as not difficult if they are older, helped with child care before their marriages dissolved, obtained custody through a court contest, and had high levels of social support. Those fathers who experienced more changes in their work life as the result of being single-parents were less likely to find combining work and child care not difficult.

In addition the study investigated the effects of occupation, education, income, and life cycle stage on changes the fathers had to make to accommodate to parenting demands. Key factors associated with changes in fathers' work routines were a high level of education and having custody of younger children vs. older children.

Parent-child relations were also investigated. Fathers who reported more difficulty with work also reported more problems with their children, suggesting that job and parent-child problems may be related. Men who engage their wives in court battles were found more likely to report lower familial support, and made more adjustments at work to accommodate parenting. Men who contested custody were also more likely than those who didn't to report problems with their children. However, no relationship was found between job changes and parent/child relationships.
This study was selected as a top ten publication because it is one of only a few examining work/family issues of fathers who have custody of their children, and suggests that single-parenting is difficult for fathers as well as mothers.

OTHER RELEVANT ESSAYS AND RESEARCH STUDIES:


CHAPTER EIGHT

FAMILY-FRIENDLY PROGRAMS AND POLICIES

Amy Emmelman


This article begins by providing a review of previous research on how caring for the elderly affects the work of employed care givers. This study is like many others that look at the relationship between work and care giving, but is significant because it is one of the first to examine these issues on a national scope rather than a regional one. In this study a survey was distributed to both caregivers and non-caregivers. Based on their responses, it was estimated that 32% of the employees surveyed were caregivers for the elderly. Many of these caregivers were over 40 years old.

Findings include information about the number of hours of care provided weekly and what types of care were provided. Also discussed were individual characteristics of the caregivers to point out variations among caregivers according to age, race, marital status, gender, and educational attainment. Conclusions of this study are consistent with those done on local levels.


This widely-cited source is a result of cooperative efforts of panel members of the National Academy of Sciences, the National Academy of Engineers, and the Institute of Medicine. Twelve members were selected from a variety of professional backgrounds to form the Panel on Employer Policies and Working Families. The purpose of this panel was to gather and review current and past research, evaluate alternatives, and determine need for research in the future.

The history of the family and its relationship to the workplace are discussed. Also mentioned are the effects of work on family including issues of health, marital satisfaction, children's well-being, and elderly dependents. Needs for dependent care of both children and the elderly are presented along with explanations of employee benefits such as sick leave, insurance, and pension plans. Information about work/family relations in other countries also is presented. Conclusions and recommendations related to public and private policy and research are presented.


This book is based on a survey taken by employees in five technically-oriented corporations. A large sample was used and over 70% of those surveyed responded. Participants included both men and women, and blacks, whites, Hispanics, native Americans and Asians. The questionnaire used for the study was divided into ten sections including topics such as "you and your work,
perceptions of the effects of child care on children, child care and corporate productivity issues, what companies should do to assist employees with work/family conflicts, and child care problems of parents with children 18 and under." (p.14)

Conclusions suggest that changes in federal legislation may be one key to advancement in the effectiveness of handling family/work conflicts. Also training supervisors to be sensitive to work/family issues and providing a number of flexible scheduling options are suggested as examples of inexpensive ways for corporations to heighten productivity and assist their employees at the same time.


This article integrates and summarizes some of the pre-existing research on "corporate responses to family needs" and attempts to encourage others to research the affects of the overlap between family and work. It asserts the importance of the development of 'family-friendly' policies by corporations in order to keep the best employees working for them. The article begins by describing why it is important for corporations to provide 'family-friendly' benefits. Then it analyzes three areas in which companies have provided support in the past: child care, elder care, and flexibility of schedules.

The review concludes stating how employers and employees must work together to generate policies that benefit everyone involved. Suggestions for further research are provided. The insight gained by Friedman in her own research experience about this contemporary topic facing employers and employees strengthens the value of the review.


This book, which is widely cited, declares that work and family life are so interrelated that it is impossible to look at one without seeing the affects of the other. In chapter four, the results of the Boston University Balancing Job and Home Life Study are discussed. This study, which involved 1565 employees who worked for two companies at eight sites, is one of the first large-scale, multi-site studies to look at the stress of the work/family relationship from within corporations. The goal was to try to understand the impact of the work/family relationship on the employees.

The results were divided into four topics: how family responsibility is handled, how family and work roles overlap, what impact balancing work and family has on employees, and how companies impact the conflicts between work and family. Recommendations based on the findings of the study encourage creative partnerships among governments, corporations, communities, and families. Stakeholders are urged to see work-family relationships as a fundamental quality of life issue.

This article describes a study conducted in Wisconsin about the relationship between fathers and parental leave. Although previous research has been done on this issue, this study is significant because it has a longitudinal design that incorporates attitudes and experiences of both men and women. The implications of a policy enacted in 1988 in Wisconsin guaranteeing men (and women) six weeks of parental leave with job security are discussed.

In the study, both mothers and fathers are surveyed about their attitudes concerning men's parental leave. Differences between men who choose to take parental leave and those who choose not to are accounted for in the results. Conclusions show that both mothers and fathers agree that men should have rights to job-guaranteed parental leave and that their benefits should continue during this time. They also show that men usually take paid days off such as vacation and use them for paternity leave since paternity leave is usually unpaid.


The emphasis in this widely cited resource book is placed on the importance of employers' responses to employees' needs in the workplace. The data presented are a result of hundreds of interviews of employers across the nation including both small and large businesses. Topics covered in the book chapters include discussions of how some companies who provide benefits are missing the boat, and methods through which large and small employers can provide benefits to fit their employees' needs.

Specific benefits companies provide such as child care, alternative work schedules, parental leaves, and flexible benefit plans also are discussed with regard to how extensive they are and why companies are providing them. Based on their conclusions, these changes in workplace policies are necessary to not only help keep current employees, but also to allow those unemployed because of lack of benefits to become re-involved in the work force.


Moen's book discusses information about the work and family experiences of Swedish parents. Information about their experiences is significant because legislation in Sweden has made it a leader in changing workplaces to fit employees’ needs. The number of families taking advantage of policies such as paid leave for both parents and shortened work schedules for parents of infants was discussed. Similarities are drawn between the United States and Sweden with regard to gender roles of men and women and the work/family issues each country is facing. Because of these similarities, some of the policies implemented and the conclusions drawn in Sweden could be applicable to United States populations.

Working conditions and their influences on well-being of parents in Sweden are discussed. Differences in experience among social classes and family life cycles are also discussed. Conclusions drawn show that lower class families and inexperienced parents are more adversely affected by work than upper class and experienced parents.

This book is widely cited in a number of resources in the area of work family relationships and 'family-friendly' policies. It discusses four types of alternative work schedules: compressed work weeks, flextime, part-time employment, and shift work. Alternative Work Schedules is both a resource book for those wanting to learn more about how traditional and non-traditional scheduling affects people's lives, and a guidebook for managers wanting to implement changes in their scheduling system, including ways to evaluate the changes they have made.

The changes over time in the definition and attitudes toward work are discussed as an introduction to the book. This is followed by a review of the research done on the impact of work schedules on the family. In conclusion a how-to guide for managers wanting to utilize options in their work schedules is included.


In this book Staines and Pleck analyze the affects of work schedules on the family by examining the impact of each of four different aspects of scheduling work. These aspects include: which days are worked each week, which hours are worked during the day, how many hours are worked each week, and flexibility of the particular work schedules.

The basic concepts found in these aspects are developed into four hypotheses which are used in a study based on data collected in the 1977 Quality of Employment Survey. This study looks only at the affects of work schedules in family. It analyzes the quality of family life by looking at how much time is spent by employees in family work, how much work and family situations interfere with one another, and how the family adjusts to conflicts between work and family. There were three major findings: Nonstandard patterns of days worked per week, hours worked per day, or large numbers of hours worked each week tend to negatively influence workers' lives; the influences of problematic schedules are most negative when workers have little control over their schedules; and the effects of job schedules extend beyond the individual's family life to their spouse's work schedule and family involvement.
CHAPTER NINE

TEN OBSERVATIONS ABOUT WORK-FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

Shelley M. MacDermid

Given the decade focus of this annotated bibliography, it seems appropriate to conclude with ten observations about the state of work-family relationships in the U.S. These observations are the result of our class readings and discussions, our own research, and conversations with employers and employees. Some of these observations were made in my opening remarks to participants in the work and family session at the second Hoosier Family Policy Summit in the spring of 1994.

Observation #1: Income may be the most important work-family intervention and it may not be replaced with other programs.

While attention to "family-friendly" benefits has been rising, real wages have been stagnant and the income remaining after taxes has been falling. Poorly paid and/or insecure jobs are becoming more common at the same time that the social safety net is being cut (MacDermid & Targ, in press). Workers with lower pay also receive fewer benefits, and some data suggest that workers with lower pay are less likely to take advantage of benefits they have (MacDermid, Williams, Marks & Heilbrun, 1994). Only a small minority of workers have access to "family-friendly" benefits like dependent care assistance (MacDermid & Targ, in press).

Observation #2: The effectiveness of many work-family strategies is limited by race- and gender-based discrimination.

On average, women are paid less than men (although the reverse is true among Americans of African descent), and people of color make less than whites (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993). These differences are not fully explained by differences in education or experience. Although education does improve life chances, women and people of color continue to be denied access or steered away from higher-level goals (Girls Inc., 1992, 1993; Amott & Matthaei, 1991). Women who are at greater disadvantage in earnings relative to their husbands are less likely to get help with unpaid family work such as childcare, which in turn makes them less available for paid work to reduce their disadvantage (McHale & Crouter, 1992). The traditional model of intense, sustained, work involvement over a long career may be problematic because of stress-related disease, diminishing returns in performance, and difficulties in simultaneously meeting work and family responsibilities.

Observation #3: Employees of small businesses may be most in need and least likely to get help with work-family issues.

Women, new labor force entrants, less-educated workers, and newly-created jobs are concentrated in small workplaces. Small businesses often are labor-intensive and have smaller financial comfort margins; these narrow margins have resulted in the exemption of small businesses from many family-related policies (Ferber & O'Farrell, 1991). Small business
employees also have less access to health insurance, paid leave, and unionization than do employees of larger organizations (Ferber & O'Farrell, 1991).

Observation #4: Successful work-family strategies will need to be multi-option and multi-level.

Since family needs change over the life course, and since the resources to meet these needs are interwoven throughout communities and workplaces, the most successful programs in the future are likely to be those which maximize choice for employees and most effectively use available and new resources (Googins, 1991). Many current policies really are "work supports" rather than "family supports," encouraging employees to adapt family life to accommodate work demands (Lamber, 1990). In contrast, work-family tension is reduced by flexible policies and choices among a variety of programs (Hughes & Galinsky, 1988). Since creativity and experimentation are needed, governments could do a better job of providing incentives, encouraging demonstration projects, and treating their own employees well.

Observation #5: Successful policies at the highest levels do not always translate into successful practices at the lowest levels.

Organizational barriers often reduce the effectiveness of work-family policies. Barriers include inaccurate or insufficient information, organizational cultures highlighting apparent deficits in work commitment, and supervisors' unwillingness to implement policies (Williams & MacDermid, 1994).

Observation #6: We generally adopt a short-term view of work-family relationships.

The training function which families serve in preparing future generations of workers is often ignored, even though most individuals' early labor force experiences occur prior to or during early adulthood. Individuals' work ethics are largely the product of socialization in their families (Kanter, 1977). Costs of work-family programs often are not "amortized" over the duration of long individual careers, nor are they considered as investments in the prevention of future costs to employers and to society.

Observation #7: Employers now providing flexible schedules and childcare benefits share certain characteristics.

Companies which are leaders in "family-friendliness" are likely to know a lot about these benefits; they are likely to be large; to employ a high percentage of women and working parents; to be private; and to be in a geographical area where other companies are offering the same programs (Goodstein, 1994; Hughes & Galinsky, 1988).

Observation #8: Worklife programs likely to assist all workers include the following:

Flexible timing of work including access to paid leave, fully compensated part-time work, flexible work schedules and locations without penalty. Resources and referral for both dependent child and elder care are helpful; direct service is even more desirable. Health insurance for
workers and their dependents. Flexible benefits without penalty (Ferber & O'Farrell, 1991; Spalter-Roth & Hartmann, 1991)

Observation #9: We need more information.

Positive and negative impacts of family strengths, problems, and programs on broadly defined indicators of work performance including long-term work histories and productivity are needed. Data need to be disseminated throughout the community of scholars, administrators, and employers interested in work-family issues.

Observation #10: Sometimes we don't "walk the walk" as individuals.

While it might be easy as a scholar, practitioner, or administrator to call for increased flexibility, it might be more difficult as an individual to provide such flexibility for coworkers by adjusting our own work commitments. Such accommodation is, however, a fundamental prerequisite for employers' ability to institutionalize it throughout workplaces.

References


