

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF JOB SHARING AND FULL-TIME
EMPLOYEES: JOB SATISFACTIONS AND
MANAGEMENT OF FAMILY ROLES

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Employment and family systems in contemporary American society are in transition. Changes in the structure and availability of employment as well as changes in family structure have had a great impact on the total work force. Social changes such as the increase of women in the paid labor force, increasing technological advances within business and industry, and employee attitudes concerning scheduling, job satisfaction, and employee/employer roles have all affected the structure of employment (Smith, 1979; Herman, 1979; Arkin and Dobrofsky, 1979; Cohen and Gadon, 1978). Families are changing in their acceptance of roles of men and women, social attitudes and behavior, and living arrangements (Pifer, 1979; Smith, 1979; Waldman, 1979). The rise in the number of one-parent families and dual earner families is causing changes within the family system which have had great impact upon the workforce. It has been suggested by Kanter (1977) that such concern over these specific social changes stem from a general interest in the quality of family life, both social and economic. Bailyn and Schein (1976, p. 42) observed the same trend:

There has been a growing awareness of a turning away from career striving as the dominant measure of individual success, along with a revaluing of private family life on the part of professionals inside organizations.

Many men and women experience difficulty in balancing home and family responsibilities with the demands of the work place (Herman 1979). Combining employment and family is challenging for the individual in today's society, requiring much skill in planning, scheduling, and organizing.

The extent to which women have participated in the American labor force has changed dramatically during the twentieth century. "In 1974, 46 percent of all women aged 16 years or older have been in the labor force, compared with 38 percent in 1960, and 30 percent in 1940" (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980b, p. 1). As of March, 1980, 44 million women have joined the ranks of the employed (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980a). According to Polit (1979, p. 195):

The growing involvement of women with work and careers outside the home reflects, for many, a desire to balance the benefits of family life with the rewards of personal growth, social activity, and monetary remuneration, which the restricted role of homemaker often fails to provide.

Men's participation in the labor force has been declining steadily since 1950 as women's employment rate has steadily risen. Eighty-six percent of men were in the labor force in 1950, as compared to approximately seventy-eight percent in 1979 (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980b). Some couples have chosen to exchange roles so that the husband assumes the familial role of house husband, and the wife becomes the major wage earner (Weiss, 1975). Still, most women do not usually relinquish their household or childcare responsibilities when they enter the workforce. They maintain both roles and may feel restricted by inflexible, eight-to-five, five-day employment schedules. This can pose excessive demands on a woman's ability to perform multiple roles comfortably (Polit, 1979). Thus, traditional full-time employment can discourage women from

entering the workforce and may affect the quality of family life for those who choose paid employment or are employed because of necessity.

In response to this problem, the last 10 years have seen a "proliferation of organized efforts to vary the standard five-day, forty-hour work week" (Cohen and Gadon, 1978, p. 2). Alternative employment schedules such as the compressed or four-day work week, flextime, permanent part-time schedules, and job sharing have been implemented nationally and internationally to better facilitate the needs of the employer and employee. According to Polit (1979, p. 196), the recent interest in alternative employment schedules by many U. S. firms and organizations do not, for the most part, "stem from management's concern over the working conditions of female employees," but she adds that "benefits to women may indeed result."

When alternative employment arrangements are utilized, employers have noticed such benefits as decreased absenteeism, increased productivity, increased morale, and a higher quality of work (Cohen and Gadon, 1978). For example, the results of a 1977 American Management Association survey of 2,889 organizations "indicate that part-time employment increases productivity and decreases work fatigue among roughly 60 percent of the organizations who use it" (Herman, 1979, p. 312). Employees benefit from alternative types of schedules because it gives them greater flexibility with which to integrate family, leisure, and education with employment.

Job sharing, an employment schedule in which two (or three) people jointly fulfill the responsibility for one full-time position or job title, is one type of alternative schedule which allows many individuals to have the opportunity to combine employment and family life more

effectively. It is conceivable that rearranged employment schedules such as job sharing can bring about important social change with regard to family life, quality-of-life perceptions, life styles, and the division of labor along traditional sex roles (Polit, 1979). However, there is a serious void in understanding how traditional and nontraditional employment schedules, such as job sharing, affect employees' attitudes toward employment and family roles, facilitation of employment and family responsibilities, time flexibility, job satisfaction, and employee benefit programs. Perceptions of both job sharing and full-time employees are needed to provide information for employers and family life educators which will be useful in developing employment policies.

Purposes and Objectives

The purpose of this study is to compare employee perceptions of job sharing and full-time employment and to examine the effects of each type of schedule on the lives of employees. The specific objectives for the study are:

1. To assess the extent to which differences exist in employee benefit programs of job sharers and full-time employees;
2. To compare the perceptions of job satisfaction of job sharers and full-time employees;
3. To assess job sharers and full-time employees' attitudes toward employment and family roles;
4. To compare the perceptions of job sharers and full-time employees concerning facilitation of employment and family responsibilities;
5. To compare the reported degree of time flexibility of job sharers and full-time employees; and

6. To make recommendations for programs, policies, and further research based upon the findings of the study.

Research Hypotheses

Based on the objectives listed above, the following research hypotheses for the study have been developed:

1. There will be a significant difference in the employee benefit programs offered to job sharers and full-time employees.

2. There will be a significant difference in job satisfaction reported by job sharers and full-time employees.

3. There will be a significant difference in attitudes toward employment and family roles of persons employed in job sharing schedules and persons with full-time schedules.

4. There will be a significant difference in the facilitation of dual employment and family responsibilities of persons employed in job sharing schedules and persons with full-time schedules. Further, there will be a significant difference in perceptions of satisfaction with self of job sharers and full-time employees.

5. There is a significant difference in the reported time flexibility of job sharers and full-time employees.

Assumptions and Limitations

The following assumptions were made for purposes of this study:

1. The questionnaire will contain sufficient items to determine the differences in job sharing and full-time employment (Meier, 1978; Bohlen and Viveros-Long, 1981).

2. The participants in this study will give accurate and complete information due to the comprehensive nature of the instrument.

3. Perceptions of clerical and professional job sharers will be representative of the wider spectrum of job sharing positions not available in this population.

4. Employers will not bias the response of cooperating employees.

A limitation to the study is that job sharing is a relatively new employment schedule, and because it has not been adopted extensively in Oklahoma, the sample is not as broad as desired.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are pertinent to this study. They are as follows:

1. Job Sharing: An employment schedule in which two or three people jointly fulfill the responsibility for one full-time position or job title. Participants must perceive themselves as job sharers, communicate with their partner, and share the same workspace. Additionally, the employer must perceive the arrangement as job sharing.¹

2. Job Satisfaction: Staines (1979, p. 4) defines job satisfaction as:

The degree to which an employee finds his/her job fulfilling and satisfying in the areas of comfort, challenge, financial rewards, relations with co-workers, resource adequacy, and promotions.

3. Full-time Employment: "An employment schedule of 35 or more hours per week" (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980b, p. 3).

¹This definition of job sharing was adapted by the Job Sharing Advisory Committee for purposes of this study.

4. Part-time Employment: "An employment schedule of one to thirty-five hours per week" (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980b, p. 3).
5. Labor Force Participation Rate: "The labor force as a percent of the population" (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980b, p. 3).
6. Benefit Programs: According to Polit (1979, p. 203), benefit programs are "fringe benefits such as sick leave, vacations, holidays, and health and pension plans offered by the business to employees which are in addition to the regular salary."

Summary

Family and employment systems are responding to a number of social and economic changes including increases in the number of women employed outside the home. The concurrent demands of employment and family life cause many employees and their families to desire greater flexibility. In response to this concern, employers and employees have begun to support alternative employment schedules such as job sharing. This study meets a need for information about the feasibility or outcomes of this employment alternative by comparing employee perceptions of job sharing and full-time employees in the areas of: (1) benefit programs, (2) job satisfaction, (3) attitudes toward employment and family roles, (4) facilitation of employment and family responsibilities, and (5) time flexibility.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Recent times have seen dramatic changes in the economic and social status of women, the most obvious of which was their increased participation in the paid labor force. Equally as impressive was the changing relationship between female labor force participation and family roles. As increasing numbers of women became employed outside the home, the need for flexibility in working hours became more pronounced. This review of literature dealt with the historical and recent trends in women's labor force participation, the dual employment and family roles of women, changes in the structure of employment, and job sharing as an alternative form of employment.

Trends in Women's Labor Force Participation

The large-scale movement of women into the paid labor force was termed a "subtle revolution" (Smith, 1979, p. 2), "the most significant development in women's recent economic history" (Herman, 1979, p. 274), and "one of the most important socio-economic developments of the 1970's" (Johnson, 1979, p. 48). It has affected the economy, the labor market, family life, and community life. According to Smith (1979, p. 2) "it is subtle in that it has been gradual not traceable to any abrupt change. Decade after decade, the percentage of the female population in the labor force has been increasing."

American women have always worked; it has only been the nature of their productive contribution that has changed. According to Blau (1978, p. 29), women have traditionally engaged in three types of economically productive work: "producing goods and services for their family's own consumption, producing goods and services at home for sale or exchange on the market, and working for pay outside the home."

In the pre-industrial economy of the American colonial period, the family was the basic economic unit and family members have been dependent on one another for subsistence. Men performed agricultural work while the great majority of women, regardless of age or status were principally involved in the non-money sector of the economy. Production of goods at home for consumption by the family unit was prevalent because, according to Degler (1980, p. 363), "prior to the Revolution and some decades after, the great majority of American families--probably as high as 90 percent--lived on farms." Women's work in the home during this time period was significant because women served as the primary manufacturers. Home manufacture included meal preparation, soap making, food preservation; as well as gardening, tending animals, and assisting with the field work.

During this pioneering period, household manufacture "enhanced the value of children to their families" (Brownlee, 1976, p. 12). Therefore families were large, with women assuming the primary responsibilities for child rearing. Regardless of how demanding the life of a farm woman may have been, it was always possible to combine work and family on a farm. Both occupations took place on the same site (Degler, 1980).

Women were economically active in cities as well as on the farm and frontier. One historian recorded that women, often known as

"she-merchants" were self-employed as physicians, shoe binders, silver-smiths, barbers, distillers, and tavern owners (Leonard, 1964; Hayghe, 1979). The census of 1880 enumerated nearly 175 industries in which women were employed (Degler, 1980). In a period when early death was a frequent occurrence, it was not unusual for a widow to find herself propelled into management of a large plantation, or ownership of a merchant business (Chafe, 1976; Degler, 1980; Hesse, 1979).

With the onset of the industrial revolution, a transformation occurred in the economic position of women and in the character and conditions of their work (Hayghe, 1979). Expansion of craft industries also began to widen economic opportunities for women. For many young women in the initial factory labor force, industrialization meant a relatively smooth passage from market oriented household spinning and weaving to small-scale factory production (Brownlee, 1976). The New England textile mills such as the one located near Lowell, Massachusetts, provided the first opportunity for large numbers of women to work outside their immediate families in domestic employment (Chafe, 1976; Brownlee, 1976; Hesse, 1979).

By the early years of the 20th century, although the great proportion of married women were not employed outside the home, there was a sufficiently large number who were that combining employment and family responsibilities was neither novel nor rare. According to Chafe (1976, p. 12), "the most notable feature of female employment between 1900 and 1940 was how much remained the same." The major change was that the labor market had become clearly divided according to gender. Few manufacturing jobs were defined as women's work, especially in heavy industry (Hesse, 1979). A shift in predominant occupation of women began to

be evidenced from domestics, farm laborers, and factory workers to increased white collar, clerical and non-manual occupations (Chafe, 1976). Degler (1980, pp. 401-411) states:

In 1910, over a million married women worked outside the home in non-agricultural jobs. One-fifth of them were employed as factory workers, clerks, saleswomen, while another 30,000 were teachers, 13,000 were bookkeepers and accountants, almost 2,000 managers of businesses and about 300 college professors.

The proportion of all women who held jobs remained stable, hovering around 25 percent from 1910 to 1940 (U. S. Department of Labor, 1975). During this time period, women moved into the professions at a faster rate than men, the concentration being largely in the traditional areas of teaching and nursing (Degler, 1980). ✓

Although many married women were employed in the labor force, the question of how to combine family and employment became a difficult one. Concerning women's careers and family, feminist Jesse Taft in 1916 said that it was "a choice between a crippled life in the home or an unfulfilled one out of it" (Sklar, 1973, p. 182). Not all women viewed the conflict as pessimistically, believing that combining motherhood and a career was not so difficult, as noted by a feminist in 1915:

So many women have solved the difficulties and have made the adjustment that it seems only a question of time when every professional woman may accept the happiness of wifedom and motherhood without feeling that she has to choose between a happy marriage and a successful career (Degler, 1980, p. 411). ✓

During the 1920's the question of how to combine career and marriage was urgent because so many female college graduates were marrying. In recognition of the new trend, Smith College set up the Institute to Coordinate Women's Interests which experimented with ways of helping women to combine career and family (Degler, 1980). The Institute established cooperative nurseries, communal laundries, and shopping groups.

Also in recognition of the issue, Barnard College offered one of the first policies to grant maternity leave with full pay to any female faculty or staff member (Degler, 1980). How effectively programs such as this would have worked was not to be learned because World War I and the Depression halted not only these efforts, but public discussion of how women might combine career and family.

World War I accelerated the entry of women into new fields of industry. The pressure of war production and shortage of male industrial workers necessitated the introduction of women into male dominated occupations. According to Havener (1972, p. 40):

Thousands, ultimately millions of women emerged from forgotten woman status and began to assume a new range of responsibilities. In large measure they kept the wheels of industry turning, the offices staffed, the population at home fed and clothed.

After World War I many women left the labor force voluntarily or were forced out by layoffs (Hesse, 1979). According to Degler (1980, p. 419), "World War I had no long-range effect upon the employment of women."

The Depression of the 1930's further reversed whatever economic gains women had made. Married women were fired or denied employment if their husbands were employed. Several states and many businesses simply barred married women from any job based on the feeling that during times of widespread unemployment, men needed work more than married women (Degler, 1980). According to Brownlee and Brownlee (1976, p. 15), "The crisis of the Great Depression only reinforced the cultural forces that tended to confine women to the family."

The next major event in the history of the United States that brought a tremendous change in the status of women and transformed the

labor market was World War II. Chafe (1976, p. 15) stated, "In the overall history of women and work in America, World War II stands as the most decisive breaking point." An unprecedented demand for new workers and new production resulted. Women from all social backgrounds went to work outside the home in order to contribute to the war effort. The War's demand for labor resulted in an improvement in the status and incomes of literally millions of women (Degler, 1980). "Rosie the Riveter" became the symbol of the contribution that women made in the workforce. ✓

The statistical changes in women's employment were dramatic. "Between 1940 and 1945 the female labor force expanded by 5.5 million, and 38 percent of all women 16 and over were working" (Blau, 1978, p. 37). From a social point of view, the most important fact about World War II was that women who accepted employment were married and over 35 (Chafe, 1976). In 1940, 25.6 percent of all women were employed outside the home; by the end of the war, the figure rose to 36 percent (Chafe, 1976). By May, 1945 the war women constituted 57 percent of all employed persons, an unprecedentedly high proportion, since women workers represented 38 percent of the entire population (Hesse, 1979; Degler, 1980). ✓

Once the war was over, a concentrated effort developed to defend traditional values. The war produced social instability and the break-up of families causing many to want to reestablish the "traditional" roles of men, women, and families. With the return of men to civilian life, there arose a tremendous pressure on women to return to their former positions as homemakers. During the 1950's public opinion polls showed that the vast majority of Americans believed that a woman should

not be employed if her husband could support her and that rearing children was the primary responsibility of women (Chafe, 1976; Degler, 1980).

Many women did leave the labor force voluntarily or were laid off in anticipation of returning male workers. But despite social barriers to women's employment outside the home, approximately 2.75 million older women entered the labor force replacing the approximately 2.25 million that were leaving (Degler, 1980). Women were replaced in industries by men and for the most part did not retain the non-traditional jobs they had held during World War II (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980a). Instead they found employment in the expanding service section of the economy and took advantage of the expansion of jobs in the clerical, education, health, and personal service sectors (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980a).

By far the greatest increase in labor force participation of women was among the older age groups. Labor force participation increased for all women over the age of 35 and dramatically for those ages 45-54 and 55-64 (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980a). This was in contrast to the previous American experience in which the 20 to 24 age group had always contained the highest proportion of employed women (Degler, 1980). Oppenheimer (1978) noted that a shortage of male and female employees available to fill the newly expanded service sector was one important reason why married women, especially older women with no pre-school children, entered the labor force.

During the 1960's women's labor force participation increased because of such factors as rapid growth and prosperity of the United States economy, higher educational levels of women, the Women's

Liberation Movement, and passage of legislation prohibiting discrimination (Moore and Sawhill, 1978; U. S. Department of Labor, 1980a). As the baby boom generation (persons born between the 1940's and mid-1950's) reached ages 20 to 24 labor force gains were greater for younger women (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980a). According to Chafe (1976, p. 25):

The greatest increase in female labor force during the 1960's and 1970's took place among younger women of childbearing age. The proportion of women working in the 20-24 age group increased from 50 percent in 1964 to 61 percent in 1973.

During the 1970's dramatic changes began to take place in women's ^x participation in the labor market. The change in labor force participation rates was most dramatically illustrated by the statistics (see Table I). At the beginning of the decade, about 31 million women or 43 percent of all U. S. women 16 years old or over were employed in the labor force. By 1980, 51.4 percent of all women were employed or looking for paid work. The majority, 55 percent, of employed women began the 1980's in the clerical and service occupations, but a substantial number made inroads into professional/technical jobs with higher status and earnings, e.g., doctors, lawyers, and accountants (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980a). Women continued to be employed largely in the industries that were historically their source of employment, such as clerical, wholesale and retail trade, and public service sectors.

Employment rates of mothers also increased dramatically. More [✓] mothers entered and reentered the labor force during the 1970's than ever before in U. S. history (Waldman, 1979). According to Herman (1979) in testimony before the U. S. Senate Committee on Human

Resources:

MATERIAL
EMPLOY

TABLE I
 LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF WOMEN AND MEN
 ANNUAL AVERAGES, SELECTED YEARS, 1950-1980

Year	Participation Rate (percent of population in labor force)	
	Women	Men
1950	33.9	86.4
1960	37.7	83.3
1970	43.3	79.7
1971	43.3	79.1
1972	43.9	79.0
1973	44.7	78.8
1974	45.6	78.7
1975	46.3	77.9
1976	47.3	77.5
1977	48.4	77.7
1978	50.0	77.9
1979	51.0	77.9
1980 1st quarter (seasonally adjusted)	51.4	77.6

Source: U. S. Department of Labor. Perspectives
 on Working Women, Washington, D.C.:
 Bureau of Labor Statistics, June, 1980.

The trend is for more and more mothers to join the labor force. Their entry rate into the world of work has been greater than for all women in the past 10 years. Now more than half of all mothers are working or looking for work.

By 1980, 54 percent of all mothers aged 25 to 34 were employed in the labor force (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980b).

Several characteristics of women's employment were observed through the historical trends. These included the following: (1) women are concentrated in jobs in which few men are employed, a phenomenon often called job segregation by gender; (2) women have not been long term participants in the workforce; (3) a gap between the wages paid to men and those paid to women has prevailed; (4) women have been discriminated against in jobs to which they have had access; and (5) the presence of young children has generally had a strong inhibitory affect upon mother's employment (Taeuber and Sweet, 1976; Degler, 1980; Hesse, 1979; Blau, 1978).

Multiple Roles of Women

Changes in women's roles became more pronounced as more women entered the workforce. Conflicts between employment and family life were a special concern to employed women with families. Moore and Sawhill (1978, p. 202) stated:

The increased employment of women means that they have less time to devote to home and family, and increased economic resources with which to choose a wider variety of family lifestyles, some less family oriented than in the past.

Certainly for the increasing numbers of two-earner families, as well as single and divorced women heading households, balancing employment and family life was especially challenging. The multiplicity of roles

experienced by employed women may have been the source of role strain in the areas of household labor, child care, and family income.

Role Strain

Once a woman has accepted employment, she may find greater fulfillment and self-satisfaction, but the paid job has been an additional occupation which, when combined with home work, means she pursues a "dual career" (Kreps and Leaper, 1976, p. 70). Kanter (1977, pp. 1-2) wrote that this conflict between employment and family life has been a major focus of policy attention:

Issues such as child-care, part-time employment, maternity leave, executive transfers, spousal involvement in career planning, and treatment of family problems are of critical interest to the woman who finds herself bearing major responsibilities in both domains.

Research on women's employment and family relations was generally dominated by the traditional view of the woman's place until the late 1960's (Kanter, 1977). The traditional roles that women held as homemakers and volunteers were assumed to be non-conflicting and therefore were not studied, with a few exceptions, (Caplow, 1954; Lopata, 1971). However, jobs in the paid labor force were assumed to generate role strain or to induce strain for women although not usually for employed men. Underlying this perspective was the assumption that the family was the only salient realm for women (Kanter, 1977).

This multiplicity of roles on the part of the employed wife have been termed "role strain," "exchange imbalance" and "inequity," terms which described conditions in affected households (Hoffereth and Moore, 1979). Though many new terms have been adopted to describe the problem, it is believed that conflicting roles of women are becoming more

manageable as the family and the workplace have adapted to increased women's employment.

Division of Household Labor

Division of household labor has been a critical issue for employed women and helped to account for how women manage to reconcile employment and family roles (Epstein, 1970). Various studies have shown that even though wives were employed outside the home, they still had the major responsibility for housework (Morgan et al., 1966; Holstrom, 1972; Walker, 1973; Nickols, 1976). Walker (1973) estimated that a woman's workweek increased when she was employed outside the home to a total of 65-75 hours of job and household work. Between one-quarter (Pressner, 1977) and two-thirds (Nickols, 1976) of husbands in the U. S. reported they did no housework at all. Husbands did household work somewhere between six (Nickols, 1976) and eleven (Walker, 1973) hours per week. Husbands contributed about the same to family tasks whether their wives are employed in the labor force or not (Walker, 1973).

Traditionally, the woman's job commitment was viewed as secondary to her domestic responsibility (Pleck, 1977). In a national sample of married women in 1965-66, Robinson, Yerby, Feiweger, and Somerick (1976) noted that only 19 percent responded "yes" to the question, "Do you wish your husband would give you more help with the household chores?". In a repeat survey in 1973, the percentage of agreement rose only four percentage points to 23 percent.

A more recent article by Pifer (1979, p. 18) reported a trend away from these traditional feelings, "there is now an assumption by people that women will work and hence acknowledgement of the fact that

household maintenance and child-care will be shared by both partners." Thus, a decision must be made as to how household labor will be divided. Kahne (1976) suggested that the price of time should play a major role in determining which family member is to be the major income earner. A woman's decision on how to allocate her time has been complicated; she and her family must make a three-way decision, ". . . how much time to give to home work without dollar compensation, how much time to give to market work for pay, and how much time to give to leisure" (Kreps and Leaper, 1976, p. 62).

Options that employed women have concerning household tasks included: (1) rely on non-paid help from spouse, (2) reduce housekeeping standards, (3) become more efficient at housework, and (4) work part-time (Meisner et al., 1975). In the workplace employers have recognized the dual responsibilities of women workers for home and job and have begun to experiment with more part-time work or other arrangements that provide time flexibility (Pifer, 1979). Part-time and other alternative schedules have been successful in helping to balance the role-conflicts experienced by employed women in the realms of work and family life (Pifer, 1979).

Child Care

Since child rearing has traditionally been the task of the mother, the influx of mothers into the labor force caused great concern over the care and nurturance of children whose mothers were employed. According to Moore and Hofferth (1979, pp. 130-131):

Most young mothers expect to have children and most also expect to work. Only three percent of the seventeen-year-old girls surveyed in the National Assessment of Educational

Progress in 1973-74 selected housewife as their first career choice and only about ten percent of young women expect to be childless.

In 1977 there were 17.1 million preschool children (under age six) in the U. S. of whom 6.4 million had employed mothers. It was projected that 10.5 million children will have mothers in the labor force by 1990 (Waldman, 1979). The best estimate has been that between 10 percent and 15 percent of all preschool children of employed mothers were cared for in day care centers (U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1978). Care in private homes by relatives and non-relatives also accounted for much of the child care. However, many parents do not or cannot hire outside care. Pifer (1978, p. 21) stated "Working parents often have no alternative but to give their children the key and hope for the best." Herein lies a gap in the literature concerning not only child care but also child rearing and the responsibilities of the parent. The topic of how working parents manage such things as dental appointments, and pick-up and delivery of children has not been adequately addressed.

Admst the concern for adequate child care and role strain of employed mothers, it has been suggested that part-time employment is an accommodation that greatly eases the strain they experienced. (Polit, 1979). Moore and Hofferth (1979, p. 140) stated, "increased flexibility in work hours and increased access to part-time employment would allow parents in two earner families to share child care." Also, increased wages, creation of part-time and flexible job opportunities, or provision of day care at the place of employment may encourage women to become employed outside the home.

Family Income

A traditional assumption in research has been that the husband's occupation alone supposedly defines class and status for the family (Haug, 1973; Acker, 1973). With the influx of women into the paid labor market, this can no longer hold true. Vickery (1979, p. 162) stated, "the entry of a wife into the labor force for the major part of her adult life means that she has switched from being the family's income buffer to a steady source of earnings." An employed wife may have viewed her paid work as an insurance policy against the loss of income if she is widowed, or if her marriage breaks down. Pay checks have also increased families' standard of living, the wife's bargaining power, and the wife's economic influence in the family (Vickery, 1979).

Changes in the Structure of Employment

Changes in the structure of employment were brought about by a number of environmental forces which have combined to "lead a growing number of individuals to openly seek more flexibility in work schedules and more meaningful work" (Cohen and Gadon, 1978, p. 3). This research team further stated:

Individuals are increasingly pressuring organizations to be more responsible to them as people with lives outside work and have expressed great personal interest in alternative work schedules (Cohen and Gadon, 1978, p. 1).

At the same time, many organizations have found that offering alternative scheduling arrangements led to increased morale, commitment, availability of talented employees, and often increased productivity (Herman, 1979; Cohen and Gadon, 1978).

Forces Affecting the Structure of the Workforce

Many social, economic, and political forces, as well as specific changes in employment attitudes, were mentioned in the literature as having contributed to changes in the structure of employment. Broad economic forces included the advance of industrial technology that has increased employment opportunities (Miller, 1978; Evans, 1973), relative affluence of the population (Best and Stern, 1977; Cohen and Gadon, 1978), and changes in the structure of the U. S. economy (Evans, 1973). Others included two recessions (1974 and 1975), changing notions of what constitutes a decent standard of living, and the need of many women to be self-sufficient (Pifer, 1979).

Social forces that impacted the structure of the workplace were the emergence of the women's movement (Miller, 1978; Barrett, 1979; Lazer, 1975; Smith, 1979), suburbanization of the U. S. population (Miller, 1978), increasing levels of education (Cohen and Gadon, 1978; Best and Stern, 1977), an aging population (Best and Stern, 1977; Cohen and Gadon, 1978), shifts from production to service work (Leon and Bednarzik, 1978), and the increase in women's labor force participation (Evans, 1973; Miller, 1978; Smith, 1979; Polit, 1979; Herman, 1979; Arkin and Dobrofsky, 1979; Leon and Bednarzik, 1978). Others included an increased acceptance of employed mothers, delay of having children by young married couples, exceedingly high rates of divorce, and falling birthrates (Waldman, 1979; Smith, 1979).

Political and legislative action in the 1970's reflects that the workplace has become a main arena for the stimulation of social change (Cohen and Gadon, 1978). Recent legislation influencing the status of employees included the Equal Pay Act of 1963, Equal Employment

Opportunity Act of 1972, Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, and Public Law 95-555 (1978) to ban discrimination based on pregnancy.

Other forces which affect employment structures were changes in employee attitudes. These included general dissatisfaction with working conditions (Miller, 1978), low employee morale (Arkin and Dobrofsky, 1979), greater valuing of leisure time (Miller, 1978), decline of family obligations (Best and Stern, 1977), reduced productivity (Arkin and Dobrofsky, 1979), preference for alternative lifestyles and more interesting work (Cohen and Gadon, 1978), and finally, an increased concern about the family/employment interface (Herman, 1979; Rapaport and Rapaport, 1965; Bernard, 1972; Gronseth, 1971; Kanter, 1977).

Rise of Alternative Employment Schedules

"The movement toward alternative employment patterns first gathered momentum in the U. S. during the mid-1960's, an era of near universal social upheaval" (Miller, 1978, p. 5). Understandably, much of the drive for new employment alternatives was linked to the afore-mentioned social changes and new attitudes that began to find expression during this period. Modern alternatives to the hours rigidity of the traditional employment schedule for the most part were concerned with the number of hours worked and how they were arranged. According to Miller (1978, p. 5), "what is essentially new with these alternatives is workers are becoming more interested in the qualitative as well as the quantitative, aspects of working life."

Alternative work schedules have helped to improve the quality of life for those employees who desire flexibility in their work so that they

can better combine work with family, leisure, and education (Polit, 1979).

Women and Alternative Employment Schedules

The development and implementation of alternative employment schedules had significant impact upon women's employment opportunities. According to Polit (1979, p. 207), "the quality of women's lives may depend to a much greater extent than that of men's on the kinds of opportunities which result from innovative work schedules." The conflicting demands of employee/mother/wife roles might be reduced if more flexible working arrangements were available to ease the burden of handling multiple roles (Kanter, 1977; Polit, 1979).

Types of Alternative Schedules

Three major forms of non-traditional schedules were mentioned most frequently in the literature: the shortened work-week; flexible working hours; and part-time employment. Various forms of each have existed. Basically, the shortened work-week compressed the hours worked into fewer days; and flexible working hours offer options as to starting and ending times; but part-time employment has been the only one of the three that offers an alternative to full-time work schedules (Boger, 1980).

Part-time employment has perhaps more obviously been a women's issue than the other forms of nontraditional schedules (Polit, 1979). The vast majority of all part-time employees (nearly 80 percent) was female (Simmons et al., 1975). Statistics indicated that the number of women on part-time schedules increased at a significantly greater rate

than did the number of women on full-time schedules. By 1977 adult women constituted 54.3 percent of those individuals voluntarily employed part-time with 70 percent of all female part-time employees in sales, clerical, and nondomestic service occupations (Leon and Bednarzik, 1978).

Part-time employment has not been an option for all employees.

Arkin and Dobrofsky (1979, p. 162) wrote:

The economics of part-time work, no matter what the range of benefits, restrict it to professional, semi-professional, and management level workers who can adequately subsist on the reduced income without economic stress.

However, part-time work can and has occurred at all levels of employment, including lower levels of status and pay, and involving monotonous work. Currently, eight states--Alaska, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Maryland, New York, Oregon, and Wisconsin--have legislation pending or government programs experimenting with permanent part-time work, and four of those states--California, Colorado, Oregon, and Wisconsin--are experimenting with job sharing projects (Meier, 1978; Arkin and Dobrofsky, 1979). The federal government enacted legislation on flexible and compressed work schedules as well as the Part-time Career Opportunity Act for Civil Service positions (Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981).

Job Sharing

Job sharing was a relatively new alternative to full-time employment in which two employees share one full-time position. The "sharing" concept was used in the form of "work sharing" during the Depression years and the labor shortage of World War II as a means for employers to apportion existing work. By doing so, employees might be retained

during an economic downturn (Bednarzik, 1980; Meier, 1978). The term as it is used now came from efforts in the late 1960's to develop new career level opportunities in part-time jobs by restructuring full-time positions (Meier, 1978). In 1973, Catalyst, a New York based educational organization dedicated to researching women and careers, set forth a position paper which defined job sharing and other forms of part-time employment and explained the advantages of the new arrangement for employers (Catalyst, 1973; Meier, 1978). Momentum for part-time schedules and job sharing has increased as organizations such as Advocates for Women, The National Council for Alternative Work Patterns, and New Ways to Work have promoted job sharing and other alternative employment schedules through communications networks, conferences, publications, and model legislation to promote implementation of job sharing (Arkin and Dobrofsky, 1979).

Job sharing has been available in both professional and non-professional settings. According to the Educational Research Service (1981, p. 4):

Although job sharing has been utilized in nonprofessional settings, much of its current value derives from providing professionals the opportunity to participate in a career on a part-time basis. It is a method of restructuring full-time work so that two individuals can divide between them the duties and responsibilities of a high level position while earning a prorated professional salary and benefits.

Impetus for Job Sharing

To date, employees have provided greater impetus for job sharing arrangements than employers (Arkin and Dobrofsky, 1978; Meier, 1978; Olmstead, 1979). Reasons for the attractiveness of job sharing and other part-time employment schedules included the desire or need to be

employed part-time while raising children (Frease and Zawacki, 1979; Leon and Bednarzik, 1978; Martin, 1974; Olmstead, 1977; Schwartz, 1974), the desire of mothers who are unable to be employed full-time to remain in contact with previously initiated careers (Olmstead, 1977); the need or desire to contribute financially to the support of the family (Foegen, 1976; Martin, 1974); the need or desire to develop a sense of professional accomplishment or utilize professional training (Martin, 1974); and increased social pressure to assume a role other than homemaker (Werther, 1975). The Educational Research Service (1981) reported that commitment to further schooling plus a desire for extensive leisure have been cited by men and women as instrumental in decisions to pursue part-time employment.

In addition to men and women who desired a less than full-time employment schedule, those who exhibited an interest in permanent part-time employment and job sharing included older persons wishing to approach retirement gradually or to continue employment after retirement (Casner-Lotto, 1979; Frease and Zawacki, 1979; Olmstead, 1979); dual career couples facing difficulty in finding two full-time positions (Lazer, 1975); persons with medical problems who are unable to accept full-time employment (Casner-Lotto, 1979; Merkin, 1980; Werther, 1976); adults who would consider part-time employment during a tight job market (Casner-Lotto, 1979); and persons who are ideologically committed to maximizing time for private non-work related interests (Lazer, 1975; Arkin and Dobrofsky, 1979). Many job sharers have considered their family as most important and therefore choose to participate in the labor force at reduced time (Meier, 1978).

Definitions of Job Sharing

Job sharing was defined by Cohen and Gadon (1978, p. 67) as ". . . a particular kind of part-time work in which one full-time job is divided by two people, each of whom works an agreed-on portion of the job." However, there are several variations of job sharing. Meier (1978, p. 2) termed them as ". . . horizontal, where both employees are equally responsible for total job requirements, or vertical, where each employee is responsible for a distinct half." Cohen and Gadon (1978, p. 67) went into more detail:

Each (job sharer) works a half-day, with or without overlapping hours; each works a half-week; the week (or month) is divided unequally by mutual agreement; each is responsible for the whole job even though working part-time; each is responsible for half (or another proportion) of the job according to skills or job needs, and so on.

According to Olmstead and Markels (1978, p. 18):

. . .how the job is divided depends upon the nature of the tasks to be performed and the consequent degree of interaction between the employees responsible for the successful completion of those tasks.

In some cases the job functions of one individual were distinctly different from those of the other individual. Of major importance to the definition of job sharing was the point that jobs are created by converting a full-time position into two or more job sharing positions. Herein lies the difference between part-time work and job sharing; not all part-time jobs are created by restructuring full-time positions, but job sharing positions are.

For the purposes of this study, the following definition of job sharing was adopted by the researcher and the Job Sharing Advisory Committee:

Job sharing is an employment schedule in which two or three people jointly fulfill the responsibility for one full-time position or job title. Participants must perceive themselves as job sharers, communicate with their partner, and share the same workspace. Additionally, the employer must perceive the arrangement as job sharing.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Job Sharing to Employees

The most obvious advantage of job sharing to employees has been that it responds to the need of greater flexibility in employment. Proponents of job sharing have claimed that secondary benefits resulted as well: reduced fatigue, improved morale, a higher energy level, and reduced tedium and frustration from menial jobs (Frease and Zawacki, 1979; Merkin, 1980; Olmstead, 1979, 1977; Rich, 1978; Sandler and Platt, 1973). In addition, Lazer (1975) contended that job sharing allowed employees to pursue broader and less pressured lives, to facilitate personal and leisure activities, to manage career and demands of home, to share family responsibilities when both spouses are employed and to have the opportunity to update skills and knowledge through further education.

Job sharing has also had positive effects on an individual careers. Some persons have entered their talents with those of another person or simply stayed in contact with their career during the years of increased family responsibility (Olmstead, 1977). Others have chosen to job share with experienced employees in an apprenticeship arrangement (Martin, 1974; Meier, 1978; Olmstead, 1979).

Disadvantages of job sharing for employees have also resulted. According to the Educational Research Service (1981, p. 5):

The most obvious disadvantage of job sharing to individuals is diminished salary. Many persons cannot live on less than full-time wages. This overriding factor limits the number of people who can participate in job sharing relationships.

The reduction in fringe benefits has also deterred certain individuals from job sharing. Many employers have feared that the cost of fringe benefits for job sharers will result in extra expenses to the company. But a benefit package could be constructed that is equitable to both the employee and employer. Benefits often have been prorated according to the number of hours worked (Lazer, 1975; Olmstead, 1977). According to Schwartz (1974, p. 11):

Prorating based on earnings is possible in areas of compensatory benefits--e.g., paid vacation, paid holidays, paid jury duty and sick leave; and most supplementary benefits--e.g., long-term disability insurance, life insurance, pensions, and profit sharing. The most important category in which prorating is not feasible for computing part-time personnel benefit costs is that of statutory benefits; social security, unemployment, state disability insurance, and workmen's compensation.

Career advancement of job sharers could also be hindered. According to Frease and Zawacki (1979, p. 37) "preliminary data indicated that job sharers receive fewer promotions than full-time employees and that there is a barrier against job sharing at a supervisory level."

Job sharers have had to guard against being overly devoted to their work or being unfairly manipulated to work more than their scheduled hours. Furthermore, job sharers have had to come to work on their days off because of important meetings (Frease and Zawacki, 1979).

Advantages and Disadvantages of Job Sharing to Employers

The job sharing schedule provided advantages to employers in terms of retention of employees who desired to work a less-than-full-time

schedule. For many employers, a sudden reduction in experienced staff as a result of retirement, or employees leaving the workforce because of family responsibilities could be avoided through job sharing.

Proponents of job sharing have claimed that it produces positive residual effects such as higher morale, improved attitude, and an increased on-the-job energy level (Educational Research Service, 1981). In general, the turnover rate for job sharers was believed to be lower than the turnover rate for the work force as a whole (Lazer, 1975; Merkin, 1980; Olmstead, 1977).

With respect to work performance, proponents claimed that job sharing promotes increased productivity and job sharers exhibit less tardiness and absenteeism than full-time employees (Frease and Zawacki, 1979; Olmstead, 1979; Rich, 1978). Greater productivity was one of the most frequently perceived advantages of job sharing cited by library administrators in a survey conducted in Denver, Colorado ("Job Sharing in Libraries: Report from Massachusetts", 1976). In general, job sharers and their supervisors attested to an increase in productivity in the New Ways to Work Study (Meier, 1978).

Employers could also benefit from job sharing for any of the following reasons. Job sharing allowed the employer to place two individuals whose abilities complement each other in a full-time position and therefore have the benefit of a wide range of expertise (Leon and Bednarzik, 1978; Frease and Zawacki, 1979; Merkin, 1980). The interaction between two job sharers could lead to stimulation of ideas, and job sharing could serve as an alternative to layoffs (Meier, 1978).

According to critics, job sharing also has had disadvantages. These disadvantages included increased expenses, continuity of job sharing relationships, and supervision and accountability.

The principle disadvantages of job sharing have been the increased costs of benefits and administration. Health insurance, life insurance, and retirement benefits could be prorated, given in full, or not given at all, depending on the choice of the organization. Statutory benefits such as FICA Tax or state taxes could not be prorated and could cause companies who employ job sharers to spend more on benefits (Frease and Zawacki, 1979). This was explained in greater detail by the Educational Research Service (1981, p. 8):

With social security the employer pays taxes on each employee's wages up to a certain dollar amount. Once this figure is reached the employer is exempted from paying FICA taxes for additional employee earnings. Dividing a full-time salary in half could cause some employee earnings normally above the FICA ceiling to be placed within the range of FICA taxes.

Administrative costs could increase since a job sharing position would potentially double the paperwork involved for a full-time position. Initial training costs could also increase with the instruction and training of additional personnel ("Job Sharing in Libraries: Report from Massachusetts", 1976; Lazer, 1975; Schwartz, 1974).

Some fear that job continuity would be disrupted if communication between partners or between supervisor and employees is not adequate. Personality conflicts and scheduling arrangements that hamper communication have been detrimental to the success of job sharing (Frease and Zawacki, 1979).

Job sharing has posed difficulties for administrators in terms of employee accountability because management has long subscribed to the

one-person, one-job concept. A principle advantage of this system has been the "ability to fix accountability for actions to a particular individual in a particular position" (Lazer, 1975).

Examining Job Sharing Research

Three major job sharing studies were discussed below. They were conducted by the Catalyst (1968) organization, the New Ways to Work (1976) organization, and Gretl Meier for the W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research (1978).

One of the first studies of Job Sharing was conducted in 1967 by Catalyst, a New York based career resource center. Catalyst assessed the Partnership Teaching Program, a project conducted by the Women's Educational and Industrial Union located in Boston, Massachusetts. Teachers were scheduled for half-day shifts. Cooperation and communication between partners was stressed, and heavy emphasis was placed upon planning and preparation.

The findings indicate that parents were favorably impressed with partnership teaching, generally feeling that their children benefited (Catalyst, 1968). School administrators were pleased with the program, believing partnership teachers put in more than half-time work (Catalyst, 1968). Catalyst reported that although some parents and administrators were initially skeptical of partnership teaching, many became supporters of the program.

In 1976, New Ways to Work, a non-profit work resource center based in San Francisco, California, published a study concerning job sharing in nine San Francisco Bay area school districts. Based on the findings of the study, New Ways to Work advised potential job sharers to evaluate

five key components of the arrangement (New Ways to Work, 1976). First, it was recommended that the prior relationship between job sharers be assessed for compatibility. Second, it was suggested that individuals should determine the best method of handling responsibilities and splitting the curriculum. Third, it was recommended that the relative advantages and disadvantages to job sharing be discussed. A fourth component dealt with partners agreeing upon a consistent philosophy. The final component involved the structuring of an adequate communication system between job sharers. Job sharers provided a largely positive assessment of their scheduling arrangement.

Administrative issues were identified by New Ways to Work and included procedures for: (1) the application process; (2) approving job sharing; (3) reverting to full-time status; (4) handling fringe benefits; and (5) salary advancements. Administrators were generally pleased with the results citing such advantages as retaining older teachers, and coupling individuals with complementary skills.

The majority of parents who responded to an informal survey indicated approval for job sharing. Many believed that their children benefited from the program.

Meier (1978) conducted a study of job sharing in 1977 for the W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research. The study surveyed 238 job sharers as to their occupations, employers, specific work arrangements, and personal backgrounds. The following occupational categories were represented in the study: teachers; administrators/coordinators/program developers; secretaries/receptionists/clerical workers; counselors/social workers; and researchers/technicians.

Respondents reported several advantages to job sharing including the opportunity to balance work life with non-work time, diminished fatigue and on-the-job boredom, and flexibility. Drawbacks which were reported included difficulties in restricting work hours, lessened promotion opportunities, and lack of continuity with full-time.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The following research procedures provided the format for obtaining information about job sharing as compared to full-time employment. Additionally, it provided a method for relating these types of employment schedules to the variables of job satisfaction, fringe benefits, attitudes toward employment and family roles, facilitation of dual employment and family responsibilities, time flexibility, and perceptions of job sharing. The procedure involved determining: (1) the type of research design; (2) population and sampling; (3) instrumentation, and (4) statistical analysis.

Type of Research

This study compared the independent variable - employment structure (specifically job sharing or full-time employment) and job satisfaction, employee benefit programs, attitudes toward employment and family responsibilities, facilitation of dual roles, time flexibility (criterion or dependent variables). To accomplish this, a method of descriptive research was used. The survey method best met the objectives of the study and also provided a means of exploration in an area where little research had been done. According to Babbie (1973, p. 59), the survey is a "search device used when the researcher is only beginning

an inquiry into a particular topic." The survey method best serves the serves the purpose of assessing opinions and attitudes of individuals.

Advisory Committee

As a result of an initial contact with employers asking for participation in the Job Sharing Project, an eleven-member Advisory Committee was established. It included organizational representatives who expressed interest in serving in an advisory capacity to the research project. Firms, institutions, and agencies which were represented included: Mercy Health Center, Baptist Medical Center, Western Electric, and the State Board of Public Affairs, all from Oklahoma City, OK; St. Francis Hospital, Wendy's International, Blue Cross and Blue Shield, and First National Bank, all from Tulsa, OK; and Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK. Some Advisory Committee members represented the organization in which the research was to be conducted; most did not. Responsibilities of the Advisory Committee were to critique and add input concerning the questionnaire and research methods, offer the employers' perspective to the research, and review aspects of the project as it was being developed and finalized.

The Job Sharing Advisory Committee met at Oklahoma State University on January 28, 1980. During the committee meeting organization representatives assisted in questionnaire revision by clarifying terminology and recommending additions and deletions. These suggestions were incorporated into the questionnaire. Discussion also centered around a definition of job sharing, questionnaire distribution and collection, and the applicability of the survey to employees in each organization.

Population and Sampling

The ideal population for this study would have been all employing organizations within the state of Oklahoma. However, problems in locating job sharing positions made it difficult to determine the true population. Only through persistence was the sample identified. A purposive sample which identified job sharers and matched them for comparison with selected full-time employees in the same occupations was utilized (see Figure 1). The final sample was selected from all four-year Universities in the state and the Wichita, Kansas Public School System. The total sample included 25 job sharers and 25 full-time employees. The method by which they were selected is discussed later.

Initial correspondence to Oklahoma organizations employing over 500 persons was mailed on October 29, 1980. A letter described job sharing, explained the research project, and asked for assistance. Also enclosed was a preliminary employer survey concerning the incidence of job sharing within each organization, willingness to participate in the study, and willingness to serve on the advisory committee for the project (see Appendix A). This letter was used to locate the initial sample of job sharing teams.

A follow-up letter to those employers who had not returned the survey was mailed three weeks after the initial contact (see Appendix A). The administrators were asked to complete and return the survey as soon as possible.

Because of poor results in identifying job sharing teams through the first method, two additional methods were implemented. In March, 1980, Chamber of Commerce offices in ten Oklahoma cities with

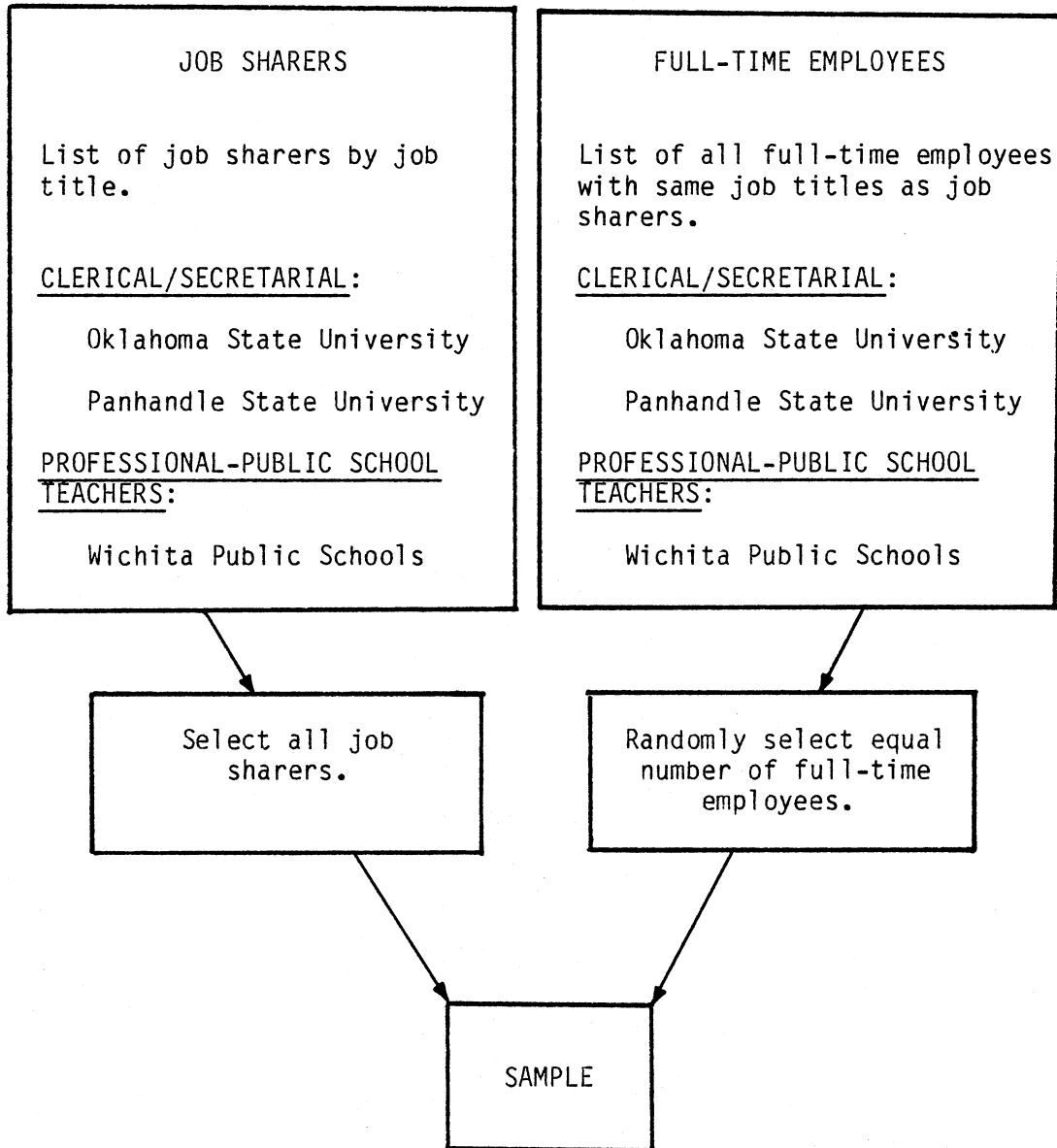


Figure 1. Design for Selection of Respondents

populations of 20,000 and above were sent a summary of the Job Sharing Research Project for publication in their newsletter or for dissemination to their constituents as desired. Employers were asked to contact the researcher if they offered the job sharing option. No job sharers were identified through this correspondence.

The personnel directors of all four-year universities in Oklahoma were contacted by telephone in April, 1980, and interviewed concerning the incidence of job sharing in their institution. Only Panhandle State University reported employment of job sharing teams and required formal follow-up. Follow-up procedures for Panhandle State University included mailing the personnel director a detailed explanation of the project, a copy of the questionnaire, and a list of possible dates for data collection.

When a sufficient number of job sharing teams was not located by the previous methods, the Wichita, Kansas Public School System was contacted. Through reading various newspaper articles, the researchers had learned that the Wichita Schools employed job sharing teams in a variety of teaching positions. The Director for Research, Planning, and Development of Wichita Schools was contacted. It was necessary for a research proposal to be submitted and approved by the Wichita Schools Research Council prior to administration of the survey. The proposal included the following information: (1) description of the proposed study; (2) statement of the educational problem; (3) specific purposes and expected outcomes; (4) description of the sample needed; (5) expected starting date and duration of the study; (6) procedures and methods to be used; and (7) assurance of protection of human subjects. Also requested was an abstract of the project and a letter of

endorsement from the Dean of the College of Home Economics, Oklahoma State University.

Based on these contacts, the survey sites identified for participation in the study included: Panhandle State University, Goodwell, OK; Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK; and Wichita Public School System, Wichita, KS. All job sharers in each location were selected as part of the sample, as well as an equal number of full-time employees randomly selected from all full-time employees within the organization whose job descriptions and responsibilities corresponded to those of the job sharers.

The initial sample invited to participate in the survey included eight job sharers and eight full-time employees from Oklahoma State University, four job sharers and four full-time employees from Panhandle State University, and sixteen job sharers and sixteen full-time employees from the Wichita, Kansas Public School System (see Table II). The response rate was 100 percent for both Oklahoma State University and Panhandle State University. Job sharers and full-time employees from the Wichita Public School System responded to the survey at a rate of 81.3 percent and 94 percent, respectively. Because 13 job sharers as compared to 15 full-time employees from the Wichita Schools returned the survey, two full-time employees' questionnaires were randomly deleted in order to equally match the number of questionnaires from the two groups.

Instrumentation

This study comparing job sharing and full-time employees was part of the Family/Employment Interface Research Project conducted by the

TABLE II
 RESPONSE TO SURVEY BY INSTITUTION
 AND JOB CATEGORY

Institution	Invited Sample		Respondents		Response Rate	
	Job Sharers	Full-time Employees	Job Sharers	Full-time Employees	Job Sharers	Full-time Employees
Oklahoma State University	8	8	8	8	100%	100%
Panhandle State University	4	4	4	4	100%	100%
Wichita Public Schools	16	16	13	15	81%	94%

Family Study Center at Oklahoma State University in 1980-81. Particular interest in job sharing as an alternative to traditional employment schedules led to the development of the questionnaire used in this study. The questionnaire was designed to compare job sharing and full-time employees according to: (1) employee benefit programs; (2) job satisfaction; (3) attitudes toward employment and family roles; (4) facilitation of family and employment responsibilities; and (5) time flexibility. Analysis was limited to questionnaire items that met the purposes and objectives of this study.

Development of Questionnaire

Two previous studies of alternative employment schedules provided helpful inputs for instrument development. Table III presented survey objectives, primary source of question, amount of modification, and level of measurement. Items concerning personal characteristics and employment information were developed by the researcher. Items covering perceptions and facilitation of employment and family roles, perceptions of job sharing, and the job sharing relationship relied on items from Meier (1978). The Family Impact Seminar Study of flexible employment schedules by Bohlen and Viveros-Long (1981) served as the source of ideas for items concerning job satisfaction and time flexibility.

The survey, "An Appraisal for Job Sharing in the U. S.", by Gretl S. Meier (1978) questioned 238 job sharers. Meier suggested that further research be done to answer certain unsettled questions concerning job sharing. Two of these suggestions for further research--the types of family backgrounds from which job sharers come, and fringe benefit programs within the organization were included in the present study.

TABLE III

THE COMPARISON OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES TO SOURCE OF QUESTIONS,
AMOUNT OF MODIFICATION, AND LEVEL OF MEASUREMENT

Objectives	Primary Source of Questions	Amount of Modification*	Level of Measurement
I. Background Information	Researcher Developed	-	Nominal
II. Employment Information	Researcher Developed	-	Nominal
III. Job Satisfaction	Bohen and Viveros-Long***	3	Interval (Likert Scale)
IV. Employment and Family Roles	Meier**	2	Interval (Likert Scale)
V. Employment and Family Responsibilities	Meier**	2	Interval (Likert Scale)
VI. Time Flexibility	Bohen and Viveros-Long***	1	Interval (Likert Scale)
VII. Perceptions of Job Sharing	Meier**	1	Interval and Nominal (Likert Scale, Open-end)
VIII. Job Sharing Relationship	Meier**	3	Interval and Nominal (Likert Scale, Open-end, Yes-No)

* 1 = Minor 2 = Moderate 3 = Major

** Meier, B. S. An Appraisal for Job Sharing in the U.S. Kalamazoo, Michigan: W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1978.

*** Bohan, H. and A. Viveros-Long. Balancing Jobs and Family Life: Do Flexible Schedules Help? Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1981.

The survey of flexible and traditional schedules conducted by the George Washington University Family Impact Seminar consisted of 413 employees of a standard time agency, and 436 employees of a flextime agency (Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981). Concepts of flexibility and job satisfaction were researched.

The first sections of the questionnaire dealt with personal characteristics and employment information. Questions designed to collect information on personal characteristics pertained to children, adult dependents, ethnic background, marital status, date of birth, and education. Employment information which was collected included job title, time with firm, hours employed per week, type of position held, monthly take-home earnings, importance of income to family, and benefits offered and participated in. See Appendix B for the complete list of questions.

The third section of the instrument dealt with questions concerning job satisfaction. Two open-end questions probed overall job satisfaction. A Likert scale technique was used to obtain responses concerning satisfaction with specific job characteristics such as work environment, supervisor, employment schedule, duties of job, and opportunities for advancement.

Items concerning employment and family roles were included in order to examine how respondents manage family and employment responsibilities. Scales measured traditional and non-traditional attitudes, and stress factors.

The time flexibility section was designed to assess the ease or difficulty respondents experienced in arranging activities. Items

included shopping, running errands, attending activities of family members, visiting friends and neighbors, and having meals with family.

Respondents' perceptions of job sharing were addressed. Respondents answered questions concerning their perceptions of the job sharing arrangement in the areas of communication among partners, compatibility of personalities, and division of responsibility, as well as other questions. Two open-end questions concerning the biggest problems of job sharing and ways to promote job sharing were included.

A section that dealt with the job sharing relationship was completed by job sharers only. Specific questions were answered by job sharers concerning how work is divided, communication time, relationship with partners, and initiation of job. Open-end questions asked respondents to list advantages and disadvantages of job sharing as an employment schedule. This section of the survey is not a part of the present comparative study of job sharers and full-time employees.

Only the items that met the purposes and objectives of this study were selected for analysis. These scales were reported in Chapter 4 and included the Job Satisfaction Scale, the Employment and Family Roles Scale, the Employment and Family Responsibilities Scale, and the Time Flexibility Scale.

Validation of Instrument

The validity of a measure refers to its "purity," that is, the degree to which it measures what it is supposed to measure. Content validity of an instrument is determined by a logical process, examining the representativeness of the test content. According to Compton and Hall (1972, p. 201), "representativeness or sampling adequacy of the

content of a measuring instrument is determined by analyzing the substance, matter, and topics covered."

Content validity of the survey instrument was pretested by a panel of professionals proficient in social research from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma. The panel analyzed the questions included in the instrument in order to determine if they "represent the content areas or behavioral patterns to be assessed" (Compton and Hall, 1972, p. 201). Questions were then modified according to the suggestions made by the panel of experts.

Data Collection

The survey was administered on the job site to those survey participants at Oklahoma State University and Panhandle State University. Sufficient time was allowed by supervisors so that employees could complete the survey during office hours. Participants from the Wichita, Kansas School System received questionnaires by mail at their home addresses.

In each case the survey packets included a questionnaire form, self-addressed and stamped return envelope, and a participant identification card. Each questionnaire was given a four digit code. The first digit represented the firm or institution, the second represented employment arrangement--either a job sharer or full-time employee, and the final two digits were assigned numerically to the participants in order of interview. On the identification card was printed the participant's name. Prior to returning the questionnaire the participant was instructed to detach the card and return it separately from the questionnaire so that names would no longer be identified with the form.

Instructions also provided that participants include an address on the card if they wanted to receive a copy of the results of the study.

The distribution of the questionnaires to participants was handled according to the specific circumstances of the employing organization. At Panhandle State University, the survey packets were delivered to the personnel director who distributed the packets to participants. Upon completion, the questionnaires were sealed in the return envelope by the participant and mailed directly to the Family Study Center at Oklahoma State University. At Oklahoma State University the questionnaires were delivered by the researcher to employees on campus. Questionnaires were returned to the Family Study Center through campus mail. The survey packets were mailed directly to the home addresses of participants from the Wichita, Kansas School System. Participants returned their completed questionnaires through the mail. Follow-up packets were sent to the participant two weeks after the initial mailing if they had not responded.

Scale Reliability and Development

Reliability referred to the ability of an assessment procedure to obtain consistently repeatable and accurate measurements of some trait or characteristic (Fournier, 1979). Measures were said to be reliable to the degree that they are replicable (Mueller et al., 1977). In general, the concept of reliability concerned the ability of a scale to approximate a hypothetical "true score" on the variable being measured. The level of item interrelatedness was a key construct in the theory of reliability measurement.

The basic test of reliability was the ability of items to share a common core of covariance around a particular content area (Fournier, 1979). This "internal consistency" of a scale was most commonly measured by coefficient alpha. First reported by Cronbach (1951), alpha was considered the best measure of internal consistency due to its reliance on the homogeneity of inter-item correlation and covariance. According to Nunnally (1967, p. 196), alpha "represents the expected correlation of one test with another alternate form containing the same number of items."

Alpha was reported twice for each scale in this study (see Table IV). The first calculation of alpha included all items within each scale. The final alpha was the highest possible alpha after the worst item in the scale was deleted. Items were deleted on four of the scales. Reporting both measures of alpha helped to identify potential reliability after removal of items with low relatedness to others in the scale. According to Nunnally (1967) an alpha level of .55 to .60 is acceptable, .60 to .70 is good, .70 to .80 is very good, and .80 to .90 is excellent for research purposes.

As shown on Table IV, the final alpha levels of the scales--Job Satisfaction, Self Satisfaction, and Time Flexibility--were all quite good and within a usable range. These high alpha levels reflected the internal consistency and reliability of each scale.

Analysis of Data

Responses to data regarding background information and the job sharing relationship were analyzed for this study by descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentages. Chi-square and t-tests

TABLE IV
RELIABILITY CALCULATED FOR EACH SCALE AND
AFTER DELETING WORST ITEM

Name of Scale	No. of Items	No. of cases**	Initial Alpha for Full Scale	Items Deleted	Alpha for Final Scale***
Job Satisfaction (SAT)	10	48	.80	SAT9	.81
Employment and Family Roles (ROLES)	5	50	.68	ROLES8	.69
Employment and Family Responsibilities (FEEL)	9	41	.85	FEEL8	.89
Self Satisfaction (SELF)	4	35**	.79	--	.79
Time Flexibility (FLEX)	13	46	.91	FLEX11	.92

*Cases vary due to missing data.

**Small number of cases is because this scale was completed by only those respondents who were married and parents.

***Scale reliability for items used in data analyses.

were used to examine the research questions. Chi-square was used in analyzing hypotheses concerning significant differences in the employee benefit programs offered to job sharers and full-time employees. The remainder of the hypotheses were examined by using the t-test.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This study was designed to compare job sharers and full-time employees according to variables examining the balance between employment and family life. The data presented in this chapter compare job sharers and full-time employees according to benefit programs, job satisfaction, attitudes toward employment and family roles, facilitation of dual employment and family responsibilities, and time flexibility.

The first section of Chapter IV deals with background characteristics of the respondents and includes personal information, employment information, and income characteristics. The second section summarizes the analysis of each research question. The final section contains a comparison of job sharer and full-time employee responses to items on selected scales.

Characteristics of the Respondents

The Background Information section of the questionnaire is divided into three categories: personal information, employment information, and income characteristics. These data are summarized in Tables V, VI, and VII.

Table V reports selected personal characteristics of the respondents. Thirty-four percent of the respondents had one child living at home. Twenty-two percent had two children; and eight percent of the

TABLE V
PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
<u>Number of Children</u>		
0	18	36.0
1	17	34.0
2	11	22.0
3	3	6.0
4	1	2.0
	<u>50</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
<u>Race of Respondent</u>		
White	49	98.0
Black	1	2.0
	<u>50</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
<u>Marital Status of Respondent</u>		
Single, never married	4	8.0
Married, first marriage	37	74.0
Remarried	6	12.0
Divorced	2	4.0
Separated or Widowed	2	2.0
	<u>50</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
<u>Age of Respondent</u>		
19-29	15	30.0
30-39	17	34.0
40-49	8	16.0
50-59	6	12.0
60-69	4	8.0
	<u>50</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
<u>Education</u>		
Not a High School Graduate	1	2.0
High School Graduate	7	14.0
Vocational/Technical	2	4.0
Some College, did not Graduate	9	18.0
Junior College, Associate Degree	1	2.0
College Degree, B.S. or B.A.	18	36.0
Advanced Degree	12	24.0
	<u>50</u>	<u>100.0%</u>

respondents had three or four children. Children ranged in age from one to twenty-three. Sixteen percent of all children were preschool age, forty-nine percent were elementary school aged, fourteen percent were aged 13 to 15 and nearly 22 percent were aged 16 or older. Only two respondents reported adult dependents (aged 21 and 79 years).

All respondents were female. The majority of the respondents were white (98 percent) and married in their first marriage (74 percent). Twelve percent of the respondents had been remarried; eight percent had never married; and six percent were either divorced or widowed.

Ages of the respondents ranged from 19 to 69. The 19 to 29 year old age group represented 30 percent of all respondents. One-third of the respondents were in the age group 30 to 39; 16 percent were aged 40 to 49; 16 percent of the respondents were aged 50 to 59; and 8 percent were over 60.

The respondents were well-educated with a majority (60 percent) having received a college degree. This total included 24 percent who had completed advanced degrees. One respondent had completed an Associate Degree and 18 percent of the respondents had completed some college, but did not graduate. Two had attended a Vocational/Technical program and seven had completed high school only. One respondent was not a high school graduate.

One-half the sample were job sharers and the remaining 25 were full-time employees. Table VI, Employment Characteristics of the Sample, includes job title, time with firm, and hours employed per week. Clerical employees, both full-time and job sharers, made up 48 percent of the total respondents. Fifty-two percent of the respondents, an

TABLE VI
EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
<u>Job Title</u>		
Clerical	24	48.0
Professional	26	52.0
	<u>50</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
<u>Time With Firm</u>		
0-11 months	12	24.0
12-23 months	9	18.0
24-59 months	8	16.0
60-119 months	7	14.0
120-239 months	10	18.0
over 239 months	5	10.0
	<u>50</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
<u>Hours Worked Per Week</u>		
15-20 hours	24	48.0
21-40 hours	20	40.0
41-50 hours	4	8.0
51-55 hours	1	2.0
	<u>49</u>	<u>100.0%</u>

equal number of job sharers and full-time employees, were teachers representing the professional classification.

Twenty-four percent of all respondents had been with the firm 11 months or less. Those respondents who had been with the firm for 12 to 23 months (two years) represented 18 percent; while 16 percent of the respondents had been with the firm for 24 to 59 months (three to five years). Another 18 percent of the respondents had been employed from 60 to 119 months (11 to 20 years) and 10 percent had been employed over 239 months (20 years) with the maximum being 324 months (27 years).

Respondents reported the number of hours that they worked outside the home per week. The employment schedules ranged from 15 to 55 hours per week. Forty-eight percent of the respondents reported working 15 to 20 hours per week, and 40 percent reported working 21 to 40 hours per week. Those employed from 41 to 50 hours per week represented 8 percent of the sample, and one respondent reported working from 51 to 55 hours per week at her job.

Incomes reported on Table VII reflect the range of salaries; from \$199 to \$1,800 per month. At the lower end of the scale, 10 percent of respondents earned less than \$299 per month. Twenty-six percent reported incomes of \$300 to \$499 per month. The highest percentage (34 percent) of job sharers and full-time employees received between \$500 and \$699. Eighteen percent earned \$700 to \$999; while ten percent earned \$1,000 to \$1,800.

The majority (64 percent) of the respondents reported that their income provided less than half or a small part of family income. Twelve percent reported that their income provided all of the income for the family.

TABLE VII
INCOME CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
<u>Monthly Take Home Income</u>		
Less than \$299	5	10.0
\$300-\$499	13	26.0
\$500-\$699	17	34.0
\$700-\$999	9	18.0
\$1000-\$1800	5	10.0
	<u>49</u>	<u>98.0%</u>
<u>Importance of Income</u>		
Provides all of income for family	6	12.0
Provides most income for family	2	4.0
Provides half of income for family	8	16.0
Provides less than half income for family	14	28.0
Provides small part of income for family	18	36.0
	<u>48</u>	<u>96.0%</u>

Analysis of Research Questions

Methods of analysis used to examine research questions of the study are t-tests and chi-square. Chi-square is used to analyze research question one concerning significant differences in employee benefit programs offered to job sharers and full-time employees and significant differences in employees participation in benefit programs. Research questions concerning job satisfaction, attitudes toward employment and family roles, facilitation of employment and family responsibilities, satisfaction with self, and time flexibility are analyzed using the t-test.

Availability and Participation in Job Benefits

Research question one deals with the comparison of employee perceptions regarding benefits offered to job sharers and full-time employees and employee participation in benefit programs. Chi-square analysis indicates a statistically significant difference between job sharers and full-time employees being offered health insurance (see Table VIII). Ninety-six percent of full-time employees are being offered health insurance as a job benefit; as compared to sixty-six percent of job sharers. The remainder of the benefits offered to the employee show no statistically significant difference for full-time employees and job sharers. Child care benefits are not offered to any of the employees.

Results of the analysis comparing employees participation in benefit programs is shown in Table IX. Health insurance is the only benefit which employees participate in at rates which are significantly different. Forty-eight percent of full-time employees and eight percent of job sharers participate in the health insurance benefit. The remainder

TABLE VIII
 BENEFITS OFFERED TO JOB SHARERS
 AND FULL-TIME EMPLOYEES

Benefits	Degrees of Freedom	Chi-Square Value	Significance Level
Health Insurance	1	5.21	.02
Vacation with Pay	1	0.00	NS
Sick Leave	1	0.00	NS
Personal Leave	1	0.04	NS
Paid Holidays	1	0.00	NS
Pension Plan	1	0.17	NS
Discount on Purchases	1	0.48	NS
Dental Insurance	1	0.00	NS
Credit Union	1	0.00	NS
Profit Sharing	1	0.00	NS
Educational Assistance	1	0.37	NS
Life Insurance	1	0.99	NS

TABLE IX
 PARTICIPATION IN BENEFIT PROGRAMS BY
 JOB SHARERS AND FULL-TIME EMPLOYEES

Benefits	Degrees of Freedom	Chi-Square Value	Significance Level
Health Insurance	1	7.60	.005
Vacation with Pay	1	0.19	NS
Sick Leave	1	0.20	NS
Personal Leave	1	0.00	NS
Paid Holidays	1	0.00	NS
Pension Plan	1	0.03	NS
Discount on Purchases	1	0.00	NS
Dental Insurance	1	0.00	NS
Credit Union	1	0.05	NS
Profit Sharing	1	0.00	NS
Educational Assistance	1	0.58	NS
Child Care Services	1	0.00	NS
Life Insurance	1	0.50	NS

of benefit programs participated in by employees are not statistically different for the two groups.

Assessment of Employment, Family, and Self

The remainder of the research questions are analyzed using the t-test. A statistically significant difference between job sharers and full-time employees concerning perceived Job Satisfaction and Time Flexibility is found. No significant difference between the two groups is found concerning Employment and Family Roles, Employment and Family Responsibilities, and Satisfaction with Self. Table X reports the results of analysis of each scale.

Respondents indicate their satisfaction with various parts of their jobs by rating items such as the number of hours worked, duties of job, and opportunities for advancement on a scale from one (very dissatisfied) to five (very satisfied). Job sharers report levels of job satisfaction that are significantly higher than full-time employees. The mean score for job sharers is 4.12, while the mean score for full-time employees is 3.74.

In regard to time flexibility, respondents are asked to respond to items concerning the ease or difficulty with which they arrange such activities as shopping, visiting friends and neighbors, and attending activities of the family. A scale of one (very difficult) to five (very easy) is used. The mean score for job sharers is 3.68 compared to 2.91 for full-time employees, a statistically significant difference, indicating that job sharers have a higher degree of time flexibility.

TABLE X
ANALYSIS OF SCALES ASSESSING EMPLOYEES' PERCEPTIONS
OF EMPLOYMENT, FAMILY, AND SELF (n=50)

Scale	Job Sharers	Full-time Employees	Degrees of Freedom	t-value	Significance Level
Job Satisfaction	4.12	3.74	48	-2.48	.017
Employment and Family Roles	3.54	3.90	48	1.69	NS
Employment and Family Responsibilities ^a	2.40	2.67	38	1.64	NS
Satisfaction with Self ^a	4.24	4.11	37	-.58	NS
Time Flexibility	3.68	2.91	48	-3.66	.001

^aRespondents include only those who were married and had children.

Responses to Items on Scales

In the previous section, comparison of job sharers and full-time employees' responses to scales measuring job satisfaction, family and employment roles, family and employment responsibilities, satisfaction with self, and time flexibility are presented. There are significant differences between job sharers and full-time employees on two of the scales. In order to present the items which comprise the scales and to provide a more specific picture of the similarities and differences between job sharers and full-time employees, the following discussion is included. Items on each scale are presented in bar graph format.

Job Satisfaction

Respondents are asked to indicate levels of satisfaction with various aspects of their jobs by scoring each item from one (very dissatisfied) to five (very satisfied) (see Table IX). Analysis of the scale as a measure of overall job satisfaction indicates that job sharers report levels of job satisfaction that are significantly higher than full-time employees. Further analysis finds a significant difference between job sharers and full-time employees on three scale items. Job sharers report significantly greater levels of satisfaction with number of hours worked, schedule of work hours, and duties of the job.

Family and Employment Roles

The Family and Employment Roles Scale is designed to assess respondents attitudes toward traditional and non-traditional roles regarding employment and family life (see Table XII). Respondents indicate the extent to which they agreed with the statements by scoring

TABLE XI
 JOB SATISFACTION: RESPONSES OF JOB SHARERS
 AND FULL-TIME EMPLOYEES

Item	Mean Value	Response				
		Very dissatisfied 1	Dissatisfied 2	Not sure 3	Satisfied 4	Very satisfied 5
The job in general	4.20 4.32	***** +++++				
Number of hours worked ^a	3.88 4.64	***** +++++				
Schedule of work hours ^a	4.00 4.76	***** +++++				
Duties of job ^a	3.80 4.48	***** +++++				
Co-workers	4.24 4.48	***** +++++				
Supervisor	3.92 4.32	***** +++++				
Equipment used	4.00 4.24	***** +++++				
Work environment	3.60 4.20	***** +++++				
Pay	2.72 2.64	***** +++++				
Opportunities for advancement	2.84 2.92	***** +++++				

Full-time employees are identified by *, n=25.

Job sharers are identified by +, n=25.

^aSignificant difference at .05 level.

TABLE XII

EMPLOYMENT AND FAMILY ROLES: RESPONSES
OF JOB SHARERS AND FULL-TIME EMPLOYEES

Item	Mean Value	Response
It is much better for everyone involved if the man earns the money and the woman takes care of the home and children. ^b	4.04 3.56	***** +++++
A mother who works outside the home can have just as good a relationship with her children as a mother who is not employed.	4.28 4.00	***** +++++
A father who works outside the home can have just as good a relationship with his children as a father who is not employed.	4.20 3.92	***** +++++
A husband who is not employed can have just as good a relationship with his wife as a husband who is employed.	2.84 2.16	***** +++++
A wife who is employed outside the home can have just as good a relationship with her husband as a wife who is not employed outside the home.	4.16 4.08	***** +++++

Full-time employees are identified by *, n=25.

Job sharers are identified by +, n=25.

^bScoring on this item was reversed to reflect the non-traditional attitudes.

items from one (strongly disagree) to five (strongly agree). Scoring on the first item of the scale is reversed to reflect the non-traditional attitude consistent with the other scale items. No significant differences between the perceptions of job sharers and full-time employees were found in analysis of the Family and Employment Roles Scale nor are there significant differences among the two groups in regard to specific items.

Family and Employment Responsibilities

The Family and Employment Responsibilities Scale deals with respondents' attitudes to such items as "my job keeps me away from my family too much," and "I feel physically drained when I get home from work" (See Table XIII). A scale from one (never) to five (always) is used to ascertain the extent to which job sharers and full-time employees experience each situation. Scoring on item three of the scale is reversed in order to make it consistent with the tone of the other items on the scale. Analysis of the scale finds no significant differences between job sharers and full-time employees; however, two of the items within the scale are statistically significant. Full-time employees report that "some of the time" they wish for more time to do things with family and they feel physically drained after getting home from work. Responses of job sharers on these items are significantly different from those of full-time employees.

Satisfaction With Self

Job sharers and full-time employees' satisfaction with self and the roles of parent (if applicable), spouse (if applicable), and worker were

TABLE XIII

EMPLOYMENT AND FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES: RESPONSES
OF JOB SHARERS AND FULL-TIME EMPLOYEES

Item	Mean Value	Response				
		Never	Rarely	Some of the time	Most of the time	Always
My job keeps me away from my family too much.	2.45 2.21	***** +++++		(n=22) (n=23)		
I feel I have more to do than I can handle comfortably.	2.36 2.44	***** +++++				
I have a good balance between my job and my family. ^b	2.23 1.96			(n=22) (n=24)	***** +++++	
I wish I had more time to do things with my family. ^a	3.24 2.52	***** +++++		(n=21) (n=23)		
I feel physically drained when I get home from work. ^a	3.20 2.56	***** +++++				
I feel emotionally drained with I get home from work.	2.80 2.32	***** +++++				
I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day.	3.04 2.80	***** +++++				
My time off from work does not match other family members' schedules well.	2.00 2.32	***** +++++		(n=19) (n=22)		
I feel I don't have enough time for myself.	2.76 2.40	***** +++++				

Full-time employees are identified by *, n=25 unless otherwise specified.

Job sharers are identified by +, n=25 unless otherwise specified.

^aSignificant difference at .05 level.

^bScoring on this item was reversed to be consistent with the tone of the other items.

TABLE XIV
 SATISFACTION WITH SELF: RESPONSES OF JOB SHARERS
 AND FULL-TIME EMPLOYEES

Item	Mean Value	Response				
		Very dissatisfied 1	Dissatisfied 2	Not sure 3	Satisfied 4	Very satisfied 5
Parent	3.94	***** (n=18)				
	4.25	+++++ (n=20)				
Spouse or Partner	4.00	***** (n=20)				
	4.25	+++++ (n=24)				
Worker	4.32	*****				
	4.32	+++++				
Person	4.12	*****				
	4.20	+++++				

Full-time employees are identified by *, n=25 unless otherwise specified.

Job sharers are identified by +, n=25 unless otherwise specified.

measured. Respondents indicated their level of satisfaction on a scale of one (very dissatisfied) to five (very satisfied). Analysis of the scale indicates no significant differences between job sharers and full-time employees' satisfaction with self. Nor are there significant differences among the two groups' responses to specific items.

Time Flexibility

Job sharers and full-time employees are asked to respond to items designed to measure time flexibility (see Table XV). Certain activities are scored by respondents according to the ease or difficulty with which they could be arranged. A scale of one (very difficult) to five (very easy) is used. Analysis of the Time Flexibility Scale shows that job sharers report levels of time flexibility that are significantly higher than full-time employees. All but three of the items on the Time Flexibility Scale indicate significantly higher levels of flexibility for job sharers. Those items in which no significant difference is found between the responses of job sharers and full-time employees are "to have meals with the family," "to avoid the rush hour," and "to go to health care appointments."

TABLE XV
 TIME FLEXIBILITY: RESPONSES OF JOB SHARERS
 AND FULL-TIME EMPLOYEES

Item	Mean Value	Response				
		Very difficult 1	Somewhat difficult 2	Neither difficult nor easy 3	Somewhat easy 4	Very easy 5
To go on errands (for example: shoe repair, post office, car serviced). ^a	2.56 3.60	***** +++++				
To go shopping (for example: groceries, clothes, drug store). ^a	2.76 3.68	***** +++++				
To make telephone calls for appointments or services. ^a	3.24 4.36	***** +++++				
To take care of household chores. ^a	2.40 3.36	***** +++++				
To help or visit the neighbors or friends. ^a	2.48 3.16	***** +++++				
To participate in community activities. ^a	2.28 3.08	***** +++++				
To adjust work hours to the needs of other family members. ^a	2.84 3.64	***** +++++				
To attend activities of family members (for example: teacher's conference, social event). ^a	3.00 3.84	***** +++++				
To have meals with family.	3.68 4.32	***** -----				
To spend fun or educational time with family. ^a	3.04 4.20	***** -----				
To avoid the rush hour.	2.92 3.56	***** +++++				
to go to work a little later than usual if need to. ^a	2.08 2.92	***** -----				
To go to health care appointments.	3.36 4.00	***** +++++				

Full-time employees are identified by *, n=25.

Job sharers are identified by +, n=25.

^aSignificant difference at .05 level.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study compares employee perceptions of job sharing and full-time employment and examines the effects of each type of schedule on the family life of employees. It is believed that through this study, it will be possible to: (1) assess the extent to which differences exist in employee benefit programs of job sharers and full-time employees; (2) compare the perceptions of job satisfaction of job sharers and full-time employees; (3) assess the perceptions of job sharers and full-time employees concerning attitudes toward employment and family roles; (4) compare the perceptions of job sharers and full-time employees concerning facilitation of employment and family responsibilities; and (5) compare the reported degree of time flexibility of job sharers and full-time employees.

Data have been obtained through use of a questionnaire administered to equal numbers of job sharers and full-time employees at the following survey sites: Oklahoma State University, Panhandle State University, and Wichita Public School System. All job sharers from each site are invited to participate in the study as well as an equal number of randomly selected full-time employees. Respondents represent both the clerical and professional (teachers) occupational levels. The total sample size is 50, including 25 job sharers and 25 full-time employees.

The questionnaire is designed to collect information on the following from job sharers and full-time employees: (1) background characteristics; (2) characteristics of employment; (3) employee benefit programs; (4) job satisfaction; (5) attitudes toward employment and family roles; (6) facilitation of employment and family responsibilities; and (7) time flexibility. The format of the questionnaire consists of interval and nominal levels of measurement including Likert scales, open-end questions, and yes-no questions.

All data are first analyzed by frequency distributions. This information is used in examining the background and employment characteristics of the respondents. Hypotheses are analyzed using Chi-square analysis, and the t-tests, with a significance level of .05.

Major Findings

Hypothesis one examines employee perceptions regarding employment benefits offered to job sharers and full-time employees and employee participation in benefit programs. Chi-square analysis of the hypothesis results in two significant findings. A significantly smaller percentage of job sharers are offered health insurance as an employment benefit than are full-time employees. Of those respondents who participate in the health insurance benefit, a significantly smaller percentage are job sharers as compared to a greater percentage of full-time employees.

The remainder of the hypothesis are analyzed using the t-test. Analysis indicates significant differences between job sharers and full-time employees on two of the scales: Job Satisfaction and Time Flexibility. No significant differences between job sharers and full-time

employees are found on the scales concerning Employment and Family Roles, Employment and Family Responsibilities, or Satisfaction with Self.

Items on the scales are individually analyzed in order to provide a more specific picture of the similarities and differences between job sharers and full-time employees. Analysis of items on the Job Satisfaction, Employment and Family Responsibilities, and Time Flexibility Scales finds significant differences between the responses of job sharers and full-time employees on certain items. Three of the items on the Job Satisfaction Scale are found to be statistically significant with job sharers reporting significantly greater levels of satisfaction with the number of hours worked, schedule of work hours, and duties of the job than did full-time employees. Two items on the Employment and Family Responsibilities Scale indicate significant differences between the responses of job sharers and full-time employees. The extent to which job sharers wish for more time to do things with family or feel physically drained after getting home from work is significantly less than for full-time employees. Analysis of items on the Time Flexibility Scale finds that job sharers report levels of flexibility on ten of the thirteen scale items that are significantly higher than full-time employees. Those items in which job sharers report significantly greater flexibility are: going on errands; going shopping; making telephone calls; taking care of household chores; visiting friends or neighbors; participating in community activities; adjusting work hours to the needs of other family members; attending activities of family members; spending fun or educational time with family; and going to work later than usual if necessary.

Conclusions

Dramatic increases in women's labor force participation have taken place in recent years with greater numbers of women than ever before accepting paid employment. Though women assume greater employment responsibilities, most are not relinquishing or diminishing household and child care responsibilities. These dual responsibilities contribute to many women experiencing difficulty in balancing home and family life with the demands of the work place. As a result, examination of issues concerning women's employment has become increasingly prevalent. Employers, unions, and government voice a growing concern for the quality of life of employees and have become aware of the need for greater flexibility in employment schedules to meet the needs of the increasing numbers of women joining the labor force. The quality of women's lives may indeed depend to a much greater extent on the opportunities which result from innovative employment schedules. Scheduling innovations such as job sharing are recommended as a means to help alleviate conflicts women experience between employment and family life.

To date, much of the research on job sharing and other flexible employment schedules deals with job-related issues, and has come from a managerial or administrative orientation. Data on productivity, management, costs, and benefits related to job sharing have been obtained. This is understandable in that organizations are not likely to make flexible employment opportunities available to employees unless they perceive benefits to the organization. However, implementation of non-traditional employment schedules is an indication of a growing organizational concern for the qualitative as well as quantitative aspects of employment (Miller, 1978). This study responds to a need for further

research on employee perceptions of traditional and nontraditional schedules as they relate to management of both family and employment responsibilities. Hopefully, conclusions of this study will provide insight into employee perceptions of job sharing as a means for balancing multiple roles.

Taken as a whole, job sharers favorable responses to the survey convey the perception that job sharing has been a positive and successful experience. Responses indicate that job sharers experience a high degree of job satisfaction and that many have achieved a sense of balance between employment and family life. The success of alternative employment schedules such as job sharing depend to a great extent on the policies set forth by employing organizations. Two of the most important policy considerations deal with availability of job sharing and benefits.

In the extensive search undertaken to identify a sample for this study, the researcher found that job sharing was currently practiced at two distinct levels of occupation--secretarial/clerical and professional. No job sharers were located in manufacturing jobs, such as operatives, or among craftsmen, or in other industrial employment. The occupational categories where job sharing is available are those in which women employees are concentrated. However, job sharing may be a desirable employment schedule for men as well as women. Many men may desire job sharing so that they can be more actively involved in child-bearing and/or household management. This may be especially true of married men in dual-earner families.

In the past, barriers to women's employment in occupations not traditionally considered "women's work" have existed. Among these barriers

are laws and/or policies restricting overtime hours and employment schedules. Lack of alternatives to the traditional eight-hour shift may have resulted in restrictions upon women's employment in manufacturing, crafts, and management positions.

Although the purpose of this study is not to develop an inventory of the types of occupations in which job sharing is available, the limited scope of occupations included in job sharing is apparent. Until job sharing is expanded to a broader range of occupations, its availability as means for balancing employment and family demands will be limited to a relatively small group of persons, most of whom are women.

Employment policies which cover benefits are also a major issue of job sharing. Job sharers, the majority of whom are women, are often denied major benefits. Depending on policies of the organization, job sharers may receive full benefits, prorated benefits, or be denied benefits entirely (Lazer, 1975; Meier, 1978). Not providing benefits to job sharers and other employees, while often viewed as an advantage of job sharing by employers, is inequitable for job sharers. However, a benefit package that is equitable for both the employer and employee can be constructed. Prorating benefits based on earnings or hours worked has been found to be the most equitable solution for many organizations (Lazer, 1975; Olmstead, 1977). Another alternative for extending benefit coverage to job sharers is a "cafeteria style" benefit package wherein employees select from a set of benefits those which are most needed or appropriate for their family situation. This approach is especially helpful to dual-earner families in which one spouse may already receive basic benefits, such as health insurance, that do not need to be duplicated by the other spouse. Cost sharing of benefits by

job sharers could potentially extend the range of benefits offered to job sharers.

A Supreme Court ruling reported by Pifer (1979, p. 19) states the issue clearly: "There is a need for the country to establish a coherent set of policies that reflect emerging realities and recognize the interdependence of employment and family life." Expectations regarding benefits are not the sole prerogative of employers; however, Polit (1979, p. 203) suggests that "part-time employees (mostly women) are perhaps too grateful for the 'opportunity' to find work which meets their personal needs to complain about discriminatory personnel policies." Enlightened self-interest which leads to greater assertiveness on the part of job sharers in requesting benefits may lead to expanded benefit coverage.

The job sharing employees in this study represent a variety of income levels, but the majority report that their income provides "less than half" or a "small part" of family income. For many respondents, income from their job sharing position may be considered as helpful to the family in making ends meet or in providing income for discretionary or luxury purchases. The flexibility of job sharing, rather than income, may be the primary advantage it holds.

For some persons, though they desire greater flexibility, job sharing is not an option simply because they can not afford to make less than full-time wages. Union leaders and proponents of alternative employment schedules voice strong objections to certain part-time arrangements because of inadequate compensation for employees. Some unions are of the opinion that the employing organizations reap the primary benefits of job sharing by hiring employees as cheaply as possible

regardless of the needs of the community (Polit, 1979). These and other aspects of job sharing related to salary will continue to require equitable policies and efficient administration on the part of employing organizations. The income dimension of job sharing as it applies to employees needs further consideration.

Surveys have shown that certain categories of employees, including married women with children, consistently report levels of job satisfaction which are considerably below average (Pifer, 1979). The dissatisfaction of this group is likely to stem from the conflicting demands of employment and family roles. The belief that this conflict might be reduced if more flexible employment schedules are available to ease the burden of handling multiple roles seems to be supported by this study. Job sharers report a higher degree of overall job satisfaction than do full-time employees. Specific items of significance include the number of hours worked, the schedule of work hours, and the duties of the job.

The findings of this study support those of other studies in which responses of job sharers convey "unmistakable enthusiasm and the perception that job sharing has been a positive and successful experience" (Meier, 1978, p. 57). Proponents of job sharing claim that it produces positive on-the-job effects such as higher morale, improved attitudes, and higher overall job satisfaction which may be attributable to two factors: (1) job sharers perceive the job sharing arrangement as an effort by employers to meet personal needs (Sadler and Platt, 1973); and (2) job sharers perceive that the arrangement does meet their personal needs (Olmstead, 1979; Frease and Zawacki, 1979). Job sharers' reports of greater time flexibility in carrying out family and personal responsibilities than are reported by full-time employees are indicators that in

this sample, job sharers' employment schedules help meet their personal needs.

Regarding the balance between employment and family responsibilities and satisfaction with self, job sharers and full-time employees are not significantly different. For example, full-time employees are as likely as job sharers to report a good balance between job and family and similar levels of satisfaction with themselves as spouses and parents. Only two items on the Family and Employment Responsibilities Scale discriminate between job sharers and full-time employees. These are the responses that full-time employees, on the average, wish they had more time to do things with their families and that they feel physically drained when they get home from work. Full-time employees in this sample may have fewer family responsibilities or their families may have adjusted to the full-time schedule through various mechanisms, hence, full-time employees did not report strain in balancing employment and family responsibilities differently than job sharers, except for the two items noted above. Job sharers may indeed have greater time flexibility than full-time employees, but full-time employees in this study report less strain in balancing jobs and families than previous research indicates.

Recommendations

This study of job sharers and full-time employees leads to the following recommendations:

1. Values of individuals and organizations which are defined and structured without regard to the family must be changed. The author agrees with Rapaport et al, (1976, p. 178), that "What is needed is a

more open-minded innovative approach to the problem of the structure of work." Pleck (1977, p. 425) proposes the "development of a new model of the work role and a new model for the boundary between work and the family which gives greater priority to family needs." Greater concern for the family impact of employment will lead to a humanization of the workplace and an enhanced quality of life.

2. More equitable employment policies regarding distribution of salary and benefits are needed in regard to job sharing schedules.

3. Insurance companies should be encouraged to develop benefit packages designed specifically for the job sharing or part-time employment schedule.

4. Professional associations and unions should examine their stance regarding job sharing and promote policies such as educational programs and contract negotiations which extend it across a wider range of occupations and industries.

5. Because job sharing has been found to increase job satisfaction, time flexibility, and to assist in balancing family and employment responsibilities, it should be made a more widely available option for those employees who desire such an arrangement regardless of sex, marital or parental status, age of employee, or occupation.

Because the scope and methods of this study are limited, further study will be necessary in order to more completely assess the extent to which the job sharing employment schedule assists individuals in managing family responsibilities. The author recommends that:

1. Other studies be designed and implemented that survey a larger sample of job sharers representing a wider variety of occupational levels and a larger population.

2. Other studies focus on the employers' perceptions of the job sharing arrangement and the extent to which job sharing assists employees in balancing employment and family responsibilities, affects their job satisfaction, and influences employee productivity.

3. A longitudinal study be conducted in which respondents are surveyed over time to determine long-term effects of job sharing.

4. Studies which examine participation in job sharing schedules as related to the need for family income be conducted.

5. Studies which examine the incentives and disincentives inherent in the job sharing schedule and their effects on women's participation in this non-traditional employment schedule be conducted. For example, does job sharing impede progress in career development? Would extending sick leave and paid vacations to job sharers make job sharing a more attractive employment opportunity?

It seems necessary that there be a fundamental reordering of values regarding employment, leading to greater choice for the individual and in turn, to improved quality of life for employees and their families. Schedules that permit increased flexibility for employees who desire them are needed in order to provide more opportunities than now exist for employees to balance employment and family life. Job sharing has been found to be a positive and successful experience for many employees. The author hopes that job sharing and other forms of flexible schedules will be offered by employers in order to meet the needs of the increasing number of employees who desire such arrangements.

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APPENDIX A
INTRODUCTORY LETTER

October 23, 1980

Name
Agency
Address

Dear

Job sharing is a relatively new alternative to traditional fulltime employment in which two employees share one paid position. Job sharing has been made available by business, institution, and agency employers in an effort to meet needs of a changing workforce and to improve performance on the job. Job sharing seems to be growing in popularity among both employers and employees. However, few systematic studies of the advantages and/or disadvantages of job sharing for employees and employers have been made.

The Family Study Center at Oklahoma State University is giving priority to research on the interrelationships between employment and family life. We are interested in 1) how experiences on the job effect an individual's family resources and relationships and 2) how the needs and problems of families impact on workers in their places of employment. Because job sharing has been identified as one way employees can accommodate the demands of family responsibilities and employment we are particularly interested in gathering information from employees who are currently job sharing. The data which we plan to collect will be reported to employers and personnel directors and to family life educators and counselors. As with all research sponsored by the University, confidentiality is assured.

We need your help in taking the next step in planning our study of job sharing. First, we need to identify places where job sharing is being practiced. Next, we would like to know if a representative of your firm would serve on an advisory committee to review aspects of this project as it is developed. Finally, we need to identify locations where a survey of employees can be conducted so that we can undertake the project. Would you please take a moment to complete the enclosed one-page questionnaire so that we will know which of the major employers in Oklahoma have job sharing? If another person in your firm is the more appropriate one to provide this information, kindly refer this letter to that person. The completed form may be returned in the enclosed return mail envelope.

We believe this will be an exciting project which will yield information helpful to employers and family life educators alike. In case you are not familiar with the Family Study Center, a brochure about the Center is enclosed. We look forward to receiving your response. Again, thank you.

Sincerely,

Sharon Y. Nickols, Ph.D.
Director, Family Study Center

Enclosures (2)

JOB SHARING
 PRELIMINARY SURVEY OF EMPLOYERS

(Please check the correct response.)

1. Does your firm or agency have persons employed in a job sharing arrangement? yes no
2. If yes, approximately how many employees does this involve? less than 25
 25-50
 over 50
3. What type of job sharing is the most general arrangement?
 both employees work half-time every work day
 employees alternate days worked
 employees alternate weeks worked
 (If another type of arrangement is used, please explain.)

4. Would your firm serve as a site for the Job Sharing Research Project so that a small group of employees can be surveyed? yes no
5. Would a representative of your firm serve on an advisory committee for the Job Sharing Research Project? yes no
6. If yes, please give the name, address, and phone number of this representative:

_____ Name
 _____ Address
 _____ Telephone

This information was provided by
 (please print or type)

_____ Name
 _____ Firm

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

Please return to the Family Study Center, Oklahoma State University in the envelope provided.

December 5, 1980

Name
Agency
Address

Dear

A questionnaire concerning job-sharing, a new alternative to traditional employment, and its incidence within your firm or agency was mailed to you on October 29, 1980. As one of the major employers in Oklahoma, your firm was selected to receive the initial questionnaire. However, we have not received your response.

If you have already completed and returned the questionnaire to us, please accept our sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. Because job-sharing is a new employment innovation, it is extremely important that we receive your input. If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or it has been misplaced, please call Paula Waters, Research Assistant, at (405)624-6696 and we will promptly send another copy.

Sincerely,

Sharon Y. Nickols, Ph.D.
Director
Family Study Center

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

PART I -- BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The following questions are intended to give us some general information about the person who answers this survey.

To answer the following questions, please check (X) on the line to the side of the appropriate answer and/or fill in the information requested.

1. What is your sex?

_____ male

_____ female

2. Please list ages of children currently living with you.
(Use a separate blank for each child.)

1. _____ 4. _____ 7. _____

2. _____ 5. _____ 8. _____

3. _____ 6. _____ 9. _____

3. Please list the ages of adult dependents (not including your husband or wife) living with you. (Use a separate blank for each adult.)

1. _____ 3. _____

2. _____ 4. _____

4. What is your ethnic background? (Check one)

_____ white

_____ black

_____ Asian American

_____ Spanish Descent

_____ American Indian

_____ Other (write in) _____

5. What is your marital status? (Check one)

_____ single, never married _____ divorced

_____ married, first marriage _____ separated

_____ remarried _____ widowed

6. What is the month and year of your birth?
 _____ Month _____ Year
7. What is the highest level of education that you completed?
 (Check one)
- _____ Not a high school graduate
- _____ High school graduate
- _____ Vocational/technical program
- _____ Some college, did not graduate
- _____ Junior college--Associate Degree
- _____ College degree, B.S., B. A.
- _____ Advanced degree or degrees, please list:

PART II -- EMPLOYMENT INFORMATION

Questions in this part are intended to provide information on employment. Please check on the line to the side of the appropriate answer and/or fill in the information requested.

8. What is your job title? _____
9. How long have you been with this firm?
 _____ years _____ months
11. How many hours per week do you work in your present position with this firm?
 _____ hours per week
12. What type position do you have with this firm? (Check one)
- _____ a full-time position held only by you
- _____ a full-time position split with one other person
- _____ a full-time position split with two or more persons
- _____ a part-time position held only by you

19. What are your approximate monthly take-home earnings from your present position?

\$ _____

20. How important is the income from your job to your family?
(Check one)

_____ Provides all of the income for the family.

_____ Provides most of the income for the family.

_____ Provides about half of the income for the family.

_____ Provides less than half of the income for the family.

_____ Provides a small part of the income for the family.

21. For each type of benefit listed below, please check in the left column if it is offered by your employer. In the right column, please check if you participate in the benefit program.

Offered

Participate in

_____ health insurance

_____ vacation with pay

_____ sick leave

_____ personal leave, in
addition to sick
leave

_____ paid holidays

_____ pension plan

_____ discount on purchases

_____ dental insurance

_____ credit union

_____ profit sharing

_____ educational assistance

_____ child care services

_____ life insurance

VITA

Paula Nadine Waters

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF JOB SHARING AND FULL-TIME EMPLOYEES:
JOB SATISFACTIONS AND MANAGEMENT OF FAMILY ROLES

Major Field: Housing, Design, and Consumer Resources

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Watonga, Oklahoma, June 20, 1958, the
daughter of Curtis L. and Nettie A. Plummer.

Education: Graduated from Watonga High School, Watonga, Oklahoma,
in May, 1976; received Bachelor of Science in Home Economics
degree from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma,
in May, 1980; completed the requirements for the Master of
Science degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 1982.

Professional Experience: Research Assistant, Family Study Center,
College of Home Economics, Oklahoma State University, 1980-
1981; Home Economics Career/Placement Counselor, Oklahoma
State University, 1981 to present.